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**DEVELOPING
ENGLISH COMMUNICATIVE SKILLS**

**A REASSESSMENT OF THE ROLE OF UNIVERSITY
DEPARTMENTS OF ENGLISH IN MEETING THE NEEDS OF
ENGLISH SECOND LANGUAGE STUDENTS**

by

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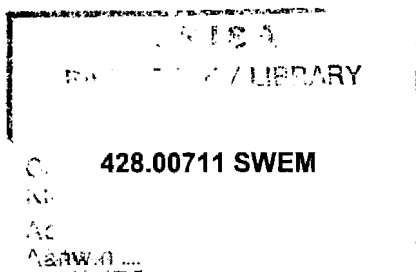
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SUMMARY

Prompted by increasing demand in South Africa for the development of a focused but flexible English Second Language (ESL) curriculum at university level, this thesis contends that substantial theoretical under-pinning is needed for decisions on ESL course materials. Once the theoretical constructs are determined, a model based on a systematic approach to course design is proposed. It maximizes the individualization of experiential learning, despite the large numbers of students who take these courses, through a multi-form course structure offering four streams of study at three levels of difficulty. Entry is possible at the start of the year and at mid-year.

The empirical research which forms the basis of the study is an analysis of the 1985 student group at the University of South Africa (UNISA). Several methods are used, including post-course questionnaires, diagnostic assignments and a detailed language and stylistic error count linked with a clause analysis of a sample of assignments and examination scripts.

The model curriculum meets the contextually basic science requirements of a university course, within the parameters of response needed in regard to the ESL student profile determined by the needs and role analysis completed in Chapter 2. Model aims and terminal learning objectives are presented in Chapter 3 as the foundation on which the rest of the thesis is constructed, and include comprehension, applied composition, oral and aural skills, use of reference works, methods of thinking, and occupationally relevant specialist language.

In Chapters 4 and 5, in-depth analyses of appropriate course content and methods emphasize the use of Afrocentric English literature in contemporary settings with appropriate readability levels, language in use in specified contexts, development of vocabulary, remedying incorrect usage, comprehension skills, composition skills, development of cognitive processes, oral and listening skills, and the purpose and place of grammar. The final chapters outline approaches to criterion-referenced assessment and evaluation, and suggest appropriate set works and criteria for their selection. The course materials aim at improving English communicative performance.

The underlying principles used in developing this course design and its associated materials can be valuably extrapolated and applied at universities and other tertiary institutions.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The ideas explored in this thesis are a response to the needs of the many ESL students whom I tutored over a decade. The contents are the outcome of the inspiration and dedication of those colleagues who feel as I do that much more needs to be done for these students.

I wish to record my gratefulness to Professor K Tober and the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, for the Staff Educational Assistance Award granted to me over four years. This contribution to the registration fees is greatly appreciated. The support of Professor J P F Sellschop in making it possible for me to take three months of sabbatical leave in 1991 was a significant factor in bringing this research project to fruition.

Thanks are also due to the librarians of both the British Library in London and the Education and Commerce Library of the University of the Witwatersrand, but especially to Mr D Malan of the UNISA Library for his willing assistance and enthusiasm.

My gratitude is, however, in greatest measure due to David Adey for his wise counsel, meticulous attention to detail and diligent guidance in the preparation of this thesis. I am grateful, too, to Charles Muller and Barrie Goedhals for their interest and comments at various stages of this study.

Above all, the interest and support of my family throughout the period of my reading is particularly valued.

Such laboured nothings, in so strange a style,
Amaze th' unlearn'd, and make the learned smile.

Alexander Pope: *An Essay on Criticism*

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INTRODUCTION

In South Africa, the use of two official languages has led to an evolution of the role of departments of English at universities. Their role has moved from a nineteenth-century focus on literature to a newer model, which sets out to cater for the specific needs of students who use English as their second or third language. This evolution has been caused by the need for English Second Language (ESL) students to obtain post-matriculation qualifications in the official languages. However, literature has often tended to enjoy a disproportionate emphasis in English courses, a fact which does not take cognizance of the large number of ESL students whose needs are essentially communicative rather than literary. The problem has become magnified as increasing numbers of black students commence their tertiary studies as the products of inadequate primary and secondary schooling.

There has been on-going attention by provincial and other departments of education, the Human Sciences Research Council, the English Academy of Southern Africa's conferences and numerous individuals to the development of more systematic approaches to the teaching of English as a second language, especially at primary and secondary level. However, at a tertiary level there has been less attention devoted to the development of a systematic approach to ESL courses. Developments have generally been adaptations made to course materials, particularly in response to the academic support needs of students from educationally disadvantaged backgrounds. These changes have partially redressed the balance, but several ESL courses offered by universities can still legitimately be regarded as "watered down" first-year literature courses.

It is my contention that substantial theoretical underpinning is necessary as the basis for informing decisions relating to university-level ESL course materials. Once the theoretical constructs have been determined, there follows a need for substantial revision and rearrangement of course contents. I therefore propose a model for the development of such courses. The approach that I adopt is one that maximizes the individualization of experiential learning despite the traditionally large numbers of students who elect to do these courses. The choice of proposed course materials will be determined by the intention of meeting the needs of ESL students, and by ensuring the relevance of the course contents selected.

The emphasis of the proposed systematic approach to the design of the course will lie in determining the means by which English communicative performance may be improved. This thesis is not aimed at developing ESL bridging materials; it concentrates rather upon a full-credit university course for ESL students.

The basis for the study is an analysis of the 1985 student-group at the University of South Africa and the context in which they operated. A combination of methods is used in the process of this analysis, including the application of post-course questionnaires. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), which was the only available statistical software on the UNISA Burroughs Main Frame Computer, was applied to the data obtained from a post-course questionnaire. The decision to use SPSS was implemented too late in 1983 to capitalize on the advantages of using the software, as the responses obtained to the post-course questionnaire - after the final examinations had been written - were not representative. However, the 1982 post-course questionnaire data were suitable for computer analysis in the manner envisaged. These were consequently converted into computer punch-card format and assessed using the SPSS facility. Other forms

of evaluation, including the development of a diagnostic assignment and the application of a detailed language and stylistic error count linked with a clause analysis of a sample of examination scripts, were also applied. These forms of analysis all contributed to the recommendations contained in this thesis and are explored fully in the course of the discussion which follows. The trends evident in 1985, and the underlying principles used in developing a relevant course design and associated materials for that group, can be valuably extrapolated and applied both at the University of South Africa and in other institutional contexts.

CHAPTER 1

SYSTEMATIC APPROACH TO COURSE DESIGN

The development of effective English communicative skills at tertiary level has in recent years been the focus of attention in countries concerned about the creation of equal educational opportunities for all. In South Africa the problem has acquired greater significance since 1983 as increasing numbers of "disadvantaged"¹ students enter tertiary institutions, which were previously not readily open to them because of government imposed restrictions. Complicating the issue is the fact that the extent of the inadequacies of primary and secondary schooling for black South Africans has only recently been fully recognized, although universities have for some time grappled with this problem in a different guise; namely, the consequence of having two official languages. This problem was resolved by offering first-year courses at two levels in the language which was not the medium of instruction at the university in question. In the mid-nineteen-eighties, at the English-medium University of the Witwatersrand for example, a student may have done *Afrikaans* instead of *Afrikaans en Nederlands*, with only the latter permitting a student to continue into the second-year course (See: Appendix A - Excerpts from University Calendars). At the Afrikaans-medium University of Pretoria, students may have completed a practical course, English 102, instead of the ordinary course, English 101 (See Appendix A). At the University of South Africa the Practical English and *Praktiese Afrikaans* courses offered alternatives to English I and *Afrikaans en Nederlands I*. These courses reflect the way in which English departments particularly have been compelled to adopt a uniform model catering specifically for ESL students.

The model, whereby first-year English was offered at two levels, was evolved initially to accommodate Afrikaans-speaking students. However, this evolutionary process has been put under growing pressure by the rapid increase in the number of students registering at universities. The growth in demand is nowhere more evident than at the University of South Africa. The following table reveals the aspirations and needs of ESL students other than white South Africans:

**UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA:
STUDENT NUMBERS AND COMPOSITION²**

Year	White	%	Coloured	%	Black	%	Asian	%	Total
1955	3 948	71	195	3	1 014	18	429	8	5 586
1970	17 870	82	582	3	2 420	11	1 014	5	21 886
1985	49 581	59	4 156	5	20 941	25	9 632	11	84 040

The crucial element, here, is the burgeoning number of black South Africans involved in tertiary education, for the majority of whom English is a second or third language. For these students, the need to develop their communicative skills in English, which is usually their choice of medium for study, takes on nuances and significance distinctly different from that of Afrikaans-speaking students. The need to improve English communicative skills results in questions regarding the extent to which literature forms a component in ESL course. The fact that literature has often enjoyed a disproportionate emphasis in many ESL courses reflects a tendency to ignore the communicative needs of students. As was stressed in the Introduction, such courses have legitimately been termed "watered-down" first-year literature courses.

Consequently, substantial revision, if not redesign, of contents and methodology for university-level ESL Courses

has become necessary. In this thesis, a framework for developing a model for such courses will be illustrated by using a systematic approach to course design.

*The Compact Edition of the Oxford English Dictionary*³ defines a "system" as "an organized or connected group of objects; a set or assemblage of things connected, associated, or interdependent, so as to form a complex unity; a whole composed of parts in orderly arrangement according to some scheme or plan; rarely applied to a simple or small assemblage of things". While this definition is accurate it needs to be refined when it is used in the context of course design.

Tyler (1949) probably first defined an approach based on the definition of objectives, implementation and evaluation of the procedures adopted. Twenty years later, Banathy (1968: pp 2-7), in his work *Instructional Systems*, points out that systems with which an educationalist would be concerned have three main aspects: purpose, process and content. His approach has been supported by other curriculum designers in subsequent years. Hayman (1974: pp 493-501), Zais (1976), Nicholls and Nicholls (1978: p 22), and later Gagné and Briggs (1979) endorsed the concept of a model in which each step informs the next in the design process, while Percy (1990: pp 310-311) indicates that a feature of even informal education is that it is nevertheless systematic. Piaget too sought to systematize the way in which individuals grew to know their environment. His concern was with the ways of knowing and of development. By contrast, Marton and Säljö (1976: p 5) sought to interpret learning not as a process, but in terms of how content has been assimilated; their statement reflects this difference: "It is impossible to measure with any presently known gauge the full output and eventual impact of an educational system." Nevertheless, when Marton's levels are juxtaposed with Piaget's generalized stages, there are decided similarities. In both cases the

focus, however, is on cognition. Biggs (1980: p 105) argues that the concern should not be with the "quality of a student ... but about a quality of the learning obtained on this particular occasion." In Banathy's (1968: pp 4-6) view,

... purpose gives direction to the whole system. It determines the processes that have to be generated in order to accomplish the purpose. The nature of the processes will suggest the kind of components that are to be employed and will make up the content of the system.

In addition, Banathy (1968: pp 10-12) stresses that efficacy depends upon a process of continuous assessment of output with a mechanism designed to permit feedback and a consequential system-adjustment.

The essence of this process of assessment is the relevance of the model to the environment in which it is to be used. However, the system also has limitations imposed upon it by the environment in which it is situated: that environment will make available limited resources to it and a major concern must be the effective utilization of those available resources. A crucial factor is that the system must be flexible enough to react to changes in the requirements and purposes of the environment in which it operates.

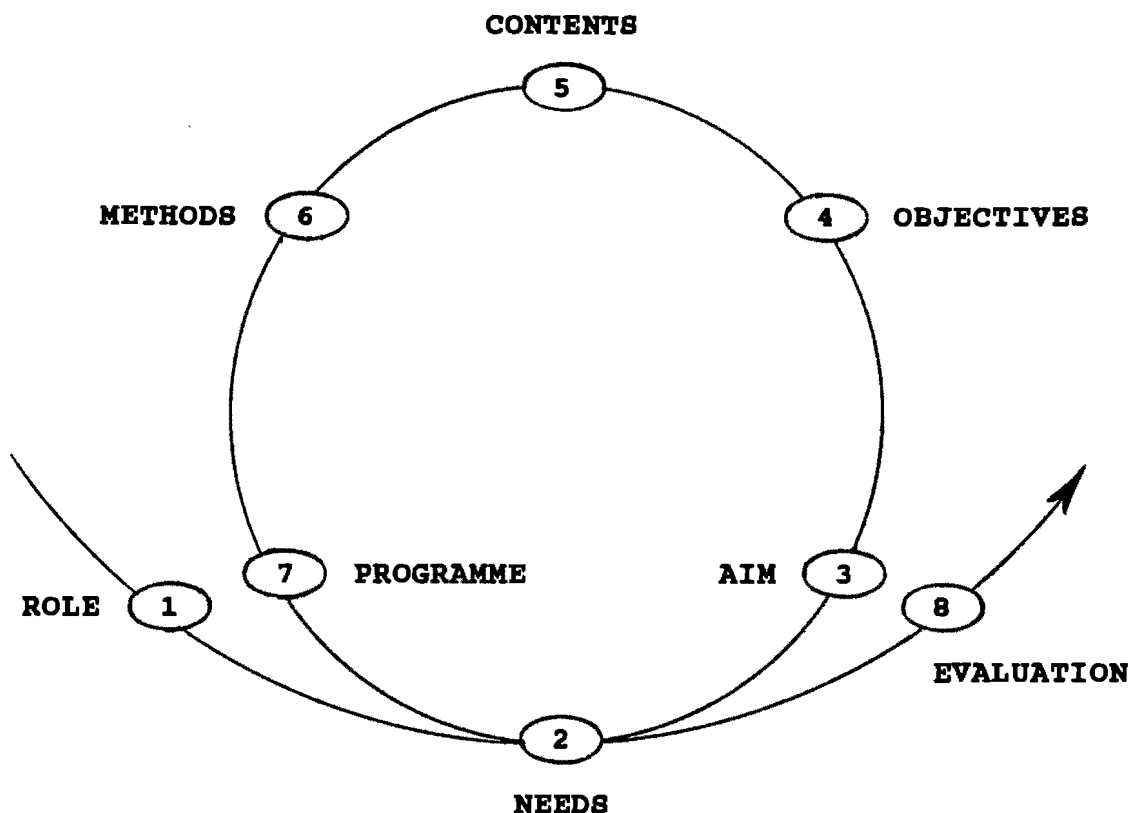
Stress has already been laid upon the fact that the courses offered by English departments at universities have had to accommodate the special needs of speakers of English as a second language. However, as increasing numbers of students from disadvantaged backgrounds gain admission to universities the environment, within which a specific course is offered, inevitably alters: at the University of South Africa, for example, this led to the development of the Practical English Syllabus B Course. It is my

contention that the design of such courses will benefit from a properly systematic approach, which necessarily includes the implementation of evaluative mechanisms to provide feedback into the system, in order that its products are able to meet the requirements and perform as needed in their environment. In addition, the economy of the system, or its pragmatic use of human and material resources, is another criterion by which its effectiveness is assessed.

A systematic approach to course design is one which depends on the development of a schematic configuration which allows for the delineation of the course's aims and the selection of the methods most suited to achieving those aims. In determining which methods will be adopted and how each component of the course will be presented, a major consideration has to be the sequential arrangement of the course material and the applicable methods selected. Finally, such an approach requires a continuous process of evaluation with an immanent mechanism incorporated into the procedural framework in order to facilitate changes which will enhance terminal, or final, performance and improve economy. In electing to use a systematic approach to course design, I have taken cognizance of the often observed tendency to resist change: "what is familiar often comes to appear as both inevitable and good; what is unfamiliar often seems alien or evil" (MacIver & Page 1974: p 145).

Numerous models for course design have been postulated in recent years. The outcome has been the development of courses designated under headings such as Grammatical (with the traditional approach now largely rejected), Situational (Wilkins: 1983), Notional (Wilkins: 1976), Purely Functional (Yalden: 1983), Structural (Brumfit: 1982), Multi-dimensional (Johnson: 1982, p 56), Methodological (Breen: 1983), Synthetic or Analytic (Tongue & Gibbons: 1982, pp 60-69). The model which I shall propose is the

Systematic Approach to Course Design and may be depicted diagrammatically as follows:



It is a model applicable to any course regardless of intention, content or methodology. Furthermore, it is intended as a model for course design rather than a model which evolves out of a particular linguistic theory. The selection of this model is based on an acceptance of the need to individualize instruction, an approach which has increasingly enjoyed credence among teachers of foreign languages and, more pertinently, those offering second language courses for adults.

The choice of this model is particularly apt in that it enables those who design course material to satisfy most, if not all of the requirements of adult education. While the concept of adult education is not new, that of a specific system of education for adults is relatively recent. For centuries, the approaches used in institutions - such as universities - concerned with the education of adults were based on the premise that students had not yet moved beyond childhood and were resultantly little more

than empty receptacles which would receive the knowledge poured into them by the teacher. This conception still prevails to some extent, but a vast shift in thinking has occurred, stimulated in part by the works of several researchers, including Paulo Freire, Ivan Illich, Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow. While each approaches the challenge of adult education from a different perspective, certain elements of their theories and findings are common to all.

Their first concern is to stress the specific character of the adult and to call for recognition of the fact that adults do not approach learning experiences in the same way as children do. In her work *Adults Learning*, Jennifer Rogers (1971: pp 51-73) delineates the factors which have a bearing on how adults learn: they tend to dislike memorization, preferring the application of skills; they learn best through constant practice; they need to work at their own pace; the material used to shape and create each learning activity must be relevant and, if possible, based on their own experiences; they tend at times to resent criticism or correction (the finding of the correct solutions or constructions should thus be reinforced by practice); and they need help in learning to learn so that they are able to move beyond the plateau which usually follows rapid early progress.

What characterizes the adult, in addition to independence and acceptance of responsibilities, is the experience gained and the ability to use this experience as a basis for new discoveries and new learning. The adult's sense of reality and the faculty to adapt to reality enable the adult learners to resolve problems which confront them. When strongly motivated, the adult is capable of sustained effort and is generally able to relate issues and develop a synthesis. There are, of course, negative factors which counter-balance such positive characteristics. These include experiences at school which may, in particular,

have a debilitating impact: frustrations such as those emanating from situations of teacher domination, in which any possibility of questioning or expressing values which differed from those of the teacher was excluded, may have a lasting impact. There is also a tendency among adults to resist new ideas or concepts, which hinders their openness to learning, while adult learning may also be inhibited by perceived physical, intellectual or social differences. In South Africa this factor is compounded by the recognized reality of inequalities in the forms of educational opportunities. Of course not everyone responds in the same way but, even when the tensions and frustrations appear to have been surmounted, traces of the consequences of inequality may nevertheless survive and inhibit learning activities.

The adult has lost the rich features of childhood; namely, natural curiosity and the belief that there is no limitation to what can be achieved. Instead, the adult has already searched, wondered, observed, listened and experimented. Individuals know and recognize their limitations. In developing any course for adults, therefore, these findings of psycho-social research (presented here, perhaps, in an over-simplified form) must be taken into account if the course envisaged is to have any chance of success.

The second feature of recent research is the view that the individual is the focal point of any course design. For this to be applied, the teacher needs to develop an understanding of three aspects: the subject to be taught; those who will be taught; and the varying levels of achievement already attained by each of the learners in the process of learning. The aim must be to help individuals learn for themselves; that is, the teacher must aim at becoming a "facilitator" of learning.

The first effect of the above is that course design needs to take cognizance of the characteristics and needs of those for whom the course is conceived. One of the tasks is thus to define and clarify for students the precise parameters of their objectives, and to develop an approach which takes into account the divergent levels previously attained in knowledge, skills and attitudes. Such factors are of central concern to the course designer: to repeat what is already known or perceived serves no purpose other than to reduce interest in the process of learning. By contrast, to present the individual with demands beyond the scope of existing personal abilities and knowledge might lead to frustration. In essence, a course which does not provide for the requisite individualization of learning opportunities will possibly enjoy only limited success.

The individualization of learning activities does not necessarily signify that curriculum design hinges solely on interaction with students. A systematic approach to course design provides the solution. By approaching course design systematically it is possible to devise an approach which will satisfy the needs, objectives and roles of individuals, thus creating opportunities for experiential learning. Experiential learning in its turn will then provide adult students with evidence of a distinct link between the educational process that is offered to them and the concrete and immediate improvement in performances which it is hoped will ensue.

For such an approach to course design to be effective, certain traditional assumptions (such as the "infallibility" of the lecturer, or a didactic model which retains the lecturer as the chief protagonist in the educational process) need to be resisted. This is particularly so in the individualized distance-learning context which by definition requires a course to provide students with flexible points of entry to the curriculum. At the same time it should also offer learning

opportunities which allow for the multifarious levels of knowledge, skills and attitudes derived from divergent educational experiences, as well as from different socio-cultural backgrounds. The series of learning experiences which constitute the course should therefore facilitate a positive and durable escalation in the knowledge, skills and attitudes of every participating student. Such prerequisites are dependent on a bias of the learning experience towards the needs of each individual.

There are several developmental steps in any model based on the Systematic Approach to Course Design:

- STEP 1 : Role Analysis
- STEP 2 : Identification of Needs
- STEP 3 : Definition of Aims
- STEP 4 : Objectives
- STEP 5 : Definition of Contents
- STEP 6 : Selection of Methods
- STEP 7 : Programme
- STEP 8 : Reassessment of Needs
- STEP 9 : Evaluation

The first step is that of a detailed ROLE ANALYSIS, as there is a close relationship between the learning experience and the roles of students. This relationship determines to a great extent the success (or otherwise) of a course for adult learners. The course designer needs, here, to pose and answer the question:

What must this course prepare each student to be able to do?

The answer to this question is not easily arrived at, as the course designer is able to establish with accuracy only the general requirements of a particular role; the other elements of each individual's role depend on the skills and abilities of each person. Furthermore, a number of variables need to be identified and accommodated during this first phase of course development.

The second step is the IDENTIFICATION OF NEEDS. From the role analysis, the skills, knowledge and attitudes required to fulfil the role can be listed: the precise levels of competence and knowledge can, however, be established only once the learning process has commenced.

The DEFINITION OF AIMS is the third step in designing the course. There is sometimes confusion about the meaning of the term "aim": in this context an aim is perceived to be a general or broad statement of intent which is expressed in a form reflecting the view of the lecturer. In other words it is a global expression of what the lecturer hopes to achieve by offering the course.

The fourth step comprises the formulation of OBJECTIVES. An objective is a precise, measurable statement of what the learner is expected to be able to know, do or feel by the end of the learning experience. In other words, an objective is an exact definition of the expected change or advance which will occur in the knowledge, skills and attitudes of the learner as a result of completing the course. Objectives can often be categorized in the context of the three areas of learning: cognitive objectives which are related to the area of knowledge; psycho-motor objectives or those concerned with the acquisition and refinement of skills; and affective objectives which are related to the development or realignment of attitudes.

Next, the course designer is concerned with a DEFINITION OF CONTENTS. A list of all the items which are to be included in the course syllabus is drawn up. The parameters of the list are determined by the stated aims and consequential objectives. This step permits flexibility as part of it might be determined by the participants in the course. However, in the context of an ESL course such a flexible approach to the course content is probably impractical, given the numerous constraints which impact on the

structure of the course, and the related issue of available time.

The next step is the final preparatory consideration and is that which is concerned with the SELECTION OF METHODS. The lecturer considers each item of the possible content of the course in the light of the stated objectives for each of them. Often more than one method or a combination of methods will need to be selected if an objective is to be achieved.

Step seven is taken when the PROGRAMME for the course is devised. Once a clear idea has been obtained of what is to be achieved and what methods will be used to realize the objectives, the course designer will consider the resources available and the sequential development of the learning experience. The programme is affected by available time, equipment, expertise, finance and facilities. The availability of resources (or their unavailability) may necessitate modifications to the design contemplated: however, modifications which are instituted after a design process based on the needs of the participants has been followed are preferable to an initial, controlling consideration of resources and the design of a course within the confines of these limitations.

The penultimate step in the development and design of a course is the reassessment of the NEEDS of the students after the programme has been implemented. The needs which become evident at the end of the course will reflect the degree to which the course has achieved its objectives and reflect upon the success of the course design and selected methodology.

The final step is that of EVALUATION. In a sense, this step and a reappraisal of the needs of each student overlap. Evaluation is in itself an on-going process coinciding with the implementation of each phase of the

course and culminating in a final reconsideration of every facet of the findings. Banathy declares that before any system is implemented it ought to be subjected to two "preinstallation strategies - system training and system testing" (Banathy: 1976, p 78). A dry run of the systems will reveal deficiencies which can be corrected by system training - learning how to implement or use the system - or adjustment. Simultaneously, system testing occurs: this is a "thinking-through process" best conducted by someone other than the designer. Inevitably, however, the only effective way to test any course is by implementation in reality or in a simulated environment. As an outcome of the implementation and evaluation of the course, requisite changes to the course will become evident and require accommodation. In order to effect these changes, the Systematic Approach to Course Design is instituted again and the continuous process implicit in the schematic design of the model becomes evident.

In propagating the application of this model in the context of ESL course design at universities, I am conscious of its applicability for curriculum planners in all branches of learning. I am also conscious of the peculiar stigma sometimes attached to those who concern themselves with the development of more effective ESL courses.⁴ This notwithstanding, there is an increasing demand by students for effective ESL learning experiences. Accordingly, the present study will explore the validity of the model in designing an ESL course.

A second major consideration was the decision not to broaden the scope of this study to include a close analysis of the approaches adopted by all university departments of English in South Africa. It was decided to concentrate research in the area of greatest need: in terms of sheer numbers registered for ESL courses, the University of South Africa (UNISA) accommodates more black South Africans within existing structures and courses than any other South

African university. Given present socio-economic realities, UNISA remains an attractive option to large numbers of students. In addition, demographic projections indicate that burgeoning numbers of ESL speakers will enter universities. I have, therefore, focused specifically on the development of an ESL course at a distance teaching institution. It should be noted, however, that limitations on content, restrictions of resources, and the narrowing down of possibilities in terms of methodology (which unavoidably govern the development of this proposed model) do not necessarily apply in other universities. There is, though, much which remains of general relevance.

In keeping with the dynamics of ESL course development in a South African context, there are numerous factors which complicate the task of developing effective English communicative skills. Hopefully the present areas of concern will shift once primary and secondary ESL teaching become more effective. Until this happens, ESL courses at universities - including UNISA - will be obliged (at least for a few more years) to accommodate students who have obtained admission on the basis of eighteen different matriculation examinations, as well as students granted conditional entry to university study. The inequalities inherent in the diversity of education departments are clearly evident in the disparities which exist in the qualifications of teachers at schools, as reflected in the 1989 SANEP Data contained in the table overleaf.

Given these differences, and the high probability that for the majority of ESL students at UNISA their English teachers at school were themselves not English, home-language speakers, the task of developing English communicative skills is complicated by reinforced and incorrect language habits.

QUALIFICATIONS OF FULL-TIME EQUIVALENT TEACHERS

Source: SANEP DATA 1989
Table 3.3

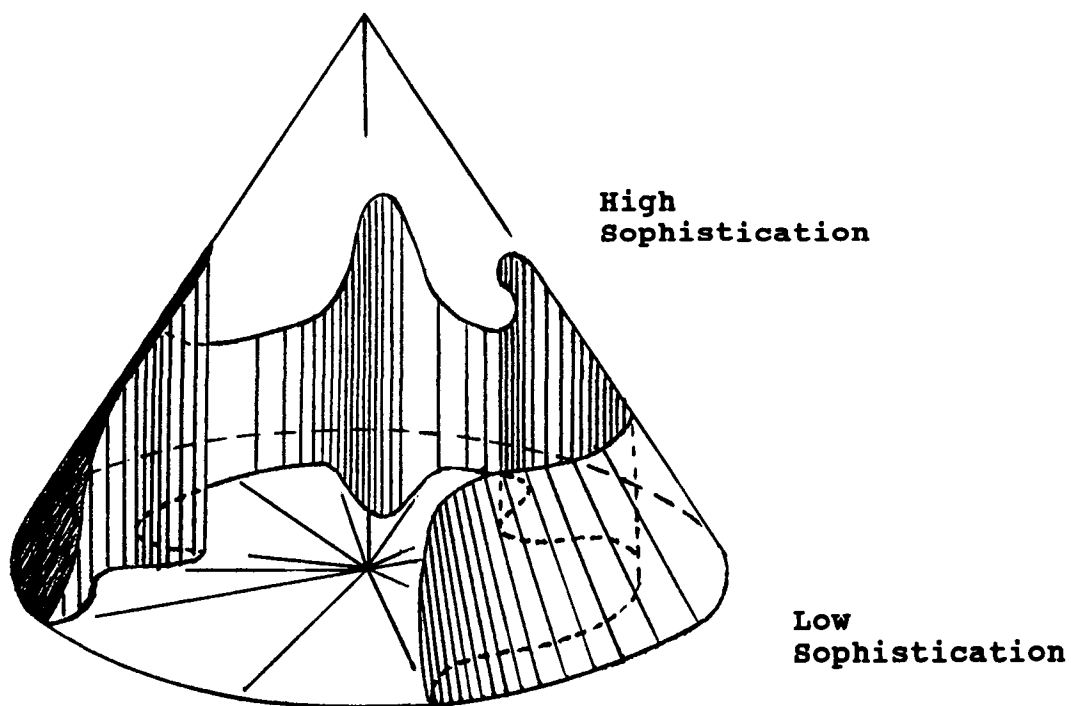
QUALIFICATIONS	TOTAL	WHITES		COLOUREDS		INDIANS		BLACKS	
		Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
With teaching certificate: (1)									
Std 10 + 7 years	710	634	1.1	17	0.0	42	0.3	17	0.0
Std 10 + 6 years	4917	3322	5.6	357	1.0	1120	9.3	118	0.1
Std 10 + 5 years	13422	9001	15.1	1279	3.7	1755	14.6	1387	1.2
Std 10 + 4 years	48322	34204	57.5	5162	14.9	3503	29.1	5453	4.5
Std 10 + 3 years	61108	11142	18.7	12637	36.4	5234	43.5	32095	26.7
Std 10 + 2 years	17822	981	1.6	4138	11.9	53	0.4	12650	10.5
Std 10 + 1 year	37102	228	0.4	5223	15.1	119	1.0	31532	26.2
Std 8/9 + 2/3 years	31584	0	0.0	5246	15.1	200	1.7	26138	21.7
Std 6/7 + 2/3 years	11559	22	0.0	645	1.9	7	0.1	10885	9.1
SUB-TOTAL	226546	59534	100	34704	100	12033	100	120275	100
Without teaching certificate: (1)									
Std 10 only	5917	1	25	112	38.4	32	76.2	5772	42.8
Less than Std 10	7909	3	75	180	61.6	10	23.8	7716	57.2
SUB-TOTAL	13826	4	100	292	100	42	100	13488	100
% without teaching certificate: (1)	5.62	0.01 %		0.83 %		0.34 %		10.03 %	
Uncategorized	5732	4575		245		200		712	
TOTAL	246104	64113		35241		12275		134475	

NOTES: (1) Additional years are based on apposite training only.

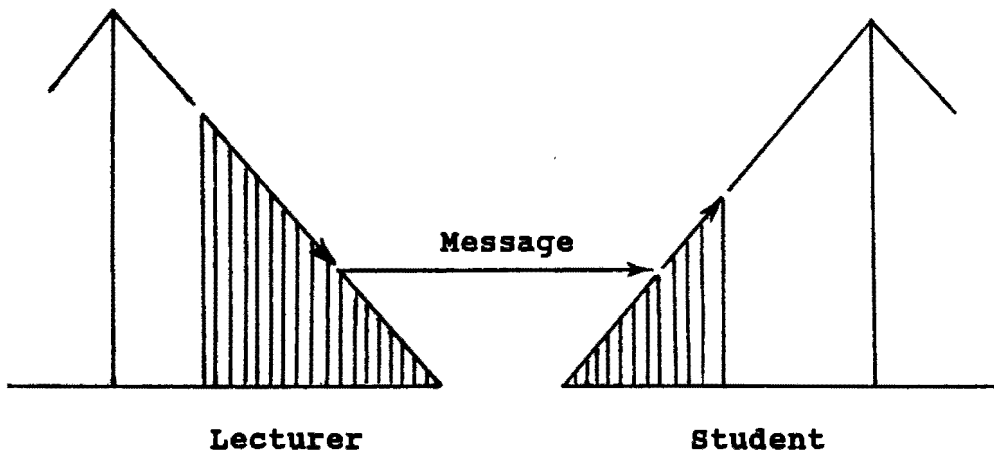
The process of developing English skills of communication is also affected by what may be termed socio-cultural constraints (Brasseur 1976: p 12). No matter what degree of expertise individuals enjoy, their cultural environments will very often influence attitudes and perceptions. A student from a township home in which there are no books frequently has not enjoyed the same exposure to concepts that students from homes where there are numerous books

are likely to have experienced. Too often it is assumed that students understand both the concepts and the terminology or language that is being used. The fact is that in ESL teaching at tertiary level students usually use English as a second (or even third or fourth) language, with the attendant danger of their misunderstanding concepts or terminology immanent to the target language.

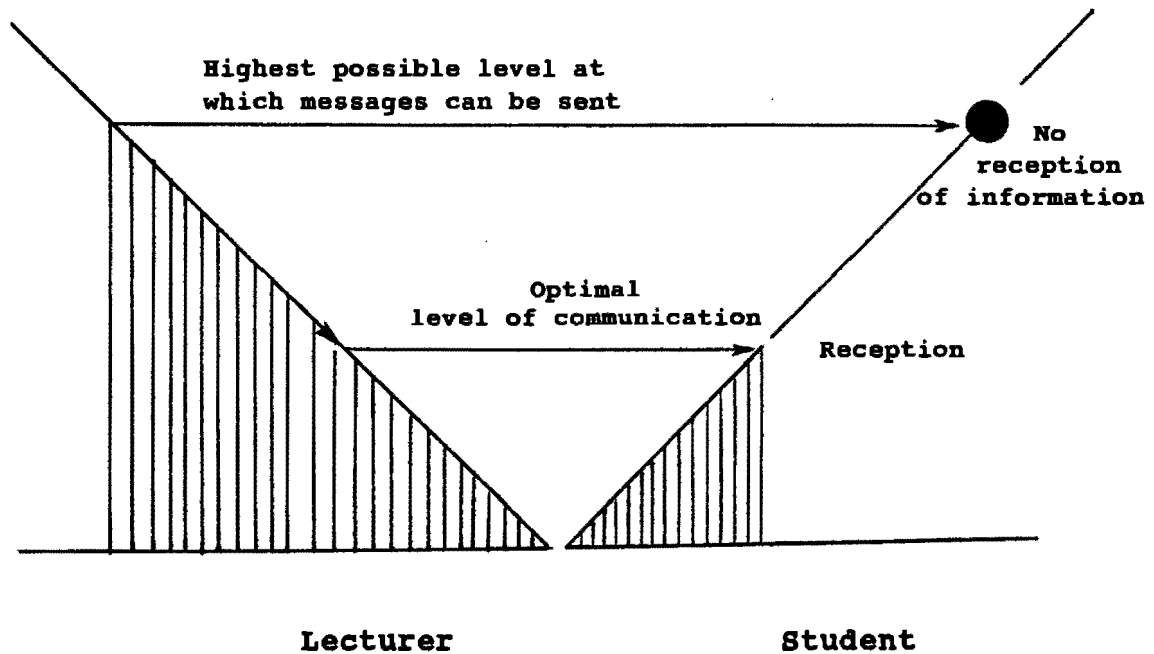
Brasseur (1976: pp 13-19) depicts the process of transferring knowledge, or teaching, in terms of a three-dimensional model which represents a person's knowledge in the form of a cone. Brasseur divides the cone into sectors, each of which represents a field of learning: examples might be home-language, history, geography, a second language and so on. The outer limits at the base of the cone represent the least sophisticated forms of knowledge and an equally limited level of language ability. As the levels of sophistication increase in each field of knowledge, the specific field moves nearer to the centre and the top of the cone. The axis or tip of the cone is the unattainable point of absolute knowledge, understanding and perception.



A vertical cross-section through the corresponding sectors of the cones representing both lecturer and student illustrates how a particular concept is expressed and perceived:



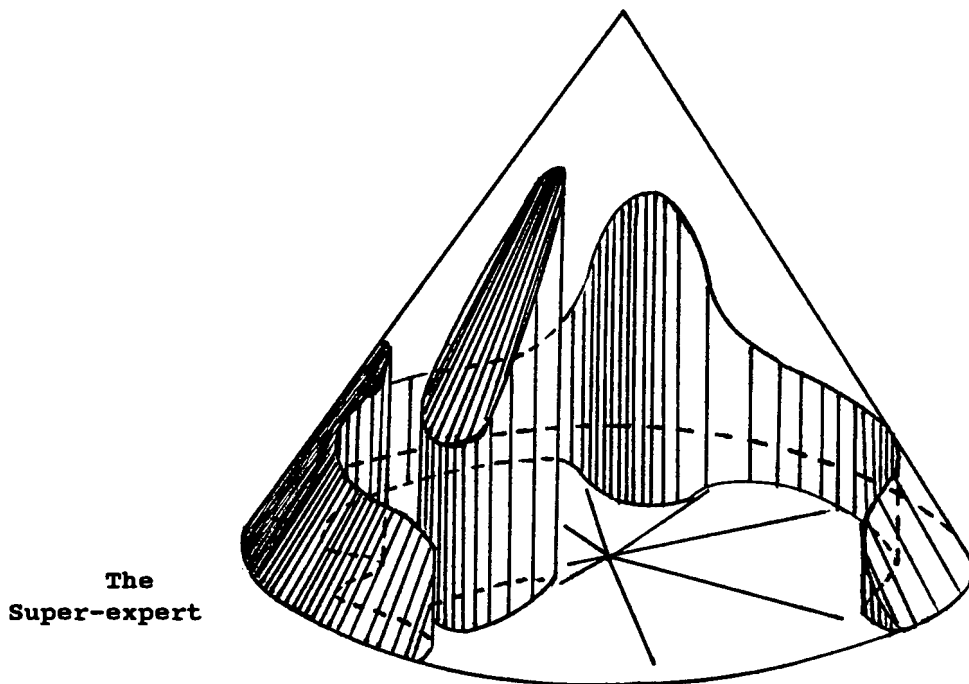
The optimal level of communication must be at the highest level of sophistication of the student - assuming that the lecturer enjoys greater sophistication in the sphere of interest.



The danger that lecturers have to guard against is the tendency to communicate at their highest levels of

sophistication and consequently fail to convey the most effective messages. Again, the diagram tellingly depicts the effects of optimal communication and a failure to pitch the communication at the correct level. In the area of language learning the optimal level of communication should perpetually be shifting as a student's English communicative skills evolve.

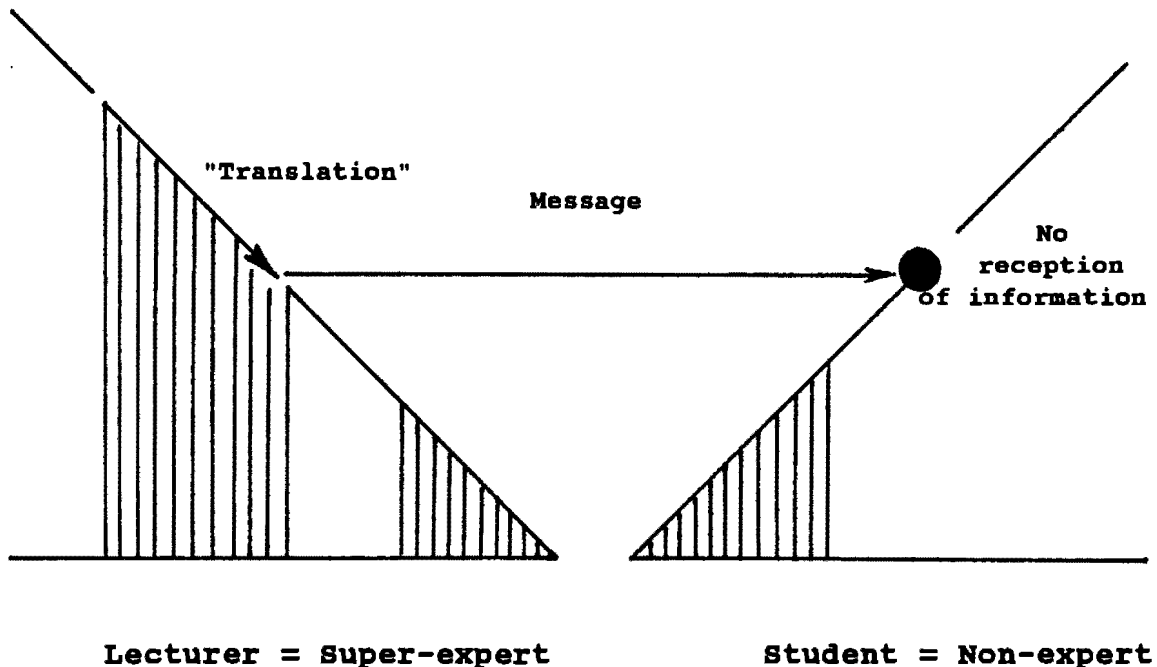
Another failure of communication occurs when lecturers have developed in knowledge and skills to points where they have become "super-experts" in terms of Brasseur's model.



Such people are often incapable of conveying their knowledge in a form that is readily understood. In other areas of less sophisticated knowledge such lecturers may well be able to communicate very effectively. Basically, the problem for the "super-expert" lecturer is how to avoid talking "over the heads" of the students. This is especially true when the students' highest levels of sophistication in this specific field are lower than the lowest levels at which such lecturers are able to convey their understanding of their own knowledge. This is often applicable to the ESL situation at universities: the lecturers cannot impart their knowledge successfully and

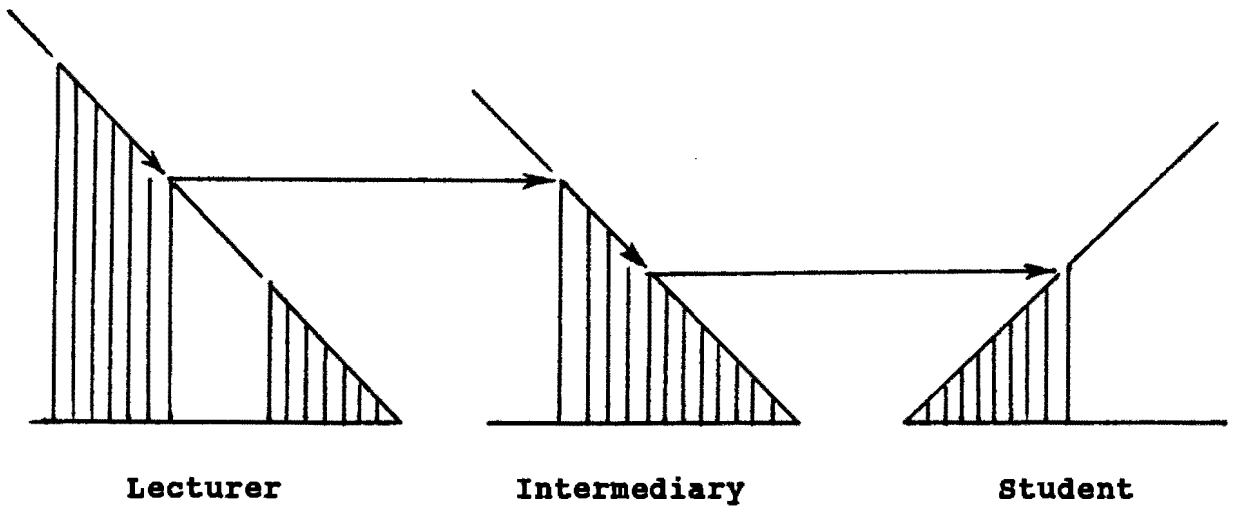
are unable to understand why the student does not comprehend; the student, on the other hand, while failing to grasp the message of the lecturer, is at a loss as to how to inform the lecturer about what has not been comprehended.

Too often the blame for failure to communicate in these circumstances falls on the student, whereas such lecturers need to acquire more effective communication techniques.



As Brasseur (1976: p 16) states, lecturers should seek to "rediscover [their] own discipline at an intermediate level of sophistication".

Three other solutions are possible: the use of skilled communicators as intermediaries - an expensive and inappropriate alternative at universities; or the appointment of staff not so much on the basis of their expertise in the field of English literature, but rather in terms of a demonstrated ability to communicate; or the use of computer-aided learning programmes - again often prohibitively expensive. The use of an intermediary may be depicted as follows:



This alternative is a model which is relevant to some students at UNISA, for example. Students enrolled in a teachers' training college, while studying Practical English at the University, may receive tuition for the UNISA course from their college lecturers, who act as intermediaries. However, in the case of most students an intermediary is neither practicable nor affordable.

Another facet of Brasseur's theory worth noting is his declaration that a reasonably bilingual student is not necessarily able to think and communicate everything understood, known or felt in a second language (Brasseur 1976: pp 17-18). In ESL courses in the United States of America, for example, lecturers are often themselves required to study another language at a beginner's level in order to gain an awareness of the frustration and difficulty which arise through an inability properly to communicate or comprehend in a given language.

In the present study, two fundamental concepts provide the point of departure. First, the course design is approached in a systematic manner, retaining as a chief concern the intention of individualizing learning opportunities as far as is possible. Second, the selection of methods is determined by the constraints which Brasseur identifies in the process of transferring knowledge, skills and

attitudes. In the chapters which follow, the proposed systematic approach to course design will be evident in the structure of the argument: the chapters develop the steps in the process advocated. The model which emerges in the course of this thesis may not be deemed the definitive approach to ESL teaching at universities but, in keeping with Banathy's rationale, should be viewed as a step in an on-going process of evaluation and systems adjustment.

Notes

1 "Disadvantaged" is a term used to describe those students whose primary and secondary schooling has taken place in what may be described as unfavourable conditions. These conditions may prevail as a consequence of socio-economic and/or historico-political factors, the limited educational and developmental opportunities existing in home environments, or inadequate qualifications of teachers and undesirable teacher-to-pupil ratios in schools which offer only limited facilities.

2 This is a summary of the table which appears in "Distance Education in South Africa: preparing for the 21st Century", May 1987 Conference brochure of the University of South Africa.

3 The Compact Edition of the *Oxford English Dictionary*. USA: Oxford University Press, 15th Printing, 1977, p 3213.

4 The majority of lecturers at university appear to hold the view that there is no room in a university for ESL courses and that competence in English should be acquired prior to entry to university. Frequently, such staff regard their colleagues who are committed to the upliftment of the skills of ESL students as operating outside of the main stream of an English department's sphere of activity.

CHAPTER 2

ROLE ANALYSIS AND NEEDS ANALYSIS

The first step in implementing a Systematic Approach to Course Design is ROLE ANALYSIS. The success or failure of any course depends upon the close relationship which exists between the roles of students and the learning experience developed. A course designer soon realizes that only the general requirements of a particular role can be established with accuracy - and be accommodated. The major variable is, of course, the individual who fills a specific role: each person's specific skills and attributes will determine the efficacy with which the role will be performed.

In endeavouring to determine precisely what a course should prepare a student to be able to do, there is also a need to recognize that the course under consideration is offered at a university. In *A Qualification Structure for Universities in South Africa* (SAPSE-116 1985: pp 4-5) the point is made that, in planning and assessing the curriculum for a degree, the aims of that degree should be in accordance with the aims of university education in general as well as the aims of the specific university concerned. In addition, these aims should be in keeping with the requirements laid down for graduate education:

The main aim of university training, namely the fundamentally theoretical and scientific training of students with a view to their eventual high-level practising of a profession (SAPSE 115, p 46), is regarded as valid, as is the concomitant requirement for graduate training, namely that graduate studies should in the first place, give a thorough and fundamental grounding in the basic principles of the subject or field of study to be specialized in (SAPSE 115, p 43). Furthermore, in the case of career-focused degrees, graduate

studies should also prepare students for the needs of the professions for which training is provided - as is in fact evident from the longer duration of studies for these degrees. This includes training in the professions' ethical standards and standards of knowledge and, in the case of the arts, also standards of performance and interpretation.

In essence, the curriculum for an acceptable university course must approach the subject matter along what might be termed basic and exact lines. The intention would be to develop a knowledge of the fundamental principles underlying the subject (SAPSE-115 1982: p 46). The converse would be the training of the individual in the skills of application which would not require mastery of the underlying principles (SAPSE-115 1982: p 46). Where such training does occur at a university it should be a consequential by-product of the major concern: university studies should develop each student's faculties for analysis, synthesis, reasoning, judgement, definition, planning and the formulation of methods (SAPSE-116 1985: p 6).

Subject matter which aims at developing these principles of accurate thought and method is normally categorized as either a basic science or a contextually basic science. The study of language, literature and linguistics is included in this category (SAPSE-116 1985: p 23). The less basic subjects are categorized as either a contextually basic science or an applied science. Studies in communication are classified as contextually basic (SAPSE-116 1985: pp 38-39). These facts inevitably influence the development of a course of study which aims at developing a student's communicative abilities through a study of language and literature at university level.

In determining the nature of the roles which students who register for a Practical English course at UNISA

perform or intend performing, the researcher is dependent upon details supplied by students when registering or those obtained from specific requests for information. The limited data thus acquired enable the course designer to establish fairly accurate profiles for categories of students. In May and October 1985, V A Millard (Willers) of the Bureau for Teaching Development at UNISA completed two such studies which are pertinent: *Profile of the Practical English (PEN) Students at UNISA in 1985* (Millard, October 1985B) and *The Practical English (Syllabus B) Students at UNISA in 1985* (Millard, May 1985A). When the findings of these two studies are combined the patterns and details which emerge provide indications of the roles of the students in question. The studies should be juxtaposed as the two groups of students involved were required to sit for an identical final examination.

Table 1: GENDER

	PEN	PEB	TOTAL	%	UNISA
Male	1038	338	1426	62,5	58,9%
Female	<u>613</u>	<u>243</u>	<u>856</u>	<u>37,5</u>	<u>41,1%</u>
Combined Total	1701	581	2282	100	100%
Combined %	74,5	25,5	100		

Table 2: POPULATION GROUP

	PEN	PEB	TOTAL	%	UNISA
White	819	78	897	39,3	60,7%
Coloured	58	17	75	3,3	5,1%
Black	678	415	1093	47,9	23,2%
Asian	145	69	214	9,4	10,8%
Chinese	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>0,1</u>	<u>0,2%</u>
TOTAL	1701	581	2282	100	100%

Table 3: MARITAL STATUS

	PEN	PEB	TOTAL	%	UNISA
Unmarried/unknown	786	373	1159	50,8	43,0%
Married	847	200	1047	45,9	53,6%
Widow/widower	11	1	12	0,5	0,7%
Divorced	<u>57</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>64</u>	<u>2,8</u>	<u>2,7%</u>
TOTAL	1701	581	2282	100	100%

Table 4: AGE

	PEN	PEB	TOTAL	%
Younger than 20	110	44	154	6,7
20 - 24	367	177	544	23,8
25 - 29	491	158	649	28,4
30 - 34	327	86	413	18,1
35 - 39	187	59	246	10,8
40 - 44	98	32	130	5,7
45 - 49	65	13	78	3,4
50 and older	56	12	68	3,0
Mean age: 29,5 years	Mean age for UNISA: 37,7 years			

Table 5: CORRESPONDENCE LANGUAGE BY POPULATION GROUP

	<u>English</u>			<u>Afrikaans</u>		
	PEN	PEB	TOTAL	PEN	PEB	TOTAL
White	193	56	249	626	22	648
Coloured	30	13	43	28	4	32
Black	667	415	1082	11	-	11
Asian	142	69	211	3	-	3
Chinese	1	2	<u>3</u>	-	-	<u>-</u>
TOTAL			1588			694
			69,6%			30,4%
UNISA			68,5%			31,5%

Table 6: HOME LANGUAGE

LANGUAGE	PEN	PEB	TOTAL	%
<u>Official Languages</u>				
Afrikaans	648	27	675	29,6
English	287	114	401	17,6
Afrikaans/English	30	4	34	1,5
				48,7
<u>Foreign Languages</u>				
French	3	4	7	0,3
German	9	2	11	0,5
Greek	6	2	8	0,4
Hebrew	4	-	4	0,2
Italian	3	3	6	0,2
Portuguese	7	2	9	0,4
Spanish	1	2	3	0,1
Other	14	5	19	0,8
				2,9
<u>African Languages</u>				
North Sotho	146	52	198	8,7
South Sotho	42	16	58	2,5
Swazi	18	5	23	1,0
Tsonga	57	9	66	2,9
Tswana	109	48	157	6,9
Venda	22	6	28	1,2
Xhosa	119	211	330	14,5
Zulu	133	60	193	8,5
Other	26	9	35	1,5
				47,7
<u>Other Languages</u>				
	17	-	17	0,7
				0,7
TOTAL	1701	581	2282	100

Table 7: PRESENT OCCUPATION

	PEN	PEB	TOTAL	%
Education:				
Primary & Secondary	435	146	581	
Tertiary	<u>15</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>18</u>	
	450	149	599	26,2
Full-time UNISA & other students	95	193	288	12,6
Protection services & police	71	13	84	3,7
Military	35	5	40	1,8
Managers & Administrators	40	2	42	1,8
Accountants	8	-	8	0,4
Legal profession	66	-	66	2,9
Other professions	10	5	15	0,7
Librarians & Archivists	2	2	4	0,2
Medical & health services	54	26	80	3,5
Computer specialists & operations researchers	8	5	13	0,6
Sales workers	17	7	24	1,1
Agriculturalists & conservationists	6	2	8	0,4
Clerical & kindred workers	357	73	430	18,8
Household workers & housewives	73	14	87	3,8
Labourers	20	6	26	1,1
Technicians & Craftsmen	61	19	80	3,5
Writers & Artists	3	2	5	0,2
Entertainment & Recreation	4	3	7	0,3
Religious work & Counselling	10	2	12	0,5
Economically inactive	60	8	68	3,0
Not classified	232	41	273	12,0
Unknown	19	4	23	1,0
TOTAL	1701	581	2282	100,1

Table 8: TYPE OF MATRICULATION CERTIFICATE

	PEN	%	PEB	%	TOTAL	%
SENIOR CERTIFICATE:						
Transvaal	252	14,8	15	2,6	267	11,7
Education & Training	239	14,1	73	12,6	312	13,7
Cape	103	6,1	8	1,4	111	4,9
Indian Affairs	56	3,3	30	5,2	86	3,8
Natal	25	1,5	10	1,7	35	1,5
Coloured Affairs	19	1,1	3	0,5	22	1,0
Transkei	2	0,1	141	24,3	143	6,3
SCHOOL-LEAVING CERTIFICATE:						
J.M.B.	24	1,4	5	0,9	29	1,3
O.F.S.	44	2,6	2	0,3	46	2,0
NATIONAL SENIOR CERTIFICATE:						
National Education	16	0,9	6	1,0	22	1,0
MATRICULATION CERTIFICATE:						
Full & other exemption	80	4,7	13	2,2	93	4,1
CONDITIONAL EXEMPTION:						
Mature age	718	42,2	204	35,1	922	40,4
Foreign country	8	0,5	3	0,5	11	0,5
Ordinary	11	0,6	1	0,2	12	0,5
OTHER/UNKNOWN	104	6,1	67	11,5	171	7,5
TOTAL	1701	100,0	581	100,0	2282	100,2

In Table 9, overleaf, the data must be interpreted in relation to the plethora of matriculation examinations and their variable standards.

TABLE 9: MATRIC SYMBOL AND LEVEL OF ENGLISH ACCORDING TO POPULATION GROUP

MATRIC SYMBOL	ENGLISH LEVEL	POPULATION GROUP										SUB-TOTALS				COMBINED TOTALS		SYMBOL TOTALS	
		WHITES		ASIANS		COLOUREDS		BLACKS		PEN	%	PEB	%	N	%	N	%		
		PEN	%	PEB	%	PEN	%	PEB	%									PEN	%
A	I	2	0,2	1	1,3								2	0,1	2	0,3	4	0,2	
	II	6	0,7										6	0,4			6	0,3	
	III																		
B	I	3	0,4	3	3,8								3	0,2	3	0,5	6	0,3	
	II	37	4,5	2	2,6					4	0,6		41	2,4	2	0,3	43	1,9	
	III	1	0,1										1	0,1			1		
C	I	14	1,7	5	6,4	2	1,4					3	0,4			19	1,1		
	II	86	10,5	3	3,8	1	0,7			5	8,6		18	2,7	15	3,6	110	6,5	
	III	1	0,1	1	1,3	2	1,4						3	0,2	1	0,2	128	5,6	
D	I	39	4,8	9	11,5	17	11,7	13	18,8	7	12,1	2	11,8	3	0,4			66	3,9
	II	139	17,0	3	3,8	3	2,1			4	6,9	1	5,9	95	14,0	70	16,9	241	14,2
	III	2	0,2			2	1,4							2	0,3	2	0,5	6	0,4
E	I	57	7,0	23	29,5	79	54,5	36	52,2	11	19,0	2	11,8	24	3,5	10	2,4	171	10,1
	II	291	35,5	9	11,5	4	2,8	3	4,3	24	41,4	3	17,6	311	45,9	194	46,7	630	37,0
	III	6	0,7			5	3,4			1	1,7			24	3,5	7	1,7	31	1,8
F	I	1	0,1			9	6,2	3	4,3					4	0,6	2	0,5	14	0,8
	II	22	2,7	2	2,6	4	2,8	1	1,4	2	3,4			57	12,8	39	9,4	115	6,8
	III	1	0,1											31	4,6	7	1,7	32	1,9
G	I					1	0,7											1	0,1
	II													1	0,1	1	0,2	1	0,1
	III																	2	0,1
SUB-TOTALS	CHINESE	708	86,4	61	78,2	129	89,0	57	82,6	54	93,1	8	47,1	607	89,5	347	83,6	1498	88,1
	UNKNOWN	111	13,6	17	21,8	16	11,0	12	17,4	4	6,9	9	52,9	71	10,5	68	16,4	1	0,1
TOTALS		819	100,0	78	100,0	145	100,0	69	100,0	58	100,0	17	100,0	678	100,0	415	100,0	1701	100,1
														581	99,9	2282	100,0		
																		1971	86,4
																		311	13,6
																		2282	100,0

NOTES: ● This table adapts the findings of Millard by categorizing the 'Unknown' group, as well as combining the original tabulations.
 ● All percentages have been rounded off.
 ● English Levels: I = 1st Language, Higher Grade; II = 2nd Language, Higher Grade; III = 2nd Language, Standard Grade; IV = 1st Language, Standard Grade.

Table 10: POPULAR SUBJECT COMBINATIONS

Subjects listed are those for which 1% or more of the students, in either Practical English Course, registered in 1985.

POPULAR COURSES	PEN	%	PEB	%
<u>Education and Teaching Subjects</u>				
Education I	119	7,0	15	2,6
Education II	32	1,9		
Biblical Studies I	71	4,2		
Biblical Studies IIA	18	1,0		
History I	63	3,7	48	8,2
Xhosa I			53	9,1
Other African Languages			6	1,0
Geography I	26	1,5		
Afrikaans en Nederlands I	24	1,4		
<u>Law Subjects</u>				
Introduction to Theory of Law	271	15,9		
Criminology I	51	2,9		
Private Law I	48	2,8		
Constitutional Law	32	1,9		
Criminal Law	30	1,8		
Latin Special	19	1,1		
<u>Commerce Subjects (1)</u>				
Accountancy IA	138	8,1		
Accountancy I	28	1,6		
<u>Other Subjects</u>				
Public Administration I	23	1,3		
Communication I	42	2,5		
Psychology I	33	1,9	18	3,1
Psychology II	17	1,0		
Anthropology I	30	1,8		
Sociology I	18	1,0		
Praktiese Afrikaans	23	1,3		
Mathematics I			6	1,0
Chemistry I			6	1,0
<u>Practical English Only</u>	162	9,5	384	66,1
<hr/>				
COMBINED TOTALS:	Education & Teaching Subjects	460	20,2%	
	Law Subjects	451	19,8%	
	Commerce Subjects (1)	166	7,3%	
	Other Subjects	216	9,5%	
	Practical English Only	546	23,9%	

NOTE: (1) Despite the interest in Practical English by commerce students, they have been discouraged from undertaking the course, through its removal as a course option.

Table 11: DIRECTION OF STUDY

	PEN	%	PEB	%	TOTAL	%
DEGREES						
BA	832	48,9	348	60,0	1180	51,7
B Iuris	366	21,5	13	2,2	379	16,6
B Proc	288	16,9	14	2,4	302	13,2
LLB	35	2,0	1	0,2	36	1,6
B Admin	19	1,1	17	2,9	36	1,6
B Sc	7	0,4	16	2,8	23	1,0
BA Cur	10	0,6	15	2,6	25	1,1
Other degrees	24	1,4	22	3,8	46	2,0
DIPLOMAS	14	0,8	15	2,6	29	1,3
NON-DEGREE PURPOSES	106	6,2	120	20,6	226	9,9
TOTALS	1701	100,0	581	100,0	2282	100,0

From these data the following aspects are particularly significant to this study.

In contrast to the distribution of students within UNISA as a whole, 47,9% of the Practical English students were derived from the black population group and only 39,3% from the white population group. The University distribution in 1984 was 23,2% and 60,9% respectively. The Practical English group was thus far more representative of the national population than was the University registration as a whole.

The mean age of the Practical English student was 29,5 years, while that of the UNISA student was 37,7 years. Even allowing for the fact that the course group was constituted of largely first-year students, there is a clear difference. Both categories had a substantially higher mean age than students at residential universities: for example, at the University of the Witwatersrand, in

1985, the mean age of first-time entering under-graduate students was 18,7 years (*The Wits Fact Book 1987: p 33*).

The Practical English students were composed of predominantly five language groups: 47,7% have an African language as their mother tongue; 29,6% were Afrikaans speaking; 17,6% spoke English as their home language; 2,9% spoke European and other foreign languages; and 1,5% claimed both English and Afrikaans as home languages.

The selected medium of instruction when compared with population groupings approximates in total to the UNISA average, but the preference is probably caused by the tendency for those of Afrikaans-speaking backgrounds to choose Afrikaans as their medium of study, and for most black students to choose English. Only small numbers of black and Asian students elect to correspond through the medium of Afrikaans.

The known occupational groupings of Practical English students provide only a few fairly large categories: 26,2% in the field of education; 18,8% in clerical positions; 12,6% are students; some 5,5% work in the military and security services; and 3,8% are housewives or household workers.

Extraordinarily, some 41,4% of the students registered for the Practical English courses were granted conditional university entrance exemption by the Joint Matriculation Board: 97,6% of these students gained access to the University by virtue of mature age. A further 7,5% of those registered had been admitted on unknown grounds or for reasons other than full matriculation exemption.

Only 9,4% of the Practical English students obtained matriculation symbols of C or higher in any of the levels of English courses examined. The evidence emerging from recent studies is that performance at levels below a C

aggregate in matriculation examinations provides no reliable prediction of university performance (Mitchell et al: 1987; and Shochet: 1986). The majority of the Practical English students fell into that category. Indeed some 9,5% failed to obtain a pass-mark for English at matriculation level, while the performance of a further 13,5% was unknown. Furthermore, 49,3% of the students obtained an E symbol for their performance in English at the end of Standard Ten.

Lastly, by grouping the popular subject combinations of students registered for Practical English, some trends are discernible: 20,2% of the students simultaneously read subjects in the field of education and teaching; 19,8% registered for law subjects as well; some 9,5% studied subjects which enjoyed at least 1% support from students; and 7,3% studied accountancy. Some 23,9% registered only for a Practical English course, with the intention perhaps of improving their English communicative competence both for study purposes and possible job advancement.

The outcome of the ROLE ANALYSIS can be summarized as follows: approximately 90% of Practical English students in 1985 wished to improve upon their school-leaving English communicative performance as a prerequisite for satisfactory university performance; a substantial proportion of the members of this group (some 545 students) studied only a Practical English course in order to develop study skills, as well as written and verbal expression, as initial steps towards preparing themselves, or improving their abilities, for their chosen roles. There were largely three substantial clusters of career orientation: teachers, the legal profession and the service professions.

Teachers already in service made up 26,2% of registered Practical English students; this group was enlarged by a substantial group of full-time students. Almost one third of all Practical English students were thus teachers or

aspired to the profession. A fifth of the Practical English students were preparing themselves for careers in the legal world: this group was made up of a substantial proportion of Afrikaans-speaking students, many of whom regarded the Practical English course as a compulsory obstacle which had to be overcome. The third career group was composed of a range of career interest groups which might be regarded as service professions. Included in this group were aspirant or serving nurses, social workers, clerical and administrative personnel - including secretarial staff, members of the military or security establishments, and a fairly large number interested in accountancy. The total group also represented approximately a fifth of the Practical English students.

Within the framework of this ROLE ANALYSIS a NEEDS ANALYSIS is required. This is a general analysis of the needs of each specific role category, with allowance being made for the individual needs of students. In completing a NEEDS ANALYSIS it is imperative, thus, that cognizance is taken of the composition of the Practical English group of students. Half are the products of schools for black South Africans. While teachers' qualifications are not always synonymous with quality, the academic and professional competence of teachers is an important factor as it influences the success of classroom teaching. Although the accepted norm now is a minimum of matriculation plus three years of teacher training for both primary and secondary teachers, at the end of 1985 the stark reality was that, in the Department of Education and Training alone, 42 016 (92,7%) black teachers with lower qualifications were in service, with 30 089 (66,5%) not having a Standard Ten qualification. The following table drawn from the *Department of Education and Training Annual Report 1985* summarizes the overall position at the time:

Table: 12

1985 TEACHERS ACCORDING TO QUALIFICATION

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
AND TRAININGDEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
SELF-GOVERNING STATES

Type of Education			Type of Education		
Prim-ary	Second-ary	TOTAL	Prim-ary	Second-ary	TOTAL
			A. BLACKS		
			Unqualified with:		
5457	24	5481	6405	72	6477
22	14	36	12	20	32
1692	514	2206	4706	2586	7292
8	126	134	4	168	172
7179	678	7857	11127	2846	13973
			Sub-Total		
			Qualified with:		
3350	19	3369	2535	8	2543
18828	706	19534	18148	489	18637
49	122	171	49	28	77
5422	3115	8537	8596	4926	13522
170	2569	2739	120	3422	3542
279	1250	1529	386	1893	2279
31	852	883	29	1256	1285
28129	8633	36762	29863	12022	41885
35308	9311	44619	40990	14868	55858
			B. WHITES		
			Unqualified with:		
1	3	4	1	1	2
	40	40		3	3
1	14	15		10	10
1	74	75		23	23
3	131	134	1	37	38
			Sub-Total		
			Qualified with:		
3	1	4	2		2
	9	9		3	3
7	44	51	2	15	17
	13	13		8	8
2	209	211	1	80	81
4	282	286	1	76	77
16	558	574	6	182	188
19	689	708	7	219	226
			Sub-Total		
			TOTAL		

By 1989, the position had shifted dramatically. Those not having obtained Standard 10 numbered 19 934 (35,6%). Those teaching in the Department of Education and Training Schools without having obtained Standard 10 and at least a three-year diploma represented 40 726 (72,7%). These and other facts relating to the qualifications of teachers are reflected in the table below:

Table: 13

1989 FULL-TIME EQUIVALENT TEACHERS BY QUALIFICATION

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING			SELF-GOVERNING TERRITORIES		
Black	White	TOTAL	Black	White	TOTAL
			A. With teaching certificate		
1	18	19	16	1	17
30	74	104	88	14	102
487	192	679	899	41	940
1625	594	2219	3825	170	3995
11000	434	11434	21092	121	21213
5542	27	5569	7108	13	7121
12856	16	12872	18674	4	18678
12106	0	12106	14032	0	14032
3439	1	3440	7445	0	7445
47086	1356	48442	73179	364	73543
			B. No teaching certificate		
2351	0	2351	3421	0	3421
4388	0	4388	3328	0	3328
6739	0	6739	6749	0	6749
			C. Uncategorized		
577	262	839	132	0	132
54402	1618	56020	80060	364	80424
			TOTAL		

Source: SANEP DATA 1989
Table 3.3

Another important factor highlighted by H Mashabela (1984: p 10) in an article in *Frontline* is the minimal age difference between many pupils and their teachers in these schools.

... most black high school pupils are, strictly speaking, no longer children. They are either teenagers or are in their early twenties, with some only a little younger than their teachers and some even just as old as the teachers, if not a wee bit older.

These views were endorsed by the sample group of schools for black children investigated by Odendaal (1986: pp 67-68). In this investigation of 333 teachers at higher primary schools, the following emerged:

Table 14: AGE OF TEACHERS

AGE RANGES	% OF TEACHERS
Between 20 - 30	51,05
31 - 40	12,9
41 - 50	13,8
51 - 60	6,9
Unknown or 61 >	15,35

While not precisely comparable because of a variance in the age-range clusters, the 1989 SANEP Data provide further evidence of this position:

Table 15: AGE OF FULL-TIME-EQUIVALENT TEACHERS 1989

AGE RANGES	NO. OF TEACHERS	%
< 25 years	12 652	6,4
25 - 34	86 447	43,9
35 - 44	58 751	29,8
45 - 54	26 607	13,5
55 - 59	8 243	4,2
60 - >	4 318	2,2
TOTAL:	<u>197 010</u>	<u>100,0</u>

Odendaal also accentuates the attrition rate implicit in this tabulation, and continues by tabulating findings regarding the teaching experience of this sample group:

Table 16: TEACHING EXPERIENCE

YEARS OF EXPERIENCE	% OF TEACHERS
<1 to 10	63,96
11 to 15	11,40
16 to 20	7,20
20 >	16,20
Unknown	1,24

Experience and adequate training develop confidence and competence. Given the limited experience and inadequate qualifications (reflected in Table 12) of a large group of these teachers of black children, it is to be expected that many of them display a sense of insecurity, by tending to adopt approaches characterized by: dependence upon textbooks; an authoritarian style; rigidity; and a disinclination to permit pupil participation through questioning and discussion (*Black Education: 1987, p 8*). The result is that few pupils produced in these schools become independent and critical thinkers. These consequences are compounded by Odendaal's finding that 49,2% of the teachers involved in his study aver that only half of their pupils had textbooks (*Black Education: 1987, p 63*).

Another important issue is the measure of competence of the teacher of English. English is introduced as a subject in the Sub B or Grade II class and it becomes the medium of instruction from Standard 3. Odendaal applied Brendan Carroll's General Advanced Test (GAD-1) to establish the communicative performances of his sample group of teachers. This internationally standardized test assesses performance on a nine-band scale in terms of communicative performance and is contrasted with the prescribed target performance. Odendaal states that Band 8 is the necessary level of communicative performance for a higher primary school

teacher (*Black Education: 1987, p 61*). His view echoes that of Carroll who states that the desired university entrance English communicative performance of second language speakers is at the level of Band 8, which he defines as follows (Carroll: 1980, pp 134-136):

Very good user. Presentation of subject clear and logical with fair style and appreciation of attitudinal markers. Often approaching bilingual competence.

By extrapolation and on the basis of this definition it is obvious that the target performance for Practical English students studying through the medium of English should be to attain this level of performance in order to facilitate further study. A teacher of English as a second language should certainly have attained at least a Band 7 level of communicative performance:

Good user. Would cope in most situations in an English-speaking environment. Occasional slips and restrictions of language will not impede communication.

By analogy, the communicative skills required of university students (studying through the medium of Afrikaans), who nevertheless need to cope with much prescribed tertiary-level reading in the medium of English, should also be at Band 7.

The following results were obtained from those participating in Odendaal's study (1986: p 71):

Table 17: COMMUNICATIVE PERFORMANCE

GAD-1 BAND	% OF TEACHERS
4	3,0
5	25,8
6	57,3
7	9,9
8	0,3

Mean communicative performance: Band 6,14

In analyzing these results Odendaal points out that positive correlations are to be found between the age of teachers, as well as between their years of experience, and their levels of English communicative performance. Another of his findings is that better communicative skills are also related to higher academic and professional qualifications (Odendaal: 1986, pp 71-72).

The communicative performance levels of teachers determined by Odendaal are comparable to those of Practical English students. The average Practical English student is assessed at levels of Band 5 or Band 6 on Carroll's 9-Band Scale:

Band 5:

Modest user. Although he manages in general to communicate, he often uses inaccurate or inappropriate language.

Band 6:

Competent user. Although coping well with most situations he is likely to meet, he is somewhat deficient in fluency and accuracy and will have occasional misunderstandings or significant errors.

Questioned by staff of the Department of English at UNISA in 1983, Carroll emphasized that between 200 and 250 contact-hours of individualized tuition by an English home-language speaker are usually necessary in order to develop a student's English communicative performance by one Band.

When each of the roles delineated earlier in this chapter is considered, other aspects also become pertinent in a NEEDS ANALYSIS. Most of the Practical English students, for example, require assistance in developing their study skills. They have a need for awareness of their own study methods and the wisdom of using different methods for different types of learning material. Another need of

these students is developing the skill of organizing times and materials. They need also to appraise the factors which affect performance and to select those they are able to control or influence. Maslow (1974) outlines a hierarchy of human needs at each level of which satisfaction is required before advancement to the next level is feasible.¹ Within the fourth level of this hierarchy, that of the esteem needs, there are two subsidiary sets involving, on the one hand, a need for achievement, adequate mastery and competence, with, on the other, a need for prestige, recognition and dignity. The thwarting of these needs causes feelings of inferiority, weakness and helplessness, leading to general discouragement. Many Practical English (Syllabus B) students commence the course with feelings of inadequacy and frustrated ambition as an effect of their inability to cope with the requirements of the courses they had studied in the previous academic year. Lack of success or progress despite endeavour, even though this may have been misdirected or misapplied, is a debilitating factor. This sense of de-motivation which affects many Practical English (Syllabus B) students must be consciously countered by course design. The importance of motivation for academic success is self-evident. Herzberg has made one of the most important contributions to understanding the factors affecting motivation. He highlights the frequency with which the following factors cause extreme satisfaction: achievement, recognition, the task itself, advancement and growth (Herzberg: 1959, p 81). The challenge facing course designers is to ensure that these factors are accommodated.

In designing course materials the needs discussed in the previous paragraph should govern thinking and be reflected in the course content and its programme of presentation. Yet another group of needs that requires consideration is the development of sets of cognitive processes: the linear, logical mental thinking which produces definition,

categorization, sequencing, outlining, summarizing and analyzing (processes of the left hemisphere of the brain); the appositional thinking achieved through global or holistic processes - which deal with multiple stimuli at the same time, as well as new ideas or configurations, inference, association, integration or synthesis, and evaluation (processes of the right hemisphere of the brain) (Rico: 1977).

Practical English students, who fall into the category of teachers or aspirant teachers, comprise two sub-sets: those who teach or will teach using the medium of English and those who may teach English as a second language at the more junior school levels. There will be few students who will become specialist teachers of English: therefore interest in literature for the majority of these students is not motivated by a need to develop a solid literary understanding. Their needs do, however, include such skills as comprehension; composition (expository and descriptive essays, reports, creative composition, précis writing); oral and aural communication; and the use of reference works (such as a dictionary or thesaurus).

Those who aspire to the legal professions also need to develop such skills as comprehension; composition (including letters, contracts, reports); oral and aural communication; a working knowledge of the profession's specialist language and ways of thought; and the use of reference works (such as the Butterworths publication, *Statutes of the Republic of South Africa Classified and Annotated from 1910*).

Those who make up the range of the career-interest group categorized as the service professions have similar needs in developing skills such as comprehension; composition (including letters, reports, memorandums, summaries); oral and aural communication; a working knowledge of their

professions' specialist language and ways of thought; and the use of reference works.

The needs of the various role categories are thus strikingly similar, while varying chiefly in the direction of content and the form of application of each skill. The relevance of course material to these broad categories is imperative if students are to be sufficiently enthusiastic and motivated by the material offered to them in a learner orientated environment.

The second area of concern in completing a NEEDS ANALYSIS is to determine the individual needs of learners. This is an area fraught with difficulty at a university: the student group is anything but homogeneous; commencement of study is spread over several weeks, making inroads into the academic year; at UNISA there is the problem of rapid assessment complicated by postal communication; then there is the difficulty experienced in assessing performance in each of the ranges of required skills; and, lastly, there is the desire of some lecturing staff to use the initial assessment to redirect students whom they consider to have registered incorrectly for a particular course.

The sole concern should be to establish communicative performance levels in the areas of need which are evident from the ROLE ANALYSIS. The diagnostic tool used should have an exactly weighted equivalent, which is used as part - or as the only means - of the final assessment of students' English communicative performance levels at the end of the academic year. This arrangement would ensure that the basis of evaluation is an assessment of what has been learned during the programme of learning activity provided - and not only the existing communicative performance which relies largely on the students' language learning history prior to enrolment for the course. The purpose of this diagnostic tool is hence to direct the endeavours of individual students to those areas of their

communicative performance which require improvement. The implication is, thus, that course material must be so arranged as to ensure that a range of graded possibilities exist within each section.

In this chapter, the ROLE ANALYSIS delimits four groupings which require accommodation within the ambit of the Practical English course: a student group whose needs are chiefly to develop the requisite study skills; and three other clusters - teachers, the legal profession and the service professions - each of which requires course material that is career-focused, while in the main concentrating on the same needs by developing skills in comprehension, composition, oral and aural communication, and in the use of reference works. In each instance the need is to develop an effective knowledge of the specialist language and methods of thinking appropriate in the career focus. From this NEEDS ANALYSIS it appears that Practical English is essentially a contextually basic subject within the framework of the criteria laid down in *A Qualification Structure for Universities in South Africa* (SAPSE-116 1985: p 5).

Notes

¹ The following is a perhaps over-simplified summary of the hierarchy of needs outlined by A H Maslow (1974):

1. Physiological needs: food, drink, shelter, warmth, sleep, etc.
2. Safety needs: security, stability, protection from anxiety, structure, law and limits.
3. Acceptance: the need to belong, receive affection.
4. Esteem needs: the need for a stable evaluation of oneself, self-respect, self esteem, competence, prestige, status, recognition and appreciation.
5. Need for self-actualization: self-fulfilment, achievement of potential, growth.

CHAPTER 3

AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

In this chapter the second and third elements in a systematic approach to course design, namely, aims and objectives respectively, are discussed.

An AIM is a general statement of intent written from the point of view of the course designer. This statement of intent establishes the nucleus around which the course is to be developed. Fundamentally the aims of the course justify its existence and reveal information which is central to the course as a whole.

The aim also outlines some of the broad constraints which govern the implementation of the course. The constraints stipulated are necessarily expressed in broad terms. Detailed design evolves as the subsequent steps in the systematic approach to course design are implemented. Aims provide the point of departure when objectives are to be formulated, but in themselves contain little precision or direction.

The staff running the Practical English courses at UNISA agreed, in 1984, that the thrust of their endeavours should be to: help students cope with other courses; prepare students to use English in the everyday world; develop the individual's ability to use both spoken and written English; and to familiarize students with English used well and thereby introduce them to the English heritage. With these prerequisites in mind, the following set of aims is proposed as applicable for the total complement of Practical English students at UNISA or for any other university ESL course:

The aim is to develop/enhance students' abilities to use English through -

- o employing English in a variety of communicative contexts
- o applying skills of comprehension
- o writing reports, letters, précis, summaries, agendas and memorandums on relevant topics
- o assessing apt examples of contemporary English prose.

In several respects these aims differ from those enumerated in 1984 at UNISA. The fundamental departure is that the artificial divisions between the two courses are kaleidoscoped together. Whereas the original Practical English course enjoyed historic recognition and content, the Practical English Syllabus B course introduced a remediation component for students who were struggling academically, but with the intent nevertheless of preparing both groups to write the same examination. The basis for the combination of the two courses, in one set of aims, is that there is no clear division between the two Practical English courses: the difference is in perceived or actual communicative performance.

A second major shift of intent is the deliberate reiteration of the focus contained in the preamble to these aims, by altering the emphasis from "a study of English usage" (as reflected in the Calendar) to that of "using English in a variety of ... contexts". This differentiation embraces the debate surrounding the distinctions between "langue" and "parole" or between performance and competence. The intention is to focus on the fact that English is meant to serve communication. Grammatical patterns are certainly important, but a theoretical or analytical knowledge of them is in large measure perceived as inconsequential by

comparison with the ability both to understand and to make oneself understood.

A course which emphasizes usage builds on the selection and sequencing of the parts of language. When the course aims to develop use, appropriateness rather than formal correctness is the key, while the norms of usage are achieved through gradual conformation as a result of meaningful practice. It must be stressed that even though a shift in emphasis is advocated, the two concepts are interactive: the aim is to give each its proper weighting. English usage may complement or be complemented by English in use.

The third adjustment of intention is to acknowledge the relevance of the topics selected. The outcome of this change is to hone course materials down from those which are perceived to be applicable to a wide range of learners, to a programme which rather seeks to address the requirements of the individual learner through communicative tasks that are pertinent to the learner's needs and interests. This is achieved by taking into account such issues as the proportion, for example, of practising or aspirant teachers, or those interested in the legal professions, and their common and disparate needs.

Lastly, by qualifying what is meant by examples of contemporary English prose and stressing their applicability, the relevance of course materials to the individual learner is stressed yet again. The word "apt" highlights the importance of selecting meaningful texts for study. This final point has already gained substantial support in several ESL university courses. However, the debate which underlies this point is perpetuated in departments of English. The reason is that the traditional view has for some time held sway and only recently has been brought into question: no longer is an obviously literature-based course perceived as the panacea for linguistic ineptitude and the core for ESL

courses. Indeed, there has been a necessary break with this teacher-orientated concern.

Recognition must be given to the need to develop a conducive learning environment. Firstly, there are a number of relatively large-scale structural factors, such as the way in which the University structures the academic year. Secondly, there is the interest shown by those in control of the learning environment: the staff who run the course. Where the staff show interest and reward endeavour, the climate for learning is enhanced. Thirdly, the consequences anticipated by the learner will have an impact on both the individual's willingness to learn and what is learned. Even if the environment is encouraging, effective learning will occur only if learning needs have been properly identified. When these needs are then accommodated within the framework of an effective learning environment - which is designed on the basis of stimulus, response, feedback, reward and reinforcement - substantial strides become possible. The focus of the course aims is, however, not on meeting the needs of the recipient or learner so much as on stipulating the interests of the provider or lecturer.

The specification of aims - and subsequently related objectives - does not automatically ensure greater progress or educational success, nor do stated policies and those policies that are ultimately realized necessarily coincide. A statement of aims does, however, indicate to staff and student alike where priorities ought to lie. It also encourages action in a stated direction. Any set of aims must be realistically based in terms of required human and material resources, and in the case of UNISA take cognizance of the complications associated with distance education, if these intentions are to prove meaningful. When statements of aims and objectives are defined, clarity regarding existing problem areas and the rationalization of proposed courses of action become feasible.

The allied step to the determination of aims in a systematic approach to course design is the definition of objectives. As Ramsden (1988), Entwistle (1990) and Edwards (1991) all stress, in developing a course there is probably no single task which is more important than the writing of the learning objectives. The objectives shape the course content and approach, while at the same time directing the instruction or creation of learning opportunities. The irony is that in departments of English at universities there are few courses which are designed upon the basis of the educational objectives which it is hoped will be attained. Furthermore, there is often strong resistance to attempts to phrase the educational objectives of a course. The prevalence of this resistance necessitates a justification for the emphasis which this requirement is to receive in this study.

A learning objective is a statement which encapsulates the proposed outcome of a particular learning opportunity. The outcome represents a change in the perceptions, thoughts, actions or feelings of the learner. The success of any learning opportunity is determined by the extent to which the desired and desirable change has been achieved.

In my experience, the strongest critics of the use of defined learning objectives, when challenged, are seldom able to delineate the intended goals of the teaching which they practise, except in the broadest terms. There is no question about their dedication or concern, but what is missing is, first, an accurate assessment of the level at which the students commence their courses. The effect is that what is offered often does not meet the needs or expectations of the students. Furthermore, there is seldom a sense of progress in performance: often those who start the year by receiving high grades for work done, conclude the year in the same vein, while weak performance at the beginning seldom alters or improves. The flaw, I believe, lies in the subjective approach adopted and the lack of definition of what it is hoped the students will achieve.

In contrast to an aim, which is written from the point of view of the lecturer or teacher, a learning objective is more specific and precise. It is written in terms of what the learner will learn and be able to do as a result of the learning opportunity provided: it is defined in measurable terms.

Davies (1971: pp 73-74) specifies four reasons for formulating objectives along these lines. First, learning objectives limit the task, diminishing if not removing all possibilities of ambiguity and eliminating difficulties of interpretation. Second, objectives are written in such a way as to make measurement possible and, resultantly, the quality of the learning experience, as well as its effectiveness, can be assessed. Third, learning objectives which are shared with students enable both lecturers and students to select the optimal learning strategies. Fourth, the learning objectives establish a succinct summary of the course which may act as a framework for the organization of learning in advance. Ausubel (1968) stresses that "advance organizers" are extremely important. Learning objectives are able to serve this purpose.

Earlier in this chapter, reference was made to the changes in perceptions, thoughts, actions or feelings which should result from a learning opportunity. These three types of learning are often defined in terms of the three domains: Cognitive, Psycho-motor and Affective areas of learning. Learning objectives can be classified under these headings.

A cognitive objective is directed at the acquisition of knowledge or information. As such it is the central concern of most university-level educational activity. Psycho-motor objectives are aimed at developing motor skills through activities which centre on neuro-muscular co-ordination or the manipulation of material or objects. Such objectives are largely not the concern of language departments at

universities, except perhaps in relation to the development of the correct eye movements for different types of reading. By contrast, as Davies (1971) points out, affective objectives are of central concern in many university-level activities; they emphasize the development of attitudes and values, feelings and emotions.

Within each of these domains of learning, a further classification is possible thanks to the work of Bloom and his colleagues at the University of Chicago. Initially Bloom (1956) defined a taxonomy of cognitive learning objectives:

COGNITIVE DOMAIN

Level 1	Knowledge
Level 2	Comprehension
Level 3	Application
Level 4 & 5	Analysis and Synthesis
Level 6	Evaluation

The objectives in each of these levels or classes of the cognitive domain tend to build upon the objectives implicit in the preceding levels.

A similar taxonomy for affective learning objectives was subsequently defined by Krathwold, Bloom and Masia (1964). The similarities between these two taxonomies are readily evident:

AFFECTIVE DOMAIN

Level 1	Receiving
Level 2	Responding
Level 3	Valuing
Level 4	Conceptualization
Level 5	Organization and Characterization

A detailed illustration of the relationships between these two classifications of learning objectives was presented in

tabulated form when Krathwold et al (1964) published their work on the affective domain:

COGNITIVE OBJECTIVES	AFFECTIVE OBJECTIVES
<p>1. The lowest level in this taxonomy begins with the student's recall and recognition of KNOWLEDGE.</p> <p>2. It extends through his COMPREHENSION of the knowledge,</p> <p>3. to his skill in the APPLICATION of the knowledge that he comprehends.</p> <p>4. The next levels progress from his ability to make an ANALYSIS of the situations involving the knowledge, to his skill in the SYNTHESIS of it into new organizations.</p> <p>5. The highest level lies in his skill in EVALUATION, so that he can judge the value of the knowledge in realizing specific objectives.</p>	<p>1. The lowest level begins with the student merely RECEIVING stimuli and passively attending to them. It extends to his more actively attending to them,</p> <p>2. then his RESPONDING to stimuli on request, willingly responding and taking satisfaction in responding,</p> <p>3. to his VALUING the phenomena/activity so that he voluntarily responds and seeks out further ways to take part in what is going on.</p> <p>4. The next stage is his CONCEPTUALIZATION of each of the values to which he is responding by identifying characteristics or forming judgements.</p> <p>5. The highest level in the taxonomy is the student's ORGANIZATION of the values into a system which is a CHARACTERIZATION of himself.</p>

The value of this taxonomy of objectives is that it facilitates the development of course materials along

accurate and suitable lines. It makes possible the selection of the relevant range of objectives and test questions, as well as the interrelation of such objectives and questions in these two domains. In the context of any course, such a taxonomy helps to ensure that each element of the course acquires the correct degree of weighting or prominence. Finally, and most significantly, the taxonomy assists in determining that higher-order objectives are realized, thus ensuring that educational advancement is in fact achieved, as it is only at these levels that the value of what is accomplished is unquestioned.

The lower level cognitive objectives in particular tend to be unattractive and ordinary in character. Although most courses are intended to evoke positive attitudes towards the subject matter, the higher order objectives are often unattainable because the course commences in so mundane a manner that students never transcend the lower level objectives or requirements because of an ensuing disinterest.

Each class of objectives builds on the preceding classes. When a conscious effort is made to teach a student to evaluate material which falls into the cognitive domain, the standard of learning attained is of a higher order, since evaluation involves the absorption and application of each of the other classes of objectives. A university course would ordinarily aim at the levels of synthesis and evaluation in this domain.

A detailed delineation of Bloom's (1956) taxonomy of the cognitive domain is worth consideration:

COGNITIVE DOMAIN

Direction	Category
Low level	<p>1. <u>Knowledge</u>. (Remembering facts, terms, and principles in the form they were learned.)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (a) Knowledge of specifics. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (i) Knowledge of terminology. (ii) Knowledge of specific facts. (b) Knowledge of ways and means of dealing with specifics. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (i) Knowledge of conventions. (ii) Knowledge of trends and sequences. (iii) Knowledge of classifications and categories. (iv) Knowledge of criteria. (v) Knowledge of methodology. (c) Knowledge of universals and abstractions in a field. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (i) Knowledge of principles and generalizations. (ii) Knowledge of theories and structures. <p>2. <u>Comprehension</u>. (Understanding material studied without necessarily relating it to other material.)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (a) Translation. (b) Interpretation. (c) Extrapolation. <p>3. <u>Application</u>. (Using generalizations or other abstractions appropriately in concrete situations.)</p>
Medium level	<p>4. <u>Analysis</u>. (Breakdown of material into constituent parts.)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (a) Analysis of elements. (b) Analysis of relationships. (c) Analysis of organizational principles. <p>5. <u>Synthesis</u>. (Combining elements into a new structure.)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (a) Production of a unique communication. (b) Production of a plan or proposed set of operations. (c) Derivation of a set of abstract relations. <p>6. <u>Evaluation</u>. (Judging the value of material for a specified purpose.)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (a) Judgements in terms of internal evidence.
High level	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (b) Judgements in terms of external criteria.

In developing a course, this categorization assists in ensuring that the course contents are pitched at the desired level of learning required. The categorization prepared for the affective domain by Krathwold et al (1964) has equal significance:

AFFECTIVE DOMAIN

DIRECTION	CATEGORY
Low level	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <u>Receiving</u>. (Paying attention.) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> (a) Awareness. (b) Willingness to receive. (c) Controlled or selected attention. 2. <u>Responding</u>. (Committed and actively attending.) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> (a) Acquiescence in responding. (b) Willingness to respond. (c) Satisfaction in response. 3. <u>Valuing</u>. (Concepts are seen to have worth.) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> (a) Acceptance of a value. (b) Preference for a value. (c) Commitment (conviction). 4. <u>Organization</u>. (Construction of a system of values.) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> (a) Conceptualization of a value. (b) Organization of a value system. 5. <u>Characterization of a value complex</u>. (Acceptance of value system.) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> (a) Generalized set.
High level	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> (b) Characterization.

In developing a course in English at university level, there is little need to consider psycho-motor objectives, as indicated earlier in this chapter.

When there is clarity about the domain into which the objective falls and the level of performance required, in terms of the taxonomy outlined above, the wording of the

objective must be determined. A good objective is one which is written in clear, precise or unambiguous, and measurable action terms. The crucial factor in phrasing such objectives lies in the choice of verbs: an action verb, which is directly related to the level of objective which is to be realized, must be selected. For example, what is meant by the verb "to understand" or the verb "to appreciate" and how will the lecturer determine whether a student either "understands" or "appreciates"? Such words are open to many interpretations and are not helpful when writing objectives. Verbs which are open to fewer interpretations should be selected: for example, the verb "state" determines the way in which the action demonstrating learning will be assessed, while the verb "know" provides less specificity.

Unlike an aim, according to Davies (1971), each objective is comprehensive and should contain the following details: a statement of the performance or behaviour required, an explanation of the circumstances within which the mastery will be observed, and a description of the standards which are to be attained. In determining the behaviour required, there is a need to consider what must be done, with what resources, to what end. In establishing the conditions under which the mastery must occur, the course designer is determining how the mastery will be evaluated: will the assessment of learning be based on work completed at home using reference works or other resources, or will it be based on performance in examination conditions with or without access to reference works? In defining the standards to be attained, the expected levels of accuracy and of proficiency needed in accomplishing the task must be explicated.

Mager (1962) advocates that clear objectives should reflect the following three elements: first, a naming of the terminal behaviour; second, further explanation of the required behaviour by specifying the conditions under which the behaviour should occur; and, third, a description of the minimum criteria of acceptable performance. Mager does

stress that the three elements are not always necessary, but that they form a useful framework to use when defining objectives.

Before formulating the course objectives, one further facet of this topic requires elucidation: the subordinate objective, which is a prerequisite to another objective. In developing a course, it is important not only to define the terminal objectives - or those objectives which describe the final, desired performance - but also those subordinate objectives which describe the performances which contribute towards the final performance. This process helps to define what has to be learned, what can be left out, and the necessary order - if any - of the learning required. In deciding what to include or omit, the performance required of a competent student is defined before working through the subordinate behaviours until the typical student's entering level is reached. There are two benefits in such an approach: first, it ensures that nothing irrelevant is included in the course; and, second, it assists in the identification of the probable starting level of competence required for the admission of students to the programme of learning, or helps decide whether a student must complete pre-course study to achieve the minimum admission standard.

In 1985 a comprehensive endeavour was made by the lecturers and tutors involved in the Practical English courses at UNISA to define Course Objectives. The approach adopted was to detail only terminal objectives in an unpublished document which was subsequently used for the development of course content. Although neither considered nor defined explicitly as subordinate objectives, a category of objectives headed "Preliminary English" was delineated.

In defining the following proposed Course Objectives, I have relied substantially on the agreed set of objectives developed in the Department of English at UNISA in 1985.¹ Where I have amended the objectives which were developed, the

additions are underlined, while deletions are shown in square brackets.

UNIVERSITY ENGLISH COMMUNICATIVE SKILLS COURSE OBJECTIVES

TERMINAL OBJECTIVES

In order to gain direct admission to this course, the student must have obtained a score of at least the entry standard in the Department of English Admission Test, or have satisfactorily completed the Preliminary English requirements.

By the end of the year each student should be able to perform the skills enumerated in the categories which follow:

A. LANGUAGE USAGE

1. Vocabulary

- 1.1 Use words appropriate to context in 95-100% of all instances.
- 1.2 Derive the meaning of words from context clues in at least 80% of all instances.
- 1.3 Use a dictionary to obtain the meaning, spelling and pronunciation of words.
- 1.4 Demonstrate understanding by means of synonymous words and phrases in 80-100% of all instances.
- 1.5 Demonstrate an understanding of vocabulary which includes idiomatic and figurative expressions.
- 1.6 Demonstrate comprehension of [master] certain terms of stylistic assessment, for example: audience, logic, organization, wordiness and content of the topic.
- 1.7 Demonstrate an understanding of instructions such as summarize, compare, contrast, evaluate, explain, analyse and other terms used in the wording of examination requirements.

2. Sentences

[Construct coherent sentences (simple, compound and complex)]

2.1 Construct coherent sentences with:

- 2.1.1 100% accuracy for simple sentences;
- 2.1.2 95-100% accuracy for compound sentences;
- 2.1.3 80-100% accuracy for complex sentences.

3. Paragraphs

3.1 In 80-100% of all instances:

- 3.1.1 Construct coherent, unified paragraphs
- 3.1.2 Link paragraphs cogently
- 3.1.3 Sequence paragraphs lucidly
- 3.1.4 Demonstrate knowledge of forms of organization; for example, "logical" and "natural" (spatial, temporal) forms.

4. Spoken English

- 4.1 Pronounce adequately in 99% of all instances.
- 4.2 [Be adequately fluent] Demonstrate sufficient fluency in order to sustain a discussion or an exposition for up to three minutes in duration, with errors of expression permitted up to a maximum of 20% of the communication.
- 4.3 Communicate effectively through speech.

B. COMPREHENSION

Apply the PQRST and the LQST formulas effectively in order to attain a credit of 50-100% by doing the following:²

- 1. State the main idea of a passage or discourse succinctly and in one's own words.
- 2. Demonstrate understanding on a literal level with 60-100% accuracy.
- 3. Trace and explain the development of meaning in a passage through its paragraphs with 50-100% accuracy.
- 4. Draw inferences appropriately with 50-100% accuracy.

5. Relate figurative to literal meaning with 50-100% accuracy.
6. Relate abstractions to "concrete" specifics with 50-100% accuracy.
7. Identify, [within reason] with 75-100% correctness in carefully selected instances, the writer's or speaker's tone and intentions.
8. Distinguish between fact and opinion with 50-100% accuracy.
9. Understand techniques of persuasion; for example, in advertising and polemical writing or speech with 50-100% accuracy.
10. Comprehend with 60-100% accuracy:
 - 10.1 extracts from larger works;
 - 10.2 self-contained texts of various kinds, such as short stories, newspaper reports, advertisements, magazine articles, essays, etc.
11. Read optimally by:
 - 11.1 Skimming and scanning so as to comprehend the broad meaning and structure of argument in a piece of writing;
 - 11.2 Improv[e]ing reading speed to approximately 250 words per minute;
 - 11.3 Reading more widely from material which is matched in difficulty with the level at which the student can read successfully.

C. COMPOSITION

1. Write effective essays, reports, letters (formal and informal), agendas, memoranda, précis and summaries, limiting errors of expression and usage to a maximum of 20% of the text.
2. Formulate own insights in creative self-expression which predominantly -
 - 2.1 Engages the interest of the reader
 - 2.2 Selects the right register

- 2.3 Uses an appropriate range of expression
- 2.4 Combines different modes of writing effectively; gives an account or impression; uses narrative/personal/descriptive forms of writing; expresses opinion/point of view; evaluates, defends or persuades.
3. Write letters that complain, apologize and thank while limiting errors of expression and usage to no more than 20% of the text.
4. Draft and edit effectively.
5. Complete forms and questionnaires correctly enough to convey the information required.

D. PROSE ASSESSMENT

1. Analyse register and tone in relation to context so as to reflect correctness of interpretation in 90-100% of instances.
2. In 50-100% of instances, correctly assess the appropriateness of the language used in various kinds of communication.
3. Discriminate with an accuracy of 90-100% between verbose and economical writing.
4. Correctly assess the effect of variety in sentence and paragraph structure.
5. In 80-100% of instances, correctly recognize the modes of writing (argument, narration, description and exposition).
6. [Discriminate between denotation and connotation.] Explain, with accuracy in 80-100% of instances, the clearly evident connotations or denotations which can be derived from carefully selected given excerpts.
7. Assess the effect of ambiguity, irony, exaggeration and repetition in a text with accuracy in 80-100% of instances.
8. With an accuracy of 90-100% discern clichéd or hackneyed writing.

9. Analyse imagery and symbolism with correctness of interpretation in 80-100% of instances.
10. Demonstrate understanding of the interrelation of character, action, setting and theme in works of fiction.
11. Demonstrate recognition of [Recognize] point of view in writing with accuracy in 80-100% of instances.
12. Demonstrate correctness of understanding in 70-100% of instances of extracts in relation to context.
13. Distinguish between and evaluate "popular" and "literary" writing (fiction) by applying the skills of prose assessment delineated in the twelve preceding objectives.

SUBORDINATE OBJECTIVES

E. PRELIMINARY ENGLISH

In order to gain admission to this section of the course, the student must have obtained the minimum Preliminary English entry standard in the Department of English Admission Test. Satisfactory achievement of these learning objectives, within the first three months of study, entitles the student to commence the course based on the terminal objectives stated above.

1. Demonstrate understanding and [correct] 80-100% correctness of use of the following:
 - 1.1 Articles;
 - 1.2 Nouns (including singular and plural);
 - 1.3 Pronouns (personal, interrogative, relative, reflexive, demonstrative, possessive and indefinite);
 - 1.4 Tenses and aspects of verb forms (the past, present and future of simple, continuous, perfect and perfect continuous);
 - 1.5 Auxiliary verbs;

- 1.6 Participles, infinitives and gerunds;
 - 1.7 Prepositions;
 - 1.8 Conjunctions (co-ordinating and subordinating);
 - 1.9 Moods of verbs;
 - 1.10 Adjectives;
 - 1.11 Adverbs;
 - 1.12 Modifiers.
2. Demonstrate understanding of agreement between subject and verb, and pronoun and antecedent with 95-100% accuracy.
 3. Demonstrate [a] command of punctuation with 95-100% accuracy.
 4. Hyphenate correctly with the aid of a dictionary or by avoiding the splitting of words at the ends of lines.
 5. Form words correctly in 95-100% of instances from roots or other words.
 6. In 95-100% of instances, correctly form inflections associated with person and number.
-

The proposed objectives given above differ materially from those enumerated by the 1985 Practical English team at UNISA in several ways.³ Chief amongst these is that minimum criteria have now been incorporated in the objectives. It is imperative when formulating learning objectives to create an environment which will provide the learner with - to quote Doughty and Thornton (1973: p 68) - "the incentive and opportunity to develop [an] operational command of the language for learning" what is needed. In order to achieve this, recognition must be given to the learner's existing command of English, and how English is used to learn.

A crucial factor in the objectives listed above is the recognition granted to the fact that certain communicative skills can be acquired within a range of competence. While the ideal terminal objective would be absolute mastery of a

specific skill, it is improbable that any tertiary language course will succeed in achieving maximum competence by all of its students. Given the exigencies of time and distance, for students studying through UNISA, it is indeed apt that a range of requisite achievement has been defined in most instances.

The starting point in composing these course objectives was to determine the end performance or competence required of the student. Then, working backward from that level of performance, the necessary subordinate skills required were identified - as was the level of competence needed for each of these discriminate sub-objectives.

It is, however, important to recognize that the relationship between one objective and another is often less than straight-forward. Although one terminal objective may require mastery of several subordinate objectives, the latter objectives *may or may not* be subordinate to each other. It is plausible that the attainment of a certain objective depends upon the accomplishment of several other subordinate objectives, before the skill defined in the terminal objective is practised, but that none of the subordinate objectives is reliant upon achievement of any of the other subordinate objectives. Where such a set of objectives exists, the implication is that the pursuit of several subordinate or terminal objectives can all occur in parallel. In some instances, it may be desirable to arrange such sets of objectives in a hierarchical pyramid in order to help visualize the relationships between related objectives. Recognition is necessary of the fact that such a hierarchy neither specifies the order in which learning has to occur nor the sequence in which the material must be presented.

The formulation and acceptance of a set of learning objectives does not mean that there can be no change. Indeed, effective course design is an on-going process, in which the course designer regularly reviews and where needed

refines the course objectives, until the level of specificity reached is that of the individual task level. Gagne (1965: p 12) describes this task level as "... the smallest unit of performance which can be identified as having a distinct and independent purpose".

A feature of writing detailed learning objectives is a tendency to be explicit when stating the expected outcome of each learning experience. Banathy (1968: p 39) lists three reasons for requiring the specific formulation of objectives:

1. A detailed description of terminal performance is the basis for the constructing of the criterion test, which is the means of assessing whether the objective has been achieved. Hence, the implication is that the objective must be stated in measurable terms.
2. Objectives must be stated in sufficient detail to provide the basis for commencing the development of the actual course they describe.
3. The formulation of the objectives must be so clear as to communicate clearly and unambiguously to all involved in the course, including learners and lecturers, precisely what is intended to be achieved.

In recent years much attention has been focused on *Criterion-Referenced Assessment*. A broadly acceptable definition of the term "assessment" is that it is a process of professional judgement where the best material for assessment is the student's course-work and the prerequisite for making a judgement is the educator's knowledge of the student and the student's past performance.⁴ In the context of distance education, the educator is reliant upon good records of individual student performance, together with the types of profile studies reflected in the previous chapter. While this form of knowledge is probably less detailed than the personal knowledge available to the educator in a

conventional tuition situation, it is nevertheless valuable when coming to a judgement.

However, in order to use Criterion-Referenced Assessment it is necessary to have a clear statement of the criteria which are to be used for making a judgement on the performance of the learner. Explicit, succinct and accurately stated course objectives, which define what the learner must be able to do, how well this must be done and under what circumstances, are essential for such an assessment to be practicable. Imposing a Criterion-Referenced Assessment upon an existing course requires an initial syllabus analysis followed by the development of criteria for assessment, and the subsequent development of record systems to aid analysis. However, where there is a set of well-defined course objectives already in existence the first steps are obviated. The merits of developing a set of comprehensive course objectives are thus even more evident.

In deriving the course objectives from a clearly stated purpose, a process of analysis is needed as each aspect of the required learning is defined. Further analysis is called for as the subordinate objectives are in turn determined and defined. It is even sometimes necessary to extend the analysis to that level of refinement which delineates the details of individual task levels.

However, in defining course objectives there is also a process of synthesis evident, in that objectives are formulated on the basis of laid down criteria. The subsequent processes required in the application of a systematic approach to course design are broadly dependent on synthesis rather than analysis, which is the feature of the step requiring the formulation of learning objectives.

This analysis has furthermore attempted to determine the gap which exists between the desired terminal performance and the reality of performance of the students admitted to the

course. If the gap is too great, there is real danger that such students will be dismissed as unable to cope with university requirements.

The criticism, that the formulation of learning objectives reduces the process of learning to too much of a mechanistic level and is not entirely relevant in the affective domain, is not without some foundation. However, the judicious use of specified aims and objectives has more advantages than disadvantages. Whitfield (1974) shows, however, that it is only a start:

It is all very well having a set of desirable intentions as a foundation for professional activity, but if one cannot translate those *intentions* into *effective actions* through *appropriate decisions* to cause *successful learning*, one may be truly teaching, but not very effectively, and this is ultimately not very helpful to anyone.

In the next chapter, the focus is on the process of course design which will turn these learning objectives into meaningful learning activities and opportunities.

Notes

1 The approved set of Practical English Course Objectives for the Department of English, UNISA, was developed in 1985 by a sub-committee of the Practical English team and comprised: Keith Richmond, Derek Swemmer, Sue Kroger and Glenda Hlozek.

2 The PQRST formula is an approach to comprehension. See Chapter 5, section 4, of this thesis for a detailed discussion of the concept.

3 It should be noted that the set of objectives upon which the above formulation was based largely shaped the course materials developed for use in 1986 for the first time. However, the use of a "workbook" method has subsequently become the preferred approach.

4 Adapted from Munn and Danning's definition in Gordon P, "Criterion-referenced Assessment of English: the CRC Approach" in *Teaching English*, 17:3, Summer 1984, pp 18-19.

Chapter 4

CONTENTS

A detailed list of course contents enumerating the skills, information and attitudes which should emerge from completion of the course is not feasible in the context of this discussion. This chapter consequently focuses on an analysis in detailed sub-sections of the theories, developments and research which must be drawn upon in shaping the course detail. The following points of discussion are explored in this chapter:

1. The place and nature of English literature
2. Language in use
3. Vocabulary development
4. Reading and comprehension skills
5. Cognitive processes
6. Composition skills
7. Oral and listening skills
8. The place of grammar.

Similarities and points of overlap occur in certain of the sub-sections. The reason is, arguably, that a sub-division of this nature is somewhat arbitrary in terms of the overall purpose of the study; namely, a unitary process leading to the mastery of English in order to achieve communicative competence. Furthermore, in some instances (and when appropriate), attention is given to the implications and/or complications which affect courses offered in a distance education situation.

1. THE PLACE AND NATURE OF ENGLISH LITERATURE

Wayne Booth (1981: p 14) makes a good case for the intellectual, professional and andragogical unification of the fields of composition and literary study within the discipline of English. He argues that "what separates them

is not any inherent intellectual distinction". In this plea, Booth (1964) displays a commitment to the views he expounded at a conference in Grahamstown in 1963. This pragmatic view, however, is not one that is universally accepted, especially as there is not yet adequate support for his premise.

In most South African universities, the two fields of composition and literary study are professionally catered for together, but their intellectual pursuits diverge. They find expression generally in the study of language and/or linguistics, on the one hand, and literature on the other. While the proponents of both of these fields of concern in English departments may concur that advanced literacy encompasses the ability to read, write and think critically and independently, important research in either of these domains is seldom regarded as significant in the other, as Brumfit and Johnson (1986: p 54) emphasize. It might well be argued that their spheres of interest are too diverse: each may respect the work of the other, but neither readily concedes the direct relevance to itself of the other's advances. However, Hasan (1968), Harris (1952), Marton (1984: p 2) and Widdowson (1983) all cogently argue that there should be closer collaboration in applying these research results to the benefit of learning processes.

Linguistics and literature are recognized as different fields of study, as is evident from the establishment in many universities of separate departments of linguistics and specific languages. However, in my experience, when the problem of teaching English to non-native adult speakers of English is addressed, the delineation between language and literary study is less readily acknowledged. Perhaps the reason is that there is not yet a clearly defined field of study which is acknowledged as the concern of composition studies. The reason for this may be that this area of study has yet to develop an accepted focus

other than the vague concept that it has to do with *writing*.

As Miller (1983: p 220) cogently argues, however, "when the ancient name of 'rhetoric' is invoked to provide [the needed] image, people in composition must demur from literary understandings of that venerable discipline." The reason she proffers is that literary scholars tend to reduce rhetoric to one of its five sub-divisions, stylistics, with its focus on figures, schemes and tropes. Such a definition is not adequate, she maintains, to describe the concerns of composition scholars, "who might well accept themselves as rhetoricians, were rhetoric seen as the systematic analysis of the generation and reception of prose discourse" (1983: p 220). On the other hand, Brumfit and Johnson (1986: p 54) emphasize that the problem with register or general stylistic analysis, as advocated by Halliday, Crystal, Davy and others, is that teachers are not given any direction as to how they might move from the sentence to the text.

The reality is that a sound grasp of both literary study, on the one hand, and language and composition, on the other, is the ideal point of departure when one approaches the development of English communicative skills at a tertiary level. Each has a place in the curriculum and the inclusion of both is warranted. However, in my opinion, the competing views of linguists and the proponents of the study of literature about texts, writing processes, and scholarly study of the written word, appear to be too fundamentally divergent readily to achieve unanimity.

On the one hand, the texts examined within the context of literary studies are chosen on the basis of their aesthetic qualities. Miller (1983: p 221) points out that:

This aesthetic quality may refer to the assumed coherence, unity, and completeness of the texts,

to their assumed universality or perduring spiritual relevance, or to any of a complex set of assumed relations to other literature. For a particular text this aesthetic status may depend upon its place in the received canon of literary works... . Or the aesthetic definition of the text may derive from a relation to this established canon...[or] its perceived status as a formal, generic, or political commentary on texts that have already been canonized... .

By contrast, as Davies and Omberg (1987: pp 313-323) and Gatherer (1990: p 741) point out, the texts studied in composition courses are often chosen because of their illustrative value in relation to the conventions of writing, rather than as selected works of art which are themselves of interest.

While both approaches may lead to an equal understanding of the text in question, the same prior assumptions about the aesthetic or illustrative merits of the texts have not been made. Furthermore, a compositional study of a text assumes only that the work itself is no more than one realized way of structuring the content, rather than to perceive it as an object of art.

What is urgently needed is recognition of the respective merits of these differing stances. There is little room for the dismissive responses of those linguists who argue that there is no role for English literature study in teaching the English language to non-native speakers at university level. Salih (1989: pp 25-27), who contends that language skills "develop through studying literature", expresses the more relevant view. An integrated approach ensures that - as Stern (1987: pp 47-55) expresses it - "literature study with mastery of the language (vocabulary and grammar), with further development of the language

skills ... and with increased awareness and understanding of ... English-speaking cultures" becomes possible.

A further problem, as Dawson (1984: pp 52-3) points out, is that

a great deal of language teaching in South Africa treats language, not as a communicative tool, but as an edifice of discrete parts, such that, when each part is explained and drilled, the learner, by some magical transformation will then be able to use it creatively in relevant situations.

Clearly, the need is to enable the learner to use language as a social process or in an operationally relevant manner.

At a tertiary level, recognition must be accorded to the reality of the methods used at primary and secondary schools in their approach to the teaching of English as a second language. The methods approximate largely to those dismissed so emphatically by Dawson. Therefore, the approach at the tertiary level needs to be fresh, in the sense that methods not used at school are applied, in order to stimulate interest; a repetition of what was experienced at school is not likely to be of much use. More of the same diet which has ineffectively prepared the scholar for the use of the English needed at university would be a mistake.

According to Harrison (1973: p 46), the question that should be asked in the context of teaching English as a second language - especially at tertiary level - is not:

Shall we teach language or literature?

but rather:

Having taught some language, shall we begin the teaching of literature, and what kind of literature should it be?

Impassioned pleas for the preservation of the teaching of literature as the kernel of any English course, in order to preserve civilised values and standards while imparting a sense of moral sensibility, are absurd in the African context. The foreign learner of English neither has any intuition about the purposes and nuances of the English language nor any meaningful frame of reference for judging the relevance or significance of English literature for English society.

The fact that the average student of English as a second language at tertiary level in South Africa cannot be expected to cope in a meaningful way with the ramifications of a novel written in the Victorian age, let alone poetry of the era, has been recognized in recent years. This inability does not, of course, signify that the ESL students do not have insight into and intuition about the literature and language usage of their mother-tongue. As Mphahlele (1979: p 1) points out:

I have learned over the years that even students whose first language is English ... came to University ill-equipped to deal with poetic criticism. High school teaching falls short of the requirements in the basic knowledge of what poetry is meant to do to or for the reader. Those who meet good teachers do learn the techniques of criticism from the master, [and] can apply them skilfully, even with intelligence... . Luckily, the students are learning something in a first language, and also they have been exposed to poetry right from their primary school days. They are surrounded by a great variety of teaching aids like television, stage plays, libraries, writers' workshops, where considerable apprenticeship is carried out.

We enjoy none of these advantages in Africa.

Perhaps the outspoken relevance of Mphahlele's reactions to the type of teaching of English literature that he had experienced, and the similar views of other English academics, such as Strevens (1982), Baker (1983) and Mawasha (1986: pp 15-29), have helped bring about this development in perception.

English literature is certainly not easily taught. Its inclusion too early in the curriculum coupled with inability on the part of the teacher has resulted in the growth of a secondary industry: study notes. In my view, learned by rote and regurgitated without understanding in countless examinations, the unacknowledged views of the authors (or publishers) of study notes are the contributors to countless "pass-marks" for students, who do not cope with the literary component in their courses.

I do not wish to gainsay the relevance of literature, which is, after all, an integral part of the English language. On the contrary, I wish to advocate the incorporation of relevant literature in English courses: literature which is in keeping with the students' level of achievement in the English language and not several years ahead of their current levels of mastery of the skills.

One approach is to advocate the use of literature written in English by local authors: African novels rather than the novels of Africa or of any other locale. This is a course of action with many advocates: locally one might single out Leshoai (1990: pp 123-124) and Chapman (1990: pp 136-139). Certainly, such an approach removes the difficulty of the reader's difference of background - although there are many members of English departments who may lack the shared background of authors and readers in some contexts! Careful selection, however, could circumvent this potential difficulty.

Another approach is to select modern works which are easily accessible and are read internationally by both first-language and second-language speakers of English. While such works may not enjoy very high literary merit, they may at least match the aspirations and goals of the students.

A crucial element in the selection of relevant literature is to recognize that a university education is a privilege enjoyed by a relatively confined and educationally selective proportion of society. Within the group of those who gain access to a university there will be many who will need assistance in acquiring sufficient English communicative skills to meet the demands of the tertiary environment. Especially relevant, as propounded *inter alia* by Blacquiere (1989: pp 73-82), Hutchings (1990: pp 117-119), Jeffery (1990: pp 119-123) and Murray (1990: pp 139-142), is sufficient language and literary skill to be able to read, understand, analyze and synthesize the contents of works written, often without compromise, in English intended for university-level consumption. Consequently, the design of the curriculum for the English communicative competence course must be aimed, *not* at an elite section of those registered for the course, but at the large majority (see Tables 8 and 9 in Chapter 2) who must be helped to cope with these demands.

There should be no place in an English university-level course, which aims at developing English communicative skills, for any work of literature which, through the obscurity of either its milieu or its style of language, strikes few chords of recognition in its readers. Were Practical English courses to be based on the set of aims and objectives fixed earlier, the works of literature chosen for those courses would generally be decidedly different from some that have been prescribed for Practical English courses at universities in the past twenty years. Two examples are cited; by way of illustration significant excerpts have been selected from them.

The English reading ages, of those registered for the course which dealt with the first work quoted, were measured at between four and eighteen years, with an average ESL reading age of thirteen-and-a-half¹.

He went no further into the subtleties of evidence: the pressing question, "Where is the money?" now took such entire possession of him as to make him quite forget that the weaver's death was not a certainty. A dull mind, once arriving at an inference that flatters a desire, is rarely able to retain the impression that the notion from which the inference started was purely problematic. And Dunstan's mind was as dull as the mind of a possible felon usually is.

Silas Marner
G Eliot (1977: p 89)

This excerpt is a crucial passage in the novel. The question is to what extent is it intelligible to the average reader? Gunning's (1968) readability formula indicates a Fog Index of 16,3 for this excerpt, where a Fog Index of 13 measures writing of a post-matriculation level of complexity - both arguably, perhaps, above the reading ability of the group concerned with the set work. The philosophical difficulty of the presented argument is compounded for those readers generally brought up on a reading diet of newspapers and magazines, where information and views are explicitly presented and there is seldom an interpretative response required from the reader. Similarly the general prose exposure in this country is such that the foreign nature of the style in the passage, linked with vocabulary seldom encountered in most forms of modern writing, all contribute to the difficulty facing the modern South African reader when approaching this text.

The second excerpt is also from a Victorian novel and draws on the richness of Dickensian imagery which certainly requires explication if it is to be understood by the average Practical English student. The comments relating to style and philosophy apply in this instance as well. The excerpt measures 15,5 on the Gunning Fog Index.

You saw nothing in Coketown but what was severely workful. If the members of a religious persuasion built a chapel there - as the members of eighteen religious persuasions had done - they made it a pious warehouse of red brick, with sometimes (but this is only in highly ornamental examples) a bell in a birdcage on top of it. The solitary exception was the New Church; a stuccoed edifice with a square steeple over the door, terminating in four short pinnacles like florid wooden legs. All the public inscriptions in the town were painted alike, in severe characters of black and white. The jail might have been the infirmary, the infirmary might have been the jail, the town-hall might have been either, or both, or anything else, for anything that appeared to the contrary in the graces of their construction. Fact, fact, fact, everywhere in the material aspect of the town; fact, fact, fact, everywhere in the immaterial.

Hard Times
C Dickens (1967: pp 19-20)

Obviously, there is lexical difficulty in both of these passages for the ESL speaker: the concept of a "weaver" is one seldom encountered in a modern South African context and is likely to conjure up an image of a bird rather than a vocation; the adjective "dull", used in relation to mental aptitude, is also not a regular, current usage, while a "felon" is not readily a word that conjures up a picture of a criminal in the late twentieth century; the concept of housing a bell in a birdcage could conceivably be puzzling for the average student who may have seen only

the occasional bell-tower in a church - and then seldom in a tower which would assist in stimulating the intended image. As for the phrase "stuccoed edifice", the likelihood of either word having been encountered by students in their study of modern English prose texts, other than in literary works, must be slim; the concept of an "infirmary" is again not one with which the average South African ESL reader is likely to be familiar. The point is that the selection of such texts for study presents the student with both unusual phrasing and imagery, as well as a style of writing no longer used. From the point of view of developing communicative competence, therefore, presenting the student with obscure concepts and dated usage is not likely to contribute logically to the process of learning effective, modern language skills, which should be the central concern of such courses.

To many South African students, the pictures evoked by the descriptions in these novels are culturally alien. The associations, which they attach to the images and concepts reflected in such texts, are at variance from those an British child might experience. Another factor is that a degree of maturity and development in the students is necessary for any meaningful extrapolation from their own cultural experience to be applied to different literature from a different society. Whether the type of student mentioned has attained the required level of sophistication is questionable. While it is true that it was possible to teach some aspects of language from these texts, the fact remained that much of the language component of these courses was separated from the literature. Perhaps this was as well, given the Victorian style of these works and their irrelevance to student needs.

The great danger about selecting inappropriate literature for a course is that sustaining a student's motivation becomes difficult, and a negative attitude to the rich

heritage of English literature may result. Until such time as students have attained an acceptable level of mastery of English, it is inappropriate to include literature from the "great tradition" in the curriculum: not only does the partial comprehension of the nature and significance of the works in question prove frustrating, but impaired development of required linguistic skills is also likely.

At university-level, there is distinct merit in the inclusion of properly selected literature. For those students who have a moderate command of English, such literature will provide interest and stimulus when approaching the course material. Furthermore, many students will find thoughtfully selected works which form the basis of a decided component of the course content, an innovative approach to their study of English, especially if, as ESL learners, they were exposed during their schooling to years of language drills and grammar exercises. The need is often to provide a new stimulus in order to rekindle a desire to master English usage. In this respect, literature is generally the key. As students arrive at university with some knowledge of present-day English, contemporary literature is a valuable means of further expanding such knowledge.

When selecting any piece of literature for inclusion in a course aimed at developing English communicative competence, the following criteria are advocated (Harrison: 1973, p 54):

1. Analogous levels of language

There must be continuity between the levels of vocabulary, style and structure of the literature selected and those already mastered by the student. Literature should not be used as initial teaching material, nor should the literature be used as the starting point for innumerable language exercises. A text which requires constant

references to a dictionary often proves counter-productive as a stimulus for learning. The use of literature is also intended to provide a broadly aesthetic experience and must thus be accessible to make this educationally relevant.

2. Good literature

When literature is chosen it must be good literature. It should not be chosen for vaguely conceived notions which require a historical perspective of the evolution of English literature. Nor should the works selected necessarily be those which are included in the accepted "great tradition" of English literature.

3. Familiar setting

Those works selected must as far as possible be set within a milieu that is familiar to students. Where the setting is not entirely familiar, what differences there may be between the known and the unknown must be able to be bridged within the context of the learning experiences created around the contents of the work in question.

The implication of these criteria is clear: twentieth-century prose works are generally the only ones which match these prerequisites. The choice of such works is, however, not inappropriate in the context of an ESL course governed by the aim of ensuring mastery of modern English prose in order to facilitate effective communicative performance. Driven by such aims, even the choice of well-edited, modernized, shortened versions of classic literary texts cannot be discounted. There are many twentieth-century works which meet the above criteria; nevertheless, an abbreviated, modernized, classic text might be selected. Such a choice is obviously preferable if it circumvents any likely misunderstanding or confusion experienced by the student in trying to cope with the original work.

In my experience, there will be some who will argue that one of the goals of an English course must be to open the minds of students to new perspectives and to expand critical thinking. While not advocating that the texts chosen for study have to reflect the South African environment, the argument advanced here endorses the view of Marton, Hounsell and Entwistle (1984: p 219), that works in such a setting are likely to be more accessible to the average student. Where texts are chosen for their thematic, stylistic or other qualities, regardless of setting, the onus rests with those structuring the learning experiences to compensate for any gaps in understanding which may act as barriers to full comprehension and mastery of the material presented.

Furthermore, those of British descent, who have a deep understanding and experience of the broad English cultural heritage, need to recognize that although this culture is unique it is not of equal importance to all people. Part of the concern of the English lecturer or tutor must be to make that English cultural heritage understood and to facilitate an approach that is critically evaluative. A consequence may be the promotion of understanding between English-speaking people and the speakers of other languages, through the study of accessible literature.

2. LANGUAGE IN USE

Traditionally universities have been conceived as crucibles of higher learning. A university is not normally regarded as an environment in which any form of remediation should occur, but this perception ignores the reality that, where many students have had their primary and secondary schooling in an fundamentally deprived environment and are inadequately prepared for university education, some special concessions and approaches are required. For years to come, as Jackson (1984: pp 138-142), File (1984: pp 148-153) and Clarence and Hart (1984: pp 154-160) stress,

remediation programmes at university will be necessary in order to upgrade the English language skills and abilities of students.

Language is central to the need to communicate. Herriot (1971: p 41) declares that "both *maturation* (physiological development) and *experience* are necessary, and interference with either factor results in language deficit...".

Language skills can be impaired by a number of factors. An obvious one, in a South African context, is environmental deprivation: socio-economic and political factors have caused many people to grow up deprived of the stimuli necessary to ensure a full range of language experiences, and often no exposure to English at all.

According to Herriot (1971: pp 41-51), research has determined that the language skills of the children of working-class parents are less developed than those of their peers whose parents have middle-class occupations. He reports the following results:

Working-class youths use, for example -

1. Shorter sentences
2. Less complex sentences than their middle-class peers, in that they use fewer subordinate clauses
3. Fewer qualifiers: adjectives and adverbs
4. Smaller units as grammatical items
5. A narrower vocabulary, on the basis of the ratio of the total number of words used to the number of words not incorporated in the average lexicon of speakers from the same background.

The differences are all matters of degree rather than type. Generally, the limitations outlined by Herriot are not the sole means of assessment. Performance is judged both by the content or arguments put forward and, importantly, by

the degree of grammatical skill evident in any logically coherent communication.

To a large extent, language regulates behaviour and thinking. It determines the nature and quality of assessments. Significantly, academic performance is directly related to linguistic competence. Furthermore, there is no significant difference measurable in terms of non-verbal skills when peers from working-class and middle-class backgrounds are compared. Clearly then the development of language skills to optimum levels is of great consequence in a developing country.

Halliday (1986) and Marton (1984) endorse the view of Herriot (1971: p 44), who argues: "If language skills depend on experience as well as on natural development, then they can be consciously taught." Goodnow (1980: pp 187-189) and Parke (1977) both emphasize the influence of the general ideas held by parents in matters such as the nature of learning, the nature of progress or the relative contributions to learning of parent and teacher. Their argument is that differences in performance essentially reflect differences in value. The remedy for language weaknesses caused by cultural or familial deprivation is to ensure that language is learned in the normal context and that it is put to use for a specified purpose. This approach enhances the learner's motivation, and, significantly, ensures training in both comprehension and the production of language.

In the normal development of language skills, comprehension precedes production of an utterance. Remediation resultantly requires the comprehension of a construction or language usage before any expression is expected. However, such a process is hampered by the fact that one-to-one interactions within the context of the course under consideration are impracticable, if not impossible. The presupposition must therefore be that students should be

clustered roughly according to degrees of language competence to engage at different yet appropriate levels of difficulty.

The key to the remediation language component is first to ensure comprehension in a specific context. Once production of correct language utterances has been achieved, the task should be varied within a similar context so that the language acquisition moves from mastery of a principle to the generalized application of the point of language learned.

The aim is to achieve a level of language use which has moved beyond either a concrete example or a social context. The objective is to develop the skill to the point where language is used correctly to analyze or evaluate, which is in essence the academic level of use of the language. For this to occur the other variable which has to be taken into account is the degree of maturity attained in thought development. (This issue is addressed in Section 5 of this Chapter.)

What levels of language competence is the student at university expected to have mastered, preferably before arriving at university, or to master as soon as possible after registering? The answer in broad terms is that students need to have made the shift from the use of the sentence in isolation, to the use of sentences in coherent combination. As Widdowson (1983: p 50) stresses, they also need to have transferred their knowledge from the use of grammatical sentences to that of discourse, or the combined, meaningful application of grammatical sentences, in language which reflects communicative competence.

Widdowson categorizes sentences in combination as "text", and the study of the text, with the view to discovering patterns in the discourse in terms of chains of equivalence classes, as *text analysis*. In such analysis, the formal

properties of a piece of language are investigated. There is no attempt in this form of text analysis to contemplate the purpose of the language extract. Where this is the focus, the communicative use of sentences becomes the area of enquiry; in this regard, Labov's (1969: pp 54-55) definition is that rules are determined to show "how things are done with words and how one interprets these utterances as actions" and that this linguistic study is called *discourse analysis*.

If language in use is to be the approach adopted for the language component of English communicative competence courses, attention must be given jointly to the way in which sentences are combined in text on the one hand, and to the manner in which combined sentences are used to communicate through discourse on the other (see Straw: 1981, pp 132-133.)

The concern is therefore not simply to focus on sentences in isolation. However, many remedial programmes are based on precisely such an approach. The dilemma in such programmes is that each component of the material studied becomes a discrete item, and there is seldom any indication as to how these linguistic forms are to be combined in meaningful text. The findings of studies on *grammatical cohesion* are thus of direct relevance, and descriptions of the devices which are used to link sentences in order to form text become significant elements for inclusion in a course concerned with language in use.

However, Widdowson (1983: p 56) highlights yet another feature when he distinguishes between grammatical cohesion and *rhetorical coherence*. The situational relevance of grammatically cohesive text or the effectiveness of an utterance in communicating reflects the rhetorical coherence of discourse (as against text). This distinction requires recognition of the fact that there are aspects of discourse which acquire definition only in the context of

their social purpose. Clearly, effective written communication demands both rhetorical coherence and grammatical cohesion.

Language can be regarded therefore as a combination of two areas of concern. One assesses text on the basis of evident patterns of equivalences of formal grammatical objects, the frequency with which they occur, or the way in which cohesive devices are used. The other approaches language as discourse, where sentences are used to communicate, generally within the context of larger communicative situations and in which the rhetorical pattern that emerges is a communicative piece of language.

In approaching the issue of teaching English language, both the study of text and discourse are significant elements. The language materials devised for study must not only develop understanding of grammatical cohesion, but they must also, according to Widdowson (1983: p 59) aim at evolving comprehension and production of utterances which have discourse functions, such as the use of language to define, classify, generalize, promise, predict, describe, report, and so on. The most important factor in nurturing command of a language is looking at the intuitive choice of language exercised by an individual for various situations. Different language is used when writing from that which is used in conversation; when conveying a new theory to a specialist colleague very different language will be used from that needed when responding to a lecturer who has given one a very low mark for an assignment.

The teacher of ESL needs to be conscious of the reduced ability of students whose educational experiences have been affected by inadequate schooling to apply the delicate process of matching language to particular contexts. The key to this is the ability to assess the type of audience who will receive the communication (Doughty: 1972, pp 115-116). This capacity evolves only through experience of

unfamiliar situations and the ability to generalize experiences for use in subsequent, comparable situations. It is necessary to recognize that the demands for the specific forms of language required in various situations may be a formidable requirement for those learners of the language whose range of language skills is not yet adequately developed. In this respect, there are three important aspects of language use. The first is the user's knowledge of the language. Second is the user's knowledge or experience of the range of linguistic situations in which language is used. Third is the process used by a speaker or writer in arriving at what will be said in any situation. In other words, an essential part of using a language correctly is the ability to interpret the situation in appropriate language forms. An individual speaker or writer may possess the linguistic or grammatical potential to communicate competently but, due to insufficient experience of using language in the specific context (or contexts) concerned, may be incapable of producing acceptable work.

Doughty, Pearce and Thornton (1972: p 119) relate two further facts which they believe affect language competence: the positive relationship between the use of the spoken language and growth in competence when writing; and, the time-scale necessary for that growth to occur. A weakness in language courses is frequently that exposition and argument are the two modes of writing which are required, to the neglect of other forms of writing, while often there is little or no focus on spoken English. However, if the argument is accepted that competence reflects growth in the knowledge of English, experience in its use, and developing the process of arriving at forms of expression, then growth in any one form of English usage must impact on other modes, even though the effect may be indirect or delayed.

In this respect, the following outline, adapted from Doughty (1972: pp 122-125), is valuable:

The process of growth in competence is continuous but goes through four perceptible stages:

1. Recognition: when new terms or language patterns are encountered, the response of the student in the initial phase appears passive; however, there is so much requiring assimilation that this response is not surprising. The extent of recognition is reflected by what the student is able to comprehend when reading.

2. Familiarization: this is a difficult stage and one which varies substantially in length depending upon the aptitude of the student; during the phase, linguistic features which are being assimilated are used, often with hesitation or diffidence. Writing continues to be underpinned by what is read.

3. Hesitant Command: at this stage uncertain control of certain linguistic forms may detract from a grasp of the concept structure of the propositions under consideration. The fact that mastery at two levels or in two divergent dimensions is required during this phase of the process is important. The written work submitted by students tends largely to reflect this phase of language development.

4. Fluent Command: this phase is marked by a full and genuine responsiveness. In the written form, fluent command is seldom evident in the initial iteration. Usually, writing is revised and polished before submission for consideration. Consequently, one should not expect mastery of

this phase to be readily evident during a course aimed at facilitating English communicative competence.

In determining what forms of language in use should be included in an ESL course, it is important to identify why the students have registered for the course (see Haycraft: 1978, p 9). Is the English they are learning being acquired to cope with an examination, works set in other subjects, the writing of business communications or reports, and reading journal articles with comprehension? Or is it for some other purpose? In determining what language-in-use to include in the course, not only should thought be given to the structure, vocabulary and idiom that needs to be incorporated, but also the purpose to which these will be put.

From the earlier analysis of the needs of the students in UNISA courses, it is clear that these students have specific goals, including:

1. to obtain a course credit for a degree;
2. to develop language skills and comprehension skills in order to cope with set works written in English for other university courses;
3. to be able to communicate fluently (and competently) in English in the work environment, and other contexts.

In choosing the actual content for the language-in-use component of the course, there are many points to consider. For a variety of reasons it will not always be possible to accommodate all of the points made in this section. However, as many as possible of the points raised should be included in the course plans.

3. VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT

The student registered for Practical English needs a level of English proficiency that will facilitate the acquisition of post-matriculation ESL competence in order to obtain a university qualification. The level of proficiency sought is that which will enable the individual to understand and express views on a wide variety of topics. As Ellis and Tomlinson (1982: p 64) state, "without structural competence he will never make himself understood; with structural competence but without a fairly large vocabulary he will only be able to understand properly and comment on a very restricted number of topics." A major concern of Practical English must therefore be to develop the usable vocabularies of students.

Generally the perception held is that developing vocabulary implies the learning of previously unknown words by the individual. However, this is perhaps too broad a view to be of direct relevance to an understanding of how to approach this aspect of language learning. According to Ellis and Tomlinson (1982: pp 61-64), whose categorization is adapted in this analysis, it is preferable to categorize the term "word" in this context. Nouns, adjectives, adverbs and most verbs can, for instance, be defined as *content* words in that they have referents, or touch-points in the form of ideas or emotions or objects, associated with them. Even in isolation such words conjure up images for the listener. A second group can be identified as *dictionary* words or abstractions which can be used in expressions which have diverse meanings and be employed in a variety of contexts. Such words may be the base-word from which other forms are derived. They do not have a single meaning, but have potential meanings depending upon the contexts in which they are used:

Laugh -> o laughs o laugh at
 o laughed o laugh in someone's face
 o laughter o laugh one's head off
 o laughing o laugh up one's sleeve
 o laugh on the other side of one's face

The words derived from a "dictionary word" are sometimes clustered in their own category called *derived words*: they often differ from a "dictionary word" only in form and grammatical function while, in meaning, the derived and dictionary forms are contiguous.

However, derived words are frequently used in a particular form of expression referred to as a *lexical item*. A lexical item makes use of derived words in particular expressions which usually have only a single meaning. It is in this form that we use words in speech and writing. Knowledge of the dictionary meanings of a word is significant only if the user can apply these meanings correctly in lexical items which form part of a specific utterance.

As far as possible, the choice of items for vocabulary development should be selected with the intent of developing in learners the ability to use words correctly in context. In this regard, vocabulary development is achieved through the study of lexical items either in contexts (the actual situations), or else in "cotexts", which is a term used to describe the words which precede and follow a derived word and which determine its meaning.

The selection of vocabulary should, therefore, as far as possible depend on what is practicable, desirable and most useful (Harrison: 1973, p 31). Frequency of occurrence presumably signifies the extent of a word's use. In this respect the accent falls on content words and lexical items rather than on structure words. In designing those course components which incorporate vocabulary development, the

desired major subjects of students registered for a practical English course will definitely influence selection.

The aim is to expand the student's passive vocabulary to the point where there is comprehension and an ability to read prose pitched at an advanced reading level.

Absorption of new words or lexical items depends, after initial exposure, on several encounters with them in realistic contexts, in conjunction with cotexts which facilitate the extrapolation of meaning by the student.

Another dimension to vocabulary development is the need to remedy incorrect usage which is the effect of either uncontrolled learning, or of incorrect reinforcement by earlier teachers, or of mother-tongue interference.

Remedial vocabulary work is an ongoing requirement based on individual needs, and its success depends on presenting a range of illustrative contexts and cotexts in which the words appear.

The incorporation of vocabulary components in the course demands that the lexical items included are illustrated, wherever possible, by ostensive or illustrative definition through appeal to one of the senses. To enhance the assimilation of new lexical items, the implied meanings as well as the range of registers in which the items can be used should be made clear. In each instance, the actual use of the lexical item should be exemplified and this ought to be followed by assessment of the learner's passive understanding of the word or phrase in question. After this, practice in its active use can be provided, and the ability of the student to use the lexical item appropriately in a range of different yet appropriate situations can be assessed (Ellis and Tomlinson: 1982, pp 64-95).

4. READING AND COMPREHENSION SKILLS

Many South African students have not been adequately prepared for the reading load with which they are faced when reading for a degree. As Bouwer (1992: pp 12-16) argues, the development of reading skills at primary school is effectively approached in most education departments, but at secondary school there is not yet an evident, natural progression in the development of these skills.

One fallacy accepted by many people is that it is important to understand everything in a text by closely reading and re-reading. The result is that the process of reading is slowed. However, as Harris and Sipay (1980: pp 184-185) and Nicholson, Pearson and Dykstra (1979) show, slow reading does not necessarily mean efficient reading. On the contrary, an increase in the rate of reading is often accompanied by enhanced levels of understanding of what has been read. The important point to note is that reading is not a single process. Several factors are at work and are given varying emphasis when reading occurs:

1. Levels of concentration alter in accordance with the type of reading matter. More attention is required when studying a book about language teaching than is needed when reading popular fiction.
2. The purpose when reading may be to absorb only selected points from a particular text. This is achieved by scanning a piece of writing to find relevant sections, which are then read closely.
3. The levels of understanding that we require may differ: instructions on how to install and use a software package will demand close absorption of all points, while recreational reading does not call for the same close attention to detail.
4. The speed at which we read may be dictated by the amount of available time or the urgency with which we

need to absorb the text in question or the volume of material which needs to be read and digested.

In terms of the needs of students registered for Practical English, special attention should be given to developing reading rates. However, there are substantial discrepancies between the various standardized reading rate tests. Among the chief reasons for this is that there are differences in the nature and level of difficulty of reading material used. The problem is complicated, as Kirby (1980: p 129) explains, in that there are several variables at work which are not easily isolated: for example, verbal ability is a combination of English usage, error identification in punctuation and grammar, spelling, reading comprehension and vocabulary; and verbal ability is one contributory factor in determining reading rate.

The following table, adapted from Harris and Sipay (1980: p 556), reflects the median rates of reading for different grades in schools in the USA. By way of illustration the South African equivalent school standards have been included:

USA School Grade	VIII	IX	XII
RSA School Standard	VI	VII	X
Median [words per minute]	237	252	251

The following scale of reading speeds, according to Ellis and Tomlinson (1982: pp 126-127), is based on the performances of English first-language readers who are reading for general understanding:

Scale of speeds in words per minute

170-200	Very slow
200-230	Slow
230-250	Average
250-300	Above average
300-350	Medium fast
350-450	Fast
450-550	Very fast
550-650	Exceptionally fast

Ellis and Tomlinson rightly argue that, while it is desirable for the second-language user to aspire to the reading proficiency levels of first-language readers, it is improbable that they will attain these levels of reading speed. They believe that realistic reading skills goals should take three points into account: the student's initial reading speed; the type of reading material requiring assimilation by the individual; and the reading level of the student.

The nature of the reading skills incorporated in a Practical English course must include practice in: scanning, which is the skill of looking quickly for a piece of information or a specific reference (bearing in mind that "speed reading" is usually not genuine reading, but scanning or skimming); skimming (fast reading in which key phrases are absorbed so as to obtain the author's general idea); comprehensive reading (where the purpose is to obtain a detailed understanding of the text); and critical reading (aimed at assessing the contents in order to establish how to respond to the points made, in relation to the reader's personal beliefs, opinions or perceptions).

The focus should largely be on developing comprehensive and critical reading skills. The technique which is advocated is application of the PQRST formula (derived from the SQ3R formula in the reading laboratories developed by Science Research Associates Limited by Robinson (1970)). The

technique requires the application of five steps when approaching a text:

- Step 1 - PREPARE: skim the material as part of an initial survey, looking particularly at introductory and concluding sections, headings, captions and illustrations.
- Step 2 - QUESTION: make use of the information gathered in the preparation for reading and existing knowledge about the contents to formulate a number of questions about the topic; the questions may take a predictive form if there is sufficient information available to make this feasible.
- Step 3 - READ: read the text attentively, seeking answers to the formulated questions and where necessary consciously determining further questions which may be answered later in the passage.
- Step 4 - SIFT: formulate clear answers to the questions posed and any others which arise during the close reading of the excerpt. The text or parts of it can be read again in this phase to clarify any points of doubt or obscurity.
- Step 5 - TELL: organize the new information or knowledge acquired from the comprehensive reading of the text; this can be formulated verbally or in writing to communicate the new understanding developed or knowledge gained.

A further step in the reading process is essential at advanced levels: that of evaluation. It forms an integral part of the process of critical reading and occurs when a reader decides whether to accept and support the author's

argument, or to dissent from that view. The evaluation of the reading response should also seek to assess the aptness of the initial response to the text after having skimmed it and the emanating presuppositions reflected in the questions posed before commencing the close reading.

University-level reading requires understanding not only of the literal meaning of material, but also of the implicit intentions and attitudes of the author as revealed by the choice of contents and words. Furthermore, this understanding needs to be reflected in the development of informed opinions on the topic in question.

Students need help in developing the ability to determine the different types of reading required by being exposed to a range of texts. Inclusion of passages which are used for scanning, skimming, comprehensive reading, critical reading, general interest and for study purposes is therefore necessary.

The reading material included in the course should be based as far as possible on the following criteria:

1. Students should commence at their present levels of reading skill attainment.
2. Students should progress at their own natural learning rates.
3. The reading materials should have a built-in process of diagnosis, prescription and evaluation.
4. The materials should facilitate the students' own selection of appropriate reading materials in keeping with current levels of reading performance.
5. Self-evaluation and the illustration of a methodical approach to study should form an integral part in the process of acquiring the desired reading and comprehension skills.

The choice of materials for inclusion in the reading component of the course requires the accurate application of a readability formula: the Harris-Jacobson Readability Formula 2 as detailed in Appendix D of Harris and Sipay's definitive work (1980: pp 712-729) on reading is advocated. In analyzing the readability level of a work, the table used has been extrapolated and adapted in accordance with South African school standards:

READABILITY LEVELS CORRESPONDING TO PREDICTED SCORES ON THE HARRIS-JACOBSON READABILITY FORMULA 2

<u>Readability Level</u>	<u>Predicted Score</u>
Standard 6	6,06-6,42
Standard 7	6,43-6,78
Standard 8	6,79-7,13
Standard 9	7,14-7,46
Standard 10 and up	7,47 and up

Regardless of the readability level of a text or the reading age of the reader, the reading rate used by an individual is important. Many programmes exist for improving the rate of reading. Indeed, with training, most readers are able greatly to increase their reading rate. However, there is no one rate of reading that is appropriate in certain, specific situations. The efficient reader varies the reading rate in keeping with the purpose for which something is read, and the requirements of the material.

As reading is the basic tool of learning, the approach to what is read and the efficiency with which an individual copes with printed material is clearly of great importance. Also, this component of the course requires special attention because in a distance-teaching environment the written word takes on added significance. There is in

addition a direct transfer value to other disciplines the reading and comprehension skills.

5. COGNITIVE PROCESSES

In comprehending reading material, as Wessels (1982: p 319) stresses, adults apply "syntactic, semantic, pragmatic [or communicative] and world knowledge in an interactive manner". It was Chomsky's linguistic theory of transformational grammar, which emerged from his study of syntactic knowledge, that led to the development of the field of psycholinguistics. Early theories in this field concentrated on the part played by syntactic processing during comprehension but, unlike syntactic processing (which often occurs at the major syntactic intervals in sentences), semantic processing can occur throughout entire sentences. Contemporary theories accordingly acknowledge that syntactic information is processed in a variety of ways specifically suited to the task in hand, the sentence type encountered, and the memory capacity of the individual.

According to Van Dijk and Kintsch (1983: pp 45-47), semantic processing is central to comprehension and the resulting achievement of understanding. Semantic knowledge and expectations commence processing as soon as a statement is made. Ambiguities are immediately and automatically assessed and a single interpretation is selected on the basis of available contextual and cotextual information and existing knowledge of semantic constraints. However, the precise processes at work in arriving at a propositional construct of what has been communicated are not yet known. This is supported by the findings of Ricoeur (1976: pp 10-17) and Meyer (1985: pp 17-33).

Comprehension thus depends not only on determining a statement's literal meaning, but also its implications.

The information available is integrated automatically the basis of communicative knowledge. For example, the use of a pronoun in a sentence is automatically linked to the individual mentioned in an earlier sentence. The process occurring within the mind of the listener (or reader) is a cumulative one whereby information is continually added to existing propositions held in the memory. Where no such proposition exists in memory, an inference is automatically made by the listener (or reader), thus bridging existing knowledge and the new information.

Thinking has been defined by Tiedt (1983: p 64) as an "innate ability of mind to form patterns, mental structures of concepts of objects, events, processes and relationships". Cognitive activities depend on two types of knowledge: episodic knowledge which is based on experiences and memories of the events and episodes which make up those experiences; and semantic knowledge incorporating linguistic, factual and conceptual information which is not bound by a specific context. However, according to Couture (1986: pp 69-92), in a sense this distinction between these two kinds of knowledge is artificial, because semantic knowledge emerges from knowledge of episodes and experiences. They differ in terms of the extent to which they include contextual information.

Some attempts, such as those by Hoey and Winter (1986: pp 126-138) and De Beaugrande (1984), have been made to determine how people make inferences and verify sentences. Wessels (1982: pp 236-265) records these approaches, where the spreading activation model is one such attempt. In this model, knowledge is represented as a network containing concepts and labelled links, which show a relationship to other concepts. The rapidity with which a sentence is verified depends upon the closeness of the relationship between concepts, as in the following example:

A pig is a farm animal.

Reading the words "pig" and "animal" activates corresponding concepts in the network. When the paths of activation intersect, there is verification of the information contained in the sentence. This process is more rapid than the verification triggered by a sentence in which the activated concepts are less closely allied, such as:

A pig is a source of glue.

A second model, according to Wessels (1982: p 279), is called the feature-comparison model. Here verification can occur either at the first stage, when the judgement is based on close similarity or obvious disparity, or at the second stage when the defining features of the concepts are compared. A problem exists in that there is no ready means of differentiating between defining (or essential) and characteristic features (those which occur frequently but not always). Furthermore, there is little evidence to support this required distinction.

These two models differ in that the former reflects relationships between concepts directly in the network, while the latter computes the relationships from details of differentiating or comparative features. Theorists, such as Klarus and Van den Dool (1989: pp 112-126), have rejected both models as too narrow and too closely tied to the sentence verification paradigm and instead have postulated global models of cognition, many of which reflect knowledge in a propositional format. The human associative memory model, reflected by Wessels (1982: pp 279-280), for example, uses propositional representations because they are flexible enough to encompass much of our knowledge.

In this regard, schema theories (which have yet to be tested as thoroughly in psychology as they have been in computer science) have emphasized the importance of world

knowledge and inferences. A schema, the concept of which Wessels (1982: pp 311-319) attributes to Bartlett, is an organized, flexible framework of knowledge describing objects, places or episodes. Each schema forms portion of a propositional network and enables the listener both to make inferences about what is being described and to form expectations about what the speaker has yet to say. The research of Ovando and Collier (1985), Hakuta (1986), Rigg and Scott Enright (1986), has shown that schemata contribute to the processes of comprehension by linking students' background variables with the social and cultural contexts encountered in reading materials.

A number of theorists, including Pezdek (1977), and Goldstein and Chance (1970), believe that all human knowledge can be represented by propositional forms. There is a school of thought, however, represented by Bahrck, Bahrck and Wittinger (1975), which contends that spatial relationships and knowledge of visual objects cannot be represented in propositional form. Their views are supported by physiological studies, undertaken *inter alia* by Rasmussen and Milner (1975: pp 238-257), and Searleman (1977: pp 503-522), which show that the two cerebral hemispheres of the brain act as separate processing entities: when damage to the left hemisphere of the brain occurs, aphasia or language disorders often result in right-handed people, without comparable impairment of their spatial abilities; by contrast, for the right-handed individual, damage to the right hemisphere causes loss of ability to draw and judge spatial relationships (see Tiedt: 1983, pp 69-70). A consequence of these observations is the perception that propositional representation is not all that is in use.

Visual images can be regarded as analogous to visual perceptions of objects, as both reflect detailed spatial and visual information. Modern technology has made it possible for the simulation of mental images which can be

scanned and rotated replicating the way that the external objects they represent might be handled. Thus, according to Wessels (1982, pp 270-271), images are regarded as analogue representations of the objects themselves, and as such are based upon propositional representations, which use a combination of propositions of conceptual knowledge and spatial relations, in their formulation.

The demand thus exists for the course designer to recognize that materials should aim to evoke responses which draw on both the logical, linear thinking tendencies of the left hemisphere of the brain (with its propositional abilities of definition, categorization, sequencing, outlining, analyzing and summarizing) and on the right hemisphere of the brain (which applies appositional thinking in the form of global, holistic processes) (see Tiedt: 1983, p 70). The course content should seek to integrate both kinds of thinking processes in an attempt to develop more effective methods of processing knowledge.

A further point in developing course content is the need to take note of the research reflected in the work of Barton (1985: p 197). Children and non-literate adults use language in similar ways, except that adult learners have been found to have a more integrated knowledge of language and language use than children. Similarly, adults are better able to use segmental awareness and to break sentences up into words (or syllables if the adult is not illiterate). A final point is that general adult learning processes cannot be assumed by researchers on the basis of their own high levels of literacy. The risk, in Barton's (1985: p 203) view, is that artefacts of literacy are assumed to be basic cognitive functions. Care must be exercised to ensure that data are also gathered from less literate adults, before conclusions are drawn about levels of competence or learning processes. While issues such as paralinguistics, kinesics, proxemics, haptics, aromatics and chronemics have also drawn attention, in the work of

Klassen (1981: p 29), they have consciously been excluded from this study with its focus on distance teaching, despite their relevance in reflecting and affecting thought processes.

6. COMPOSITION SKILLS

An acceptable premise might appear to be that a student who has successfully obtained matriculation exemption ought to be able to write fluent, grammatically correct prose in English. However, the reality is that a substantial proportion of ESL students require remediation before they can write an acceptable form of English. The work of Southey (1990: pp 129-130) and that of Murray (1990: pp 139-140) show *inter alia* that errors of spelling and punctuation occur frequently and require exposure to specific remedial exercises. This component of the course should hence be designed in non-compulsory, modular form so that appropriate exercises can be completed in identified areas of deficiency.

For the majority of students whose composition skills are satisfactory the expectation is that they should be able to write continuous prose. In reality, as shown by the work of Martin and Rothery (1986: pp 241-263), there are often linguistic errors which detract from the content. Similarly, although students could rightly be expected to be capable of selecting relevant material for the topic in question and arranging it in a systematic sequence, there is frequently inadequate performance. Again non-compulsory, remediation modules aimed at developing organizational skills for sequencing material chronologically, logically, or in a sequence which moves from the general to the particular, may be required. In addition to this, for some students paragraph writing skills may need further development.

The nature of the composition work required of these students should as far as possible be of interest to them and they should be motivated to the point where they wish to express their views on the topic in writing. The types of writing required should represent the range contained in the course objectives, including essays and various forms of business writing.

Students at university are regularly required to commit their views to paper and these are developed on a spectrum of subjects and in various forms. However, Shaughnessy (1979: pp 257-274) identifies seven basic thought patterns that can be discerned in student writing. She does so in a simple analysis devoid of jargon, but the traditional discourse terms, drawn from Brooks and Warren (1961: pp 31-33), are reflected in juxtaposition with her conceptualization:

1. *This is what happened [Narration]:* this is descriptive writing which requires the material to be arranged in a time sequence which forms a narrative. Problems with this type of writing are often the consequence of the omission of a step in the sequence of events being described, or a lapse in signalling the passage of time, often as an effect of misusing a verb form.
2. *This is the look (sound, smell, or feel) of something [Description]:* here the goal is to represent what has been experienced through the senses in an impersonal, analytical manner which aims at convincing the reader that the descriptions reflect "referential truth"; in various disciplines different observation techniques are applicable in arriving at the information which is to be conveyed. When the description is required

to extend further and reflect the nature of the response evoked in the writer by the observations made, the need for the inclusion of specific, descriptive details becomes evident.

3. *This is like (or unlike) this [Comparative and Contrastive Exposition]*: statements of comparison are central to academic analysis. Written comparisons or contrasts require thorough development and conscious organization in which points of similarity and difference are dealt with systematically and illustratively.
4. *This (may have, probably, certainly) caused this [Analytical Exposition]*: the ability to construe causal connections between matters and systematic endeavours to determine the causes of certain phenomena have led to the proliferation of academic disciplines with their accumulated bodies of knowledge and own methodologies. Frequently the student has come to rely on intuitive or simplistic and unreasoned responses to questions of causation, or else on the explanations of others. The chief difficulty is learning to ask the fundamental questions which result in a valuable process of causal reasoning. In English, many of the effects open to causal analysis are complex and not readily open to simple definition. The result is not only the need for the student to explore causes in more complex ways, but also for the development of a style of discourse that allows for multiple explanations and tolerates nuances of perception. The writing must allow for the exploration of alternatives and probabilities and not simply an approach based on fact or certainty.

Mastering the vocabulary and ordering devices of complex causal analysis are crucial in developing this academic skill.

5. *This is what ought to be done [Propositional Argument]*: here the student is expected to identify the issue, describing its effects, and exploring their probable causes, before generating as many possible solutions as seem appropriate. Then, the solutions must be evaluated before one is selected for implementation in the form of a detailed proposal.
6. *This is what someone said [Description]*: the ability to present a summary of what was said or written is a crucial part of many academic activities. In the writing of tests, book reviews, critiques, arguments, study notes of lectures, and summary statements leading to the conclusion of essays, the art of writing summaries is of cardinal importance. There are essentially four types of writing which can be termed summaries: the précis, paraphrase, synopsis and abstract. They require condensation of the original while preserving its intellectual argument, but not necessarily its rhetorical sequence. This is thus a critical skill which is required of the student. It demands close reading and a focus on the thought pattern underlying the text, with a view to identifying the main points made. It requires the student to group details in categories, discard redundant material and correct inappropriate arrangement of content. By mastering this skill the student is able to differentiate between interpretation (or analysis) and summarizing. In the view of Ellis and

Tomlinson (1982: p 219), summary work is a combination of comprehension and composition.

7. *This is my opinion (or interpretation) of what someone said [Exposition and Argument]:* the student is often not aware of the fact that academic readers will reject the opinions of others unless these are supported by appropriate evidence. A critical response may demand concurrence, disagreement or a simple observation. There may be an attempt to marshal support for a view by quoting a supportive comment by a third party, or the student may be required to account for the effectiveness or failure of a particular construct, statement or work. The dilemma is how best to make available to students the necessary information which through lack of experience is unknown to them. A second concern is to develop in students an understanding for the amount of supporting evidence that must be marshalled to substantiate the view expressed.

Most writing involves a combination of the kinds of discourse which have been explored above. The traditional analysis delineates four kinds of discourse in terms of their fundamental purposes: exposition (explanatory), argument (seeking to alter opinion, attitude or point of view), description (aimed at sharing experience), and narration (presenting an event).

These types are seldom encountered in their pure form. Writers will often deliberately combine the different varieties of discourse, although they will seek to ensure that the intention or purpose of the writing remains the prime concern. The different kinds of discourse may be studied in isolation, but generally the goal is to use them in combination in order to achieve maximum communication.

Cowie and Heaton (1977: pp 79-81), furthermore, argue that the student should be given freedom of choice in relation to the communicative course components selected. The choice of functions, which they believe should be available to the ESL student, are the following:

classification	definition
cause and effect	quantifying and measuring
hypothesizing	drawing conclusions
axioms	chronological procedures
issuing instructions	exemplification
presenting problems	comparing and contrasting

These perceptions must affect the choice of course content. While units of study which focus on quantifying and measuring, or hypothesizing, are of greater pertinence to pure and applied science students, they have less bearing on disciplines such as education or the social sciences. By way of further illustration of the point, engineering students, Cowie and Heaton (1977) aver, are seldom required to draw conclusions. Those components which thus appear to them to be of more general relevance include classification, definition, cause and effect, exemplification, and comparing and contrasting. These are the course elements that should therefore be incorporated into the course materials for engineering, as opposed to social science students.

7. ORAL SKILLS AND LISTENING SKILLS

Spoken English, according to Moody (1966), Hasan (1968), and Ellis and Tomlinson (1982: pp 104-105), can be broken up into a number of rhythmic groups, each of which contains a strongly stressed syllable and may also contain a number of unstressed syllables. Ellis and Tomlinson (1982), furthermore, argue that two things occur when rhythmic groups comprise differing numbers of syllables, but take

equal lengths of time to say. First, the length of the vowel sound in the stressed syllable varies in keeping with the number of syllables in the group. Second, the speed at which the unstressed syllables are enunciated accelerates as the number of syllables in the rhythmic group increases. This is called stress-timed rhythm. Other languages, such as the Nguni group, have a different kind of rhythm called syllable-timed rhythm. In this form of expression, Ellis and Tomlinson (1982: pp 104-105) maintain, each syllable is evenly stressed and takes approximately the same length of time to express. The consequences for an Nguni speaker when using or listening to English may be significant, as there may be an alteration in the natural rhythm or stress pattern of the English used. The changes effected by the student, whose first language is syllable-timed when the target language is stress-timed, may be the result of difficulty in expressing some syllables more quickly than others, which results in a failure to shorten or lengthen vowel sounds. This may impact dramatically on comprehension as stress patterns and intonation may be lost in the evening out process to which the rhythmic groupings are subjected.

Many students have the added disadvantage of having undergone schooling in English under the guidance of teachers who speak English as a second language. Such teachers themselves frequently have difficulty in demonstrating the received pronunciation model (in continuous speech), which forms the basis of most teaching material on speech. Phonetic transcription with the aid of a dictionary such as the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* is of value in overcoming the problem on the theoretical plane (see Ellis and Tomlinson: 1982, pp 107-108).

When a distance teaching course is considered, the first implication is that reliance on the student alone for the purpose of reading study materials and textbooks is

counter-productive. There needs to be recognition that almost all ESL students will not be able to do justice to the texts required for study, and that the understanding of a passage or book diminishes exponentially as the student's pronunciation or limited stress-timed usage ability become further removed from received pronunciation and patterns. Furthermore, the problem would obviously be compounded by weak reading skills.

In a distance teaching environment (as well as in any other tertiary environment), all prescribed texts should therefore be supported by recordings read by English first-language speakers. The purpose would be to ensure that students have access to a presentation that is read in meaningful units, reflecting appropriate intonation and pauses which emphasize the structural groupings of words. There is merit in ensuring that different readers make each recording, in order to expose students to a range of reading styles and acceptable variations in pronunciation.

Early in the course an oral skill assessment ought to be made, so that where necessary oral practice modules can be prescribed for the student. In a distance teaching environment this dimension may prove difficult, but it is certainly possible, as will be indicated in the section devoted to methods.

The auditory component of oral skills, according to Froese (1981: p 124), "has been defined broadly as the process by which spoken language is converted to meaning in the mind." Estimates in 1928, as reflected in Rankin (1928: pp 623-630), were that adults spent approximately 45% of their time in listening. There may since have been an escalation when the telephone intruded into work areas. While there has been a fairly substantial amount of theoretical and speculative research by Durrell and Hayes (1969), Spache (1972), and Sticht (1974), into clarifying the process of auditory processing, listening skills are often likened to

the written comprehension skills which have been well-researched and described. However, an approach which pays greater attention to the experience of spoken language might well be valuable. Definitions of the terms *hearing*, *listening* and *auding* used in relation to a discussion of listening comprehension are offered as the first step in this discussion. *Hearing* is the term used to describe the neurophysiological process which is the first step in auditory information processing, while "*listening* is perceptual learning through the auditory modality" (Froese: 1981, p 135). The latter deals with the perceptual processing of information using short-term and long-term memory, as well as "stored" perceptions. Froese goes on to explain that the process is affected by mental sets, rates of input, distracting associations, knowledge about language, concentration and attention. *Auding* is auditory processing, or listening, with comprehension.

Listening comprehension implies the need for recognition of both the literal meaning and the intended meaning of the speaker. This requires knowing not only what was actually said, but also the context in which the utterance occurred. When both the *text* and the *context* are considered together in the interpretation of what was said, the term *discourse* is appropriate. The speaker relies on the background of the listener in any discourse. The implication is thus that there will seldom be total comprehension (see Brown and Yule: 1983, pp 56-57). The aim in any listening comprehension exercise should similarly be to make it possible for students to develop listening skills to the point that they arrive successfully at a reasonable interpretation, and not process every word uttered. As Brown and Yule (1983: pp 59-60) argue, the multitude of possible meanings of every statement we hear seldom occurs to us, because the interpretation we attach to the utterance is constrained by its context, and limited by our differing backgrounds. One certainty is that we are seldom sure that we have understood all that we have heard,

especially in long statements such as those made in lectures. In the first place any statement is generally selective, being drawn from the views, opinions, beliefs or knowledge held by the speaker; the utterance is therefore only a partial reflection of the speaker's point of view. In the second place, as Brown and Yule (1983: pp 59-60) argue, the hearer is seldom capable of a totally accurate interpretation of what was heard. It is this acceptable level of understanding that we must seek to develop in our students. In pursuit of performance of this nature, it is imperative, therefore, that students are conscious of expectations concerning listening comprehension. If they are unaware of the perception that 100% comprehension is not probable, they may become disillusioned with their performance, which may hinder understanding.

An exercise which requires listening comprehension and which is often evaluated by expecting answers to specific questions based on the utterance is effectively one which treats the spoken language as if it were written text. Furthermore, as Brown and Yule (1983: pp 100-101) point out, students are expected in such an exercise to listen at a sustained level of attention and also to interpret correctly all of what has been said, as well as to commit what has been heard to memory for as long as is necessary to respond to the questions posed. It is important to recognize that few adults are capable of such levels of sustained attention, such a high degree of accurate interpretation and the commitment of such extensive quantities of information to memory. Adams (1977) notes, by contrast, that the other skills applied in relation to comprehension of the written word also have relevance in listening comprehension. However, experience of the context in which an utterance is made, as well as of the cotext linked with, and preceding the utterance assist the student, in the view of Brown and Yule (1983: pp 100-101), in interpreting the statement.

It is particularly important for the speaker or initiator of the communication to recognize the "communication gap" which exists between the high sophistication level of the lecturer and the low sophistication levels of the students in their respective areas of English competence. This is particularly true in a distance education situation, where the course designers have a responsibility to ensure that tutors communicate in an understandable form for the average student². This may well require statements to be paraphrased and, if necessary, simplified. The way in which a statement is phrased must take the level of competence of the student into account. In conversation, speakers adjust their form of phrasing when responding to requests for information by relating their form of expression to the state of knowledge and language competence of the listener. When oral material is in use in a distance-teaching environment it is imperative that the message communicated is carefully encoded in a form accessible to the average student, and that the form in which the message is expressed is also in keeping with the expectations held of the way in which the student should respond.

Brown and Yule (1983: pp 72-74) indicate, furthermore, that listeners adopt different strategies in dealing with different types of information. An anecdote that begins

A funny thing happened to me...

will, in their view, frequently cause the listener to construct mental pictures of the chief protagonists and the events. Subsequent information is briefly scanned against the background of this mental image to establish what is funny. A message comprising detailed instructions will evoke expectations of short explanations (with suitable pauses to facilitate absorption of the points) and, further, expectation that there will be limited information conveyed or else an opportunity for making notes will be provided. The listener will also expect the speaker to repeat the points made. In terms of the foregoing, it

should be clear that oral exercises must be circumspectly designed, with due allowance for listeners' expectations.

As one of the aims recorded in Chapter 3 is to enable ESL students to use English with comprehension in a variety of circumstances, the content selected for the listening comprehension component must *inter alia* also develop an ability to handle long transactions or utterances (such as those encountered in lectures). These aims certainly also dictate the need for inclusion of a note-taking component.

When assessing a student's performance in comprehending a given verbal statement, it is important to acknowledge that the student does not have "access" to the utterance itself, but rather to a personal representation of the content of what was said. A question relating to the original utterance is itself subjected to interpretation before the student draws on the personal recollection of the utterance (see Brown and Yule: 1983, pp 99-101). In assessing listening comprehension it is thus necessary that the exercise be task-based. Recognition must, however, be given to the fact that this approach will not provide any real insight into the processes used by the listeners in arriving at their "reflected" understanding. The obvious outcome, according to Brown and Yule (1983: pp 144-149), is that developing the quality or nature of these processes is not possible from such an assessment.

Two points emerge from this discussion about listening comprehension: the type of material and the type of situation used for a listening comprehension exercise must approximate as nearly as possible to a realistic instance in which listening occurs; the process of interpretation of what has been heard, and how to assess what has been absorbed by the listener, require further study before an entirely well-founded format and methodology emerge. Existing models are all based on the synthesis of previous research and practice. Terms such as *hearing*, *listening*

and *auding* are not systematically used in the literature about auditory processing, with the result that the models do not always suggest what needs to be done to enhance auditory processing (see Froese: 1981, p 130).

Comprehension can certainly be developed through both the auditory and the visual channels, but the language instruction aimed at developing the ability to make inferences and draw comparisons need not be duplicated in the sections dealing with reading and listening.

An oral component in a course must aim at eliciting speech which has a purpose. As the learner progresses, the length of the required speech utterances, all of which should be related to specific and perhaps structured tasks, must escalate. Proper oral communication depends on effective organization of what is being communicated. The required organizational ability may need to be developed by moving from exercises which provide an external structure (such as arranging points in an appropriate sequence) to those with minimal external support (as in opinion-expressing tasks) and as enumerated by Brown and Yule (1983: pp 117-122). In moving towards the latter ability, students will be assisted to develop the capacity for formulating opinions, not independently, but in relation to situations where the validity or impact of an opinion depends upon the ability to sequence the points of an argument or presentation logically.

8. THE PLACE OF GRAMMAR

Two factors have militated against the use of grammar in the teaching of English at primary and secondary school for several decades. First, there was a general disillusionment with the teaching of both modern linguistics and traditional grammar, the former because of its complexity, jargon and inaccessibility for teachers, and the latter because the perception grew that it was "unscientific".

Second, the assumption was that language acquisition is an inductive rather than a deductive process.

Experience - reflected in the work of competent teachers, and reported in Terrell (1977: pp 325-337), Huang and Hatch (1978: pp 118-131), and Hakuta (1976: pp 321-351) - is that a combination of inductive and deductive methods yields the best results. Furthermore, the teaching of English benefits from instruction in its grammar but, in this regard, as Allen and Widdowson (1980: pp 45-48) explain, thoughtful selection is called for.

Two types of traditional grammar are the usual focus of attention: the scholarly, reference grammars of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries and the school grammars. The latter suited the schools, but often represented shortcomings on the basis of the injustice done to the more detailed analysis of the reference grammars upon which they were based. The criticism against them is that they err with imprecise notional definitions for parts of speech and other grammatical categories. The linguistic research which resulted in this criticism of traditional grammars has highlighted three ways of defining linguistic categories, according to Allen and Widdowson (1980: p 50). Morphological definitions classify the physical forms of the language. Functional definitions establish the relationships of words to other words in sentences and draw on terms such as "subject" and "object". Notional definitions (in traditional grammars frequently classified as semantics) reflect the relationships of words to the actual phenomena they represent.

Pedagogic grammars should reflect the relationships between the three forms of definition. For example, while nouns and verbs should be defined notionally, the other parts of speech should be explained functionally but in relation to the way nouns and verbs are defined: thus adjectives might be recognized as words which modify nouns, while pronouns

might be classified as words which substitute for nouns. Finally, a morphological distinction can be added, such as the observation that most verbs fit into patterns such as the following:

<i>swim</i>	<i>kick</i>
<i>swims</i>	<i>kicks</i>
<i>swam</i>	<i>kicked</i>
<i>swum</i>	<i>kicking</i>
<i>swimming</i>	

Linguists, such as Allen and Widdowson (1980), Leech, Deuchar and Hoogenraad (1982), and earlier Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (1972), tend to agree that simple, categorical definitions of basic forms such as noun, verb, sentence, clause or word, cannot be expressed. However, they concur that definitions followed by lists, such as of typical examples of word classes, provide the learner with an inductive understanding, after study, of the forms in question. Traditional grammar provides the basic array of many terms and distinctions, some of which require modification, that are needed to describe the abstract system of rules underlying English utterances.

The fundamental difficulty with traditional grammar (Allen and Widdowson: 1980, p 51), has been its tendency to focus on the details of its components while obscuring the larger, structural network of systems. The procedures used in taxonomic grammar were developed to counter this tendency. The starting point is to establish grammatical categories or linguistic units below the level of a sentence in terms of distribution and their relationships to each other rather than in relation to logical or metaphysical categories. The focus is on the formalization of surface structure, rather than on an item-centred approach to language.

Another approach, most evident in the work of Nida (1968), is immediate constituent analysis which seeks to show the interlocking patterns of relationships in simple sentences. This approach relies heavily on binary structures. An adaptation of this approach is tagmemic analysis, as reflected by Pike (1967), which defines form-class correlations or *tagmemes* (from the Greek word *tagma*, meaning "arrangement"). Each tagmeme correlates a slot or grammatical function with the class of items which can occur in that slot. Tagmemes are strung together in sequences called "constructions" or patterns. This analysis leads to recognition of frequently repeated structural relationships which, while limited in number, build up to form a large number of sentence types. These approaches offer a number of attractions to the teacher: the conceptually simple framework of analysis requires little explanation; language learners readily accept the concept of a set of identified grammatical patterns and their abstraction into a simple linguistic system capable of coping with a multitude of details; and the taxonomic grammar can easily be represented in diagrammatic form.

A transformational grammar incorporates two aspects of syntactic description: a surface structure with its related abstract deep structure and a set of transformational rules which apply to the surface and deep structures. Chomsky's transformational-generative grammar is of particular significance as it provides important insights into language structure. It has three components: phrase structure rules, transformation rules, and morphophonemic rules. The latter rules draw on deep, abstract, often highly debatable, representations of roots and affixes, which through the application of a series of rules are gradually reshaped "until their form approximates to the required phonetic representation" (Allerton: 1979, p 224). These rules operate on the phrase structure and transformational rules in assigning a phonemic representation to them. Their complexity and abstract

nature militate against their use as transformational-generative grammar components in the learning process.

By contrast, the phrase structure rules are readily understood and can be enhanced by the visual presentation of a tree-diagram. The phrase structure grammar is composed of a set of rules which must be fully and accurately specified in the derivation of sentences. Furthermore, by drawing on the deep structure of sentences, pedagogically and andragogically relevant insights become evident. The following example, drawn from Jacobson's (1966: pp 153-160) analysis, takes three sentences (apparently similarly constructed) and from analysis arrives at decisions relating to the teaching of the constructions in question:

1a. He asked me a question.

2a. He made me a suit.

3a. He gave me a book.

When paraphrased, the surface structures look similar:

1b. He asked a question of me.

2b. He made a suit for me.

3b. He gave a book to me.

The first two sentences belong to the same sentence type, but the third is different. Thus the following constructions are correct:

1c. He asked a question.

2c. He made a suit.

However, as a reflection of the original sentence the following is not correct:

3c. He gave a book.³

The difference is that *of me* and *for me* are independent prepositional phrases, while *to me* is an integral part of the sentence because of its association as an indirect object with the verb. Jacobson explains the first type of sentence as a direct object plus complement construction, with three sub-types:

- Eliciting:* He asked a question of me.
- Benefactive:* He made a suit for me.
- Directional:* He said "good morning" to me.

He describes the second type of sentence as an indirect object construction. Having recognized the grammatical principle involved, Jacobson recommends that the two constructions are taught separately, starting with extensive practice in the indirect object transformation (*He gave the book to me* \Rightarrow *He gave me the book*). Thereafter the direct object plus complement construction without the complement expansion should be practised:

- The boy asked a question.
- John said "good morning".

Then the verb lexicon is arranged in three groups: "eliciting" verbs such as *ask*; "benefactive" verbs such as *make*, *change* or *mend*; and "directional" verbs such as *say*, *report* or *explain*. After this, these groups are associated with their respective prepositional phrases as follows: *ask* of plus Noun Phrase (NP); *make*, *change*, *mend* for plus NP; and, *say*, *report*, *explain* to plus NP, before the optional transformations which turn 1b above into 1a, and 2b into 2a are applied (but stressing that they are acceptable only in the case of some elective and benefactive verbs).

Transformational rules are different in that each rule operates on a whole structure provided that it can apply to all of the elements reflected on the left-hand side of the

rule. This is known as the structural description. By way of illustration the following passive transformation is taken from Chomsky (1957):

$$NP_1\text{-Aux-V-NP}_2 \implies NP_2\text{-Aux+be+en-V-by+NP}_1$$

The sequence of elements reflected by the rule to the right-hand side of the arrow is called the structural change. Transformational rules enable the analyst to refer to earlier stages of the derivation to determine the relevance and impact of a particular transformational rule. This facilitates comparisons (for example, of systematic relations between sentences), even though the superficial surface structures may be quite different from one another. Chomsky states, however, that this is not a model of performance or a means of representing the way in which language is used in communication. Despite this disclaimer, his work suggests many useful ideas for the construction of language teaching materials (see Allen and Widdowson: 1980, pp 58-66).

Another development has been the evolution of case grammar, which has emerged from a perceived need to revise aspects of Chomsky's approach. Specifically the call is for the definition of "subject" and "object" (or their deep, syntactic specification with determinants such as "agentive", "instrumental", "locative" or "dative") ahead of terms such as "noun phrase" or "verb phrase". According to Allen and Widdowson (1980: p 68), Fillmore has argued that linguistic theory should differentiate between the semantic roles of noun phrases with their predicate verbs and the position of noun phrases in syntactic configurations. In an attempt to make this differentiation, Fillmore suggests that the underlying structure of a sentence contains a verb and one or more noun phrases, each of which is associated with the verb in a particular case relationship, as in the following:

- o *Agentive*: the case of the instigator of the action identified by the verb;
- o *Dative*: the case of the animate affected by the state or action identified by the verb;
- o *Instrumental*: the case of the inanimate force or object causally involved in the action or state identified by the verb.

The advantage of case grammar lies in the concept of optional transformations. This enables us to distinguish between *propositional* (the logical relationship of words to each other) and *situational meaning* (which reflects the speaker's attitude to the propositional content of the utterance). The equivalent concept of *propositional meaning* in transformational-generative grammar is that of deep structure. In case grammar, the advantage is that the deep structures are further removed from the superficial form of sentences than is the instance in transformational grammar. Another aspect is that the modality constituent of case grammar reveals the speaker's orientation to the events he describes. This aspect of orientation is provided for by the categories of mood and modality in the traditional sense (Allen and Widdowson: 1980, pp 71-73).

The proposition in case grammar is comparable to Halliday's transitivity option in his systemic or functional grammar. Halliday also summarizes the *interpersonal function* which reflects the speaker's orientation to the propositional content of the utterance (comparable to Fillmore's undeveloped modality component) expressed through the grammatical category of mood. The three major communicative functions of language: telling someone something, asking someone something, and asking someone to do something, can be linked to the three options in the mood system of English. These are *declarative*, *imperative* and *interrogative* sentences. The modal verbs are clearly linked with the *rights* and *obligations* of the roles people play, which are influenced by *possibility* and *necessity*.

An obligation does not necessarily mean that one submits oneself to it. Similarly, a general necessity can be acknowledged but not affect a particular event. Modals thus also contain the notions of *variation* (reflecting the extent to which an event is not constrained by what is necessary and possible) and *volition* (or the individual's range of available behaviours), according to Allen and Widdowson (1980: pp 74-76).

Initially in the study of transformational-generative grammar, considerations of use were excluded from the focus of study as being aspects of performance. However, Halliday's concerns are indicative of more recent trends - evident in the work of Brumfit and Johnson (1986), and Robinson (1981) - to incorporate assessments of the impact of sentences in the performance of acts of communication. This reflects a shift in the scope of linguistics to account for communicative competence in addition to the original concern with linguistic competence or the ability to compose and interpret sentences.

Halliday does not accept the distinctions between deep and surface structure or between competence and performance. However, his formulation distinguishes between abstract systems and their communicative realization. In this respect there are obvious similarities between his linguistic formulations and those of the transformational-generative grammarians.

Halliday (1970: pp 160-161) defines a third basic function of linguistic structure. In addition to his concept of transitivity systems (comparable to the proposition component of deep structure in case grammar), and the interpersonal function (related to mood including modality), he regards *textual function* or the way in which sentences are arranged as messages. He goes further, declaring that

the basic unit of language in use is not a word or a sentence but a "text"; and the "textual" component in language is the set of options by means of which a speaker or writer is enabled to create texts - to use language in a way that is relevant to the context.

The three most important sets of options, which he distinguishes as constituting the part of language structure that reflects the textual function, are called *information*, *thematization* and *identification*. The information structure of sentences is the phonological arrangement of sentences into tone groups each representing a unit of information. In each tone group there is a so-called primary stress or tonic presenting new information while the rest of the tone group comprises known or given information. In the information structure new and known information are arranged in keeping with what has preceded the sentence in the discourse. As Halliday (1968: p 212) states, *thematization* reflects the internal structure of the message, as a separate piece of information and without regard to preceding information in the discourse. The information structure relies on intonation, while *thematization* is realized through the sequence of elements in the sentence or clause. The first constituent of the clause functions as the *theme* and the remainder as the *rheme*. *Identification* provides for information to be distributed as *identified* or *identifier* thus giving prominence to different parts of the message, and ensuring links with what has preceded it in the discourse. This work contributes to the discernible and increasing acceptance of the importance of approaches based on developing communicative competence.

Halliday emphasizes that these theme systems are not aspects of textual function which appear in the deep structure of sentences. In transformational-generative grammar, sentences, varying with respect to *thematization* or *identification*, would be classed as stylistically

variant surface forms derived from the same deep structure. The implication is that two sentences that differ in transitivity or mood vary more than do two sentences which differ in theme or at surface structure only. Halliday (1970: p 165), by contrast, gives equal prominence to aspects of grammar that deal with ideational and interpersonal functions as to those associated with textual function. He states (1970: p 165):

It is not necessary to argue that one function is more abstract, or "deeper", than another; all are semantically relevant.

For Halliday, the structure of the sentence requires selection of options from the transitivity, mood and theme systems and combining them.

The development in linguistic description, traced above, has resulted in what Allen and Widdowson (1980: p 87) describe as *communicative functionalism*. This theory is based on recognition of the fact that "knowing" a language involves both the ability to compose correct sentences, and the ability to use them suitably when communicating. It is not so much the production of grammatical utterances that is seen as significant, as their appropriateness in context. This produces two difficulties: first, there is the difficulty of determining how many contexts to consider when specifying the range of appropriateness of an utterance; second, there is the complication of knowing how much of the context is relevant. While Halliday provides a systematic account of available options when creating text, he does not suggest conditions for selecting one option above another. His "grammar" is also therefore not a complete account of communicative competence. At issue, as identified by Allen and Widdowson (1980: p 89), is the difference between linguistic and socio-linguistic orientations to language study, or a grammatical and ethnographic delineation of communicative functions.

Before language proficiency is attained, the basic structural principles of language, or how to use sentences in communicating and how to combine sentences in coherent passages of discourse, must be mastered. In essence, the teaching of grammar has two purposes:

1. Developing a knowledge of the basic structural principles;
2. Developing the skill of applying these principles in meaningful situations.

Increasingly there has been a focus on the use of language as a communicative instrument and a shift in language teaching towards that of developing communicative competence. The basis of such an approach is that the learner does not need to know how to recognize and produce sentences as linguistic objects, but must know how to make and understand utterances which express specific concepts or communicate in a required manner. The concern therefore is far more with the interactional processes of normal language use. Generally, university-level ESL courses, which often include remedial components, tend to continue to rely on traditional methods of developing language skills. It is furthermore not surprising in the university context that students find these methods tedious and unrewarding, as Southey (1990) and Murray (1990) point out, because of the years of exposure to similar approaches during their schooling.

A notional approach, in contrast, provides an element of freshness to the learning process through reference to semantic principles. The structural practice is not an isolated exercise in sentence patterning but is linked to the more basic patterns of meaning. Another application is the possibility of extending comprehension skills by better enabling the learner to obtain two levels of meaning from sentences rather than merely focusing on surface structure

meaning. It is this skill which is a significant factor in the performance of the skilled reader, where the ability of the individual to perceive the deeper meaning through the surface level is crucial.

A notional approach to language learning may even facilitate the possibility of the use of the technique of translation, while this is not an approach advocated in the context of the English communicative course envisaged in this study. Translation had previously been rejected because of reliance on acceptance of surface level similarities between the first and second languages as implying equivalent meaning. Deep structure analysis will circumvent this difficulty by emphasizing similarity only at this level and thus facilitating meaningful contrastive analysis.

The recent focus on the provision of a characterization of what language expresses and the kinds of messages communicated by sentences has moved towards a description of communicative competence. This has provided a valuable extension of knowledge about the formal properties of sentences (Allen and Widdowson: 1980, p 92). An approach which takes both the study of the language system itself and the study of this system's communicative properties together, seems to offer the best approach to this component of the course. Much of the existing course material used in ESL courses at university level will remain relevant, but it may be necessary to reflect the nuances of emphasis required to accommodate both the well-founded critique of dated methodology and the latest research into language acquisition.

Notes

¹ Rough reading age calculations based on my use of the SRA Reading Laboratory IIIB standardized diagnostic tests with Practical English students at the University of Pretoria from 1974 to 1976.

² See Chapter 2: Role Analysis and Needs Analysis for a profile of the "average" UNISA student.

³ *He gave a book* in the sense of "He gave a book to someone" is questionable. The answer to *What did he give to Mary?* is not *He gave a book* but *He gave her a book*. However, *He gave a book* does occur if "give" means "donate". Thus, *What did he give to the jumble sale?* - *He gave a book*.

CHAPTER 5

METHODS

The selection of methods that are appropriate to the learning objectives defined for the course is an essential element in successful course design. Unlike the residential universities where tradition has largely dictated reliance on lectures and where teaching continues in its accustomed way, UNISA has been more ready to experiment and use a range of methods in presenting the course contents. Verduin (1991: pp 8-15) traces similar trends in distance education institutions, reflecting on the willingness of distance educators to be open to other than traditional approaches. However, distance education, by its very nature restricts, the extent of the methods that can be used. Faced as South African educators are by the stark reality of tertiary education for the masses, with large mixed-ability groups, the need to select the most suitable methods from the spectrum of those available has become crucial.

The receptiveness of staff at South African universities to the selection of various methods has been encouraged by the establishment of academic staff development centres, as reflected in the work of Malan and Du Toit (1991), thus mirroring trends noted by Wedman and Strathe (1985: pp 15-19). Also, as Gerrans (1986: p 6) points out, increasing awareness of teaching ability as a criterion in the promotion of staff at institutions such as the University of the Witwatersrand, has further stimulated a re-assessment of the methods used. Despite this, there is a natural tendency, highlighted *inter alia* by Wedman and Strathe (1985: p 16), Shrock (1985: p 21), and Ely and Plomp (1986: p 242), to resist change. Changes in course contents or methods inevitably create more work for the

teacher, and where that work is not given special recognition teachers are inclined to continue to focus on those activities which do attract recognition. As Bates (1982) maintains, changes tend to occur slowly and are often rejected after an initial experiment rather than pursued until refined. Where change has occurred it has seldom met the expectations of its advocates.

The choice of a single method ignores the nature and findings of the needs analysis discussed in Chapter 2. As student groups are rarely homogeneous in terms of knowledge, ability or motivation, (Perry: 1977, pp 93-95), "pitching" course material somewhere near the "middle" is also going to prove unsatisfactory, even if one were able to identify that level. Frustration would eventuate for those of greater ability, while weaker students would continue to flounder.

An important consideration when selecting methods is to accommodate the learning styles of students, while recognizing that adults tend to learn differently from younger people. For example, Rogers (1986: pp 33-34) points out that adults learn more rapidly than young people in areas where they have much experience; however, in areas where they have limited experience or where much memorization is needed, their learning is slower. These views are also those of both Havighurst (1961) and Allman (1983). When selecting approaches, thus, it is important that students are made aware of the underlying rationale for using a range of methods, as outlined by Entwistle and Hounsell (1977), and that they are aware that methods may be more or less successful with different students. Forde (1983: pp 82-89), presents the following possible range of methods:

METHODS

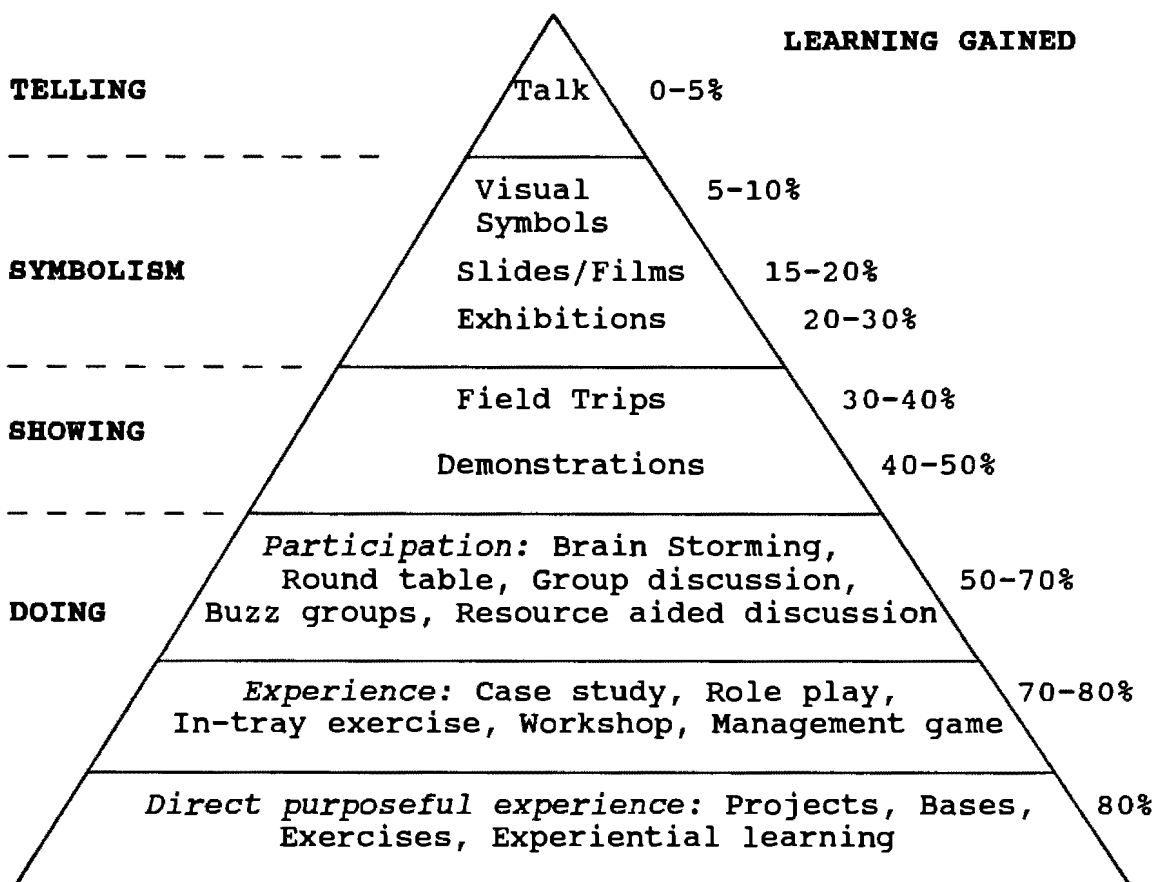
TEACHING METHODS	Printed word Film strips/Slides Records Tape recordings Film (with sound) Public address	Absence of feedback	↑
	Lectures, symposia, etc Visits (field study) Programmed learning Demonstration, dramatization Forum, Panel Leader centred discussion	Gradual development of feedback mechanisms	
LEARNING METHODS	Group centred discussion Resource aided discussion Case Studies Role playing Simulation	Feedback crucial for such methods	
	Group work Projects Exercises Experiential learning	Feedback is itself the learning experience	

This table provides a list of possible methods which, though not all-embracing, depicts the differences between teaching and learning methods. The extreme example of a teaching method is the use of the printed word with no response required of the student. At the other end of the spectrum are learning methods where the learner's response itself creates the learning, as in experiential learning activities. The two distinct approaches reflected in the table are central to this discussion. Furthermore, when selecting methods, the principle that remains paramount is the need to approach the course material from the learner's point of view rather than from that of the lecturer.

Rogers (1984) and Belbin (1980) present convincing expositions of the advantages of such a learner-centred approach.

A second important consideration is the efficacy of a selected method in aiding retention. The so-called Cone of Learning, presented by Forde (1983: pp 82-89), reflects retention of learning twenty-four hours after exposure to the learning experience and is a useful guide in the process of selection:

CONE OF LEARNING



The following teaching methods were listed by Swemmer (1984B) as those in use in the Practical English courses at UNISA:

Printed word: Guides, Tutorial and General letters,
Setworks/Study collection;
Lectures;
Tape Recordings;
Interviews: telling/showing components;
Marking of assignments.

Learning methods that had been incorporated into course methodology were the following:

"Pointers to Progress": a form of self-administered comprehension exercise on each study module;
Self-correct exercises: the answers were contained in the study material to enable students to assess their understanding;
Self-test exercises: the answers were distributed after the dates set for these exercises (to facilitate self-assessment);
Revision exercises;
Student letters, self-initiated, which evoked a reply from a lecturer;
Study groups: contact was facilitated between students wishing to form such groups;
Interviews: participation/discussion components;
Assignments: Tutor - marked by teaching staff;
Computer - assessment completed by computer
Oral on tape - an optional assignment, assessed by teaching staff;
Telephone calls: self-initiated.

While endorsing the continued use of these learning activities, in keeping with the research findings of Flinck (1979: pp 7-9) and Ansere (1978: pp 14-15) which support individualizing learning and free pacing activities, an adjustment to the range of complexity contained in each exercise is proposed. The ideal that should be pursued is

that within each exercise and assignment there should be a number of choices, each of which is graded in terms of difficulty. In the Self-correct exercises, Self-test exercises and assignments, questions should be formulated and headed at three levels of difficulty: basic, intermediate and advanced. Students can then choose to answer at the level appropriate to the time they have available and their current levels of performance, or else they can attempt all three levels. When undertaking an assignment a student may select only the basic level for submission, in which case the maximum marks obtainable will be 60 out of 100; submission of both the basic and intermediate levels of the assignment will enable a maximum of 80 out of 100 marks to be obtained; and submission of all three levels of an assignment will mean that the full 100 marks can be earned.

Clearly, such an approach requires the careful gradation of each learning activity. Initiating any approach of this kind will need close planning and a ruthless approach when determining the adequacy and inclusion of any particular assignment or exercise requirement. For this reason, it may be necessary to phase in the implementation of such an approach, commencing with Self-correct exercises and moving on to Self-test exercises and finally to assignments.

Other teaching methods, according to Swemmer (1984B), which had not been included in the course materials were:

Exhibitions;

Tape recorded oral exercises to complement background discussion tapes which were being planned;

Programmed learning exercises;

Filmstrips/slides;

Films (with sound)/Video programmes/TV broadcasts;

Computer: Educational games;

Programmes of study material;

Study collection anthology.

Learning methods not incorporated included:

Small group discussion;
Role plays and Case studies;
In-tray exercises;
Projects;
Conference telephone discussions;
Answering machines providing recordings of either
general material or specific messages for
students - or opportunities to "submit" answers
or questions verbally.

The question is whether any of these methods lend themselves naturally or by innovative adaptation to use in the context of distance-learning; and, as a related consideration, whether the use of any such method is cost-effective and available to more than a marginal number of registered students.

Exhibitions using pertinently designed posters and displays would require many hours of preparation and, while they might be circulated to the various UNISA regional offices for display purposes - or even to selected centres - they would be unlikely to be accessible to most students or attract sufficient numbers to justify the effort.

(Evidence of this was superficial research which noted that only 11 out of 113 students who entered the UNISA library one Saturday morning in the period of an hour spent time at the professionally presented exhibit on display in the foyer.) Other means of presenting similar material are more readily available, despite the attraction of a variation in method. Similarly, programmed learning exercises - which might be classified as a "showing" method in the cone of learning - would require independent monitoring by teaching staff and could thus not readily be used in a distance-learning context.

The production of films, slides, tape-slide sequences or filmstrips is time-intensive and expensive. The use of these media would require relatively sophisticated equipment which would be unlikely to be readily accessible for many students. However, if the costs of producing plates for inclusion in study guides were regarded as prohibitive, or the variation in method deemed to be an attractive requirement, background material that was text-supported might be presented effectively through slides borrowed by students. Similar considerations obviously apply to the production of video programmes or quality course material developed for broadcast via television - especially if the film-script uses the medium to full advantage without merely lapsing into a televised discussion. The often prohibitive costs in terms of time and capital are the major difficulties, as Schank (1985: pp 17-29) and Morik (1988) show. Computer games and programmes may become a real option years hence. At this time, however, as Crookall (1987) comments, the cost of such equipment and general unfamiliarity with the use of computer material remain too widespread to make these methods viable.

The two teaching methods which do appear both attractive and worth immediate consideration are study collection anthologies (collections of relevant articles reproduced in a single volume for study purposes) and tape-recorded oral exercises. The former is a proved method already in use in many courses at UNISA. This is an option which could readily be borne in mind. Similarly, tape-recorded oral exercises, with which first experiments in the context of the Practical English courses began in 1985, could lend themselves to a range of other possibilities, especially as a means of broadening exposure to first-language speakers of English. As Yule (1985: p 318) and earlier Bates (1982) and Rumble and Harry (1982) have all stressed, there is merit in using such audio-cassette material.

When considering the learning methods listed as not yet in use, the merits of "converting" lectures (teaching method) into peer group activities in the form of small group discussions, role plays and case studies tend far to exceed potential difficulties. However, the concomitant increase in preparation of exactly designed materials for the purpose cannot be overlooked. In this regard, lecturers will need to be well-versed in small group work and to have prepared materials for the purpose. Such preparation may well take longer than designing a lecture and may therefore perhaps most profitably be undertaken by the team responsible for the course, rather than by the individual lecturer.

The use of in-tray exercises is another useful option, especially for materials which deal with business communication skills. This possibility is mentioned in the works of Bååth (1980) and Flinck (1978). The advantage of using an in-tray exercise lies not only in the degree of realism that this simulated activity creates, but also, as Sanders (1966: p 158) points out, that the texts encountered by students do not "stifle all real thinking".

Projects, as defined by Sweet (1982), can be regarded as an extension of assignment work and could be applied in some situations. However, their usefulness in the context of ESL acquisition in preference to the more traditional "tutor" assignments is not immediately obvious. The same skills are required and developed in handling both projects and "tutor" assignments.

Conference telephone discussions are one way of creating the "face-to-face" sessions that Holmberg (1977) and Gough (1980) believe are valuable components in distance-learning. The complication for ESL courses is the large number of students that would need to be accommodated. However, should the logistics of coping with the numbers be resolved, this remains an attractive proposition, in some

instances substituting for or complementing study groups, as Thompson and Knox (1987: pp 105-117) and George (1979: pp 19-24) emphasize. The difficulty that some students would experience in gaining access to suitable telephone facilities needs to be recognized: some students may find the problem insuperable. Similar caveats need to be attached to the use of answering machines for either of the two purposes outlined previously: their use is dependent on access to telephones by students, some of whom may experience difficulty in this regard. Nevertheless both of these forms of telecommunication have strong possibilities, providing opportunities for students to use verbal forms of communication.

With only one exception, programmed learning activities, all of the learning methods not in use in the UNISA course in 1985, can be profitably employed in the course design. One of these, a study collection anthology, (Levey: 1990), has been incorporated in the 1992 UNISA course materials.

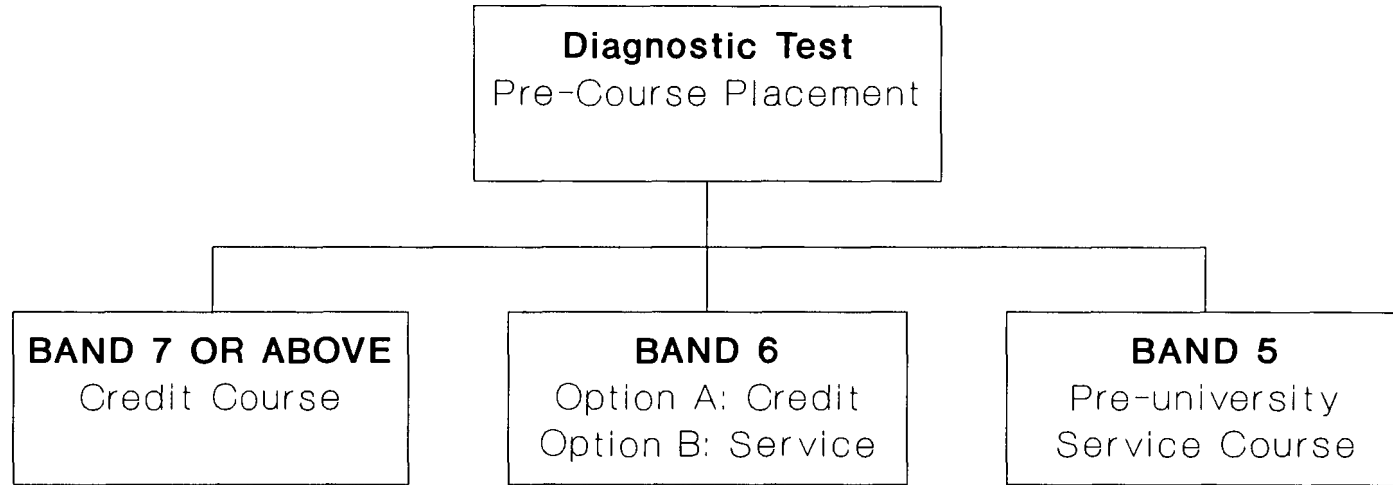
The choice of methods is closely associated with the overall course design. The hypothetical course structure advocated in this thesis is one that provides greater opportunity for individualizing learning. It is not possible, given the large numbers of students registered for ESL courses, to provide the ideal number of personalized contact hours with English first-language speakers (see Chapter 2 for discussion of the required contact hours). However, attempts must be made to optimize both the quality and the number of contact hours as far as possible. With this in mind, the structure for the proposed course design is what might be described as a multiform course based on a programme of experiential learning activities. In this regard, the work of Melton (1981: pp 403-423) highlights the importance of the individualized learning opportunities which are the basis of the proposed course design. The findings of Bartels and Fritsch (1967), that flexibility in pacing and the direct

pertinence of content enhance learning (research subsequently substantiated by Graff, Holmberg, Schuemer and Wilmersdoerfer (1977)), have also informed this proposal. The concept of streaming is already an implemented practice in both the English first-year course intended to prepare students to major in the subject and in the alternative single-year practical course. Similarly, in later years of study, students often have a choice of areas in which to specialize. What is proposed is comparable flexibility in the ESL arena, on the basis of content or interest area, while offering the same language skill development as in the other first-year course.

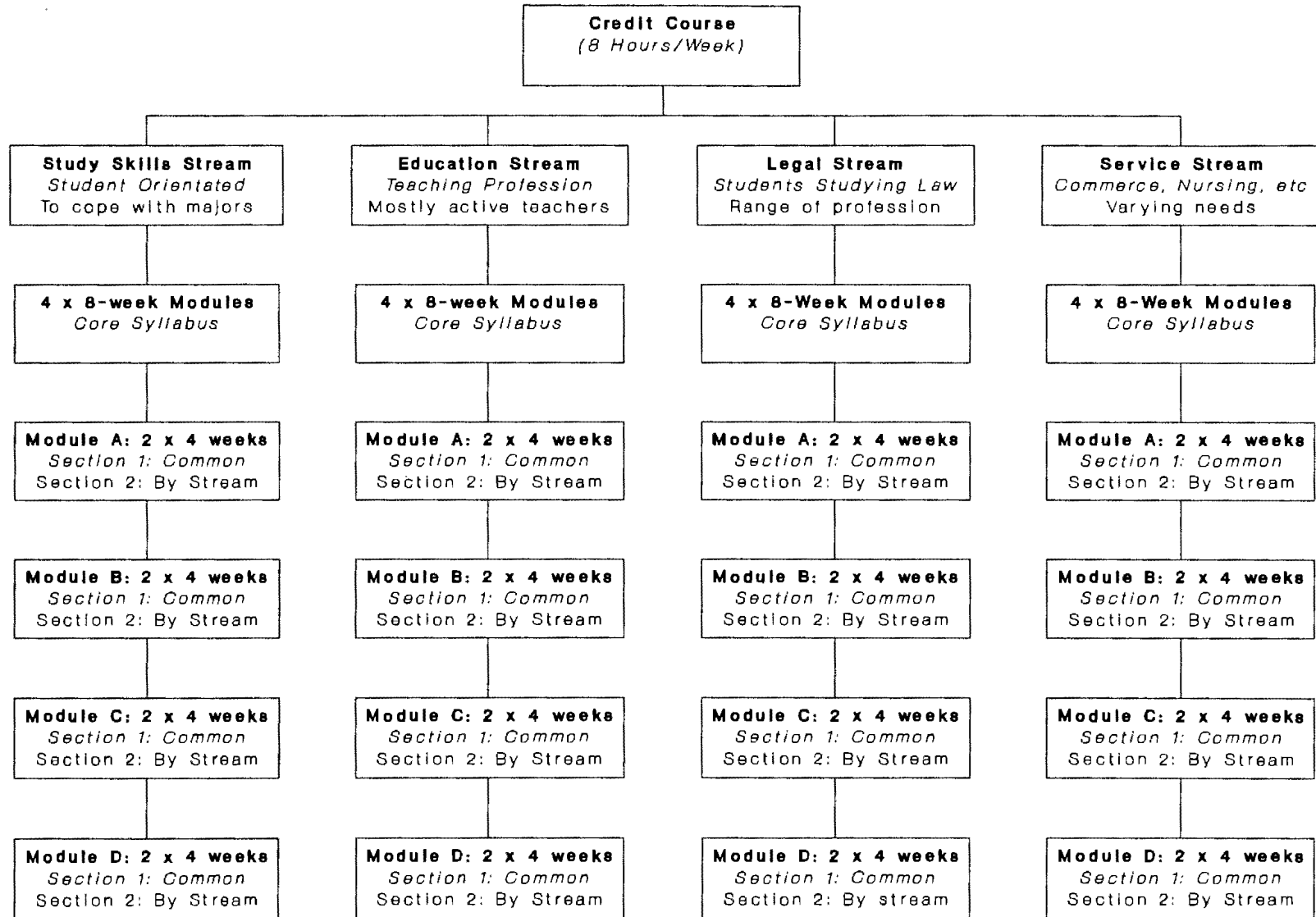
In outline, the course structure proposed here has three levels (Bands 5, 6 and 7; Carroll: 1980, pp 134-136), within each of which there are four interest areas or streams of study: Study skills, Education, Legal and Service Streams. The term "stream" is used to express variations in content while the "bands" delineate approximate English communicative competence levels. The course is preceded by the completion of a diagnostic test to determine the level of study to which a student will be admitted.

The proposed course structure is depicted below in a series of diagrams. However, before the diagrams are considered, a number of comments may help to elucidate facets of the model. Prior to placing students in a study Band, a diagnostic test would be used to determine competence levels. The time devoted to each Band of study is approximately equal to the minimum number of contact hours required to move from one Band to the next (Carroll: 1980). The syllabus is split into modules. "Common" modules are identical in all streams or interest areas. Those modules, which are defined as "By Stream", aim at developing skills using material relevant to the specific stream of study, but the language skills in question are the same at equivalent times in all the streams.

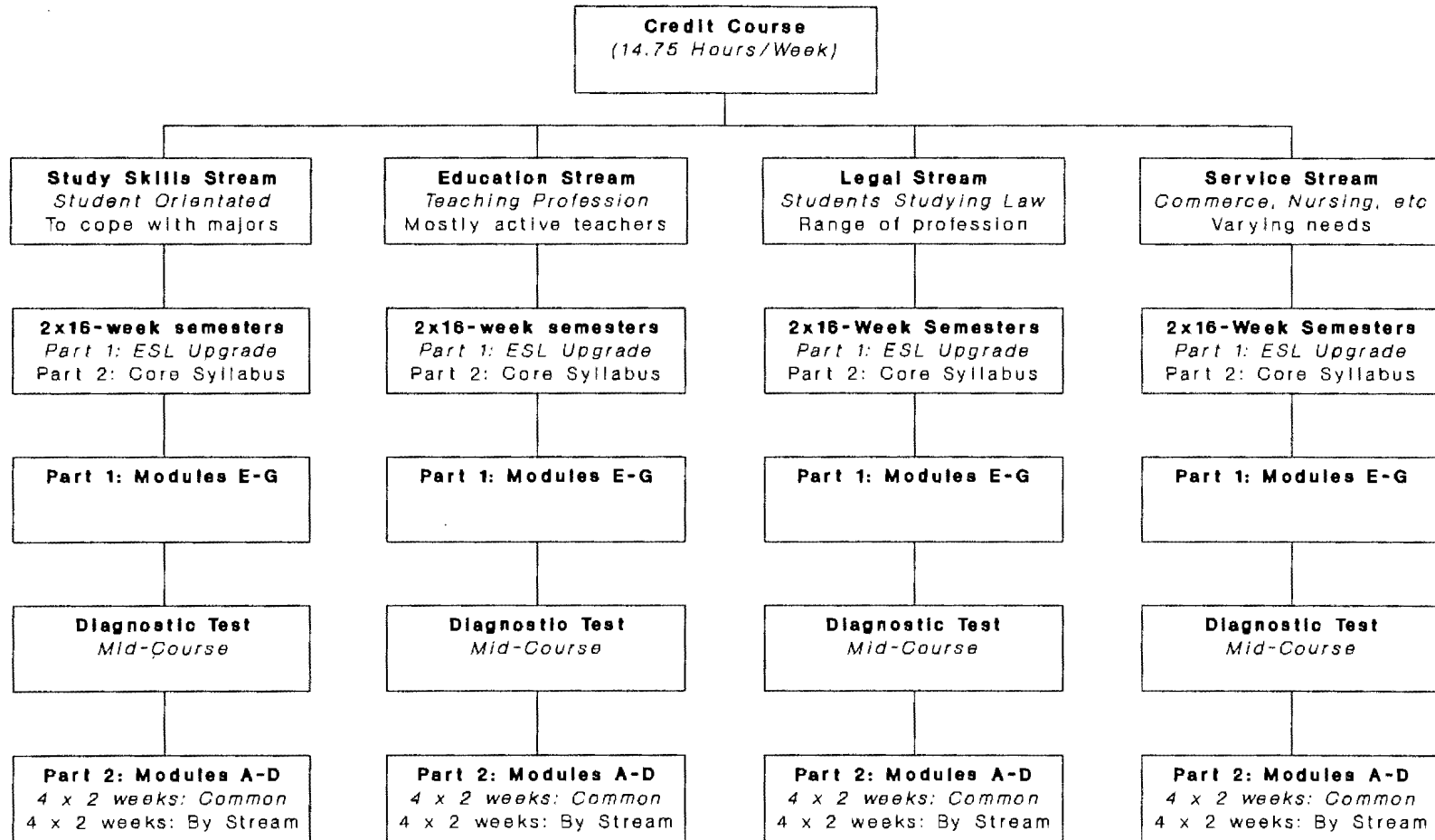
ENGLISH COMMUNICATIVE SKILLS COURSE
ESL LEVELS



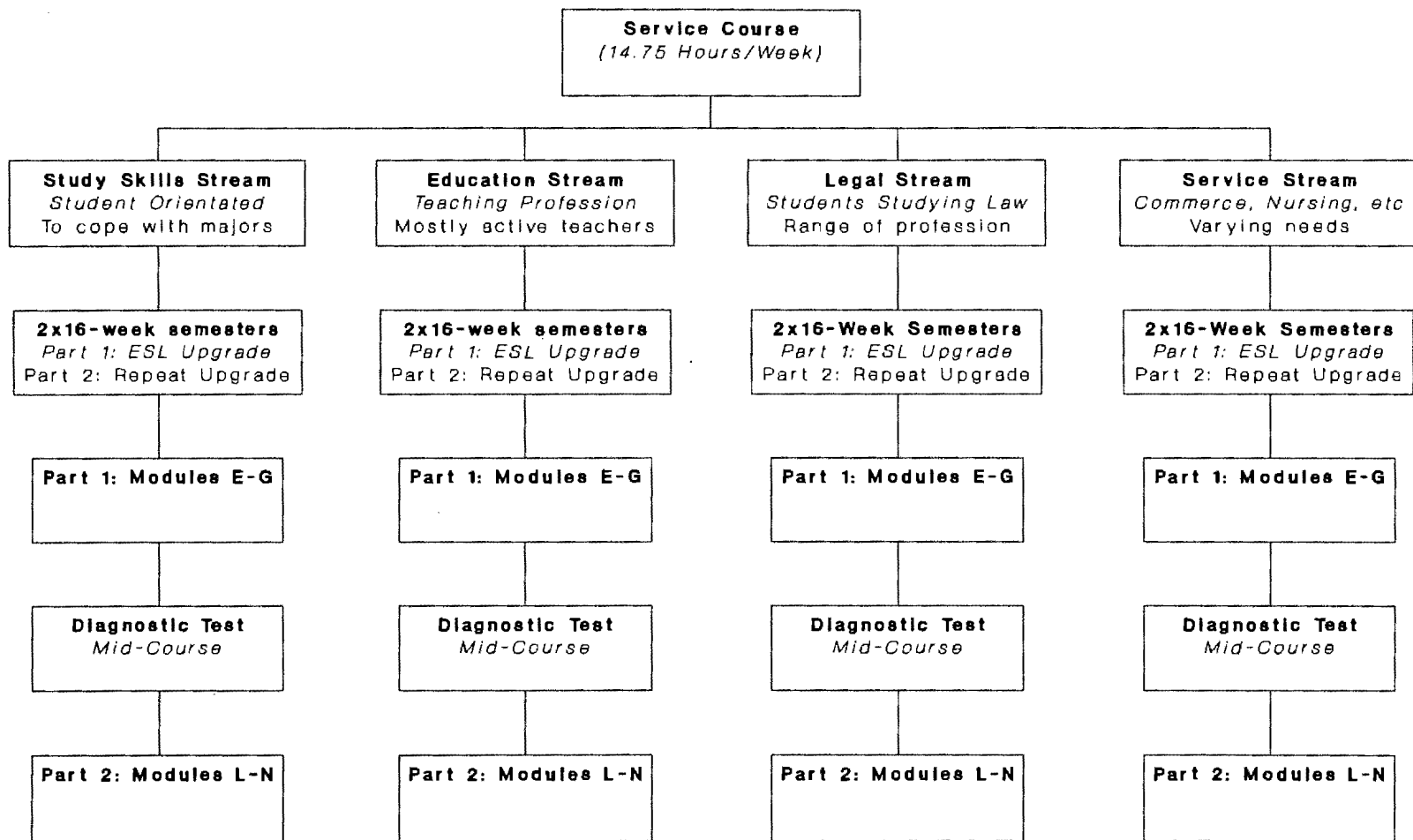
BAND 7 OR ABOVE
250 Hours



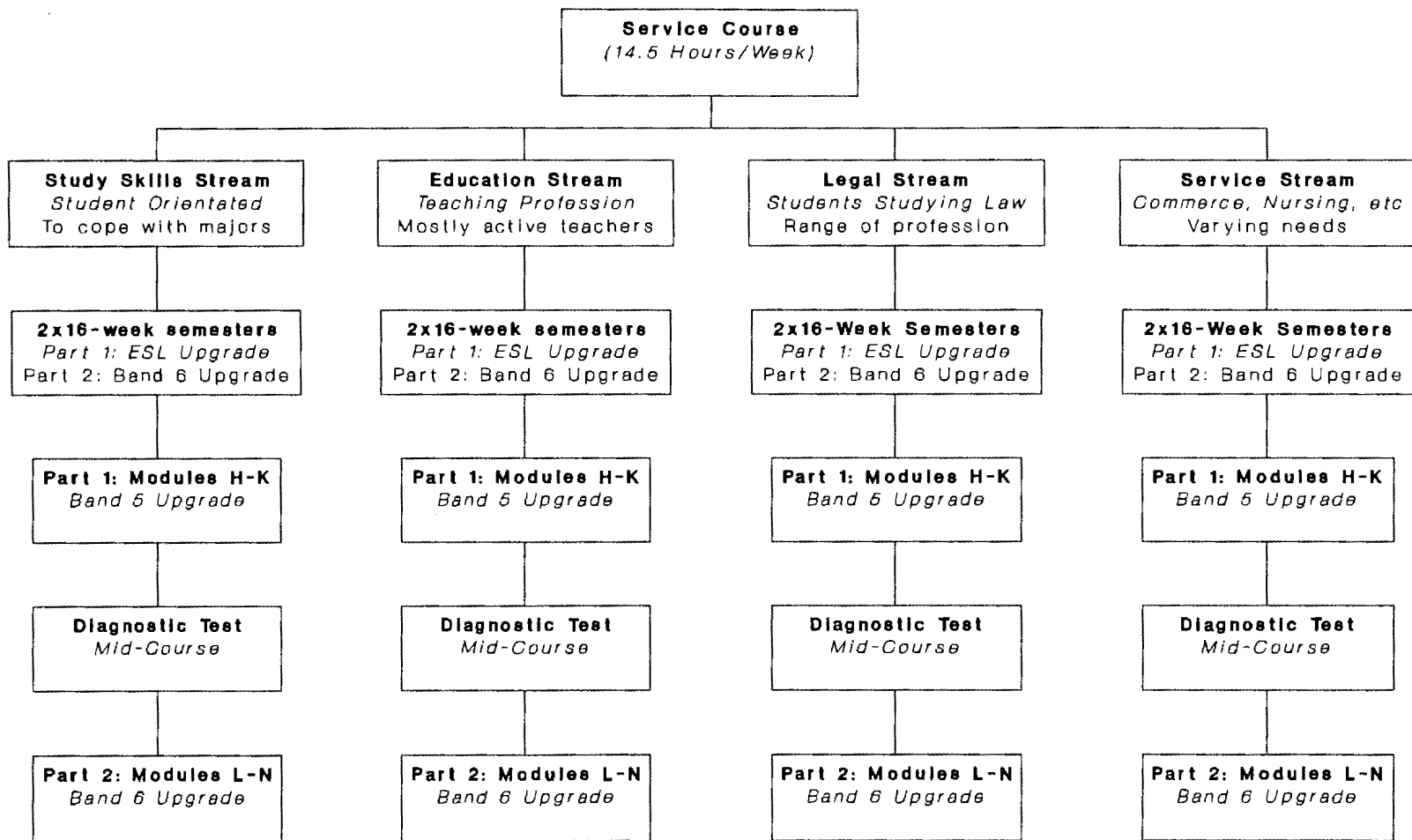
BAND 6: OPTION A
470 Hours



BAND 6: OPTION B
470 Hours



BAND 5
460 Hours



In this proposed multiform course model, students might follow any one of the streams of study (areas of interest), depicted above, commencing work on the basis of performance in the Department of English Admission Test (the pre-course diagnostic test), in the relevant Band or English communicative competence level described below:

1. Band 7: this is the core syllabus, credit course and requires eight hours of work per week for a 32-week period, with each student completing a programme in one of four equally structured and weighted "streams" of study (study skills, education, legal or service). Within each stream there are four modules of work split up into two sections, one of which is common to all streams of study and the other linked to the area of interest related to the specific stream. The final assessment of students, as advocated by Martin, Hounsell and Entwistle (1984: p 2), Kirk (1990: p 784) and Entwistle (1990: p 669), uses measurement devices similar to those used at the commencement of the course, in order objectively to measure actual learning achieved.

2. Band 6: students directed into this level of study are at risk in that they would not normally be expected to gain access to university, but are afforded an opportunity to make up ground. Here each stream of study is divided into two sections, the first stretching over sixteen weeks, each of which requires 14,75 hours of intensive work. At the mid-point a further diagnostic test is undertaken. On the basis of adequate performance the student may then be permitted to complete the core syllabus, credit course material in the remaining semester (option A). However, the time-demands on such students are double those required of Band 7 students: they must complete this section in the much more confined time span of sixteen weeks. If performance in the further diagnostic test is inadequate, the student would be required to complete another sixteen-week remediation programme (option B) in the hope of

qualifying at the end of the year for admission to the credit course in the subsequent academic year.

3. Band 5: this is a remediation, service course intended to prepare a student for possible admission in a subsequent year to the credit course. It is pitched at a level below that of the necessary ESL competence requirements for university study with a view to assisting a student to gain the required skills. It has two parts. The first is aimed at upgrading a student's skills to Band 6 by mid-year. If, as is probable, performance in the further diagnostic test is inadequate, the student would be required to complete the second sixteen-week remediation programme (also offered as Band 6: Option B). However, success in the mid-year diagnostic test may result in such students being permitted to complete the core syllabus, credit course material in the second semester (option A). The Band 5 course component should not normally be offered by a university but it may be necessary for such studies to be conducted under the auspices of a university for perhaps as much as a decade until more equitable standards of schooling have been achieved for all children. It is necessary to consider this course component in the context of the pre-course diagnostic test. Aspirant students whose levels of performance fall into this category must be advised of avenues open to them, including the proposed academic support programme implicit if this component of the course is accepted as a university responsibility in the interim.

There are two further classes of performance which may eventuate from administering the Department of English Admission Test. A student who achieves a Band 8 or 9 rating should be encouraged to register for the English I course, success in which would provide access to English II and the possibility of selecting English as a major subject. However, such students may nevertheless elect to do the Practical English course outlined above under 1. A second category includes a student whose ESL competence is

assessed at Band 4 or lower. Such students should be refused admission to a university course, even though the other admission criteria may have been satisfied, and until a satisfactory improvement has been attained through courses offered by institutions such as colleges and, perhaps, technikons. The implication for a Department of English and the administration of a university is that such students would require an opportunity to complete the pre-course diagnostic test even though they may not yet be registered students.

The rest of this discussion focuses on what those who qualify for the course will be offered. The Band 7, credit course is proposed as the model for a course equivalent to Practical English. In each of its four modules there is a common, four-week section which is designed to suit all four interest streams, combined with a four-week section of the syllabus which contains subject-specific components related to the general themes of the interest streams. Within these sections the model which was developed for UNISA Practical English (Syllabus B) students, with some adaptations, applies (see Goedhals, Adey and Swemmer: 1983). The diligent student should be encouraged to complete all of the components each week or fortnight, with a weekly commitment of eight hours, provided the materials are designed with these limits in mind. The programme of study is broader than the submission requirements or assessment elements listed in the example of one of the four streams reflected below. The reading and listening comprehension components comprise preparatory work for each of these learning activities:

<i>Example:</i>	Study Skills Stream	
Deadline	Type of Learning Activity	Nature
End of Week		
<u>Module A</u>		
2	Self-Correct Exercise A and Reading Skills 1 & 2	Common to all streams

3	Assignment 1: Oral and Reading Skills 3	Common
4	Assignment 2: Tutor and Reading Skills 4	Common
5	and Reading Skills 5	Common
6	Self-Test 1 and Reading Skills 6	Stream-specific
8	Assignment 3: Computer and Reading Skills 7 & 8	Stream-specific
<u>Module B</u>		
10	Self-Correct Exercise B and Reading Skills 9 & 10	Common
11	Assignment 4: Oral and Reading Skills 11	Common
12	Assignment 5: Computer and Reading Skills 12	Common
14	Self-Test 2 and Reading Skills 13 & 14	Stream-specific
15	Reading Skills 15	Stream-specific
16	Assignment 6: Tutor	Stream-specific
<u>Module C</u>		
18	Self-Correct Exercise C	Common
20	Assignment 7: Tutor	Common
22	Self-Test 3	Stream-specific
23	Assignment 8: Oral	Common
24	Assignment 9: Computer	Stream-specific
<u>Module D</u>		
26	Self-Correct Exercise D (Revision)	Common
28	Assignment 10: Tutor (Revision)	Common
30	Self-Test 4 (Revision)	Stream-specific
31	Assignment 11: Oral (Revision)	Common
32	Assignment 12: Computer (Revision)	Stream-specific

In addition to the above components, stand-alone Remedial Self-study Exercises should be available for students with identified language weaknesses to use on a voluntary basis. In keeping with the findings of Bartels and Fritsch (1967) and McDonald, Sansom and White (1981), who emphasize the

importance of flexible design, the matter of choice is crucial. Ambert (1988) and more particularly Cummins (1986: pp 9-19) make it clear that the acquisition of fluent English skills "does not necessarily imply commensurate development of English conceptual or academic proficiency." Consequently, upon discovery of specific weaknesses through tutor-marked assignments or by means of reports on computer-marked assignments (where specific language or usage components have been analyzed as inadequate), Remedial Self-study Exercises should be offered to individual students and issued upon request. These additional study materials should address specific needs of students and should not be distributed to all students. It may not prove feasible to develop these remediation exercises in the subject-specific streams initially. However, to commence with, common exercises for all of the study streams should be developed. To this end, the following topics of Remedial Self-study Exercises - based on the lists of common errors identified by Adey, Orr and Swemmer (1989) and expanded by reference to Shaughnessy (1979) - will provide a useful set to meet student needs. In most instances, it would be pragmatic to have more than one unit on each topic available so that a student with a recurring problem can be assisted with extra remedial exercises:

1. Abbreviations.
2. Agreement: Subject and verb - singular and plural.
3. Agreement: Gender (noun and pronoun) - masculine, feminine and neuter.
4. Apostrophe: possessive and contractions.
5. Capitals: titles and names.
6. Comma splice: sentence structure and punctuation.
7. Dangling modifier: adjectives, adverbs, adverbial phrases and clauses, and adjectival phrases and clauses - including misplaced modifiers, dangling modifiers and movable modifiers.

8. Fragmentary sentence: independent and dependent clauses with subordinating conjunctions; and phrases.
9. Fragmentary sentence: simple, compound and complex sentences.
10. Fragmentary sentence: verbs.
11. Fragmentary sentence: transformations.
12. Logic: constructions, abstractions, generalizations, *non sequiturs*, and definition of terms.
13. Organisation: logical order - by analysis, classification, and comparison-contrast; natural order - by time, and space.
14. Punctuation: colon, comma, dash, exclamation mark, full stop, question mark and semi-colon.
15. Punctuation: ellipsis, inverted commas, quotation marks, references, and titles of works.
16. Spelling: British and American.
17. Spelling: dictionary skills.
18. Spelling: pronunciation and spelling.
19. Spelling - components based on each of the following rules drawn from Adey, Orr and Swemmer (1989: pp 234-242):
 - I* before *E*;
 - drop the silent *E*;
 - change *Y* to *I*;
 - double a final single consonant before a suffix beginning with a vowel;
 - double the final consonant of a word ending with an accented last syllable;
 - not doubling the final consonant if the word ends with two consonants;
 - plurals formed by adding *-S*;
 - plurals of nouns ending in *-O*;
 - plurals of nouns and third person singular forms of verbs ending with a vowel plus *-Y*;
 - plural nouns "borrowed" from French, Greek and Latin;
 - dropping the silent *-E* when *-Y* is added to form an adjective;

dropping the silent *-E* when *-LY* is used to form an adverb;
adding *-K* to words ending in *-C* when adding the suffixes *-ED*, *-Y*, *-ING*, and *-ER*;
drop the silent *-E* when adding a suffix beginning with a vowel, but retain the silent *-E* when adding a suffix beginning with a consonant;
exceptions to the rules based on convention rather than logic.

20. Tense: present, present continuous, present perfect.*
21. Tense: past, past continuous, past perfect.*
22. Tense: future, future continuous, future perfect.*
23. Wordiness: redundancy, euphemisms, and gobbledygook.
24. Style: focus on the message.
25. Style: write with a plan.
26. Style: write plainly and simply; limit figures of speech.
27. Style: describe accurately.
28. Style: focus the contents.
29. Style: eliminating repetition.
30. Style: using facts and eliminating points of opinion.
31. Style: business writing.
32. Style: register.
33. Style: revision and rewriting.
34. Comprehension: listening and written.
* Including mood and voice.

The premise informing the selection of methods in this course model is based on the concept of experiential learning, or learning by doing and is advocated *inter alia* by Ramsden (1988), Biggs (1990) and Entwistle (1990). This approach has proved the most effective way of ensuring adult learning, according to Davies (1971: p 21), as the students are given responsibility for their own learning, which results in higher motivation and both greater progress in learning and improved retention of what has been learned. These findings are endorsed, amongst others,

by the work of Rigg and Scott Enright (1986) and Fuentes (1987: pp 9-16).

As far as is possible, the thrust is towards individualizing the learning activities by providing four paths of study and two entry levels to the core, credit course, while thereafter adjusting the programme of study in response to components of the materials submitted for assessment as assignments. Above all, however, the personal diagnosis and the self-education components, (envisaged in the Self-correct exercises, Self-test exercises and Remedial Self-study exercises) place emphasis on learning methods which are flexible. These are linked with paths that are better able to accommodate varying levels of knowledge and skill. In this way, the course approximates to the type of self-service education systems which are recognized by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization as preferable to programmes of "continuous discourse divided into chapters of equal importance" (Faure et al: 1972, pp 134-135).

This choice of methods acknowledges the fact that the role of the lecturer will shift from that of the authoritative deliverer of knowledge to that of an active agent in the dynamic learning process through stimulating, facilitating, providing solutions and directing the learner to resources. It is furthermore an approach which shifts the emphasis within the first of the two schools of thought on distance education that Holmberg (1982: p 4) identifies: one stresses "individual study and individual non-contiguous tutoring on the basis of course materials produced for large groups of students"; the other is based on "parallelism with resident study ... [combined usually] with class or group teaching face-to-face as a regular element". While the groups accommodated within each band and stream may remain quite large, the proposal seeks to cluster students into more manageable interest groups operating in parallel. More important, the intention is to

respond to the work of Moore (1977: pp 6-40) by creating a structure which can be adapted to meet the specific needs of a student, encouraging dialogue through the judicious choice of methods, and expanding the interaction between learners and lecturers as much as possible.

In acting as a stimulator, the lecturer provides feed-back, in the form of objective observations and facts, from which the students can analyze their personal levels of progress and performance, and determine their future learning strategies. In the support role of facilitator, advocated by Rogers (1986), the lecturer directs the learning of students through the creation of suitable materials and by identifying specific needs while providing access to those materials that will make it possible for the student to meet those needs. Acting as a provider of solutions, the experience and knowledge of the lecturer can in many instances assist students, according to Biggs (1978: pp 266-279), in gaining the necessary insights or access to solutions about which they might otherwise have remained ignorant. Finally, according to Pijollet *et al* (1991: pp 601/1-601/3), the lecturer acts as an agent for those resources required by the students, by ensuring their availability and directing students to them. According to Kalivoda and Elkins (1972: pp 61-96), the first steps in this regard are taken when designing the course, determining its contents and selecting suitable learning methods.

In adopting the above roles, the lecturer needs increasingly to use non-directive methods, in keeping with the efficacy of the available methods reflected in the cone of learning, so as to improve the learning process and aid retention. As large groups of UNISA students gather in some centres to attend "lectures", careful planning and the judicious choice of methods should facilitate the learning of the students attending. A highly effective approach is the use of small groups within the framework of the larger

clusters present. The discussion which is encouraged in small groups, according to Potter and Anderson (1976: pp 1-2), should aim to be a "purposeful, systematic, primarily oral exchange of ideas, facts, and opinions by a group of persons who share in the group's leadership." Before considering aspects of group work below, some observations based on this definition are necessary. The group activity has to be accurately structured in terms of content and time to meet the overall learning objectives. The discussion opportunity facilitates practice in spoken English in each group simultaneously rather than only the one-to-many exposure that is possible in the lecture method. Furthermore, as Weaver (1983) points out, group work recognizes the collective experience and wisdom of adult learners in a way that more directive methods cannot. However, for maximum advantage to be gained from the use of small groups, the following points need to be borne in mind. Many people are inhibited in large groups, and small groups are therefore a better vehicle for obtaining participation and involvement (Jelfs: 1982, pp 20-22). According to Brumfit (1986) and Bligh (1986), group methods have emerged as a highly effective method for achieving learning since the inefficiencies of the conventional lecture as a medium of learning were recognized. In lectures, two-way communication is distinctly limited and confined, when it occurs, to a minority of those present. Group methods are most effective when participants have all been exposed to a brief introduction which ensures a basic, minimal knowledge of the subject. This then facilitates effective group work which is designed to increase knowledge and insight through co-operative endeavour (Swemmer: 1991, pp 61-68). Personal experience leads me to endorse the view of Jaques (1984) that ideal groups are those with six to ten members, who should appoint one of their number to act as their "reporter". Such an arrangement tends to focus the activity of the group on meeting the reporting need of the "reporter", thus ensuring a task orientation within the group.

In ESL courses, as both Krashen (1981A) and Mohan (1986) show, students should conduct all discussion in the medium of English. Activities well-suited to group discussion are questions of comprehension both in relation to specific details and to the broader questions of themes or insights. Case studies lend themselves to small group discussions, as Potter and Andersen (1976: pp 187-188) illustrate, and can have as their purpose the stimulation of practice in speaking English, tests of comprehension at various levels of complexity, or activities which will achieve both of the above goals as well as providing new, in-depth understanding. Well-written case studies, to quote Potter and Andersen (1976: p 188), reflect the "importance of careful reading, accurate reporting, reliable interpretation, clear communication, and an awareness of many differing but equally valid points of view.

To illustrate the approach, examples of a case study and role play are given:

CASE STUDY: LORD OF THE FLIES

Consider the following case study. Read the passage carefully. Appoint one person in your discussion group to report back to the lecture class on your group's responses to the questions. You have 15 minutes for this discussion.

Professor Barton explained to his students that *Lord of the Flies* reflects the triumph of good over evil. In support of this view he concluded his series of lectures by reading the following excerpt from "A Gamble on the Impossible" by R. Wallace, published in *Life*, 2 December 1963. The article describes the filming of *Lord of the Flies*:

The adult members of the [film] company had, of course, read the book several times each; its meaning and its incessant use of symbolism had lodged

in their heads to an extent that verged on the humorous. After an encounter with Golding's writing one commences compulsively to look for gloomy, hidden meanings in ordinary objects, the natural world and the everyday conversation of those around him [sic]. It is a temporary ailment, but at that moment a few of the adults had bad cases of it. (Al said "Good morning" to me. What did he mean by that?)

"Note", said Professor Barton, "how Wallace has recognized the fact that the power of evil is short-lived - it is a "temporary ailment" soon subdued, as it is in the novel. After all Ralph is saved when the landing party from a passing British cruiser is attracted to the island by the pall of smoke hanging over it. So the forces of optimism, right and civilized values triumph over evil."

Questions

1. Has Professor Barton correctly interpreted the overall meaning of *Lord of the Flies*?

If your response is YES, provide further evidence from the novel for your group's view.

If your response is NO, explain why you think he is wrong and refer to evidence in the novel to support your group's assessment.

2. The excerpt quoted by Professor Barton emphasizes the "gloomy, hidden meanings in ordinary objects, the natural world and the everyday conversation" which Golding incorporates in his writing.

What examples of this are mentioned explicitly or by implication in the case study?

What other important instances can your discussion group name and explain?

ROLE PLAY: LORD OF THE FLIES

students are split into clusters of three. Two of them role play a situation, while the third acts as analytical observer.

Allow two minutes for absorbing the "situation" to be role played. Act out the scenario in the clusters simultaneously for five minutes. Then ask the observer to analyze with the two role players the strengths and weaknesses of their arguments for three minutes.

NOTE: It is imperative that the lecturer establishes a serious tone for the activity to be successful.

Situation

A student has written an assignment on *Lord of the Flies* and had made a major effort to submit a comprehensive essay. The marks obtained were only 52%, however. The student, determined to demonstrate real understanding of the novel and its meaning, makes an appointment to see the lecturer who marked the assignment.

The notes of the lecturer in a mark-book show that the major flaws in the student's work were errors of style and the concluding statement that "this is a novel which reveals the earlier primitive nature of man but that good has come to triumph".

Task

Role play the situation for some five minutes in your cluster of three with two of you acting the parts of the lecturer and the student. The third member of your cluster must act as an observer and after the acting period analyze, with the role players, the following points:

1. The correctness of the arguments about the novel presented during the role play.
2. Did they address the error of statement in the concluding sentence of the student's essay? Was understanding of the real meaning of the novel achieved?
3. Were there any major errors of usage or expression which led to misunderstanding by the listener?

At the end of the role play, roles should be rotated for a second and third scenario and analysis.

These two examples focus on the main theme of *Lord of the Flies*: the destruction of the values of civilization and that which is good by evil. They do so by dwelling on the misinterpretation on the one hand by Professor Barton of both the symbolism of rescue by a warship and Golding's depiction of people as inherently evil, and on the other by the student who perceives good triumphing over evil in the novel. In the case study the need to take issue with a professor adds to the necessity for close familiarity with the novel itself. The quotation includes reference to the natural world and everyday conversation. In responding to the second of the questions, numerous examples might be drawn upon by students and could include comments on the idyllic setting of the novel and how this is devastated by the children, or the way in which a dance ritual turns into the horrific killing of Simon. The role play also demands a detailed knowledge of key incidents in the novel if the

"student" is to take issue with the "lecturer", especially when the student's concluding statement in the essay is the major debating point.

Both activities will result in most students obtaining practice in speaking during a focused task for an extended period in a realistic situation. In accordance with the findings of Krashen (1981A), language acquisition occurs in the circumstances created by such activities. The subject matter is accessible to students and requires meaningful interaction using the visual clues outlined in the written scenarios. Furthermore, the peer group composition of the working clusters is conducive to natural tolerance of grammatical errors, while the process of communication centres on an area of learning need for the participants. Lastly, the evaluative process required in both exercises provides illustrative content to facilitate the development of analytic and synthetic skills by each student. The processes of discussion or role play will be unique in each group. Therefore, only generalized points of analysis can be considered in advance of the activity.

Another important parallel component of the course will be the self-development and analysis of progress in regard to reading skills. The diagnostic pre-course test will *inter alia* identify the reading levels of students. While not imperative, a valuable adjunct to the course materials will be the production of a Tertiary Reading Course book modelled on the concepts contained in the Science Research Associates Reading Laboratory series (see *SRA IIIB Reading Laboratory: Teacher's Manual*, 1989, pp 9-12). However, the focus should be confined to the development of comprehension skills and not extended to vocabulary or reading rate development. Bruder and Henderson (1986) have shown that the acquisition of enhanced comprehension skills results in associated growth of vocabulary and improved reading rates. Given the range of activities that must be included in the course, the focus in the area of reading

should therefore be limited to comprehension skills. The development of listening and comprehension skills is of primary importance to a student who will attend lectures and be required to process the auditory material presented (Krashen: 1981B). Ideally relevant activities should be included in the Oral Assignments component of the course.

The reading materials will be used unaided by the students, who will take responsibility for the development of their personal reading skills. The materials should be arranged according to the following reading levels:

Reading Level	Study Band	Scholastic ESL Equivalent *	No. of Words
5.0	4	Standard 4	800
5.5	4	Standard 4-5	850
6.0	4	Standard 5	900
7.0	5	Standard 6	1000
8.0	5	Standard 7	1100
9.0	5-6	Standard 8	1200
10.0	6	Standard 9	1400
11.0	6-7	Standard 10	1600
12.0	7-8	Standard 10	1800
13.0	7-8	Post-matric	2000
14.0	9	Tertiary level	2200

* These are requisite competence levels of reading skill and not necessarily equivalent to school standards completed.

This tabulation conjoins the widely used SRA Reading Laboratory tabulation reflecting reading levels, scholastic level (adapted for South African equivalence) and passage length, with the study bands of Carroll (1980). The SRA IIIIB Laboratory was used with groups of students at the University of Pretoria in 1976 and 1977. The results which follow have not previously been published. The average

reading level improvement in the voluntary remedial course was 2,3 levels in a six-month period. This effectively raised the mean reading levels of the remedial group from Level 7 to Level 10. Earlier diagnosis of need and longer exposure to the material would possibly have resulted in greater improvement.

The reading materials included in each level for the proposed Tertiary Reading Course book need to be carefully selected to meet the adult interests of students, and to be judiciously graded. Within each reading level section, there should be at least sixteen exercises to accommodate the range of content associated with word meaning or word analysis required within each reading level, and to provide at least four exercises directed at each category of content. Each exercise should also be graded in terms of the skills levels required in the reading level category. In keeping with the research findings reflected in Tierney and Cunningham (1984: pp 609-656), the questions relating to the selected passages should have two categories: those relating to word meaning or skills of word analysis, and comprehension skills.

According to McLeod and McLaughlin (1987: pp 109-123), who endorse the findings of De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981), ESL readers master related learning sub-tasks (such as sound-symbol relationships, or syntactic and lexical frequency) before moving to the higher level of identifying main ideas or inferring meaning from a given task. McLeod and McLaughlin (1987) show that the goal in developing reading skills is to automate reading processes and the use of controlled processing to draw meaning from content. The development of comprehension skills should therefore move from surface to deeper levels of meaning through the range of reading levels. This ought to be achieved by ensuring that the following major areas of reading-thinking skills are incorporated (see *SRA IIIB Reading Laboratory: Teacher's Manual*, 1989, pp 9-12):

1. *Whole-part thinking*

What is the main idea?

What are the important details?

How exact was the reading?

2. *Cause-effect relationships*

Why do certain things happen?

What difference do they make?

What supporting evidence does the writer provide?

How does the reader evaluate the evidence?

3. *Alike-different relationships*

How are certain things alike?

What do they have in common?

In what ways are they different?

4. *Sequence and organization*

Which items came first and which second?

What went before?

What is the time order in the passage?

What is the writer's plan?

5. *Inferences and conclusion*

What does the writer think?

What is implied or is to be read "between the lines"?

What are the writer's feelings?

What appears to be the writer's purpose?

What is the writer's main point?

What distinctions are there between facts and opinions?

The skills relating to word meaning or skills of word analysis should be developed in a planned fashion. From Reading Level 9 onwards the focus in these components (according to the *SRA IIIB Reading Laboratory: Teacher's Manual*, (1989: pp 9-12), supported by McLeod and McLaughlin (1987: pp 109-123), Brown and Santos (1987), and Feldman (1987: pp 25-39), among others) should be on

synonyms, antonyms, homonyms, prefixes, suffixes, root words, idioms and figures of speech. In Reading Levels 5 to 8, attention should be given to consonants, consonant blends, silent consonants, hard and soft sounds (c and g), short and long and silent vowels, contractions, compounds, base words, changing base words when adding endings, and syllabification.

Selection of the contents of the passages upon which the comprehension and word analysis are based should ensure that at least four of the passages in each level focus on the word analysis skills areas listed here. This would allow students to focus on exercises which provide practice in areas of specific need, and could be presented in matrix form to assist in the selection of passages most likely to provide further practice in any area of weakness.

The matrix in the example below would normally be used after completion of the first reading exercise. A second exercise featuring similar components might be selected if results in the first exercise are not satisfactory:

Example:

READING LEVEL 9

SECTION	WORD MEANING OR WORD ANALYSIS SKILL	DISTRIBUTION OF SKILLS															
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Word Meaning	Vocabulary: Meaning from context	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
	Vocabulary: Semantic variations (from story)	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Phonic and Structural Word Analysis	Roots: Latin & Greek: word origin; meaning and use	*			*			*			*			*			*
	Prefixes		*			*			*			*			*		
	Suffixes			*			*			*			*			*	
	Synonyms	*		*			*			*			*			*	
	Antonyms		*		*			*			*			*			*
	Idioms			*		*			*			*			*		

In addition to the reading skills developed in this facet of the course, it is envisaged that both intensive and extensive reading requirements will feature. James (1987: p 182) refers to the research of Carrell and Eisterhold (1983: pp 553-573) and Krashen (1981B: p 23) in confirming the merits of intensive reading. In addition, however, a number of researchers, including Alderson (1984: pp 1-24), Devine (1987: pp 73-86), James (1987: pp 175-188), Eskey (1987: p 191) and Krashen (1985: pp 89-113), have indicated the merits of extensive reading. In this regard, *Point of Departure* presents a useful basis for the extensive reading component, by providing a selection of extracts from longer works of twentieth-century prose writing (fiction and non-fiction) which form the extensive reading requirements. Students read the selected extracts before choosing one of the longer works. The purpose is to provide an opportunity for students to read more widely in the hope that some students will be sufficiently interested in the extracts in the anthology to want to read more than one of the works from which they are taken. However, as James (1987: p 182) declares, "extensive does not mean the reading of everything under the sun, but the quantity of time spent reading about the same or related topics". The selection of relevant works for inclusion in the anthology set, as is the case in *Point of Departure*, is therefore important. These reading components of the course correspond to the intention of creating flexibly-paced individualized learning opportunities.

Finally, it is important to consider the nature and use of both the pre-course diagnostic test and the final "diagnostic" test. As Disick (1975: pp 138-139) argues, properly administered pre-tests "can provide not only measurement of students' progress but also diagnoses of their learning problems" or needs, and can serve as the basis for individualized help in determining the level of learning difficulty at which students should commence. The diagnostic testing fulfils several functions and is

administered prior to the course for all of the levels of study (and again at mid-year for students studying at Bands 5-6 levels of skill). A final diagnostic test is administered at the end of the year. At each of these points, comparable tests must be used to measure the ESL communicative competence, in order to reflect progress made by a student (towards achieving course objectives) and to determine the focus of subsequent study aimed at improving English communicative performance.

The pre-course diagnosis requires the development of a battery of tests which might be called the Department of English Admission Test. This test should be undertaken before the course commences and whenever it can feasibly be administered (at a fee for all students not yet registered for the course). This admission requirement would be used to select students for the relevant band of study. It could be administered at specific dates scheduled from as early as the last quarter of the previous year. This will facilitate the screening of applicants well before the course commences.

The Pre-Course Diagnostic Test Battery might include:

1. Self-administered Reading Test
2. Computer-assessed Test with the following components -
 - 2.1 Language Usage Sub-test
 - 2.2 Listening Comprehension Sub-test
 - 2.3 Reading Comprehension Sub-test
 - 2.4 Prose Assessment Sub-test
 - 2.5 Literary Concepts and Literary Analysis Sub-test
3. Tutor-assessed Prose Composition Test
4. Tutor-assessed Oral Exposition Test.

The analysis of the Computer-assessed Test and the Tutor-assessed Prose Composition Test will thus form the basis of the Band-grading of students. This analysis would be norm-referenced and related to the course objectives.

Performance will determine a student's admission to English I (Bands 8 and 9), the Practical English credit course (Band 7), the combined Practical English remediation and credit/service course (Band 6), or the Practical English remediation service course (Band 5). (The definition of the performance levels required in these Bands is given in Chapter 2.)

The development of this diagnostic tool by the Department of English may require the commissioning of a test-design expert to ensure the validation of the test and its standardized discreet items. A resource base of equivalent items will be required so that a matched but different diagnostic test can be administered at the mid-year streaming of Band 6 students into either the credit course or the remediation service course. Furthermore, the resource base will be used for drawing up the final examination for Practical English. The creation of such a resource base may also require the appointment of a full-time researcher to develop suitable diagnostic test materials with the necessary reliability and validity (Mehrens and Lehmann: 1978, pp 87-132).

While it is not the purpose of this analysis to provide a detailed breakdown of all of the components of the proposed course, the illustrations included in this chapter reflect the nature of the individualization of learning that is possible as a consequence of creating learning experiences rather than using directive, teaching methods. They also reflect the manner in which the course materials and methods can be structured to provide various paths of study for students. The next phase in applying the systematic approach to course design, after determining methods for every component of the course and after completing the detailed preparation of the course materials, is the implementation of the programme of study. However, before this process occurs, thought must be given to the nature of the evaluation steps that will be applied.

CHAPTER 6

EVALUATION AND ASSESSMENT

The word "evaluate" means "to appraise" or "to assess". Van Rensburg and Landman (1986: p 47) point to the term's etymological meaning by reference *inter alia* to the following origin given in the *Oxford English Dictionary*: *evaluer* in French means "to determine the value or worth of". The origins of "evaluate" thus point to the didactic purpose of the word in the context of course design.

In the process of planning a course in the systematic manner advocated, it is necessary to define the methods of evaluation to be used. This is especially true of a course designed to isolate and enunciate learning objectives comprehensively. It is always important to determine whether students have mastered the skills and acquired the knowledge as well as developed the desired attitudes that are intended to result from completion of the course. This is especially so, according to Davies (1971: p 208), when planning has been extensive, in order to determine whether the course design is indeed effective.

It is important, as Heywood (1989: pp 12-16) stresses, to differentiate between the evaluation of teaching or of the course's design, methods and content, on one hand, and the assessment of learning or the measurement of student performance, on the other. Evaluation, as Mackintosh (1991: p 62) states, is concerned with "the educator's instructional actions", while the assessment has to do with "the correlating learning actions of students". In both instances, according to Mackintosh, the focus is on determining the value of the actions in a "scientifically accountable" manner.

Mackintosh further maintains that there are "two possible focuses of evaluation, namely the *teaching product* or the *teaching process*". He describes the teaching product as "the result of the didactical endeavours of the educator" and the teaching process as "the actual actions within a specific teaching situation". In both definitions, he broadens his concern to include "learning as product" and "learning as process". This is an important extension of the definition, particularly in the context of distance teaching where, of necessity (as Murphy and Torrance (1987) highlight), the learning situations created vary from the traditional classroom environment and the possibility of direct lecturer involvement.

Carroll (1980: p 5) adds a significant insight regarding both evaluation and assessment by declaring that the specification of communicative needs informs both the design of language programmes and the development of suitable testing systems. He explains that these three components, in what he calls the Curriculum Triangle, are interactive. He argues, too, that the tendency to permit the end examination to dominate the "content and pedagogy" of language courses and to provide the "learning motivation" should be corrected. However, the resources and time available obviously influence the form that evaluation takes.

The quality, success or limitations of any learning experience are the result of a combination of many factors. The first question that must be addressed is therefore what must be evaluated. According to Pijollet (1991: pp 311/1-311/2), the following points are important:

Evaluation

1. The choice of objectives: do they correspond to the needs of the students?
2. Preparatory work: has the lecturing personnel prepared the learning activities suitably and sufficiently?

3. The contents of the learning activities: is there a suitable balance between the various components of the course, with the emphasis and priorities correctly apportioned?
4. The educational methods: are the methods in use appropriate to the learning objectives and are the methods used optimally?
5. The implementation of the course: were the necessary course materials (set works and study guides) and support services (library holdings, conference telephone facilities, etc.) available when needed; and were the administrative and secretarial services satisfactory?

Assessment

6. The students: does the programme of learning address the specific needs of the students and accommodate their varying levels of experience and knowledge?
7. Attainment of learning objectives: how well have students succeeded in achieving the learning objectives?

The second issue is that of when to evaluate. A balanced approach is necessary in evaluating the learning process: requests made too frequently of students to evaluate components of the course are likely to cause annoyance and resistance; the focus should be confined to obtaining feedback about course components which are experimental or which may have proved problematic in the past. There is, of course, constant feedback available from the assignments submitted by students. This provides direct, ongoing evaluation of the process of developing the learning product, and indirectly contributes to the evaluation of the learning process. At the end of the course, there should be an evaluation of both the learning process and the learning product. Thereafter, tutors should evaluate the course as a whole with a view to making changes where necessary.

The nature of the assessment also requires attentive consideration. Measurement of learning cannot always be exact because, as Davies (1971: p 209) puts it, "we cannot measure learning directly, but must measure signs or indicants of it". Nevertheless, it is possible to: establish the extent to which students have moved towards achieving the learning objectives and hence to meeting their personal needs; establish which learning objectives have not yet been met so that the necessary remedial action can be instituted; and rank students in terms of their performance in relation to the learning objectives. Furthermore, in the process of evaluating, it is possible to determine the appropriateness of the learning methods incorporated in the course, and to improve course design and content.

There is a need for those responsible for the course to be involved in both the evaluation and assessment processes. While there are several advantages associated with this involvement, one merit is that the process of evaluation also has a formative effect on the tutors. The planning and implementation of the evaluation and assessment components should attempt to draw the entire team into this activity so that they do not feel that the process of evaluation "is something done to teachers", as Holly and Walley (1989: p 291) put it, rather than something from which they can learn and improve their own insights and contributions. Managerial control is also facilitated by the implementation of planned processes of evaluation and assessment. The process of evaluation provides information regarding the appropriateness of the strategies that have been adopted in seeking to meet the agreed learning objectives.

With reference specifically to assessments, Bagnato, Neisworth and Capone (1986: pp 97-110), as well as Cross and Angelo (1988), argue that it is important to

differentiate between criterion-referenced tests and norm-referenced tests or examinations, also referred to as curriculum-based assessment. The former measure the degree of competence of a student, with the results independent of the performance of any other student. In such tests, when the course design is effective and the tests appropriate (Plata: 1977, pp 52-55; 1985, pp 200-204), the majority of students obtain scores in the upper proximities. The latter are tests which Gronlund (1973: p 139) depicts as forms of measurement used when there is no absolute standard by which to determine the progress of learners. Gronlund states: "A pupil's achievement can be regarded as high or low only by comparing it with the achievement of other pupils." When students are assessed in this way (Mehrens and Lehmann: 1978, pp 74-76), their scores tend to be normally distributed, with a few doing very well, a few doing badly, and the majority clustered around the average mark. Astin (1991: pp 52-53) sums up the weakness of normative assessment when he shows that it "automatically constrains how much 'excellence' you can have", not because of a weakness in what is being assessed so much as in an artificial limitation created by the comparative form of the assessment method itself. If the purpose is to achieve certain learning objectives, the criterion-referenced approach to assessment appears logical (Popham: 1978). The purpose, according to Willig (1985: pp 269-317), is to create effective learning opportunities for students: the degree of success achieved is dependent upon the criteria by which they will be assessed. It may be that the absolute standard required is that of 70 per cent correct answers in a test. Astin (1991) stresses that such a standard provides the basis for judging effectiveness.

Davies (1971: p 210) names four indicators or, to use his own term, "indicants", which contribute towards establishing the merit of a learning experience. The first of these is the successful realization of learning objectives, where success is based on attainment of the

90/90 criterion. This criterion requires the majority of students (90 per cent or more) to be successful, when assessed, by attaining the majority of the learning objectives (90 per cent or more). The second "indicant", according to Davies, is the deliberate "destruction of the normal curve of distribution". The goal is to implement the 90/90 criterion successfully. When this criterion is achieved, it results in a skewed distribution of assessment scores, which are at variance with the normal distribution curve found in norm-referenced, pre-course diagnostic test.

The third and fourth "indicants" are perhaps less pertinent. The third factor identified by Davies (1971) is the lack of any direct relationship between ability and learning. His research reflects the value of a highly effective, efficient learning experience becoming evident from an order of performance by the students which exceeds the expected correlations between intelligence and learning. The fourth "indicant" is that a successful learning experience is characterized by a positive change of attitude in the student either towards the subject itself or towards learning in general, a point made earlier by Oppenheim (1966). The problem, however, is that neither of these two "indicants" appears to be determinable within the context of the course with which this study is concerned, where attitudinal surveys or the measurement of intelligence would be difficult to incorporate. For example, the costs associated with creating a controlled testing environment within which to administer such tests would be too costly in a distance education environment, as replicating the arrangements for a final examination would be required.

A further point in relation to criterion-referenced tests is that they must be appropriate, effective (or reliable as a means of measurement) and practical. According to Morris, Fitz-Gibbon and Lindheim (1987: pp 18-31) and Wiersma and Jurs (1990: pp 16-17), the appropriateness of

such a test must be related to the learning objectives, the subject material, the learning methods used and to the students. Its practicality will lie in its acceptability to staff and students, as well as in its ease of use. As Astin (1991: p 247) suggests, a criterion-referenced approach to assessment circumvents the consequence of traditional normative approaches in that it does not limit the number or proportion of students who can succeed.

The various forms of assessment and evaluation, which were implemented at UNISA in the context of Practical English over several years, are considered next. Over and above the assessment by the standard end-of-year examination, a number of forms of evaluation were attempted to enhance the evaluation of the learning process and learning product of the course. One of the first of these was at the end of 1981 in the Practical English (Syllabus B) course. It took the form of an opinion survey (see Appendix B), and asked for responses to the following questions:

A. ASSIGNMENTS

1. How many assignments were submitted before and after mid-year?
2. In order of preference, which assignments were found to be the most useful in preparing for the examinations?
3. In descending order, which assignments were found to be the least useful in preparing for the examinations?

B. STUDY GUIDE CONTENTS

1. In order of preference, which sub-sections of *Study Guide 1* were found to be of the most value?
2. In descending order, which sub-sections of *Study Guide 1* were found to be of the least value?

C. RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Which sub-sections of the course should have received greater emphasis - and why?
2. Which sub-sections of the course should have received less emphasis - and why?
3. In what ways could this course be improved?
4. Are there any other observations you would care to make?

The findings are summarized as follows:

A. ASSIGNMENTS

AGE:	UNDER 30	30 TO 40	OVER 40	WHOLE GROUP
Average number of assignments submitted before "Due Performance" date	13.33	14.19	14.67	13.83
Average number of assignments submitted after "Due Performance" date	5.05	4.72	4.5	4.86

Students who submitted responses to the Course Evaluation Questionnaire seemed generally to be the more diligent ones, as an average of some 18,7 assignments had been submitted by each student. The assignments which were perceived as of the greatest value tended to be those based on a study of the set works, which was in accordance with the nature of the final examination paper.

B. STUDY GUIDE CONTENTS

The following tables reveal the different weightings attached to each of the 25 elements of the 1981 course by the various age groups.

ORDER OF IMPORTANCE	AGE			WHOLE GROUP
	UNDER 30	30 TO 40	OVER 40	
Most valuable	Verbs	Verbs	Punctuation	Punctuation
2nd most valuable	Essays	Punctuation	Paragraphs	Paragraphs
3rd	Paragraphs	Paragraphs	Essays	Verbs
4th	Word order	Comprehension & analysis	Prepositions	Essays
5th	Punctuation	Essays	Sentences	Comprehension & analysis
6th	Report Writing	Figurative Language	Comprehension & analysis	Sentences
7th most valuable	Pronouns	Word Order	Report Writing	Report Writing

ORDER OF DIMINISHING VALUE	AGE			WHOLE GROUP
	UNDER 30	30 TO 40	OVER 40	
7th least value	Footnotes & bibliography	Style	Pronouns	Idiom
6th least value	Prepositions	Prepositions	Conjunctions	Conjunctions
5th least value	Vocabulary	Articles	Idiom	Vocabulary
4th least value	Idiom	Footnotes & bibliography	Varieties of English	Footnotes & bibliography
3rd least value	Nouns	Varieties of English	Vocabulary	Varieties of English
2nd least value	Varieties of English	Spelling	Articles	Articles
Least value	Conjunctions	Interjections	Interjections	Interjections

Those elements of the *Study Guide 1* which were regarded as the most useful (starting with the highest ranked) were: punctuation, paragraphs, verbs, essays, comprehension and analysis, sentences, report writing, figurative language, adverbs and word order. Those sub-sections which were regarded as the least useful, arranged in descending order to the least valuable, were: spelling, letter writing, idiom, conjunctions, vocabulary, footnotes and

bibliography, varieties of English, articles and interjections.

The following tables reflect those elements which students believe should enjoy greater or less emphasis:

ELEMENTS NEEDING GREATER EMPHASIS IN THE COURSE	AGE			WHOLE GROUP
	UNDER 30	30 TO 40	OVER 40	
Most emphasis	Practical criticism	Practical criticism	Essays	Essay writing
2nd most	Essays and set works	Essays and set works	Comprehension	Comprehension
3rd most	-	-	Practical criticism	Practical criticism
4th most	Comprehension	Comprehension	Set works	Set works
More emphasis	Figurative Language	Drama	Figurative Language	Figurative Language

ELEMENTS NEEDING LESS EMPHASIS IN THE COURSE	AGE			WHOLE GROUP
	UNDER 30	30 TO 40	OVER 40	
Less emphasis	Novel, drama & expository prose	Expository prose & novel	Drama, novel	Drama, novel
3rd least	-	-	-	-
2nd least	-	Figurative Language	Expository prose	Expository prose
Least emphasis	Grammar	Grammar	Grammar	Grammar

The sub-sections of the course which were perceived as requiring greater emphasis were (in order of diminishing importance): essay writing, comprehension, practical criticism, setworks, and figurative language. The sub-sections requiring less emphasis (in descending order) were: drama, the novel, short stories, and grammar.

The final section of the questionnaire did not solicit any significant trends of collective opinion, as it reflected only personal comments.

This post-course evaluation was disappointing. As there were only 121 responses, it cannot be regarded as representative. However, trends (suggested from an analysis of the responses) largely echoed the tutors' perceptions, and endorsed the steps taken to correct many aspects of perceived shortcomings. For example, the concern of the students that there should be less emphasis on drama and the novel had been differently perceived by the lecturing staff as a reflection of inappropriate selection of set works. By eliminating the Shakespearean play and Victorian novel and replacing them with modern prose works, it was believed that there would be greater acceptance by students of the merits of the study of literary works. Furthermore, in preparation for 1982, a more systematic approach to the course had already emerged, and several of the weaknesses identified had already been corrected. There was also recognition of the need to rewrite sections of the *Study Guide*, especially the grammar, expository prose and figurative language sections.

In 1982, two new forms of evaluation were incorporated. The first was the initial use of a diagnostic assignment (see Appendix C and Swemmer: 1984A, pp 172-175). This assignment had a threefold purpose. First, it assessed a student's level of initial competence against the criteria by which terminal performance was measured (the traditional final examination based heavily on practical criticism of literary works). Through the performance of a student, a realistic picture of the extent of improvement expected, if that student were to obtain the minimum acceptable level of communicative performance, was obtainable. Second, competence was assessed in a way that guided students towards study in those areas of written communicative performance which required development. Third, the

assignment simulated an examination situation, thus providing practice in communicating in writing while under the pressure of a time constraint.

The assignment was made up of a comprehension exercise (40%) and an essay (60%), and students were requested to obey a time restriction equivalent to that imposed during an examination. The comprehension exercise was based on a passage of a Western cultural context. The questions based on the passage were weighted as follows: 50% for exploring explicit or literal meanings by revealing understanding of language usage and vocabulary; 25% for exploring implicit meanings by revealing understanding of tone, the use of irony and cultural insights; and 25% requiring an expression of informed opinion based on understanding of the excerpt assessed against the background of previous reading and personal perceptions. There was a choice of essay. The topics included one calling for a literal, rational, serious argument, another requiring perception of topicality inherent in the title *Race*, and lastly a topic which demanded a light-hearted or mock-serious interpretation which presupposed perception of the literal meaning, tone and intention of the topic. Even in the choice of topic (and certainly in response to it), students revealed their abilities. The requirements for this assignment were demanding for students with a communication problem. However, the skills exercised reflected the basic communicative abilities needed by university students. After its submission, the value of the diagnostic assignment was enhanced by distribution of a full explanation of the nature of the comprehension skills tested in each question. Tutors were required to point to weaknesses of perception and understanding, and to guide students to the relevant sections of their tutorial matter and set works wherever possible. In addition, formal language skills were assessed, but attention was limited to a list of the ten most frequent errors that tutors of

Practical English students at UNISA had encountered in student writing:

<u>Symbol</u>	<u>Problem Area</u>
Ab	Abbreviations
Agr	Agreement
Ap	Apostrophe
Cap	Capitals
DM	Dangling Modifiers
P	Punctuation
Frag	Sentence Fragments
Sl	Slang and Colloquialisms
Sp	Spelling
Wdy	Wordiness

The diagnostic assignment required an application of the comprehension and composition skills which had been explored in the first ten weeks of study. The levels of performance, however, might have been predictable given the disparity of competencies with which various students commenced the course. A significant fact about this assignment was that it was rated as the most useful remediation assignment by 22 per cent of the students who gained entrance to the final examination. Only one other assignment of the eleven remediation assignments used in 1982 was singled out by more than 10 per cent of students as being the most valuable: that assignment contained two comprehension exercises and an essay, and required double the time normally required for marking a script. It was singled out by 11,5 per cent of those who gained admission to the final examination.

The data used in the above discussion of the diagnostic assignment are derived from students' responses to the post-course questionnaire used in 1982. The computer analysis of this questionnaire by means of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was the second major development, as the responses were suitable for computer analysis in the manner envisaged. The data were

resultantly converted into computer punch-card format and assessed using the SPSS facility (Swemmer: 1984A, pp 176-182). The questionnaire focused on the following areas:

1. *Background information:* age; home language; occupation and desired course of study; and each individual's course results.
2. *Assignments:* the total number of assignments submitted and the numbers of computer and tutor assessed assignments completed; results obtained; and personal perceptions of the value of each assignment to the individual.
3. *Study Guide:* students' assessments of each sub-section of every chapter of the study material; their responses to tutorial letters and the manner in which assignments were marked and related to study material - as well as their views on their tutors' comments.
4. *Course content:* students' views regarding the weighting of course elements as well as the significance to the students of a range of items some of which were included in the course and others which were not integral elements of the study material.

Completed, usable questionnaires were received from 21 per cent of the students. Background information garnered reveals that 19 per cent of students were younger than 25 years of age, while 31 per cent were older than 35; the average age of Practical English students was 29 years; English was the selected medium of instruction of 84 per cent of the respondents. The tables which follow provide further information:

Home Language:	74% African languages, eg Zulu, Sotho
	14% English
	6% Afrikaans
	6% Other languages

Occupations:	60% Teachers
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18% Public Service

Course of study: 75% BA
6% Law degrees
5% Various diplomas
4% Nursing
2% B Comm
8% Other courses

Assignments submitted:

33% submitted all assignments
44% submitted 76-95% of the assignments
19% submitted 50-75% of the assignments
4% submitted fewer than half of the assignments

As well as summarizing background information and the course performance of each student, the questionnaire contained four main components:

1. Personal ranking of the value to the student of each sub-section and chapter of the *Study Guide*.

Example 1

Guide 1: Sub-section on Composition

<i>% of Students</i>	<i>Rating</i>
1%	Of no value
3%	Of little value
7%	Of some value
23%	Of much value
64%	Of great value
2%	No response

As a result of this response the sub-section was retained in the subsequent *Study Guide* with only minor editorial alterations.

Guide 1: Sub-section on Comprehension and Critical Assessment

<i>Rating</i>	<i>Overall</i>	<i>African Lang</i>	<i>Afrikaans</i>	<i>English</i>	<i>Other Lang</i>
No value	2%	1%	-	4%	-
Little value	1%	-	18%	-	-
Some value	3%	1%	27%	4%	-
Much value	13%	8%	18%	30%	-
Great value	79%	86%	37%	62%	100%
No response	2%	4%	-	-	-

The attitudes of Afrikaans-speaking students, as revealed here, caused some concern. However, the point is that the expression of views by students contributed to decisions relating to the revision, retention or rejection of specific parts of the study materials.

Example 2

Comparisons of responses revealed that students attached greater value to the sections dealing with the application of communicative skills rather than to those aimed at developing these skills.

<u>Sub-section on Pronouns</u>	<i>Rating</i>	<u>Sub-section on Style and Usage</u>
2%	No value	1%
9%	Little value	2%
20%	Some value	9%
32%	Much value	27%
36%	Great value	60%
1%	No response	1%

In response to these ratings, the sub-section on pronouns was revised, while that on style and usage was only closely edited.

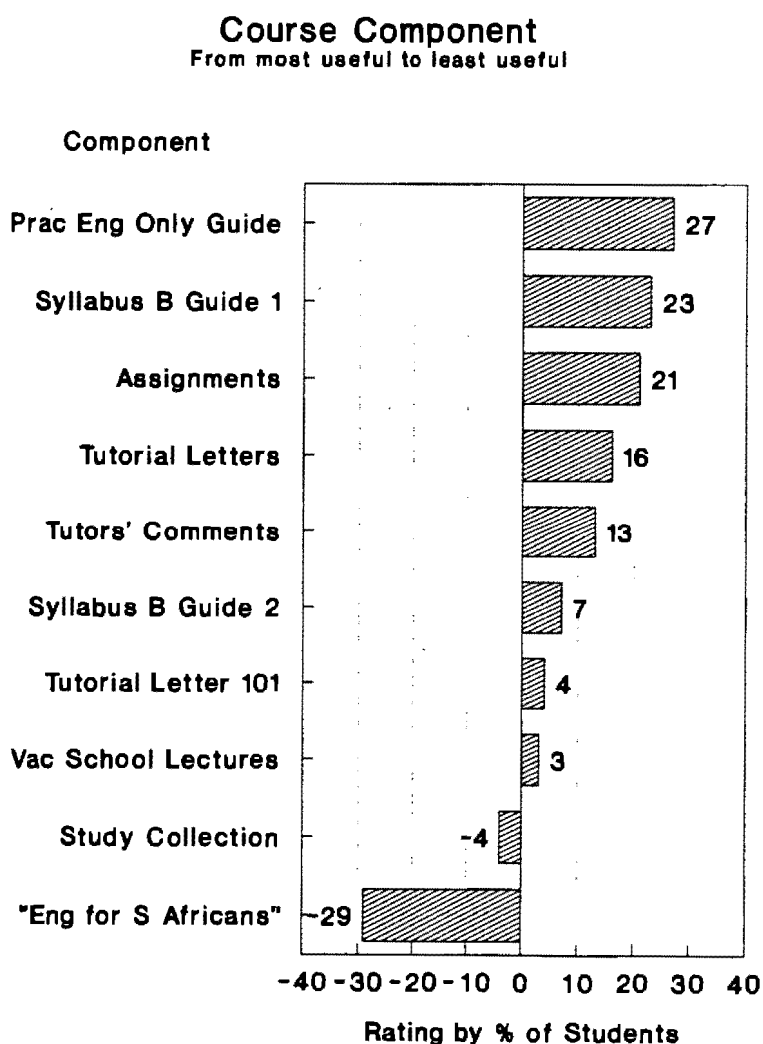
2. A second element of the questionnaire was that of a personal rating of the value of the various course components and approaches.

Example 1

Asked which comments made by tutors were found the most useful, those made in assignments were singled out by 33,5 per cent as being of the greatest value, whereas 61,5 per cent regarded the summarized responses on the assignment cover sheets as the most valuable. The response of the course team was to continue giving close consideration to the summary of comments, but to seek to enhance the quality and pertinence of comments included in assignments, as these were not perceived to be helpful.

Example 2

The respondents rated the ten given course components and approaches as follows:



The consequences of this summary of student reactions were that plans were instituted to ensure more effective use of the library's study collection, by incorporating some of the collection materials in assignment work; and, the condemnation of *English for South Africans* by McMagh (largely by the majority, non-Afrikaans student group) contributed to its discontinuation as a prescribed work.

3. A third purpose of the questionnaire was to solicit students' personal views about which elements of the course needed greater or less emphasis.

Example 1

<i>% of Students</i>	<i>Course Elements needing Greater Emphasis</i>
41%	Critical assessment
12%*	Language and usage
8%	Comprehension

* Mostly older students held this view.

Assignments were subsequently designed to contain all three of these elements.

Example 2

<i>% of Students</i>	<i>Course Elements needing Less Emphasis</i>
33%	None of the course components
11%	Summary and Precise Writing
10%*	Language and Usage

* Largely the attitude of younger students.

4. The final component of the questionnaire required ratings of the importance to students of a range of skills and language applications.

Example 1

No fewer than 81% of the students attached real importance to improving and expanding vocabulary. The deliberate use of a wide range of vocabulary in the study materials was an obvious outcome. More care was also taken in structuring exercises to provide greater scope for expanding vocabulary.

Example 2

<i>Writing Personal Letters</i>	<i>Rating</i>	<i>Writing Critical Assessments</i>
1%	No value	2%
10%	Little value	2%
26%	Some value	8%
54%	Much value	17%
27%	Great value	68%
2%	No response	3%

The response to these ratings was to play down the writing of personal letters in the subsequent course design, and to incorporate aspects of critical assessment into all of the assignments.

Example 3

Improving style of writing was regarded as significant by 90% of students. Attention was hence given to this aspect when the course was next revised.

Example 4

Developing English writing skills in order to cope better with the writing of assignments for other courses was also accentuated.

<i>Rating</i>	<i>Overall</i>	<i>African Lang</i>	<i>Afri- kaans</i>	<i>Eng- lish</i>	<i>Other Lang</i>
No value	7%	5%	27%	12%	-
Little value	1%	1	-	4%	-
Some value	9%	7%	18%	12%	-
Much value	28%	29%	18%	29%	25%
Great value	51%	53%	37%	33%	75%
No response	4%	5%	-	-	-

The personal assessments by the students of the value of the various sub-sections and chapters of the *Study Guide* contributed to decisions relating to the revision, retention or rejection of specific parts of these study materials. As illustrated above, the students consistently attached greater value to those components dealing with the application of communicative skills (for example the section on Style and Usage) than to those intended to develop these skills (for example, the sub-section on Pronouns).

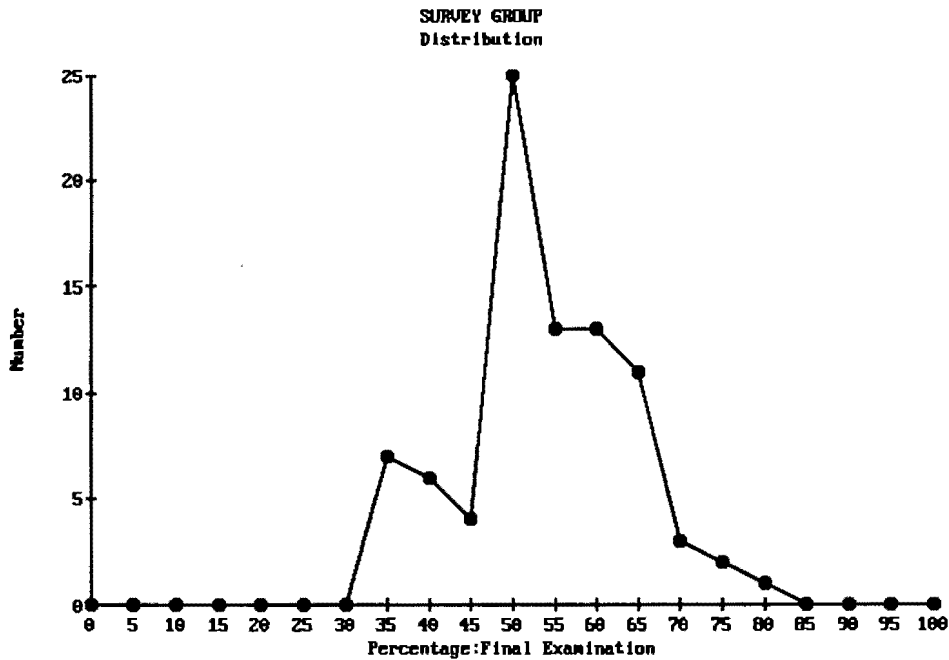
Clearly, the use of the post-course questionnaires over several years resulted in a continuing process of evaluation and adjustment. In the past, course evaluation had been largely informal, and had relied on interpretation of students' performance in examinations combined with tutors' personal observations, evaluation and perception. The post-course questionnaire added an extra and meaningful dimension to this process.

As part of this study, another form of evaluation was undertaken. It was based on the work described by Arena (1975: pp 284-285) who cogently argues that a tagmemic¹ model of grammar can be effectively applied to an analysis of students' writing to determine the number of the four major surface-level clause types used. The clause types identified are transitive, intransitive, equational and passive. These types were determined by staff of the University Writing Center [sic] of the University of Delaware through an extensive clause analysis of published

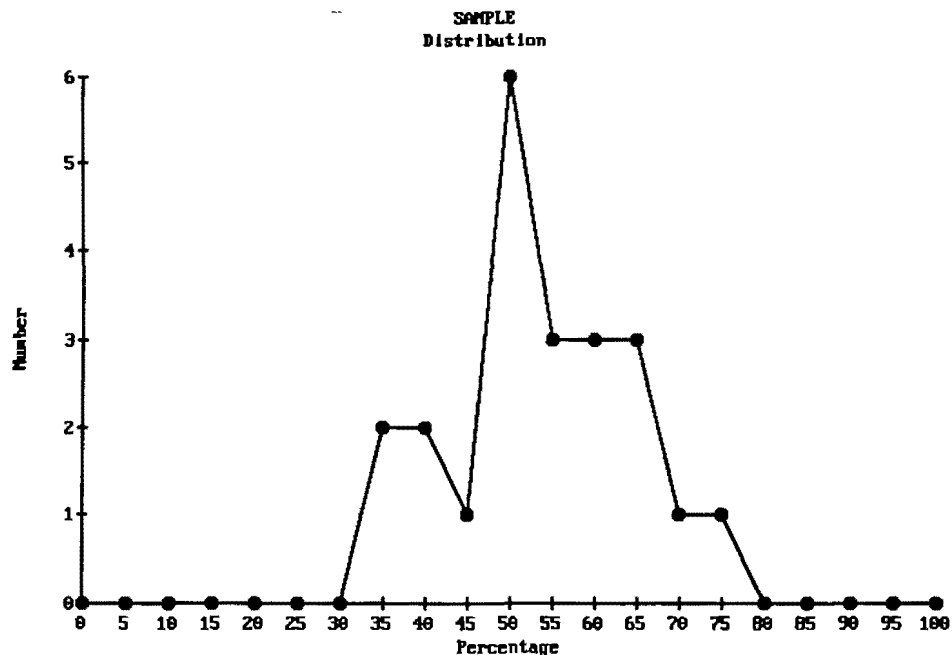
examples of expository, descriptive, narrative and technical writing over a three-year period. The clause analysis was linked to patterns of the four clause types in terms of their frequency of occurrence in the four styles of writing: expository, narrative, descriptive and technical. The table which follows reflects the resulting norms by which the writing patterns of each student can be assessed. At the University of Delaware Arena found that, after students had modified their writing patterns to reflect the established frequency of occurrence, their expository writing manifested an improvement:

Form of Writing	Expected % of Frequency of Occurrence of 4 Clause Types (8% variation permitted)			
	Transitive	Intransitive	Equational	Passive
Expository	50%	20%	20%	10%
Descriptive	15%	30%	45%	10%
Narrative	20%	45%	25%	10%
Technical	10%	5%	20%	65%

This form of analysis was applied to the writing of Practical English students and several interesting points emerged from the study. The assessment which was undertaken was in the first place an analysis of students' errors of language and style in the essay component of an assignment which simulated examination conditions. The results of this analysis were then compared with those obtained from a similar error analysis of the writing of the same students in the essay on *Lord of the Flies* in the final examination:



From the group of students registered for Practical English (Syllabus B) in 1984, 85 students who submitted the assignment wrote the final examination. Their final results are reflected in the distribution curve depicted above. The work of selected students from this group was subjected to two forms of analysis. The assignment essay was marked to establish an error count for each of the following factors: abbreviations, agreement, apostrophes, capitals, fragmentary sentences, punctuation, spelling, tenses, wordiness, and vocabulary. Simultaneously an error count was done for four stylistic factors: comma splice, dangling modifiers, logic, and organization. Thereafter, the script was analyzed clause by clause to establish the number of clauses used in each of the four categories: transitive, intransitive, equational and passive. A representative sample of 21 scripts, whose examination results reflected the same distribution curve, age, sex and race distribution as the whole survey group, was subjected to this close assessment. The distribution of their examination results is depicted in this graph:



The comparative analysis undertaken here provides a number of interesting insights, which are evident from this tabulation:

ASSIGNED STUDENT NUMBER	ERROR ANALYSIS (1)				CLAUSE ANALYSIS				RESULTS	
	LANGUAGE ASSIGN. EXAM.		STYLE ASSIGN. EXAM.		NUMBER ASSIGN. EXAM.		WRITING FORM ASSIGN. EXAM.		PERCENTAGE ASSIGN. EXAM.	
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J
1	% 45	% 29	% 7	% 14	29	28	D	E/D	% 73	% 56
2	19	18	6	6	53	51	E/D	E/D	71	62
3	24	31	17	13	42	39	D	N	37	42
4	21	13	4	2	24	60	D	E/D/N	57	66
5	50	17	19	9	16	47	N/D	N/D	45	50
6	19	25	0	0	32	28	E/D	E/D	63	54
7	43	17	20	10	35	48	N/D	E	36	50
8	6	17	17	8	35	53	D	E	47	64
9	46	27	13	15	24	45	N/D	E/D	45	52
10	47	48	16	0	32	33	D/N	N/D	39	50
11	27	19	5	2	37	57	E/D	E	51	50
12	23	12	8	4	39	50	D/E	E/D	60	59
13	14	21	6	0	35	42	E/N	E/D	52	56
14	18	19	5	6	44	54	E/N	E/D	45	50
15	36	35	14	4	28	46	E/D	E	50	34
16	44	44	15	10	55	70	N	D/N	40	37
17	4	8	0	0	28	66	D	E/N/D	81	75
18	80	60	13	10	30	40	N	E/D	30	36
19	32	25	8	11	25	36	D/N	D/N	66	55
20	26	14	3	3	35	74	E/D	E/D	69	60
21	76	82	15	18	33	17	E	E/N	38	34
AVERAGE	33	28	10	7	34	47			52	52

NOTES:

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- (1) The number of errors is represented as a percentage of the number of clauses (Columns E & F).
 - (2) E = Expository; D = Descriptive; N = Narrative; T = Technical. Combinations of these symbols reflect tendencies to write in these forms, rather than in any one style. The absence of Technical writing is in keeping with the nature of the written work required in this course.

The first insight is that students obtained an average of 52 per cent in the assignment, while the average they attained in the final examination is also 52 per cent. Both the assignment and the examination were marked on the same basis, there being no allowance made for the fact that the assignment was submitted in April, when only the first part of the course had been concluded. The conclusions are hard to ignore: either the hierarchical marking resulted in a standard distribution of performance, or there was no measurable improvement in student performance. However, when these scores are juxtaposed with the results of the writing form analysis, the tendencies of positive movement (or at least a sustained stylistic approach) from Narrative through Descriptive to Expository forms of writing are evident in the writing of 86 per cent of the students. In the case of 10 per cent of the students there was a retrogressive movement in the form of writing used in the examination, from that used in the assignment. The latter group of students failed with one exception, student number 10, whose writing retrogressed in terms of this analysis but who was awarded a pass-mark of 50 per cent. One variable which may have exercised an influence on these results is that the requirements of the topics in the assignment and the examination question differed and might have stimulated tendencies in the type of writing. However, only one assignment required the time constraints and conditions equivalent to an examination, and was thus the only one which made any form of comparison relevant.

A second point worth noting is that 71 per cent of the students showed a distinct increase in the number of clauses written in the examination as against the number written in the assignment. Some 24 per cent of the students composed approximately the same number of clauses in both the assignment and the examination. One student (number 21) wrote fewer clauses in the examination, composing approximately half the number and, not surprisingly, given the essay's extreme brevity, failed.

Another trend is evident in the writing of the group who increased the number of clauses that they wrote in the final examination as opposed to the assignment: 80 per cent made approximately the same number of language errors or made fewer mistakes; and 87 per cent made the same number of errors of style or fewer mistakes.

It is important to observe that this analysis ignores the content of what was written. The percentages reflected in columns I and J, by contrast, reflect an evaluation of language and style, together with content. However, it does appear that the evaluation system in use does not allow for recognition of improvement in style or language, as it is based largely on the traditional, hierarchical assessment of comparative student performance. There is also one important facet of this analysis which is pertinent to the development of ESL course materials, and which is supported by the findings reported by Arena (1975). Tutors should be required to mark writing submitted in a way that teaches students how to modify the clause types in their writing. This would facilitate their moving closer to the "established frequency of occurrence of the four basic clause types in expository [and stylistically sound] writing", defined by Arena (1975: p 285).

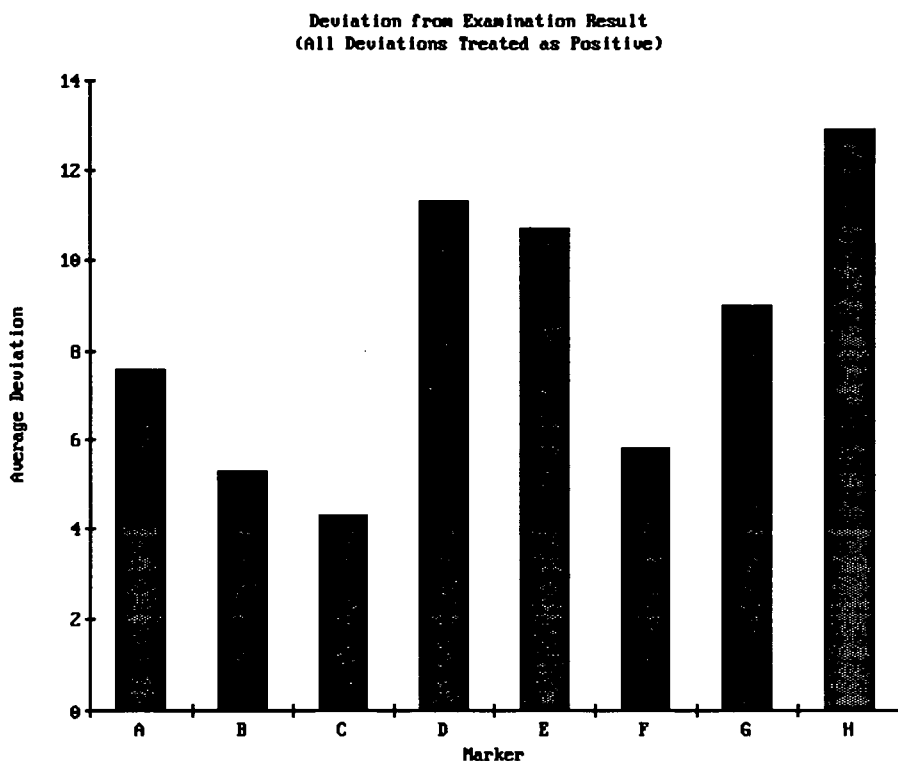
In advocating an approach to the development of writing skills aimed at skills of exposition, cognizance also needs to be taken of the debate occasioned by the transition of South African society. Ridge (1990: p 173) calls for a widening of horizons: "from being concerned with expository and analytic conventions only ... to the engaged discourses which are needed for profitable negotiation." It might be argued that any approach should rather focus on the use of engaged discourse. This may be true in the case of English first-language courses. However, within the context of an ESL course, especially one with the

objectives stated earlier in this study, the approach advocated by Arena remains of paramount importance.

The fact that the mean score obtained is identical in both the assignment simulating examination conditions and the examination itself brings into question precisely what the students have learned. It could be said that they have learned about the contents of a novel, thus enabling them to write about the novel instead of some other topic. However, there is little evidence to support the idea that they developed their ESL skills in any significant way between April and the end of the year. The reason is perhaps that the examination is not directed at assessing improvements in communicative performance.

Another point arising from this analysis of assignment and examination performances has a different focus, and is linked to staff evaluation. Eight staff members were involved in marking the assignments, without the results being moderated. The final examination papers, in contrast, were marked by five different staff members and the results were subjected to scrutiny by second examiners. By calculating the variations between the marks awarded for the assignments and those allocated to the examination papers and treating all differences as positive figures, average deviations can be established for each marker. These average deviations provide an insight into the probable extent of a marker's adherence to the norms applied and of each person's probable reliability as an assessor. The chart which follows reflects the average percentage deviations of the markers' assessments from the examination results. These average deviations should be considered in juxtaposition with the positive and negative variances displayed by each individual. However, recognition needs to be given to variables that impact on these statistics, including variations in performance of students and the extent to which students implemented the examination simulation requirements for the assignments.

The deviations from examination results in the assessments by markers should be compared with the tabulation thereafter:



MARKER	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
POSITIVE VARIANCE	20	5	9	21	4	14	N/A	25
NEGATIVE VARIANCE	-11	-16	-4	N/A	-26	-20	-18	-19

The comparative evaluation is one which is the on-going concern of the manager of the team which offers the course. It is part of the growth-related focus of the team leader in developing the effectiveness of the teaching staff.

From an analysis such as this the responsible person can determine whether or not to take action in order to enhance the extent to which a staff member adheres to the norms required, or whether there is no cause for intervention. Although it is probably unlikely that this form of numerical analysis alone will provide sufficient information for the manager to be able to act with conviction, it does signal potential problem areas. According to Hambleton (1978: pp 1-47), in objective computer-assessed assignments a three per cent standard deviation is deemed to be a highly acceptable level of error variance. The nearest error variance to this target achieved by the markers was 4,3 per cent and the worst 12,9 per cent.

A number of other factors need to be addressed when considering approaches to assessment of student performance. The most important aspect of assessment is the measurement of learning or the assessment of improved communicative performance. Carroll (1980: pp 10-11) states that the criteria used in assessing communicative performance should be centred on "communicative behavioural features which subsume the linguistically-based skills used for performing the task." Carroll's argument is of direct relevance. The essential point is simply that a number of different and possibly even unpredictable language patterns can be acceptably used in any one communicative circumstance.

A second important consideration is the need for authenticity as far as this is practicable. As the work of Evans (1992) reveals, absolute authenticity would imply that communicative tasks would occur in everyday life. In a distance-teaching environment, and given the numbers of students enrolled for the course, this is arguably a criterion difficult to attain. However, in compromising, it is important that situations which approach reality are created when assessing interchanges, even if the medium of

the interchanges is obliged to be the printed or written word. Ideally some form of verbal communicative response should also be assessed. The evaluation should not be confined only to non-verbal communications or to the artificial, language-like behaviour normally required. In keeping with the views expressed by Wiersma and Jurs (1990: pp 69-86) and Heywood (1989: pp 225-246), what is needed is to determine whether an essay is a relevant form of test for the student groupings defined in the earlier role and needs analyses.

Both Carroll (1980: pp 13-16) and Munby (1978) stress the importance of four characteristics which should be inherent in any test. The four characteristics are: relevance, acceptability, comparability and economy. The fundamental criterion in determining relevance is whether the test adequately reflects the ESL needs specified in the analysis undertaken as part of the systematic approach to the course design. A second consideration is the degree to which the results of a test inform decisions relating to the student. The issue of acceptability is linked to reactions by the students to the form of testing used: deviations from conventional procedures, Carroll (1980: p 15) has found, might negate any merits of the new approach by inducing resistance.

Comparability is based, primarily, on the valid comparison of the student's performance with the required target performance. For the assessment to be of value it should provide a reliable measurement of comparative performance of the student at various points during the course. The requirement is therefore to develop a bank of stable measuring items. Without proved, reliable, testing items, it will not be possible to differentiate between variations in standards of performance or to establish that the cause of any variations is that the test instrument itself is unreliable.

The final characteristic is that of economy. The concern should be to reduce testing to the least possible while still providing sufficient information for making decisions about streaming or performance. Optimum efficacy and economy of a test is attained by achieving minimum expenditure of time, endeavour and use of resources in its implementation.

Carroll (1980: pp 30-31) also specifies ten performance criteria as the central feature of any effective testing system:

1. Size: the physical extent of the text (oral or graphic) being produced or comprehended.
2. Complexity: the extent to which the focuses of a text multiply in regard to topics, styles of presentation and semantic fields.
3. Range: the variety of skills, functions and tones presented in a text.
4. Speed: the speed at which a task should be performed.
5. Flexibility: the ability to adapt to novelty and switches in the features of a task presented.
6. Accuracy: the extent to which the student has mastered correct, formal usage, and the correctness of the information drawn upon or presented in a text by the student.
7. Appropriacy [sic]: the degree to which the style of task performance corresponds to the legitimate expectations of others involved in the communicative process.
8. Independence: the degree of independence of the student from reference sources and questioning of any interlocutors.
9. Repetition: the extent to which a user needs to re-read a text, or ask for repetition or clarity about an utterance.
10. Hesitation: the degree of delay in starting a task and the occurrence of hesitation in performing it.

The performance of each student is measured against these criteria. Ideally, performance should be judged not on the basis of their comparative achievement against the performance of others, but on the extent to which they have attained the ESL target performance explicit in the course objectives. In this regard, the evaluation of performance graded on the basis of the nine-band scale discussed in Chapter 2 would provide a major advance in shifting away from the traditional norm-referenced achievement analysis which is used in most tests or examinations.

Davies (1971: p 212) defines four types of tests: prerequisite tests, pretests, posttests and retention tests. He categorizes the prerequisite test as being used to determine whether students are capable of fulfilling the minimum prior conditions for undertaking the course of learning. Failure in this kind of test necessitates immediate remedial work. Very often, a prerequisite test is integrated with a pretest. This is equivalent to the proposed Department of English Admission Test. The pretest not only indicates which of the required set of ESL skills the student has already mastered, but it also helps to determine the most appropriate point of entry into the learning course for each student. Posttests are administered at the end of the learning activity in order to establish the extent to which the learning objectives have been achieved. They may be in various forms, such as tests, assignments or projects. The principle is, however, that the learning objectives are "rewritten" in test format. Retention tests can be devised in different forms to posttests, but as they also measure the extent to which the set learning objectives remain part of the skills of students, retention tests frequently match posttests exactly, but may be administered before or after conclusion of the course.

The results of changing the approach to the final examination might be dismissed as cosmetic were the appearance of the contents to be the sole indicator. In fact, the form of final examination used in an ESL course may not alter dramatically in its apparent content from the current forms of examination. However, the type of assessment made of the examination scripts would be realigned to reflect the degree of success attained by students in meeting the laid down course objectives. Indeed, were assessments to be founded on the propagated nine-band scale, there would be a decided improvement in evaluating how well the course succeeds in developing ESL skills and in determining whether a student has achieved the minimum standard required to obtain a course credit.

The test format is another important consideration (Carroll: 1980, pp 34-35), where three categories of test items have emerged. The first is the open-ended test item where the student's response is constrained only in so far as there are specific requirements relating to the task the student is required to perform. This format is appropriate in measuring research or discussion. Its nature is most likely to mean that items set in this format measure up to the criteria of authenticity, relevance and acceptability. The second form is the closed-ended type. Such items constrain the student's responses without any opportunity for initiating, modifying or developing a uniquely formulated statement. The student is confined to selecting one of the optional responses determined by the wording of the test item. Frequently such items are in the form of a multiple-choice test. They lend themselves to objectivity of scoring and, obviously, economy in marking. However, such items are appropriate only for certain purposes. For example, they are valuable in measuring the extent to which language mastery in broad areas of usage has been achieved, or in determining which enabling skills are perhaps lacking. They are a useful tool for providing an objective

assessment against which to evaluate more relevant, though subjective, performance analyses.

The third format is the restricted-response test item. This format is a compromise between the other two types delineated. It gives the student the opportunity to compose a response while confining the mode of that response. Such test items do not require the same degree of time-consuming research to validate options that are needed in closed-ended tests, but they do provide a greater degree of objectivity to the marking than is possible when assessing open-ended tests. In summary, restricted-response test items are acceptable, quite economical to construct, fairly objective, and relatively relevant.

The composition of test items is a demanding activity if the products are to be regarded not only as authentic, stimulating, practical and interesting, but also as reliable. An important way of creating tests which have a measure of authenticity is by supplying a set of material in the form of books, pamphlets, tapes and perhaps a file of documents, through which students are required to search for relevant material in order to respond to the problems they have been set. This approach lends itself to assignment activities better than to a posttest or final examination.

In the streamed approach advocated in the previous chapter, it will obviously be necessary to have appropriate and equivalent sets of material for each of the four streams. This will require additional preparation and endeavour on the part of the course team. The merits (of achieving authenticity and therefrom a display of greater acceptance from the students) far exceed the disadvantage of the additional burden. The motive for structuring tests in this form is to ensure that the content of source materials is highly relevant when the purpose is to place in context the testing of proficiency in communicative skills.

A further consideration is the focus of any test. A single-focus test which concentrates on one area of skill only, such as reading and understanding a text, or listening comprehension, or single-mode writing, or speaking, is an alternative which is not attractive in the context of this specific course. There are too many students, too few tutors and too many complications in a distance-teaching environment (such as the difficulty and cost of organizing national and international venues and invigilators) for a series of single-focus tests to be implemented. Thus mixed-mode tests appear to present more appropriate approaches to assessment.

The assessment of oral interaction is dependent on the creation of authentic settings. Even if such settings can be created the problems of reliability and validity remain paramount. It is necessary for there to be several types of interlocutor in order to circumvent potential communication blocks between interlocutor and participants. In addition, topics selected must be carefully specified so as not to prejudice the contributions of students. One might argue that distance-teaching methods preclude the possibility of this kind of assessment. Possibilities nevertheless do exist for giving this component of the measurement of performance its necessary role. A combination of conference-telephone examinations and oral-examination discussion groups in major centres could well provide an opportunity for such assessment, while another possibility would be to require students to have battery-operated audio-cassette tape recorders as standard equipment in an examination, when the last ten minutes would be spent recording a response to a specified topic. The second option will be awkward to implement in examination centres where large numbers of students will all be recording their responses simultaneously. Background noise may complicate the assessments of the recordings, although the closeness of speakers to the

microphones of their own machines ought to allow their voices to predominate, provided students are spread out in the venue. For assignment purposes, in addition to the possibilities outlined above, the use of answering machines to give calling students a message to which they are required to respond by leaving a recorded reply, could be a useful possibility.

Note-taking skills, with the focus on the ability of the student to reconstitute the notes taken in a satisfactory and meaningful form, also provide authentic testing possibilities. Either video or audio tape-recordings could be used to standardize the presentation. Assessment is based both on the contents and the communicative adequacy of the recorded response, on an appropriate rating scale.

Another mixed-mode form of assessment is what might be termed "research". It is the traditional form of assessment used whenever an essay or project is required. Assessment normally occurs in the time-honoured, quick, subjective-rating form. Carroll (1980: p 52) argues that the reliability of this type of writing assessment can be enhanced by increasing the number of topics as well as the number of independent assessments made. There would be distinct merit in designing assignments to facilitate the assessment by more than one tutor of work submitted. This should eliminate some of the weaknesses in the single, possibly biased or inadequate assessment of writing.

Ideally, any meaningful test, in Blacquiere's (1989: p 76) view, should contain all four components by assessing reading², listening, writing and speaking as a complete test of communicative performance in an integrated form. As Farr and Carey (1986: p 17) declare in relation to reading, the feature analysis approach inevitably leads one "to misunderstand reading behavior [sic]". The same is true for each of these components. However, where there is an integrated testing occurrence, drawing on all forms of

communicative skill, tests most frequently approach genuine authenticity. The information upon which the test is based can be presented in any one of the following ways or in combinations of them: by reading aloud, or by audio or video tape-recording; and graphically by printed instructions or as a package of material (described in Chapter 7). Responses can also be recorded on tape (discussed in Chapter 5) or submitted in writing. In the latter case, an effort should be made to ensure that, when assessing, a balance is maintained by using both objective and subjective methods. This integrated approach to testing should certainly be used in the advocated pre-course Department of English Admission Test and in the end-of-year examination or retention test.

Provided Carroll's band analysis approach is used, one of the major drawbacks to item analysis can be eliminated. When reliance is on internal criteria, such as the contrasting responses of high scorers and low scorers in the test, items which do not conform to other items are generally eliminated. The effect is often the production of a test of homogeneous nature, but one which does not necessarily achieve its intended purpose. By contrast, the derivation of discrimination indices can be obtained through mapping the proportion of students (of different performance levels) who select the various options. These results facilitate the selection of test items which contribute to a more robust test by virtue of the broader base used in determining the criterion groups. Furthermore, the accuracy of these indices can be enhanced by the development of standardized language scores, defined by Carroll (1980: p 62) as L Scores. These can be derived for objective tests such as multiple-choice or restricted-response tests by comparing raw scores to writing performances on the band-rating scale. The assumption underlying these calculations is that performance in one language-related activity is likely to correspond to performance in another language-based task:

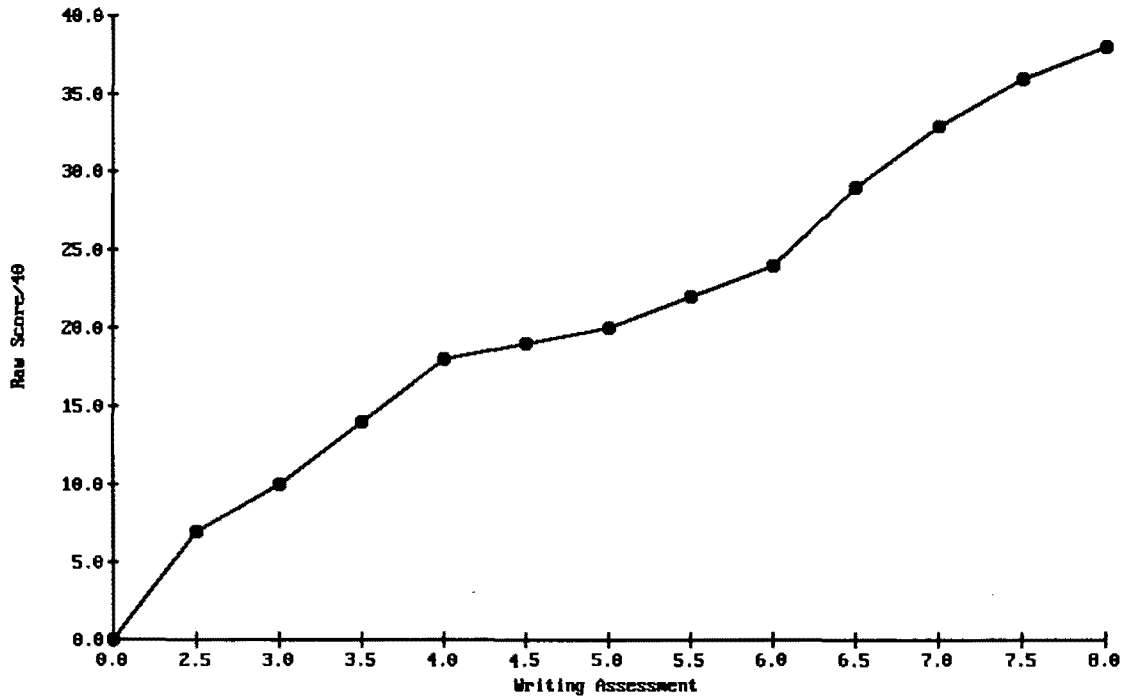
<i>Student Ranking/100</i>	<i>Writing Assessment by %</i>	<i>Writing Assessment by band</i>	<i>Test Raw Score/40</i>
	0	0.0	0.0
Bottom	20	2.5	7.0
97th	25	3.0	10.0
91st	30	3.5	14.0
90th	34	4.0	18.0
86th	37	4.5	19.0
82nd	40	5.0	20.0
74th	45	5.5	22.0
64th	50	6.0	24.0
40th	55	6.5	29.0
28th	60	7.0	33.0
5th	75	7.5	36.0
Top	80	8.0	38.0

Broadly, the following steps are needed to determine the above L Scores (Carroll: 1980, pp 57-68):

1. A representative sample of 100 students obtain prose writing scores on a percentage basis for an exercise and these are converted to scores on the nine-band scale.
2. A table is drawn up showing which student, in performance rank-order, obtained a score nearest to the starting-points and mid-points in each band.
3. The raw scores obtained in the test are similarly reflected in the table.
4. The correlates are plotted graphically.
5. A conversion table from raw scores to L Scores for the test is then derived.

These data can be graphically represented as follows:

ASSESSMENT-SCORE RELATIONSHIP
Band to Raw Score Correlation



The raw scores can then be calculated as L Scores.

RAW SCORES TO L SCORES CONVERSION

Test Raw Score/40	L Score	Test Raw Score/40	L Score
7.0	20 (or below)	24.0	50
8.0	22	25.0	51
9.0	24	26.0	52
10.0	25	27.0	53
11.0	26	28.0	54
12.0	28	29.0	55
13.0	29	30.0	56
14.0	30	31.0	58
15.0	31	32.0	59
16.0	32	33.0	60
17.0	33	34.0	65
18.0	34	35.0	70
19.0	37	36.0	75
20.0	40	37.0	78
21.0	43	38.0	80
22.0	45	39.0	82
23.0	48	40.0	84 (or above)

Such conversion estimates represent an interim version. As other ratings become available, this tabulation can be checked and adjusted where appropriate. Over a longer period the items in a test can also be validated through successive approximations via the band analysis. The advantage of this method is that an indication can be obtained for each test item of both overall discrimination and difficulty, as well as the specific levels at which these characteristics feature most prominently.

Test validation can be enhanced by using the normal processes in addition to the band analysis procedure: concurrent performance validation where the bases of the two tests are comparable; construct validation by closely analyzing the content of the test in relation to the design specifications, and correlational factorial techniques, specifically to indicate relationships between specified variables; and operational validation, where assessment is made of the correctness of decisions on the basis of test information. As Carroll (1980: p 66) points out, "it should be noted that the trial of test materials, the banding of "tестees" and the analysis of items is a recursive process requiring several phases before acceptable precision is likely to be achieved." Although the development of an accurate, reliable test is a lengthy process, for there to be meaningful assessment of learning, full attention to the design, trial, analysis and validation of test items is needed. It is for this reason that the recommendation was made in the previous chapter that the development of these assessment tools should be specially commissioned.

Much of the foregoing discussion has focused on the development of test components which assess student performance in terms of language use, usage or understanding. Objective testing of the type explored does not readily lend itself to the testing of literature assessment. As Heaton (1979: p 188) notes, fairly

sophisticated objective, multiple-choice items can be devised to test "the different degrees of sensitivity and appreciation". Heaton (1979: p 188) also highlights that, while tests of this type provide valuable development opportunities for students' critical faculties, the testing of literary appreciation requires this approach to "be balanced by more subjective, open-ended tests". Implicit in this statement is acceptance that the standard of fluency in written English of each student of literature is at such a level that minimal communication difficulty, if any, exists. In the context of the envisaged course, combinations of the objective and subjective test items will need to be juxtaposed, both in the interests of economy and in order to address the wider range of needs of the students involved.

The transition from the language-based design approach with its long-accepted, norm-based use of data, to a communicative design orientation combined with a criterion-related analysis system, is therefore advocated. The recommended approach is in keeping with the systematic approach to course design, because it requires a continuing, evaluative process of its own. In this latter respect, it is comparable to the course design process itself.

Having determined the nature and frequency of the types of assessment that will be used, and after developing the imperative testing tools, the course can be implemented. The process of implementation is recurrent. Not only is the course material used as envisaged and then evaluated for its efficacy, with sequential adjustments and changes before the course is repeated, but the students are assessed at the start and end of the course, both to determine progress and to arrive at the learning needs they display at each of these two points. When a posttest assessment is used, an additional communication with the student becomes necessary. Not only should the final

examination mark be made known to the student, as is the current practice, but a tutorial letter should be distributed, emphasizing remaining learning needs that are evident from this final assessment. This may require the production of a comment sheet for each student (perhaps in the form of a checklist) but, in terms of the educational purpose of the course, this additional tutorial intervention is surely warranted. While, as Jones (1979: p 57) stresses, "the simplest and most economical test should always be used if it provides the necessary information", learning objectives dictate that the improved performance of each student is the goal. Accordingly, there is a need to facilitate the learning process even at the final stage of this course, especially as the motives of many students are not confined to obtaining a credit towards a degree. In particular, those students who have undertaken the course specifically to develop their writing and study skills deserve this extra form of feedback.

Notes

¹ Pike (1958: pp 273-278) first formulated the notion of a "tagmeme", a minimal grammatical pattern, in terms of which all grammatical structures have to be described. The idea was further developed by Longacre (1965: pp 65-76), who identified four fundamental insights of tagmemics: the functional value of tagmemes (as subjects or objects); their grouping into sequences; their occurrence at different levels (words, phrases, clauses); and the possibility for embedding.

² Blacquiére argues that: "the uncomfortable truth is that reading consists of a complex and tightly interrelated set of cognitive and psychomotor skills and sub-skills that are impossible to isolate. ... Consequently more global measures of aspects such as speed and comprehension are now generally preferred to assess the subjects' efficiency, and they are probably the most reliable indicators".

CHAPTER 7

COURSE MATERIALS

The development of course materials is a task best undertaken by the entire course team as a whole, both to obtain their commitment to the contents and to capitalize on the creative talents of the group through the interaction of the members. The process of developing the course design and course structure should be dynamic and interactive. Jaques (1984) and Weaver (1983) concur with the way Jelfs (1982: p 19) puts it: "not only can people together have more power and make more noise than one, they can also use more talents and skills than one, and make more contacts than one". In order to take full advantage of the combined experience, innovative thinking and skills of those on the course team, it is important that this group assesses the group process at work in their team in a positive light, as such an evaluation is indicative of a group which is working effectively. As far as possible in the pursuit of an ideal group process (Swemmer: 1989, p 32/1), the following characteristics should be reflected:

1. The person with the most experience of the task or subject being dealt with plays an active role, but neither that person nor any other dominates the group. In developing the course materials, there are those best suited to the development of reading activities, others for usage skills, still others for writing skills, and so on.
2. Each person takes full responsibility for what happens.
3. Everyone participates positively in the work, and is able to share relevant insights, ideas and experiences.
4. Suggestions are judged on their merit rather than on the status of the speaker. The purpose is to ensure that everyone's opinion counts.

5. After each group meeting, everyone feels satisfied with the progress of the group and with the part that they each have in it.
6. The group has a strong sense of identity and good cohesiveness.
7. The results of the group's endeavours are accepted, by all of the participants in the group, as the best the group is able to achieve.

In order to gain optimum value from the course team, the process described above needs to be pursued. When evaluating the course, a significant point is also to seek a response from the staff on the process at work within the course team itself. Again this is essentially the concern of the manager of the team.

Another feature of the process associated with the course material development will be the extent to which the person responsible for leading the course team is able to stimulate what De Bono (1986: p 57) describes as "lateral thinking", a "pattern switching within a patterning system". He states further that lateral thinking means a "willingness to try to look at things in different ways" (1986: p 59) and involves understanding of the fact that any view of something is only one of many possible perceptions. He argues that "the main purpose of the brain is to be brilliantly uncreative" (1986: pp 54-55) as we operate comfortably within existing patterns. However, when a change of pattern is needed this is often difficult and usually resisted, for individuals tend to work within existing patterns which do not lead to new patterns.

"Creativity" is a term which introduces a value judgement: a disliked new idea, De Bono points out, is never defined as "creative"; by contrast, lateral thinking is a neutral process which may or may not result in an improved approach or idea. The challenge, according to De Bono (1986: p 70) is to "use tradition as a base for change rather than as a

bulwark against change". In responding to the challenge, the leader of the course team has the crucial role of nurturing an open-minded attitude during the creative process of course material development.

The examples of course material given here have been chosen to illustrate the implementation of the underlying theories and considerations outlined in earlier sections, even though they are divorced from the context of an actual course, which curtails their direct applicability in this context. Within the ambit of the study, a single example of each type of learning activity has been developed. In several instances, the basic, interim and advanced levels of the activity are reflected. The types illustrated are a Self-correct exercise, a Self-test exercise, an Oral assignment, a Tutor-assessed assignment, a Computer-assessed assignment of multiple-choice items, and a remedial Self-study exercise. No reading skills exercises have been incorporated as the model developed in the SRA Reading Laboratories is quite adequate. Furthermore, this model is widely known in South Africa and the SRA Laboratories are readily available.

The artificiality of producing learning materials on an *ad hoc* basis of this kind is that there is a lack of a sense of continuity, or knowledge of precisely where each selected section of the course occurs, in relation to the other course components. Nevertheless, given the learning objectives of the course (delineated in Chapter 3), there is substantial information available to guide the process.

The activities selected are those contained in Module B of the Band 7 credit course. The method followed is one intended for implementation by the tutor and is based on the suitably adapted application to each activity of the systematic approach used in relation to course design in this thesis. However, all that is illustrated here is the

result of that process reflected in the manner in which the exercise is presented to students.

Example 1: SELF-CORRECT EXERCISE 8

[Week 10 - Common Material]

Introduction: This week you were required to read the section on "Education" in Watts J (1983): *Point of Departure*. There is also a section in your Study Guide which required your attention. By now you should have selected and read the one longer work which you were stimulated to read by the excerpt in the anthology *Point of Departure* selected from it. The following Self-Correct Exercise is based on this week's programme of work.

Answer the questions which follow, but do not submit this exercise. It is for you to correct yourself. Be sure to answer, where appropriate, in full sentences.

BASIC

1. Identify the word in this sentence which has not been used correctly: "I felt terribly pleased and proud to see the confident courtesy with which Denham used the term "Miss" in addressing each of the senior girls." Suggest a better word to take its place. [2]
2. Edit the following excerpt, so as to make four separate sentences: "Mr Polly went into the National School at six, and he left the private school at fourteen, and by that time his mind was in much the same state that you would be in, dear reader, if you were operated upon for appendicitis by a well-meaning, boldly enterprising, but rather overworked and underpaid butcher boy, who was superseded towards the climax of the operation by a left-handed clerk of high principles but intemperate habits - that is to say, it was in a thorough mess." [4]

3. What word or phrase can be used to take the place of the word "intemperate" (second last line of the quotation in Question 2)? [2]
4. Consider the following excerpt carefully: "It was uncomfortable; but the discomfort dropped away when he was left alone in the headmaster's waiting-room, for with solitude returned the consciousness that he had cut away the tentacles that bound him to the kind of life that this represented. So soon after his seed-time, he was here to ask for a limited and definite harvest. A contract!"
- 4.1 In your own words describe the picture which is brought to mind by the word "tentacles". [2]
- 4.2 From what kind of life had he "cut away"? [2]
- 4.3 Explain what is meant in context by the terms "seed-time" and "harvest". [2]

INTERIM

5. What style of writing (expository, descriptive, narrative, or argument) is used in each of the following sentences?
- 5.1 "My vocational requirements are," he hesitated, "simpler and easier to fulfil." [1]
- 5.2 The sky displayed the pearly warmth of a summer dawn, and all the painting was marvellously bright, as if with the youth and hope of the delicately beautiful children in the foreground. [1]
- 5.3 When this arrangement had been set up there was the skeleton hanging from a hook screwed into the top of its skull, gently revolving at the end of a cord. [1]

ADVANCED

6. It has been said that a school should prepare its pupils for life. From your reading of the three excerpts on education (*The History of Mr Polly*, *Hurry on Down*, and *To Sir, With Love*) which of the schools has achieved this aim? Refer to the texts in support of your assessment of each school. [3]

TOTAL: [20]

Check your answers against those given at the end of this Study Guide.

This Self-correct exercise focuses on several of the delineated Terminal Objectives, providing an opportunity to develop the abilities they define, as follows:

- Question 1: Objective D.2.
Question 2: Objective C.4.
Question 3: Objectives A.1.1.2 and A.1.1.4.
Question 4.1: Objectives A.1.1.2, A.1.1.4, A.1.1.5 and B.6.
Question 4.2: Objectives A.1.4, B.4 and B.5.
Question 4.3: Objectives B.5 and B.6.
Question 5.1-5.3: Objective D.5.
Question 6: Objectives B.4, B.7 and B.10.

It is not only the concern with designing each learning activity with the terminal objectives in mind that is a feature of this Self-correct exercise, but also the linking of the contents to the context of a specific text. Each activity is associated with a text and is not a question which stands alone. None of the items is based on the subordinate objectives; such material would be confined to the proposed remedial Self-study exercises and to the Band 5 and Band 6 course levels.

The second example is the Self-test, which, together with the Tutor-assessed assignment illustrated, is dependent upon subject-specific materials provided in the form of a Study Package. The Study Package comprises a selection of readings that are stream-specific. The printed texts are supported by a tape recording of the passages contained in the package and read by an English first-language speaker.

The recordings are further augmented by a verbal presentation aimed at developing listening comprehension skills. This presentation takes the form of a five-minute

mini-lecture on the development of attitudes in the context of schooling.

For the purposes of this activity, the Study Package contains:

1. "The Dearth of Affective Measurement" - from Mehrens and Lehmann (1978: pp 343-345);
2. "Making Moral Youth" - from Garrod and Howard (1990: pp 521-525);
3. "The Clarifying Attitudes Design" - from Mouton and Blake (1984: pp 92-95);
4. "Self-Educating: Ends and Endings" - from Gowin (1987: pp 196-202);
5. "Motivation and Teaching" - from Wilson (1979: pp 109-111).

They are to be used in the following learning activity.

Example 2:

SELF-TEST 2

[Week 14 - Stream-Specific Material]

Introduction: This week you were required to read Study Package 2. There is also a section in your Study Guide which required your attention. This Self-test is based on this week's programme of work.

Answer the questions which follow, but do not submit this Test. It is for you to correct yourself. Be sure to answer, where appropriate, in full sentences.

BASIC

1. Scan the five excerpts in Study Package 2 to establish the theme (or central concern) of each passage. Write these points down in a sentence each. [5]
2. Explain the meaning in context of the underlined words in the following question from "Motivation and Teaching": "Are there general or conceptual grounds for thinking that getting pupils to do things for one class of reasons is better than getting them to do things from another class?"

[4]

3. Explain the meaning in context of the underlined words in the following sentence from "Self-Educating: Ends and Endings": "When learning does need help, the theory of educating tells us what to do in educating so persons come into conscious possession of their powers and their world."

[2]

4. Explain the meaning in context of the underlined words in the following sentence from "The Clarifying Attitudes Design": "Although some attitudes reflect issues inappropriate perhaps for public discussion, many others are in the public domain and therefore are legitimate educational topics."

[4]

5. Which of the following reasons are advanced, in support of the production of socially responsible youths by authoritative parents, in "Making Moral Youth":

5.1 They impose challenging, unrealistic demands.

5.2 They seek to enhance reasoning structures.

5.3 They draw on the child's humane nature by confronting children about actions which may harm others.

5.4 Their commands are direct and honest instead of manipulative or indirect.

5.5 They nurture the social experiences of children.

5.6 Each command is enforced in the same way.

5.7 They develop acceptance of and obedience to legitimate authority.

5.8 They limit a child's exposure to social experiences.

5.9 They become attractive role models for children because of the consistency with which they exercise parental authority.

5.10 They create moral mentor programmes.

[5]

6. Write a paragraph in your own words, in which you present the four major arguments about moral education advanced with certainty by the authors of "Making Moral Youth". [4]

INTERIM

7. The authors of "Making Moral Youth" state: "Though we have signalled differences between the developmental moral education and the character education approaches, some commonalities are evident as well."

7.1 Explain why you think the word "signalled" has been used. [2]

7.2 What is meant by "commonalities" in this context. [2]

7.3 In your own words explain what the "commonalities" are between the two approaches. [4]

ADVANCED

8. The author of "Self-Educating: Ends and Endings" draws comparisons, on the one hand between writing and educating, and on the other between drama and educating. In your own words write a paragraph on each of these analogies, explaining the points of comparison emphasized by Gowin. [8]

LISTENING COMPREHENSION

9. Listen closely to the tape-recorded mini-lecture entitled "Developing Attitudes during Schooling". Then answer the following questions on it:

9.1 Explain the point of the lecturer's opening statement:

Educating is all about enriching experience, provided that in the process the student does not become "too rich". The old quip is that "I have been poor and rich, and rich is better" - but is it? [5]

9.2 List the five key points made by the lecturer during the course of the mini-lecture. [5]

TOTAL: [50]

Check your answers against the model-answers which will be sent to you for you to do your own assessment.

This Self-test also addresses several of the delineated Terminal Objectives, thereby providing an opportunity to develop the skills they delimit, as follows:

- Question 1: Objectives A.2.1 and B.11.1
- Question 2: Objectives A.2.1 and B.2
- Question 3: Objectives A.2.1, B.2 and B.4
- Question 4: Objectives A.2.1, B.2 and B.4
- Question 5: Objectives B.2, B.10.1 and B.11.1
- Question 6: Objectives A.3, B.1, B.2, B.10.1 and
B.11.1
- Question 7.1: Objectives A.2.1, B.2, B.4 and B.5
- Question 7.2: Objectives A.2.1, B.2, B.4 and B.11.1
- Question 7.3: Objectives A.2.1, B.2, B.3, B.4, B.5,
B.10.1 and B.11.1
- Question 8: Objectives A.3, B.5, B.7, B.8, C.2, C.4
and D.12
- Question 9: Objectives A.2.1, B.1, B.2 and
B.10.2.

With regard to self-assessment, Blue (1987) notes that, in his investigation, some students had difficulty in interpreting terms used in the test-material or the supporting documents when completing a self-assessment of language skills on a pre-sessional course. This tendency was in keeping with the findings regarding the Diagnostic Assignment, discussed in Chapter 6, with which an experiment was conducted in 1982 in the Department of English at UNISA (see Appendix C and Swemmer: 1984, pp 172-175):

Symbol Obtained	Band 8	Bands 6 & 7	Band 5
Work correctly marked	12,5%	-	6,67%
Error of 1 mark	62,5%	33,3%	13,33%
Error of 2 marks	25,0%	11,1%	46,67%
Error of 3 marks	-	33,3%	6,67%
Error of 4 marks	-	22,2%	20,00%
Error of 5 marks	-	-	6,67%
Erred in own favour	62,5%	66,7%	73,3%

The weaker the students, it was found, the more they interpreted points of assessment in their favour. The frequency of such errors of assessment also escalated with the weaker ESL students. An error of 1 mark is equal to an error of 3,3%: consequently, according to Swemmer (1983), while 75% of the Band 8 group made an error of 3% or less, and all of them made no more than a 7% error, 44% of the students in Bands 6 and 7 made a 7% error or less and 78% made a 10% error or less; the Band 5 group presented a more disparate pattern in which 67% made a 7% error or less, and 73% were guilty of a 10% error or less, while 94% of the group made assessment errors of 13% or less.

In seeking to find a solution to this problem and to ensure more accurate self-assessment, Cameron (1990: p 65) reports that two features enhance the value of self-assessment. First, the language skills being assessed are related to the writing of a specific assignment. When students are then requested to reflect on the strategies and skills demonstrated, there is a tendency to reveal more accurate self-diagnosis. Second, sharing information between students who jointly assess the submitted work and together determine the results appears to circumvent the tendency to inflate the assessment of performance, according to Cameron (1990: p 71). This finding suggests

the feasible method of pairing students off with a view to their assessing each other's work.

The example of an Oral Assignment which follows has not been designed to fit in with any specific set of study material. However, the concept of the assignment and the recommended approach to this type of activity can be deduced from the example. The concept is that a recording is made of a role play. The recording should be of ten to fifteen minutes in duration. Students have the choice of either submitting a tape-recorded response, or of using the telephone answering service set up for the purpose of recording responses that have been telephoned in.

Example 3:

ORAL ASSIGNMENT 4

[Week 11 - Common Material]

Introduction: This assignment must be submitted. Listen to the recording made on the Oral assignment Tape Number 2 which was distributed at the beginning of the year. Either record your response which is not to exceed three minutes in length, and submit the cassette, clearly labelled with the relevant, completed, self-adhesive label, or telephone one of the given telephone numbers and leave your response on the answering machine recording, after you have heard the message transmitted when obtaining your connection. When telephoning to make your submission, again ensure that your response is indeed verbal and not learned off by heart and regurgitated, or read.

Scene: You belong to a national association, which has been invited to submit views, endorsed by the association, regarding national symbols. The submission will form part of a national debate on the issue. Your association has invited three or four of its executive members, who have strong feelings on the subject, to discuss the topic.

The recording of their discussion has been sent to all members with the request that they record their own, individual reactions or comments in verbal form and lasting for no longer than three minutes by: either recording your views on a cassette and submitting it, or by using one of the bank of telephone-lines listed below, and responding (in the three minutes allowed) after the answering machine has given you the cue.

Background: There are four speakers. Their names follow, in the order that they speak, while their major characteristics are reflected in parentheses: Mr Radebe (the group's facilitator), Mrs Price (a proponent of change), Ms Evert (an open-minded pragmatist), and Dr September (a conservative traditionalist).

Task: Listen attentively to the recorded discussion. List the points you wish to make in your response by using key words. Arrange these points in the order you wish to express them. Then record your response on a cassette, or make a telephone call to one of the numbers listed below and leave your message as directed on the answering machine.

The following material is used to set the scene for the recorded discussion. Each of the "role players" receives a copy of the scenario outlined above, plus a brief description of the character they will play. There are four speakers on the recording:

Speaker 1: Mr Radebe

You have been appointed as the group facilitator, with the task of trying to achieve consensus between the disparate perceptions regarding traditional and new symbols - in the context of a new South Africa. You will try to ensure that everyone gets a fair hearing

and you will seek to conciliate between those with divergent views.

Speaker 2: Mrs Price

You are a proponent of change. You believe that there is too much sentiment and consequent stultification, because of resistance to change. You think that BUY-USE-DISCARD is the way to approach all issues. When it comes to traditions, you believe that the only useful tradition is that there should be no traditions! In a new South Africa, you believe all national symbols should be new.

Speaker 3: Ms Evert

You are an open-minded pragmatist. You understand the views of those who have "a sense of history", which leads them to cling desperately to all existing symbols, an act which divides them from those who want change. On the other hand, you have empathy for those who believe that more often than not yesterday's symbols were the product of minority negotiations and that they are the artefacts of dispute and marks of domination in the minds of those people or their forebears, who had no part to play in the development of "traditional" symbols. You are convinced that compromise - possibly by both parties - is necessary, and that the informed voice of reason must in the end prevail.

Speaker 4: Dr September

You are a true conservative who believes in preserving everything from the past, as it is only on the past that you believe people can build, for a better future. Symbols from yester-year, you are convinced, must remain in vogue. Calls to scrap any symbol, you feel, are the consequence of bigotry and ignorance - neither of which can be condoned.

Inevitably, the issue of assessment arises with the use of an oral assignment. However, agreement on the course's learning objectives makes it possible to determine the criteria by which to assess the communicative performance of the students. A mark-sheet can be prepared on the following basis:

ORAL ASSIGNMENT 4: MARKER'S ASSESSMENT SHEET

<i>Objective</i>	<i>Item No</i>	<i>Description</i>	<i>Mark</i>
A.1.1	1.	Use words appropriate to context.	[5]
A.2.1	2.	Construct coherent sentences.	[5]
A.4.1	3.	Pronounce adequately to be understood by the listener.	[10]
A.4.2	4.	Sustain the exposition with fluency and only errors of expression in one of every five sentences.	[20]
A.4.3	5.	Communicate opinions/facts effectively.	[40]
B.8	6.	Distinguish between fact and opinion, as evident in the course of the recorded discussion.	[10]
B.9	7.	In response to the recorded discussion, show awareness of at least one of the persuasive arguments presented by those involved.	[10]
TOTAL:			[100]

The above Assessment Sheet can be used by those assessing the recordings submitted. The results of the performance of each student are subsequently translated into a written comment on the assignment to ensure that each student can recognize the weak points in his or her submission and the areas that need attention and improvement.

For ease of reference, the terminal learning objectives, which are the focus of this activity, are identified in relation to each item on the Assessment Sheet. While some

of the skills assessed are also exercised in the context of other activities, those objectives dealing with the spoken word are the focus of this type of assignment.

The next category of assignment is the Tutor-assessed assignment. Again a stream-specific theme is selected for the purpose, with materials provided in the form of a Study Package which has a selection of stream-specific readings. The printed texts are supported by a tape recording of the passages contained in the package, as read by an English first-language speaker. The recordings are further augmented by a verbal presentation aimed at developing listening comprehension skills. This presentation takes the form of a five-minute mini-lecture on expectations and human rights.

For the purposes of this activity, the Study Package contains:

1. "The Draft Declaration of the United Nations on the Rights of Persons Belonging to National, Ethnic, Religious and Linguistic Minorities" - from Omanga (1991: pp 33-41).
2. "The Administration of Justice" - from Cameron, Marcus and Van Zyl Smit (1990: pp 556-557).
3. "A Harbinger of a Renaissance in Administrative Law" - from Forsyth (1990: pp 387-400).
4. "Administrative Law: Bill of Rights" - from Mureinik (1990A: pp 494-495).
5. "Administrative Law: Natural Justice" - from Mureinik (1990B: pp 495-498).

These excerpts are to be used in the following learning activity.

Example 4:

TUTOR ASSIGNMENT 6

[Week 16 - Stream-Specific Material]

Introduction: This week you were required to read Study Package 2. There is also a section in your Study Guide which required your attention. This Assignment is based on this week's programme of work.

Answer the questions which follow, and submit this assignment. Be sure to answer, where appropriate, in full sentences.

BASIC

1. Scan the five excerpts in Study Package 2 (Legal) to establish the theme (or central concern) of each passage. Write these points down in a sentence each. [5]
2. Explain the meaning in context of the underlined words in the following sentence from "The Draft Declaration of the United Nations on the Rights of Persons Belonging to National, Ethnic, Religious and Linguistic Minorities":
"The draft declaration of 1990 would need to include means of domestic verification for the implementation of its provisions." [3]
3. In your own words explain what is meant by the following statement in "The Administration of Justice":
"An internationally supervised election as precursor to full independence [in Namibia] promised some portent of what might happen in South Africa." [3]
4. Explain why Forsyth, in "A Harbinger of a Renaissance in Administrative Law", declares that:
"The serious commentator should be careful about forming instant opinions about the significance of judgements." [4]

INTERIM

5. In no more than a paragraph written in your own words explain what (in "A Harbinger of a Renaissance in Administrative Law") is meant by the "unequivocal introduction of the doctrine of legitimate expectations into South African Law". [5]

ADVANCED

6. In a paragraph written in your own words explain why Forsyth (in "A Harbinger of a Renaissance in Administrative Law") states:
"... even the most charitable of commentators would find it difficult, if not impossible, to say something good about the attitude to natural justice adopted by the South African courts since the late 1950s."
[5]

ESSAY

7. Read the five excerpts in the Study Package and listen closely to the mini-lecture on expectations and human rights. Then write an essay of no more than 600 words on the topic: Expectations, Natural Justice and Human Rights. [75]

TOTAL: [100]

This Assignment provides practice in areas of learning associated with a number of the Terminal Objectives, as follows:

- | | |
|-------------|---|
| Question 1: | Objectives A.2.1.2, B.1 and B.11.1 |
| Question 2: | Objectives A.1.1.2, A.1.1.4 and B.2 |
| Question 3: | Objectives A.2.1.1-3, B.2 and B.4 |
| Question 4: | Objectives A.2.1.1-3, B.2, B.3 and
B.10.2 |
| Question 5: | Objectives A.3, B.1, B.2, B.3, B.4 and
B.10.2 |
| Question 6: | Objectives A.3, B.1, B.2, B.3, B.4,
B.7, B.8 and B.10.2 |
| Question 7: | Objectives A.1-3, B (All parts), C.1,
C.2, D.11 and D.12 |

Work that is tutor-assessed is probably the most valuable in providing insight into the performance of students. However, for there to be real advantage in the proposals given here, as emphasized by Rodriguez (1988: pp 92-98) and Wiersma and Jurs (1990: pp 9-17), tutors need to approach the marking with the criterion-referenced principle (or the 90/90 concept explained by Davies: 1971, p 210) in mind, especially when marking the essay component. A series of questions should govern the assessment given:

1. What more could the student have included in the essay?
2. How much more can legitimately be expected of a student given the constraints of time available to part-time students and the limits placed on the length of the response?
3. Has the full range of available marks been used in this assessment?
4. How many of the course objectives (relevant to the assignment components) have been met by this demonstration of the communicative skills of the student?

Next, the focus is on computer-assessed assignments. A decided body of knowledge has been built up over the years about the structure and nature of computer-assessed multiple-choice items. Some of the points, which are cogently explored by Wiersma and Jurs (1990: pp 49-60) and listed in a similar form by Morris, Fitz-Gibbon and Lindheim (1987: p 160), include the need to ensure that the stem (or introduction to a question) contains all the pertinent information, avoiding grammatical clues in the formulation of the stem, making the correct alternative and all distractors approximately equal in length, using plausible distractors, phrasing options and the stem to avoid repeating key words in both, eliminating irrelevant content, generally not having a stem that is phrased in a negative form, using three to seven options for each item, and ensuring that the correct options are not positioned in

a recognizable pattern but are arranged randomly. In addition, the major shift in approach that is needed is to ensure the use of specific texts from which each item is then derived. There should not be a stand-alone question such as the following:

Which of the following sentences contains an adjectival clause?

- (1) The bride looked beautiful in her white satin dress;
- (2) Dressed in white silk, the bride looked beautiful;
- (3) The bridegroom wore a new suit which he had just bought;
- (4) The bride was attended by six pretty bridesmaids;
- (5) The bride was attended by six pretty bridesmaids carrying pink flowers;
- (6) Proud and handsome, the bridegroom made a speech;
- (7) The couple received many presents, including a motor-car.

Instead each multiple-choice test item requires a context so that the contents have an appropriate field of reference within which a student can demonstrate comprehension of both the concept and the language used. However, both aspects should not be tested in the same item. The implication, according to Heaton (1979: pp 14-15) is that there should generally be only one correct answer (aimed at testing a single feature) and usually four distractors among the available options.

The example which follows represents the approach that is recommended. Only five multiple-choice questions are included by way of illustration although there are clearly many more questions which can be formulated about the passage upon which they are based. The contents of the passage, while thematically educational, would be included in the general category of assignments. The other passages

selected for the assignment must of necessity be selected with other themes to ensure broad interest.

Example 5:

COMPUTER ASSIGNMENT 5

[Week 12 - Common Material]

Introduction: This assignment must be submitted. Follow the steps outlined in the introduction to computer assignments in the Study Guide.

Task: The assignment is set up in sections. Each section starts with a short piece of writing. Read the excerpt. Then consider each question that is based on that passage. The questions in each section are listed under the headings: basic, interim and advanced. You can choose to do only the basic questions for a maximum possible mark of 60%, or the basic and interim questions for a maximum possible mark of 80%, or all of the questions (basic, interim and advanced) for a maximum possible mark of 100%.

Read the following passage:

Once upon a time ... there was a tribe of cavemen. Their life was simple, but hard. Then as now, there were few lengths to which men would not go to avoid the pain and labour of thought. But a thinker arose. His name was New-fist-hammer-maker (New-fist, for short). He thought out ways in which life might be made better for himself, his family and his tribe.

"If I could only get children to do the things that will give more and better food, shelter and security", thought New-fist, "I would be helping the tribe to have a better life...". Having set up an educational goal, New-fist proceeded to construct a curriculum. "What things must we tribesmen know in order to live with full bellies, warm backs and minds free from fear?" he asked.

New-fist identified three factors which were central to the life of the tribe: clubbing woolly horses for food; catching fish with bare hands; and scaring sabre-tooth tigers with fire. He constructed a curriculum accordingly.

He educated his own children according to his new curriculum, and they thrived. Some of the more

intelligent members of the tribe followed New-fist's example, and eventually the teaching of horse-clubbing, fish-grabbing and tiger-scaring came to be accepted as the core of all real education.

Gradually, being a statesman as well as an educational administrator and theorist, New-fist overcame all opposition (practical, theoretical and theological) to his curriculum. Long after his death the tribe continued to prosper.

But times changed. A new ice-age came. Fish grew difficult to catch with bare hands. The woolly horses migrated and were replaced by fast, agile antelopes. The sabre-tooths died out and their place was taken by enormous cave bears which were totally unimpressed by fire. The tribe was soon in danger of following the sabre-tooths into extinction... .

Fortunately for the tribe, there were still men in it of the New-fist breed, men who had the ability to do and the daring to think. Between them they solved the survival problem by inventing fishnet making, antelope snare construction and the theory, practice and operation of catching cave bears in pits. Once again the tribe prospered.

There were a thoughtful few who asked questions as they worked. Some of them even criticized the schools. They asked why these new subjects should not be taught. But the majority of the tribe had long ago learned that schools had nothing to do with real life, and anyway, the wise old men who controlled education had an answer: "That wouldn't be education; it would be mere training, and anyway, the curriculum is already too crowded. What our people need is a more thorough grounding in the basics." The old subjects, it seemed, were taught not for themselves, but for the sake of generalized skills.

But the radicals persisted: "Times have changed. Perhaps these up-to-date activities have some educational value after all?" The wise old men were appalled: "The essence of true education is timelessness. You must know that there are some eternal verities, and the sabre-tooth curriculum is one of them!"

Harold Benjamin - 1938.

Answer the following questions:

BASIC:

1. Which of the following statements best explains the author's view that "Then as now, there were few lengths to which men would not go to avoid the pain and labour of thought"?

- (1) Men do not like to think.
- (2) Men will do anything to stop thinking.
- (3) Men are not like women who understand the need for pain and labour.
- (4) Men would do almost anything rather than face the difficult task of thinking.
- (5) Thoughts about pain and work were avoided at almost all costs by men.

2. What was the educational objective formulated by Newfist?

- (1) The cavemen will strive for a better way of life.
- (2) The children will be able to act in a way that enhances the quantity and quality of their food, shelter and security.
- (3) The children will do things about their food, shelter and security.
- (4) The children will live with full bellies, warm backs and minds free from fear.
- (5) The children attended lessons on clubbing, fishing and scaring.

3. What view was eventually held of the skills of horse-clubbing, fish-grabbing and tiger-scaring?

- (1) These subjects remained viewed as the basis of prosperity.
- (2) They were viewed as the things to teach not for the skills of the subjects themselves, but for the sake of generalized skills.
- (3) The wise old cavemen enjoyed their view.
- (4) These skills were viewed as essential for survival when the new ice-age came.
- (5) These skills were viewed as essential for survival by everybody.

INTERIM:

4. What comment is the author making about existing educational curriculums?

- (1) The components included in any curriculum must be timeless.
- (2) Training is not as important as educating.
- (3) Survival depends on a valid educational curriculum.
- (4) Educational curriculums must contain some eternal verities.
- (5) Educational curriculums must be dynamic and not remain fixed.

ADVANCED:

5. What warning does the author wish to convey to the reader?

- (1) Educational systems easily develop objectives and priorities aimed at their own self-perpetuation rather than the service of the ends for which they were created.
- (2) Educators that resist changes to a curriculum defend the eternal verities of the educational system.
- (3) There are always trainers who wish to convert educational curriculums into activities that provide drill for students in a limited set of skills only.
- (4) The essential concerns of educationalists have not changed and will never change.
- (5) Human skill and knowledge can ultimately be reduced to simple, timeless units of learning.

The selection of this specific passage for incorporation in the example provides an interesting juxtaposition of perception with that expounded in Chapter 1. The built-in properties of self-perpetuation in educational systems appear as prevalent now as they were when Benjamin chose to comment on them in this ironic parable.

The final example is of a remedial Self-study exercise, intended for specific students on the basis of revealed need. They are supplementary to a suitable handbook of grammar, style and usage. The self-contained material provides a brief rule or definition governing the point of grammar or usage, followed by one or two examples, and a series of self-correct items relating to the point in question. The answers are supplied with each remedial Self-study exercise to facilitate self-assessment.

Example 6: REMEDIAL SELF-STUDY EXERCISE 20
PRESENT AND PRESENT CONTINUOUS TENSES

Introduction: This exercise has been issued because you frequently made errors of tense in your most recently submitted piece of work.

POINTS TO REMEMBER...

There are two present tenses.

1. Present Simple Tense

I state

He
She
It

 states

We
You
They

 state

REMEMBER: This tense is used for something that happens often, or regularly, or habitually, or in relation to something which exists (a piece of writing).

Examples:

The moon shines at night.
Cats are cuddly.
The author shows the weaknesses of the main character.

2. Present Continuous Tense

I am stating

He
She
It

 is stating

We
You
They

 are stating

REMEMBER: This tense is used for something happening at this moment, or at the present time.

Examples:

We are studying our use of tenses.
She is speaking on the telephone.

Task: Carefully study the above Points to Remember. Then read the following newspaper article. Thereafter do the various exercises based on the passage.

EARTH'S UGLY SISTER

Venus is closer to the Sun than the Earth is, and the sunlight reaching Venus is twice as powerful as that reaching the Earth. However, it has also been found that Venus, which is covered in thick cloud, reflects twice as much sunlight as the Earth does. So, it is quite possible to imagine that Venus might be too hot to support life, and even to picture it as the home of fair-haired Venusians chasing across the planet in flying saucers.

Unfortunately, this attractive idea does not stand up to examination. Instead of spinning anti-clockwise like most other planets, Venus revolves clockwise, and it turns so slowly that the sun rises in the west and sets in the east 59 days later. This means that during the immensely long Venusian "day", the temperature has time to reach 450 degrees Centigrade, easily hot enough to melt tin or lead. Moreover, the polar axis is almost vertical, so there are no seasons.

Adapted from an article by
V A Firsoff in *The Guardian*

Exercise 1

Write full sentences when answering the following questions:

1. Which planet, Earth or Venus, is closest to the Sun?
2. How much more powerful is the sunlight reaching Venus than that reaching the Earth?
3. With what is Venus covered?
4. How many days on Earth pass in the course of a single revolution for Venus?
5. Insert the correct form of the verb in the spaces allowed in the following sentences:
 - 5.1 The Sun _____ (continues/is continuing) to shine on both Earth and Venus.
 - 5.2 Planets that revolve clockwise _____ (are/is/are being) an unusual phenomenon.
 - 5.3 Fifty-nine days _____ (pass/are passing) on Earth before the Sun _____ (rises/is rising) on Venus.

5.4 The temperature on Venus _____ (reach/
reaches/is reaching) 450 degrees Centigrade.

5.5 The Venusian temperature _____ (melt/melts/
is melting) metals such as tin or lead.

Exercise 2

Rewrite the following passage using the present tenses for each of the underlined verbs:

The real shock came when we considered the atmosphere. The closer a planet was to the Sun, the less atmosphere it was able to retain. Venus had an atmosphere about 100 times as dense as ours. The air was much too thick to run in, and a swimming stroke helped you to walk in it. The winds were very slow. They were measured at no more than seven miles per hour, but the atmosphere was so thick that such a wind was strong enough to knock down a tall building.

The exercises require self-assessment. Please use the answers supplied as a means of checking your own responses and not as an easy way of completing the exercises.

Each of these remedial Self-study exercises would contain further exercises at this basic level, but have not been developed in this example, as the nature of the contents should be clear from what has been presented. The answers provided to students for the exercises have also not been included here.

In this chapter, examples of the types of exercises recommended for inclusion in the proposed course model have been presented and discussed. Underlying their choice has been the central concern to meet the set of course objectives. When the full programme of work is implemented, students will receive numerous opportunities to develop the skills related to each learning objective.

The contents of the course are not influenced by the format in which the various components are presented. The course materials could be collated as workbooks for each type of activity, or as a general workbook containing all of the components, or as loose-leaf or circular sections distributed at regular intervals. The important consideration is to design a full programme of work on a systematic basis, and one which is fluid enough to create as much individualized learning as possible.

CHAPTER 8

SET WORKS

The factors governing the selection of set works are determined by the process of applying the systematic approach to course design. The needs of students and the course objectives largely dictate the choice of works set. There are two categories of set works required for achievement of the course objectives outlined in Chapter 3. First, reference works are required to facilitate the study and understanding of the students. Second, prose books that will lend themselves to the types of learning activities envisaged need to be selected. In arriving at the criteria that must be applied when choosing prescribed prose works, considerations other than those which are andragogic are also pertinent. Some of these are practical matters and, it might be argued, not of direct relevance to the course. For example, the selection of a set work may be dictated by issues of price. A less superior work may enjoy preference because it is locally published and not subject to the duties and taxes imposed on imported books.

The main considerations reflected in the criteria discussed here were laid down at a meeting of the UNISA Practical English Teams on 13 February 1985 (see Appendix D). The following features are based very largely on the lists drawn up at that meeting. Adjustments are dictated by the course objectives reflected in this study, as well as the other factors explored. The features required for each type of set work are listed under each category.

1. REFERENCE WORKS

1.1 Dictionary

- 1.1.1 Each entry should preferably contain an illustration of the word in use.

- 1.1.2 Pronunciation must be conveyed in each entry.
- 1.1.3 The number of entries should be between approximately 100,000 and 120,000.
- 1.1.4 Ideally the dictionary should be available in both soft and hard cover.
- 1.1.5 The dictionary should have long-term value as a reference book.
- 1.1.6 It should be reasonably priced.

1.2 Grammar, Style and Usage Handbook

- 1.2.1 Entries must be easily found.
- 1.2.2 Common errors, such as those listed as ones requiring remedial Self-study exercises in Chapter 5, must be discussed or explained.
- 1.2.3 Its title and contents must not be limiting factors.
- 1.2.4 The size of the book and of each entry must be manageable, not daunting.
- 1.2.5 The work should have long-term value as a reference book.
- 1.2.6 It should be reasonably priced.

2. PROSE WORKS

2.1 Anthology

- 2.1.1 It must be written in modern English prose.
- 2.1.2 The range of contents should include: extracts from larger works, short stories, newspaper reports, advertisements, magazine articles, essays, extracts from popular literature, and letters (both business and personal).
- 2.1.3 Excerpts from novels (both literary and popular) should be from current, readily available publications, to facilitate extensive reading.
- 2.1.4 As implicit in 2.1.2 above, the contents should include items of fiction and non-fiction.

- 2.1.5 The selection of material should be drawn from the four "streams of study" defined in Chapter 5: study skills, education, legal, and service (incorporating commerce, nursing, etc).
- 2.1.6 Ideally, the items in the anthology should each have relevant and graded comprehension questions set on them.
- 2.1.7 South African writing should be included in the anthology.
- 2.1.8 The anthology should be set for a period of at least three years.

2.2 Modern Prose Works

- 2.2.1 Two works for each "stream of study" (study skills, education, legal, and service) should be selected and set for a period of at least three years. Consequently, their contents must lend themselves to a range of different learning activities which will vary each year.
- 2.2.2 Each work should be well written in acceptable modern usage, and preferably follow the conventions of Standard English.
- 2.2.3 The contents or the frame of reference should not be foreign, but accessible to South African students and socially acceptable to the range of students.
- 2.2.4 The works should be short novels or novellas, but an appropriate work of non-fiction could also be considered.
- 2.2.5 Each work should be approachable at a range of comprehension levels.
- 2.2.6 The reading level of difficulty should be between Bands 7 and 8 or at Reading Levels 11 to 13 (See the comparative tabulation in Chapter 5 which reflects: reading levels, study bands and scholastic ESL equivalent levels).

2.3 Reading Handbook

- 2.3.1 This work must be suitable for self-analysis and self-study purposes, containing easy to use matrices and self-correct sections to guide the development of reading comprehension skills.
- 2.3.2 The passages should be graded in terms of the Reading Levels and lengths reflected in the table in Chapter 5. (See the comparative tabulation which reflects: reading levels, study bands and scholastic ESL equivalent levels, as well as relevant passage lengths).
- 2.3.3 There should be sixteen passages in each reading level section.
- 2.3.4 Two categories of self-assessment questions, on word meaning or skills of word analysis and on comprehension skills, should be set on each passage.
- 2.3.5 The range of reading-thinking skills, from surface to deeper levels of meaning, should be developed across the reading levels.
- 2.3.6 At least four of the passages in each reading level should be drawn from the "streams of study" (study skills, education, legal, and service).
- 2.3.7 Each passage should be well written in acceptable modern usage, and preferably follow the conventions of Standard English.
- 2.3.8 The contents or the frame of reference of each passage should not be foreign, but accessible to South African students and socially acceptable to the range of students.
- 2.3.9 South African writing should be included.
- 2.3.10 There should be a separate section devoted to the development of reading speed.

In order to meet these criteria, it might prove difficult to find set works that are already in publication. It may

therefore be necessary to prepare custom-designed manuscripts for the required set works and seek their publication. It is my opinion that, in a South African context, the guaranteed prescription of such works for at least three years would make publication viable were a university course with the student numbers of UNISA to be the one involved, as first editions usually have a print-run of two to three thousand copies.

When the choice of dictionary is based on the above criteria, *The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* (Fourth Edition) compiled by A S Hornby, edited by A P Cowie and published by the Oxford University Press in 1990 appears to be an entirely suitable choice, drawing as it does on definitive sources. It meets all of the criteria. However, *The Collins Concise Dictionary of the English Language* edited by P Hanks (1990) and published by William Collins Sons & Co. Ltd, or the *Chambers Concise Dictionary* edited by Davidson, Seaton and Simpson (1989) offer the next best options. They are slightly less useful because, unlike *The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*, their focus is not on the learner of English as a foreign or second language. Less comprehensive dictionaries and hence less satisfactory as long-term reference works, but nevertheless useful options, include *The Oxford Paperback Dictionary* (see Hawkins: 1990) and the *Collins Cobuild Essential English Dictionary* (Sinclair and Hanks: 1989). The less widely used work, *The Cassell Concise English Dictionary* (Kirkpatrick: 1989), or the revised edition of *The Penguin Concise English Dictionary* (Garmonsway and Simpson: 1991) could also prove to be useful alternatives. Their limitations are that they are not chiefly intended for learners of English as a foreign or second language. Unfortunately, there is only *The Oxford Paperback Dictionary: South African Edition* as a locally published equivalent of these dictionaries. It lacks the scope and merit of some of the above, more comprehensive dictionaries. The choice is

therefore essentially limited to overseas publications with their higher prices.

In selecting a handbook of grammar, style and usage, there is a substantial range of publications. However, in many instances the works in question focus on one of the three elements such as style, to the detriment of the other two concerns, grammar and usage. Even within the scope of a single area, for example grammar reference works, there is frequently a limitation: few grammars are broad enough in their approach to draw on both traditional grammar and transformational grammar; there is normally a bias in favour of a grammatical or linguistic theory. A handbook such as Bell and Cohn's *Handbook of Grammar, Style and Usage* (1981) which addresses all three of the areas stipulated has two disadvantages: first, its contents are presented in American English which is not the norm used in South Africa and, second, its price is high because of the adverse exchange rates and the taxes and duties levied. A work such as *Word Power: The South African Handbook of Grammar, Style and Usage* (Adey, Orr and Swemmer: 1991), however, contains several examples based on South African practices, while drawing on many major theories of grammar and usage in the examples proffered. The alphabetical arrangement of its list of entries, in a book of three hundred pages, allows for ease of reference. It contains sections dealing with each of the common errors listed in Chapter 5. As a local publication its cost is not prohibitive and its contents should not date rapidly, thus enhancing its attraction as a reference book with long-term relevance.

When consideration is given to the selection of prose works, several additional factors, in keeping with the laid down criteria, need to be borne in mind. Miller (1983: p 221) points out that the texts selected for study in English literary courses are generally

... aesthetically interesting. This aesthetic quality may refer to the assumed coherence, unity, and completeness of the texts, to their assumed universality or perduring spiritual relevance, or to any of a complex set of assumed relations to other literature.

Miller goes on to stress that a text's aesthetic status may be the consequence of its acceptance in the canon of literary works, or a text's relation to this canon, or even as a result of its relevance as a comment on canonized texts. Miller explains that, by contrast, texts used in the study of composition often have no such assumed status (Miller: 1983, p 221). They are selected as examples or models rather than to be studied for their own sake. The longer texts chosen for study may well need to rely on such an aesthetic quality. The contents of the anthology envisaged, however, may well contain both varieties of text. Such a choice must be made in the knowledge that literary study, as both Miller (1983: p 221) and Hartman (1981: p 16) show, tends to be granted (to use Miller's words) "the status of a self-fulfilling academic pursuit", while the focus on the other type of text is frequently dismissed as "only 'pedagogical'".

Harrison (1962: pp 7-29) provides further insight into the types of reading upon which one can embark. He points out that a course in literature is "mainly concerned with poems, dramas, novels, short stories, essays and works of criticism. But ... may also include letters, biographies, histories, works of philosophy, theology and psychology" (Harrison: 1962, p 9). The broad scope of the reading matter advocated for this course is in keeping with the breadth of materials Harrison describes as worthy of inclusion in a literary course.

The purposes for reading, Harrison states, may be for instruction and knowledge, for passing a competitive examination, or to improve one's social graces by

furnishing one with apposite quotations and conversational subject matter, but above all for pleasure. He is emphatic that "writing which does not give pleasure (whatever else it may give by way of instruction or edification) is not 'literature'" (Harrison: 1962, p 23). Tellingly, Harrison (1962: p 25) goes on to declare that "professional readers are ... under the curse of their calling. ... They pass judgements by the rules of the profession ... [and] whenever they read a book, it is not to enjoy but to analyze, to evaluate, and to pontificate." The implication, if one accepts Harrison's view, is that academics may not be the best judges of works that evoke pleasure. In the context of this course, however, when literary works happen to be selected for study this should be regarded as a bonus rather than a prerequisite: their prescription depends rather on the extent to which they meet the laid down criteria and to which they have the potential to facilitate the attainment of the course's learning objectives.

It is necessary to distinguish between imaginative literature and expository prose. FINDER (1974: p 356) emphasizes that, unlike exposition and argument in non-fiction prose, "literary work is constructed by one of two main principles": argument with the purpose of informing and persuading; or imitation so as to represent human experience. Another difference, according to FINDER (1974: p 357), is that the audience which reads literary works remains constant: it is made up of those familiar with literature and whose opinions are generally predictable. FINDER also points to the author's role in the composition. He is concerned with both the appropriateness of the author's "voice" to the purpose of the work and as a "representation" of the author. These differences and features need to be acknowledged and recognized. When a book is selected, allowances for these divergences need to be made to facilitate the choice of a suitable anthology. To echo the view of MILLER (1983: p 224), what is needed

is for those literary scholars, who tend to enjoy the final say regarding the choice of set works, "to acknowledge their relation to 'public man'".

This leads quite logically to a consideration of the views expounded by Chapman (1990: p 138). In an admittedly slightly different context he states that

... the language of society assaults [students] at every turn and helps shape their conceptions of reality through newspapers, magazines, television serials and films. ... English studies should seek to recover relevance and dynamism in an expanded cultural field, where the diagnostic analysis of a news report, for example, could indicate discourse as a constituent of power or control.

This argument presented in relation to English literary courses has as much relevance in the context of courses which aim at developing English communicative performance. There is a need to develop the skills associated with the assimilation and ultimately the appreciation of longer works as well as the ability to place such works into a relevant context. Equally important, however, is the need for students to feel that the works that they are studying, and indeed the course that they are following, is relevant and meets their needs.

In a South African context, the choice of prescribed modern prose works in the 1990s has become even more delicate. Chapman (1990: p 139) rightly declares that "in South Africa the persistent forms are the short story, the autobiography and the political testimony". He continues by asking the question which underlies the earlier discussions about the aesthetic interest of literary works and the differences between literary prose and non-fiction: "Are these [other prose forms] less teachable than the novel, poem or play, or is it that we have not been conditioned to recognize their particular interest and value?".

The ideal choice might therefore be the selection of either two longer works of South African prose or one offering a European perspective in juxtaposition with one that is Afrocentric, and which in both instances suit each of the streams of study. These works need not necessarily be novels.

The following possible selection is perhaps worthy of consideration. In each stream of study, the first two works are the suggested selection, with the third title providing an alternative:

1. Education Stream

- 1.1 Mungoshi C, *Waiting for the Rain*. Harare: Zimbabwe Publishing House, 1990.
- 1.2 Peters W, *A Class Divided: Then and Now*. New Haven and London: Yale University Press, 1987.
- 1.3 Braithwaite E R, *To Sir, With Love*. London: New English Library - Times Mirror, 1970.

2. Legal Stream

- 2.1 Oyono F, *Houseboy*. London, Ibadan and Nairobi: Heinemann, 1989.
- 2.2 Mphahlele E, *Down Second Avenue*. London and Boston: Faber and Faber, 1990.
- 2.3 Mphahlele E, *The Wanderers*. Cape Town and Johannesburg: David Philip, 1984.

3. Service Stream

- 3.1 Achebe C, *Things Fall Apart*. London, Ibadan and Nairobi: Heinemann, 1983.
- 3.2 Golding W, *Lord of the Flies*. London: Faber and Faber, 1968.

3.3 Blake M, *Dances with Wolves*. Harmondsworth:
Penguin Books, 1991.

4. Study Skills Stream

4.1 Brink A, *An Instant in the Wind*. London:
Flamingo, Fontana Paperbacks, 1983.

4.2 Dangaremba T, *Nervous Conditions*. London: The
Women's Press, 1988.

4.3 Ndebele N S, *Fools and other stories*.
Johannesburg: Ravan Press, 1990.

Each of these works was selected after measuring it against the list of criteria defined earlier in this chapter. Several South African and African works have been included in the selection. The works were then subjected to analysis by the Harris-Jacobson Readability Formula 2, discussed in section four of Chapter 4. The worksheet given below was used.

Recognition of the limitations of readability formulas is necessary to avoid inordinate emphasis upon the results. In this regard certain of the points in the summary of findings of readability studies made by Klare (1976: pp 129-152) are pertinent: motivation is crucial as it can override the effects of readability on comprehension; easier readability, even when not accompanied by better comprehension, increases the likelihood that readers continue reading; editorial intervention (replacing difficult words with synonyms, for example) may lower readability levels without increasing comprehension; readability formulas may lead to an under-estimation of the difficulty of material about which a reader has limited background; and their use may result in over-estimation of difficulty for highly intelligent or well-informed readers.

HARRIS-JACOBSON READABILITY FORMULA 2: WORKSHEET

Title: _____

Author: _____

Publisher: _____ Publication Date: _____

SAMPLES:

1 2 3 4 5

Pages: _____
 A. No. of words in sample
 B. No. of words not in list
 C. No. of sentences

STEP:

1. $V1 = B/A \times 100$

2. $V2 = A/C$

3. $V1 \times ,140$

4. $V2 \times ,153$

5. Add steps 3 & 4 + ,56

Predicted Score

Average Predicted Score:

	1	2	3	4	5
Pages:					
A. No. of words in sample					
B. No. of words not in list					
C. No. of sentences					
STEP 1: $V1 = B/A \times 100$					
STEP 2: $V2 = A/C$					
STEP 3: $V1 \times ,140$					
STEP 4: $V2 \times ,153$					
STEP 5: Add steps 3 & 4 + ,56					
Predicted Score					
Average Predicted Score:					

READABILITY LEVEL:

grade and above.

In addition to the works listed above, three other works were also assessed for their readability. Two of them, Orwell's *Animal Farm* and Gordimer's *July's People*, significantly, produced readability levels at the eighth grade. Given the comparative levels of English communicative competence at which the majority of the students would be commencing, these works were resultantly not incorporated in the list of recommendations. Aidoo's *No Sweetness Here* was not included because its readability

level was measured at the third grade. The following is a summary of the readability level analysis¹:

SUMMARY
READABILITY LEVEL ANALYSIS

AUTHOR	TITLE	SAMPLES - PREDICTED SCORES:					AVERAGE PREDICTED SCORE	READ- ABILITY LEVEL
		1	2	3	4	5		
Achebe C	Things Fall Apart	5.254	4.803	6.449	5.562	4.669	5.347	6th
Aidoo A A	No Sweetness Here	3.268	4.015	4.324	3.807	4.321	3.947	3rd
Blake M	Dances with Wolves	6.716	4.784	6.814	4.635	5.178	5.625	6th
Braithwaite E R	To Sir, With Love	5.132	6.28	7.207	3.345	6.073	5.607	6th
Brink A	An Instant in the Wind	4.079	4.453	7.064	5.667	4.822	5.217	5th
Dangaremba T	Nervous Conditions	4.384	4.762	7.112	4.307	5.09	5.131	5th
Golding W	Lord of the Flies	4.591	6.701	4.862	4.796	5.533	5.296	6th
Gordimer N	July's People	7.321	6.249	6.965	5.189	5.119	6.169	8th
Mphahlele E	Down Second Avenue	7.962	4.932	5.319	5.286	6.348	5.969	7th
Mphahlele E	The Wanderers	6.408	3.817	5.055	5.175	4.717	5.034	5th
Mungoshi C	Waiting for the Rain	3.561	3.691	6.073	4.129	5.44	4.579	4th
Ndebele N S	Fools and other stories	4.807	2.428	4.07	5.583	5.451	4.468	4th
Orwell G	Animal Farm	6.702	6.27	5.798			6.257	8th
Oyono F	Houseboy	4.079	5.59	5.017	4.56	4.5	4.749	4th
Peters W	A Class Divided	4.922	5.149	4.646	6.432	3.563	4.942	5th

All of the works were assessed on the basis of the recommended five two-hundred-word samples, chosen at random but at roughly equal intervals from each fifth of each book, with the exception of *Animal Farm* which was evaluated on the basis of three two-hundred-word samples because of its circumscribed length. The first two paragraphs of the selections were disregarded if the sample in question was the start of a section or chapter, thereby minimizing the likelihood of a preponderance of new vocabulary. Two hundred consecutive words were counted in each instance,

with counting continuing to the end of the sentence containing the two-hundredth word.

The first of the two variables calculated was the percentage of unfamiliar words per excerpt. Such words were counted only the first time they occurred, and if they did not appear in the Harris-Jacobson Short Readability Word List of 2 792 words. Proper nouns were disregarded. The second variable established was the mean number of words per sentence in each excerpt. These variables were then used in the formula reflected in the above worksheet.

The last of the set works listed as a requirement for meeting the Course objectives outlined in Chapter 3 is a Reading Handbook. From a study of available resources there does not appear to be a Reading Handbook of the type envisaged in the laid down criteria. Such a Handbook would therefore have to be developed specifically for the course. The publication would, however, probably prove of value in many other courses of English offered at a tertiary level, thus warranting the effort required in preparing the required materials.

A necessary adjunct to the selected set works is that of preparing recordings of their contents. The approach required is similar to that used in preparing tape-recordings of readings of books for blind students. Preferably, the recordings should be made by a number of different readers whose pronunciation and accents provide examples of a range of acceptable types of English in use. When students come to read their set works, they should be encouraged to apply the recommended PQRST process of comprehension to each book, and then follow the text, while listening to the recording of the book, as it is read for them. Similarly, when assignments or exercises are set on the works in question, recordings of the relevant excerpts should be incorporated in the study materials.

The point of emphasis is that the works should be chosen in response to the stated learning objectives, and the related considerations determining the choice of methods and course contents. Books set should not be included because they are generally regarded as part of the "great tradition" or because of their prominence in the canon of English literature. Should such a work suit the criteria developed in response to the learning objectives, it would presumably prove to be a worthwhile component of the course. Its selection would then be natural and not merely the consequence of the whims or desires of tutors. The process of selection is not mechanistic. The ideal is to strive to choose works which both provide delight and meet the established criteria for the course.

Notes

¹ The complete set of worksheets, from which this table is derived, is to be found in Appendix E.

CHAPTER 9

MEASUREMENT OF LEARNING: THE EXAMINATION

The Concise Oxford Dictionary (Sykes: 1976, p 677) defines the word "measure" as estimating the "quality of something by some standard or rule". The measurement of variables such as mass, time or length, is relatively easy in that there are several simple and clear criteria which are applicable and which enjoy general acceptance. When one seeks to measure the learning achieved by a student in the use of English as a second language, however, the issues are not normally as straight forward. As these issues were earlier considered at length (in Chapter 6), this chapter focuses in the main on a suggested format for the final examination. However, it is important to reiterate that the examination must seek to assess the learning that has occurred by being based on the set of course objectives. As Harrison (1973: pp 101-102) argues, the fundamental problems which must be addressed are whether the examination measures what it purports to assess; whether the examination items are valid; and whether the use of the examination as the arbiter of performance is justified.

Before presenting the suggested example of the examination components, the value of moderating the examination paper needs to be considered. Heaton (1979: pp 181-182) indicates that even the most experienced test writer becomes so closely engaged in the course development and activities that flaws in the structure of a test, or test-items, might not become readily apparent to that individual: "it is essential ... that the test writer submits his test for moderation to a colleague or, preferably, to a number of colleagues." Ideally, the process of moderation by an independent outsider, one not immediately responsible for structuring the examination paper or assessing student performance in it, should not be

confined to the development of the contents of the examination paper alone, but should extend to include both the scoring of the test as well as the evaluation of the results. In the context of ESL courses which may be fairly innovative in approach, external moderation is strongly advocated, as this will have the advantage of ensuring the maintenance of standards reported on by Arangies and Du Plessis (1990: p 96).

In the example which follows, the learning objectives determined earlier are the criteria used in measuring the learning of the students; and there is acceptance of the need to apply a criterion-referenced (or 90/90) principle as far as possible. The examination paper would have four sections (one for each stream of study) from which students make their choice. Only one of these choices, for the Legal Stream of study, will be presented here as an illustration of the recommended contents.

EXAMINATION

Time: Written - 3 hours
Oral - 10 minutes

Contents: Paper 1
Cassette

The prescribed dictionary may be used during the examination. Each student may bring into the examination centre 1 pin and 1 cassette tape recorder (battery-operated) plus an earphone. Students without this equipment will forfeit the marks for the Oral Question.

DO ONE OF THE FOLLOWING FOUR SECTIONS:

- SECTION A - LEGAL STREAM*
- SECTION B - EDUCATION STREAM*
- SECTION C - STUDY SKILLS STREAM*
- SECTION D - SERVICE STREAM.*

In your Section, do all 4 of the written questions and the 1 verbal question.

At the end of the 3 hours allowed for the written questions, scripts will be handed in and then a further 10 minutes will be allowed for the oral question.

Section A: Legal Stream

1. Letter of Complaint

You work for the Law firm retained by the City Council of Skeiville. The senior partner calls you in and instructs you to draft a short letter of complaint to the editor of the *Skeiville News*. The letter will be signed by the City Council's Press Officer in reaction to the following press report which has just appeared. The Mayor, you are told, feels that it is one-sided and misleading. The Skeiville City Council is the firm's biggest client. (You have only 20 minutes to write the letter.)

[10]

5 - *Skeiville News*

Strike Dismissal Discriminatory

Skeiville
Own Correspondent

"I was not even given the chance to say anything about the claims of my foreman," declared Eskia Mgomzulu (34), married with two children, of Soweto, when he gave evidence before Mr J Lategaan in the Magistrate's Court this morning, in the case he has brought against his former employer, the Skeiville Municipality.

The court heard how Mr Mgomzulu was summarily dismissed

on 12 April 1991 for alleged "misconduct or unsatisfactory service". Appearing for the plaintive, Mr L Ayob, was quick to insist that this was "window-dressing and an attempt to sweep the facts under the carpet". When asked for his reasons for bringing the issue to court, Mgomzulu stated, "My dismissal was despicable discrimination."

"I was dismissed because of my part in a legitimate strike," Mgomzulu said. The case continues tomorrow.

2. Business Writing

You have recently been elected secretary of the Students Street Law Society. The previous secretary has given you the files. From the minute book you realize that several issues will need to appear on the draft agenda, for example:

the appointment of sub-committees; financial matters, including fund-raising; dates of meetings for next year; a membership drive; possible amendments to the Society's constitution; and of course the usual business of ratifying the previous minutes and dealing with items arising from them.

In addition, you note that the out-going chairman has asked you to distribute a 100 to 110-word summary of the following document for discussion, at the meeting, about what action to take.

**Draft Declaration on the Rights of
Individuals Belonging to National, Ethnic,
Religious and Linguistic Minorities**

This document is distributed to interested parties with the invitation that they submit proposed amendments and/or criticisms to the South African Law Commission within 90 days.

a. Collective Rights

o Persons belonging to minorities have the right, individually or in community with the other members of their group, to enjoy their own culture, to profess and practise their own religion and use their own language freely and without interference or discrimination whatsoever.

o They have the fundamental right as a minority group to develop a collective identity based in its own specific characteristics through respect for and development of their ethnic, cultural, linguistic and religious identity without any discrimination.

o Furthermore minorities have the collective right to protection from all actions, including propaganda, which can threaten the existence or the identity of the minority and hinder the development of its own special characteristics.

o Minorities also have the right to participate fully in government affairs and in the decisions affecting the areas in which they live (by means of national and, where possible, of regional bodies). Consequently, all political and national programmes in addition to programmes of international cooperation and economic or financial assistance should be designed and implemented after taking into proper account the legitimate interests of the minorities in the areas concerned.

b. Individual Rights

o Persons belonging to minorities are entitled to life, liberty and personal safety in addition to all the other human rights and freedoms, without any form of discrimination.

o Persons belonging to minorities have the right to participate equitably in the cultural, religious, social, economic and political life of the country in which they live.

o The members of minorities have the right to maintain contacts with other members of their group (and with other minorities) without discrimination, through their rights of association, freedom of movement and residence within this country's sovereign territory, as well as their right to leave this country, or return to it if it is their own country.

2a. Write a 100 to 110-word summary of the document entitled "Draft Declaration on the Rights of Individuals Belonging to National, Ethnic, Religious and Linguistic Minorities".

[10]

2b. Draw up the draft agenda for the next meeting of the Executive Committee of the Students Street Law

Society. Use the information given above, plus your knowledge of standard agenda items for this purpose.

[5]

- 2c. Write a memorandum to the Chairman of the Students Street Law Society in which you seek approval of the agenda before it is distributed.

[10]

3. Report Writing

Imagine you were appointed by the Executive Committee of the Students Street Law Society to chair a working committee of three people to make recommendations to the Executive Committee on an appropriate response to the South African Law Commission on its "Draft Declaration on the Rights of Individuals Belonging to National, Ethnic, Religious and Linguistic Minorities".

Prepare a brief report (200-300 words) for distribution to the Executive Committee and consideration at its next meeting.

[10]

4. Essay Writing

- 4a. Carefully read the advertisement (overleaf). Then, complete the application form which follows in full.

(Tear the completed application form out of the Examination Paper and pin it in front of your answer to Question 4b inside your answer book.)

[5]

R45 000 TO BE WON !!

Human Rights Society

ANNUAL ESSAY COMPETITION

Entries in this year's essay
competition are now invited.

- o **Topic:** Human Rights and Justice
- o **Length:** 350-500 words
- o **Eligibility:** Registered students at universities
- o **Prizes:** 1st - R20 000 !!!
2nd - R15 000 !!
3rd - R10 000 !
- o **How to Enter:**
Hand-written or typed manuscripts are to be submitted
with the completed application form.
- o **Deadline:** Within this examination!

Fold and tear here - - - - -

APPLICATION FORM

Please accept my entry in the Human
Rights Society Annual Essay
Competition.

Name: _____ Age: _____

Address: _____

_____ Code: _____

Tel. (H): _____ (W): _____

University: _____

Degree: _____ Year: _____

Student No.: _____

Complete this form and pin it to the
first page of your essay.

- 4b. Write the essay required for the competition under the title "Human Rights and Justice'. In your essay you *may* draw on material contained in this Examination Paper. You *must* also reveal your knowledge of your set works by explaining the significance of the following two excerpts in one or two paragraphs each, both in the contexts of the works in which they appear, and in relation to the topic of the essay:

Mendim me Tit patted me on the shoulder again.

"They haven't done much to you yet," he said, taking a look at me. "If they've sent you here though, that's what it's for ... We must see what we can do. You must look bloody. We'll pour some ox blood over your shorts and jersey. Can you cry?"

We began to laugh.

"They think because I don't come from round here I'll have no mercy."

Oyono F (1989: p 108), *Houseboy*.

Rebecca had sprained her ankle. She had laid a charge but the man had never appeared in court. Every time he was reported ill. She had then paid a lawyer 15 pounds to take up a civil case against the man. A year after the incident the man, still in the railways, was forced to attend as it was a civil case. He was found guilty and ordered to pay Rebecca 10 pounds damages!

Mphahlele E (1990: p 178),
Down Second Avenue.

[35]

[Written Sub-Total: 85]

5. Oral

Using your ear-phone listen closely to the three-minute-long mini-lecture entitled "The Protection of Human Rights". Allow yourself 2 minutes to jot down the key

points you wish to make in response to each of the following three questions:

5a. The lecturer makes several points in support of the argument that the courts should follow the principles of Natural Justice as the best way of safe-guarding an individual's rights. What is your view?

[4]

5b. Comment on the point made by the lecturer that a Bill of Human Rights depends on an independent judiciary.

[6]

5c. The mini-lecture begins by quoting E A Bennett (1971: p 51): "The price of justice is eternal publicity." Do you agree? Substantiate your view.

[5]

Make your recording, speaking for no more than one minute on each question.

NOTE: You have only 10 minutes in which to listen to the recording, note your key points, and record your response.

Please make sure that you have written your name, student number and signature on the cassette before you hand it in.

[Oral Sub-Total: 15]

[Total: 100]

Each of the four options must be similarly structured in order to avoid possible accusations of unfairness. Students will be quick to point to perceived inequities between options for the various streams of study, especially as their specific courses of study will properly prepare them for only one of these sections of the paper. The differences between this paper and the more usual form of examination are starkly evident (see Appendix F). The thematic nature of the paper and the cluster of activities

linked to realistic situations is a central element. However, the way in which performance in the examination is assessed is perhaps even more significant. The following schedule offers a possible model:

FINAL EXAMINATION MARKING SCHEDULE

HEADINGS REFLECTING OBJECTIVES	MARK DISTRIBUTION									ERRORS ALLOWED	
	Written						Oral				
QUESTION:	1	2a	2b	2c	3	4a	4b	5a	5b	5c	%
Usage:											
Vocabulary and writing conventions	1	1		1	1	2	3				5
Idiom	1	1		1	1						10
Sentences (simple, complex, compound)	1	1		1	1		3				0-20
Spoken English:											Yes/No
Pronounce adequately								1	1	1	20
Sustain exposition								1	1	1	
Format:											
Memo, Report, Letter, etc.	1		1	2	2						10
Style: including tone, register, variety, appropriateness, paragraphing, etc.	3	3		3	1		10				20
Communicative value and content	3	2	2	2	1		5	1	1	1	50
Comprehension:											
Literal understanding		2	1		1	3	1	1	1		40
Inferences drawn			1		1		2		1	1	50
Relate figurative to literal, etc							2			1	50
Identify intention							1				25
Differentiate fact from opinion					1		1		1		50
Prose Assessment:											
Effects of ambiguity or irony							1				20
Recognize clichéd/hackneyed writing											20
Interpret images, symbols											20
Links between character, action, theme, setting							6				20
Point of view							1				20
	10	10	5	10	10	5	35	4	6	5	

Written: 85 Oral: 15

 TOTAL: 100

Given the scope of the detailed learning objectives of the course, not every facet can be tested. However, the

allocation of marks for each of the questions determines the extent to which the examination is used as an assessment of the learning which has occurred, rather than as a tool of comparative performance analysis.

The use of the acceptable limits reflected in the Errors Allowed column is a central concern: for example, if a student makes errors in the choice of vocabulary, punctuation, spelling and capitalization in more than five per cent of the instances of use, no marks will accrue to the individual under that line item. Errors totalling less than five per cent in that category result in the allocation of all of the marks in the category. For example, in question 4b a student with fewer usage errors (in the choice of vocabulary, punctuation, spelling and capitalization) than five per cent of what has been written, would consequently obtain 3 marks regardless of any errors made.

It is important to note that the weighting accorded to the written requirements is substantially greater than is given to the oral elements. Within these sections of the examination, the following allocations are evident:

	<u>Written</u>	<u>Oral</u>
Usage and format	30%	40%
Communicative value and content	18%	20%
Style	23%	
Comprehension	19%	40%
Prose Assessment	10%	

Another way of interpreting the allocation is to regard this weighting as approximately 30% to communication, 40% to the message and the manner in which it is communicated, and 30% to the display of comprehension and prose assessment skills. On the other hand, the weighting of the oral requirements is 40%, 20% and 40% respectively, reflecting the different emphasis in these two forms of communication.

The approach adopted in the above marking schedule reflects a response to the influence of Arena (1975: pp 284-285), whose clause analysis approach provides stimulus for a more quantified, objective approach to assessment. It also takes account of Tiedt's (1983: pp 176-177) advocacy of an analytical checklist when assessing composition. Above all, however, the approach described responds to the need to measure the actual learning which has been attained and identifies those learning objectives assessed by each component of the examination.

After the examination, an additional communication with students should take place. This is necessary in the context of applying a systematic approach to designing the course, as the final step of re-assessing each student's needs implies the possibility of further learning becoming evident. A circular letter listing the areas of English communicative skills examined, with an indication given of those to which the student needs to give further attention, is probably the most appropriate approach to use. The inclusion of relevant Remedial Self-study Exercises would also be apposite because such a course should be viewed as being primarily concerned with the development of effective communicative skills. The course thus represents a single systematic cycle of intervention in the on-going learning process. As a result, the final examination has the dual function of assessing the learning which has occurred, while re-assessing learning needs.

CONCLUSION

Prompted by the increasing demand for the development of a focused but flexible ESL curriculum at university-level associated with effective ESL course material, this study first provides a theoretical framework and then uses it as the basis of the approach illustrated: individualized experiential learning with contextually relevant communicative requirements aimed at meeting students' needs and objectives, while preparing them for their intended roles. The research method adopted is one which applies a systematic approach to the design of the course and examples of its illustrative materials. The findings of post-course questionnaires, the analysis of the results of diagnostic assignments, and detailed consideration of comparative performance and assessment procedures used in a 1985 assignment and the related final examination contribute to the argument developed.

The findings ground the course concepts in the domain of the adult ESL learner, recognizing the importance of making course materials relevant to the learners' environment. The subject matter aims at developing the principles of accurate thought and appropriate methods in a curriculum that meets the contextually basic science requirements of a university course. It does so within the parameters of response needed in regard to the ESL student profile determined by the needs and role analysis completed in Chapter 2. Vital factors in this respect include recognition that the course must accommodate some 41% of the student group who have gained access to the course via conditional matriculation exemption (with 98% of this cluster of students being granted exemption on the basis of mature age), that disadvantaged schooling experience is relevant for over 60% of the students who were taught by

under-qualified teachers (many of whom are only a few years older than their pupils), and that many of these students have seldom had access to appropriate reference works or textbooks. In addition, the existing or intended occupations are categorized in four groups that are roughly comparable in size: education and teaching, legal, service professions, and current students (not yet employed). While the university-level of English communicative performance is Band 8 on Carroll's (1980) scale, the average teacher in secondary schools currently attended by pupils from disadvantaged backgrounds reveals an ESL communicative performance level of Band 5 or 6.

Model aims and objectives for a university-level ESL course are presented in Chapter 3. The skills of English communicative competence which are contained within these objectives at varying levels of required performance include comprehension, composition with appropriate applications, oral and aural skills, the use of reference works, methods of thinking, and the use of occupationally relevant specialist language. The objectives are written from the point of view of the learner and describe the terminal performance required. They have been phrased in such a way as to recognize the initial levels of performance and the resulting gap which must be bridged to attain the desired competence. The basis of the formulation of the objectives is to facilitate criterion-referenced assessment, stating what the learner will do, how well this will be done, and under what circumstances. The stated objectives form the foundation on which the rest of the thesis is constructed.

In Chapter 4 an in-depth analysis of appropriate course content for the defined objectives is undertaken. The case is made for the use of Afrocentric English literature with a contemporary setting and appropriate levels of readability. Language in use in normal contexts for specified purposes (and not discrete language items) is

advocated, as is the recommendation that the language used should be appropriate to levels of competence. The development of vocabulary is discussed in relation to expanding the passive vocabulary of students and also to remedying incorrect usage through the illustration of lexical items in context followed by student application of the items in practice.

In relation to comprehension skills the use of the PQRS formula, in juxtaposition with individualizing reading matter (selected through the use of the Harris-Jacobson Readability Formula 2) in combination with self-assessment, is recommended. Composition skills are discussed with regard to the use of four fundamental forms of writing in suitable combinations: exposition, argument, description and narration. In addition, analysis of the development of cognitive processes leads to the recommendation that course materials should be designed to evoke responses from both the logical, linear thinking tendencies of the left hemisphere of the brain, and from the right hemisphere which applies holistic and appositional thinking to issues.

In developing oral and listening skills for the stress-timed rhythms of English, the hindrance caused by first-language interference from the syllable-timed rhythms of African languages is pointed out. User sophistication is shown as significant when determining levels of communicative comprehension and in developing task-based listening comprehension activities which provide practice in organizing what is to be communicated in logical sequence.

The purpose and place of grammar is also explored. With communicative competence as the goal, the conclusion reached is that grammar has as its purpose the development of a knowledge of basic structural principles and the skills needed to apply the principles in meaningful situations. A notional approach to grammar is therefore

supported, with the recommendation that the focus should be on both surface structure and deep structure meanings.

Underlying all aspects of the exploration of course content is the advocacy of individualizing learning which results in criticism of the limitations of teaching methods. Non-directive methods of creating learning opportunities are therefore emphasized in Chapter 5. The course structure described is one that offers three different levels of difficulty (each designed to provide the 200-250 contact hours required on average for advancement by one Band on Carroll's (1980) nine-band scale). Each level of the course is planned with the four equivalent streams or interest areas established from the occupational needs analysis of students supplemented by remedial Self-study exercises and preceded by diagnostic tests. Two points of entry are possible, at the start of the year and at mid-year. This structure provides the framework for the use of learning methods rather than those which are less effective in aiding retention. Examples are developed as the components on which to focus endeavours. A further aspect underlined in this section of the thesis is that the development of reading skills is critical in a distance-learning context.

Chapter 8 delineates criteria for determining apposite set works that meet the course objectives. Possible set works are suggested. Contemporary, Afrocentric works of English literature are recommended on the basis of results of applying the Harris-Jacobson Readability Formula 2.

Consideration of evaluation, assessment and the final examination highlights the importance of reflecting the need to mark language and style (as entities with specific criteria for measurement) in juxtaposition with content, rather than on the basis of an overall impression. The skill of exposition is recommended as the focus for written work in realistic situations that reflect relevance,

acceptability, comparability and economy. Mixed-mode tests which offer the opportunity to assess reading, listening, writing and speaking are acknowledged as a practical necessity. In developing equivalent sets of test items for each of the four streams of study, the approach advocated is a communicative orientation combined with a criterion-related analysis system, rather than a language-based design. Part of this approach is based on the use of integrated, objective-linked items supported by markers' assessment sheets for oral assignments and a set of questions (based on the 90/90 concept) that governs the tutor-assessment of written assignments and examination questions. Each test or assignment, it is suggested, should also be offered in terms of basic, interim and advanced material, thereby further accommodating the possibility of an individualized approach to the tasks set. The purpose of all forms of assessment is to measure actual learning against the set of criteria contained in the course objectives, and not to undertake a norm-referenced comparative assessment of student performance.

The findings of this study are applicable in a distance-learning university and in other institutions. The approaches recommended (based on close analysis of performance and expression of needs) should be regarded as a step in the ongoing process of course development that is explicit in the application of the systematic approach to ESL course design.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

EXCERPTS FROM UNIVERSITY CALENDARS

1. *Calendar 1986*, Volume 2. Johannesburg: University of the Witwatersrand, 1986, p. 44:

Daar is twee eerstejaarkursusse waarvan net Afrikaans en Nederlands I na Afrikaans en Nederlands II lei.

AFRIKAANS

AFRN 103 KWALIFISERENDE KURSUS

Die geskiedenis van die Afrikaanse letterkunde; voorgeskrewe boeke; Afrikaanse taalgeskiedenis; onderrig in die taallaboratorium.

AFRIKAANS EN NEDERLANDS

AFRN 101 EERSTE KWALIFISERENDE KURSUS

(a) Letterkunde: Voorgeskrewe tekste uit die Afrikaanse en Nederlandse letterkundes.

(b) Taalkunde: Moderne Nederlands; sinchroniese taalwetenskap.

2. *Jaarboek 1986: Fakulteit Lettere en Wysbegeerte*, Deel 2. Pretoria: University of Pretoria, 1986, p. 105:

(ENG 101) **English 101** (4 1 p w)

(Ordinary course for students proceeding to the BA)

- (i) Elementary introduction to some literary forms, with
- (ii) prescribed illustrative texts;
- (iii) comprehension and interpretation;
- (iv) composition, usage and style;

(v) tutorial and practical classes in smaller groups.

(ENG 102) **English 102** (4 l p w)

(Practical course for students not proceeding beyond the first year in English)

- (i) Composition and style;
- (ii) usage, idiom, and grammar;
- (iii) literary texts;
- (iv) tutorial and practical classes in smaller groups.

3. *Calendar 1986: Faculty of Arts, Part 2*. Pretoria: University of South Africa, 1986, pp. 104, 120 and 153-4:

ENG 100-D (Course I) (Two papers of three hours each)

Paper 1

- (a) Usage and style
- (b) Comprehension and practical criticism
- (c) Selected poems, from Chaucer to the present day

Paper 2

- (a) Selected plays, covering various periods in English literature
- (b) Selected novels, covering various periods in English literature

PRACTICAL ENGLISH (PEN 100-3)

(One paper of three hours)

Although no specific admission requirements are set in respect of the one-year course in Practical English, it must be noted that this is **not a beginner's course**. Students who do not have a fairly advanced knowledge of English as a school subject will not be able to make any progress in Practical English until they have made up the necessary leeway.

N.B. A pass in this course does not normally entitle the candidate to proceed to English II. See Rule A9(2).

- (a) Usage and style
- (b) Comprehension
- (c) Composition, including report and letter writing
- (d) The study of selected works of literature and an anthology of contemporary English prose (to be studied in relation to (a), (b) and (c) above)

AFN100-5 (Kursus I) (Twee vraestelle van drie uur elk)

Vraestel 1: Taalkunde

- (a) Taalgebruikskunde
- (b) Inleiding tot die Afrikaanse klankleer
- (c) Inleiding tot die Afrikaanse grammatika en betekenisleer
- (d) Inleiding tot die interne geskiedenis van Afrikaans

Vraestel 2: Letterkunde

- (a) Inleiding tot die Afrikaanse literatuur en literatuurstudie: grepe uit die poesie, prosa en drama
- (b) 'n Historiese oorsig van die Nederlandse letterkunde
- (c) Afrikaanse en Nederlandse voorgeskrewe tekste

PRAKTIESE AFRIKAANS (PAF100-A)

(Een vraestel van drie uur)

Hoewel geen besondere toelatingsvereistes vir die eenjarige kursus in Praktiese Afrikaans gestel word nie, is dit hoegenaamd nie 'n beginnerskursus nie. Studente wat nie 'n redelik gevorderde kennis van Afrikaans as skoolvak het nie, sal nie met Praktiese Afrikaans kan vorder voordat hulle die agterstand uitgewis het nie.

L.W. Hierdie kursus verleen nie normaalweg toelating tot Afrikaans en Nederlands II nie. Kyk Reglement A9(2).

- (a) **Historiese oorsig:** Die ontwikkeling van Afrikaans
- (b) **Uitspraak en woordleer:** Die uitspraak van Afrikaans; verskil tussen spreek- en skryftaal; woordbou; woordeskat, woordebetekenis en betekenisverandering; naamgewing; idiome
- (c) **Spellingkwessies:** Die Afrikaanse spelreels; algemene spellingkwessies; lees- en skryftekens
- (d) **Sinsbou:** Die Afrikaanse sinsbou; korrektiewe taalkunde
- (e) **Stelwerk:** Styl- en taal oefeninge; taalsuiwerheid; elementere sekretariele werk: sakebriewe, verslae, agendas, notules, opsommings en uittreksels

APPENDIX B

COURSE EVALUATION 1981: PRACTICAL ENGLISH (SYLLABUS B)

Please assist us in the evaluation of this course, by completing this questionnaire and returning it to us by return of post.

Your help will lead to the improvement of this course for future students.

STUDENT NO.: NAME:

How many assignments did you submit: BEFORE JUNE
AFTER JUNE

I found Assignment Numbers ____, ____, ____, ____, ____,
____, and ____ the most useful in preparing for the
examinations.

I found Assignment Numbers ____, ____, ____, ____, ____,
____, and ____ the least useful in preparing for the
examinations.

Refer to the Contents pages of *Study Guide 1*. Grade the various sub-sections in their order of value to you; for example, if you found the sub-section of Word Order (p 74) the most useful and the sub-section on Verbs (p 27) as the next most useful, then Word Order would be first on your list and Verbs placed second.

1. The following sub-sections were of the most value to me:
- (i)
 - (ii)
 - (iii)
 - (iv)
 - (v)

2. The following sub-sections were of the least value to me:
- 3rd least
 - 2nd least
 - least

3. Which sub-sections of the course did you feel should have received greater emphasis - and why?

.....
.....
.....
.....

4. Which sub-sections of the course did you feel should have received less emphasis - and why?

.....
.....
.....
.....

5. In what way/s do you think this course could be improved?

.....
.....
.....

6. Any other comments that you would like to make:

.....
.....
.....

APPENDIX C

DIAGNOSTIC ASSIGNMENT

Section 1 - Comprehension

WOULD YOU BELIEVE?

The Mouse is an animal that *strews its path* with fainting women. As in Rome Christians were thrown to the lions, so centuries earlier in Otumwee, the most ancient and famous city of the world, female *heretics* were thrown to the mice. Jakak-Zotp, the historian, the only Otumwump whose writings have descended to us, says that these *martyrs* met their deaths with little dignity and much exertion. He even attempts to free the mice from blame (such is the malice of bigotry) by declaring that the unfortunate women perished, some from *exhaustion*, some of broken necks from falling over their own feet, and some from lack of restoratives. The mice, he avers, enjoyed the *pleasures of the chase* with composure. But, if "Roman history is nine-tenths lying", we can hardly expect a smaller proportion of that rhetorical figure in the annals of a people capable of such incredible cruelty to lovely woman; for a hard heart has a false tongue.

(Adapted from *The Devil's Dictionary* by A Bierce)

Use full sentences to answer the following questions.

1. What two proverbs are mentioned in this passage? [4]
2. Explain the meanings in context of the following words and phrases. In each instance write no more than one or two sentences.
 - (i) *strews its path* [4]
 - (ii) *heretics* [2]
 - (iii) *martyrs* [2]
 - (iv) *exhaustion* [2]
 - (v) *the pleasures of the chase* [4]
 - (vi) *cruelty* [2]
3. Explain the traditional view that the author expects the reader to conjure up when he states that "they met their deaths with little dignity and much exertion". [10]
4. In the final sentence of this excerpt the author suggests what our assessment of the passage should be. What does he believe we should conclude and why does he come to this conclusion? [10]

Total: Section 1 - [40]

Section 2 - Essay

Write an essay of *exactly 300 words* on ONE of the following topics:

1. Noise - a Stench in the Ear.
2. Race.
3. "The only way to get rid of a temptation is to yield to it."

Total: Section 2 - [60]

TOTAL: 100 marks

APPENDIX D

MEETING OF PRACTICAL ENGLISH TEAMS ON 13 FEBRUARY 1985

DECISIONS

1. The wording of the Calendar entry must be finalized as soon as possible.
2. The Course objectives devised by KR's sub-committee were accepted with one amendment, the addition of the word "analyse" to the final objective under A.1. These objectives become cardinal in the process of Course design for 1987.
3. Needs analysis: possible research projects must be considered and implemented to provide data when the course is next reviewed in 1988/89. Ideas to be given to BG.
4. Initial proposals for set works will be circulated for consideration.
5. The Personal Tutor Scheme will be extended to encourage good/diligent students as well. All letters must be dated and the practice of "forging" absentee tutors' signatures must be circumvented.
6. KS is to be thanked for her contribution to the success of the Personal Tutor Scheme in 1984.
7. In "marketing" our courses, we need to take the following into account: the needs of students; "advertising" the value of courses; "follow up" of past students.
- 8(a) A seminar will be arranged, early in May, to share the findings about course material presentation.
- 8(b) Prior to the seminar everyone should endeavour to read the analysis concerning the Department of History's approach provided by Prof Y.
9. After discussion it was agreed that we should prescribe set works which should contain the agreed features.

Dictionary

- o Illustration of word's use to be included.
- o Conveys pronunciation.
- o Number of entries should not be excessive.
- o Reasonably priced.
- o Available in soft and hard cover.
- o Must have long-term value.

Reference Work for Grammar, Style, Usage

- o Items must be easily found.
- o Common errors must be discussed/explained.
- o Its title and contents must not be limiting factors (McMagh).
- o Size must be manageable, not daunting.
- o Reasonably priced.
- o Must have long-term value.

Anthology

- o Modern prose.
- o Range of content to include: extracts from larger works, short stories, newspaper reports, advertisements, magazine articles, essays, popular literature, letters, etc.
- o Excerpts from novels to be based on current, readily available publications.
- o Contents to include items of fiction and non-fiction.
- o Items should be graded for a range of difficulty.
- o Material should be drawn from other relevant disciplines as well: nursing, commerce, education, etc.
- o A bonus will be relevant questions on exercises based on the excerpts.

Modern Prose Works

- o Written in acceptable modern usage.
- o Contents/frame of reference must be accessible and also socially acceptable.
- o as short as possible (novellas).
- o The work must be approachable at a range of levels of difficulty - hence academically acceptable.

10. By 29 March lists of potential set works which meet the above criteria must be submitted by each team member to DA.
11. A short-list of proposed set works will be drawn up and distributed on 1 April.
12. Team members must read (or re-read) all items on the short-list by 15 May.
13. A meeting will be held on 15 May to finalize the list of set works and to explain the allocation of *Study Guide* revision.
14. Contributions towards the *Study Guide* manuscripts must be handed to DA by 30 September.
15. A sub-committee of KR (chairman), GH and JJ will investigate and draft proposed assignment assessment forms for consideration at the meeting on 15 May.

APPENDIX E

READABILITY ANALYSIS OF POSSIBLE SET WORKS

HARRIS-JACOBSON READABILITY FORMULA 2: WORKSHEET

Title: "Things Fall Apart"

Author: Achebe C

Publisher: Heinemann

Publication Date: 1983

SAMPLES:

	1	2	3	4	5
Pages:	15	45	74-5	105	134
A. No. of words in sample	215	203	206	212	205
B. No. of words not in list	36	24	48	43	36
C. No. of sentences	14	12	12	15	19
<hr style="border-top: 1px dashed black;"/>					
STEP:					
1. $V1 = B/A \times 100$	16.74	11.82	23.3	20.28	17.56
2. $V2 = A/C$	15.36	16.92	17.17	14.13	10.79
<hr style="border-top: 1px dashed black;"/>					
3. $V1 \times .140$	2.344	1.655	3.262	2.84	2.459
4. $V2 \times .153$	2.35	2.588	2.627	2.162	1.651
5. Add Steps 3 & 4 + .56	0.56	0.56	0.56	0.56	0.56
<hr style="border-top: 1px dashed black;"/>					
Predicted Score:	5.254	4.803	6.449	5.562	4.669
<hr style="border-top: 1px dashed black;"/>					
Average Predicted Score:	5.347				

READABILITY LEVEL:

Sixth

 grade and above

HARRIS-JACOBSON READABILITY FORMULA 2: WORKSHEET

Title: "No Sweetness Here"

Author: Aidoo A A

Publisher: Longman

Publication Date: 1990

SAMPLES:

	1	2	3	4	5
Pages:	12	40	67	94	121
A. No. of words in sample	215	206	207	207	208
B. No. of words not in list	15	33	31	30	31
C. No. of sentences	19	26	19	26	19
STEP:					
1. $V1 = B/A \times 100$	6.977	16.02	14.98	14.49	14.9
2. $V2 = A/C$	11.32	7.923	10.89	7.962	10.95
3. $V1 \times ,140$	0.977	2.243	2.097	2.029	2.087
4. $V2 \times ,153$	1.731	1.212	1.667	1.218	1.675
5. Add Steps 3 & 4 + ,56	0.56	0.56	0.56	0.56	0.56
Predicted Score:	3.268	4.015	4.324	3.807	4.321
Average Predicted Score:	3.947				

READABILITY LEVEL:

Third grade and above

HARRIS-JACOBSON READABILITY FORMULA 2: WORKSHEET

Title: "Dances with Wolves"

Author: Blake M

Publisher: Penguin Books

Publication Date: 1991

SAMPLES:

	1	2	3	4	5
Pages:	31	93	155	217	278
A. No. of words in sample	207	207	216	209	205
B. No. of words not in list	55	29	54	31	37
C. No. of sentences	13	14	12	16	15
STEP:					
1. $V1 = B/A \times 100$	26.57	14.01	25	14.83	18.05
2. $V2 = A/C$	15.92	14.79	18	13.06	13.67
3. $V1 \times .140$	3.72	1.961	3.5	2.077	2.527
4. $V2 \times .153$	2.436	2.262	2.754	1.999	2.091
5. Add Steps 3 & 4 + .56	0.56	0.56	0.56	0.56	0.56
Predicted Score:	6.716	4.784	6.814	4.635	5.178
Average Predicted Score:	5.625				

READABILITY LEVEL:

Sixth grade and above

HARRIS-JACOBSON READABILITY FORMULA 2: WORKSHEET

Title: "To Sir, With Love"

Author: Braithwaite E R

Publisher: New English Library Publication Date: 1970

SAMPLES:

	1	2	3	4	5
Pages:	14	42	70	98	126
A. No. of words in sample	215	209	212	201	206
B. No. of words not in list	50	42	56	23	48
C. No. of sentences	25	11	11	26	14
STEP:					
1. $V1 = B/A \times 100$	23.26	20.1	26.42	11.44	23.3
2. $V2 = A/C$	8.6	19	19.27	7.731	14.71
3. $V1 \times .140$	3.256	2.813	3.698	1.602	3.262
4. $V2 \times .153$	1.316	2.907	2.949	1.183	2.251
5. Add Steps 3 & 4 + .56	0.56	0.56	0.56	0.56	0.56
Predicted Score:	5.132	6.28	7.207	3.345	6.073
Average Predicted Score:	5.607				

READABILITY LEVEL: Sixth grade and above

HARRIS-JACOBSON READABILITY FORMULA 2: WORKSHEET

Title: "An Instant in the Wind"

Author: Brink A

Publisher: Fontana Paperbacks

Publication Date: 1983

SAMPLES:

	1	2	3	4	5
Pages:	25	75	125	175	225
A. No. of words in sample	212	203	218	217	201
B. No. of words not in list	26	35	58	47	42
C. No. of sentences	18	21	12	16	23
STEP:					
1. $V1 = B/A \times 100$	12.26	17.24	26.61	21.66	20.9
2. $V2 = A/C$	11.78	9.667	18.17	13.56	8.739
3. $V1 \times .140$	1.717	2.414	3.725	3.032	2.925
4. $V2 \times .153$	1.802	1.479	2.78	2.075	1.337
5. Add Steps 3 & 4 + .56	0.56	0.56	0.56	0.56	0.56
Predicted Score:	4.079	4.453	7.064	5.667	4.822
Average Predicted Score:	5.217				

READABILITY LEVEL:

Fifth grade and above

HARRIS-JACOBSON READABILITY FORMULA 2: WORKSHEET

Title: "Nervous Conditions"

Author: Dangaremba T

Publisher: The Women's Press

Publication Date: 1988

SAMPLES:

	1	2	3	4	5
Pages:	24	64	104	144	184
A. No. of words in sample	210	209	201	205	205
B. No. of words not in list	32	40	31	33	31
C. No. of sentences	19	21	7	21	13
STEP:					
1. $V1 = B/A \times 100$	15.24	19.14	15.42	16.1	15.12
2. $V2 = A/C$	11.05	9.952	28.71	9.762	15.77
3. $V1 \times ,140$	2.133	2.679	2.159	2.254	2.117
4. $V2 \times ,153$	1.691	1.523	4.393	1.494	2.413
5. Add Steps 3 & 4 + ,56	0.56	0.56	0.56	0.56	0.56
Predicted Score:	4.384	4.762	7.112	4.307	5.09
Average Predicted Score:	5.131				

READABILITY LEVEL:

Fifth grade and above

HARRIS-JACOBSON READABILITY FORMULA 2: WORKSHEET

Title: "Lord of the Flies"

Author: Golding W

Publisher: Faber & Faber

Publication Date: 1968

SAMPLES:

	1	2	3	4	5
Pages:	22	66	110	154-5	198
A. No. of words in sample	208	205	204	206	219
B. No. of words not in list	43	44	47	43	55
C. No. of sentences	28	10	29	24	23
STEP:					
1. $V1 = B/A \times 100$	20.67	21.46	23.04	20.87	25.11
2. $V2 = A/C$	7.429	20.5	7.034	8.583	9.522
3. $V1 \times ,140$	2.894	3.005	3.225	2.922	3.516
4. $V2 \times ,153$	1.137	3.137	1.076	1.313	1.457
5. Add Steps 3 & 4 + ,56	0.56	0.56	0.56	0.56	0.56
Predicted Score:	4.591	6.701	4.862	4.796	5.533
Average Predicted Score:	5.296				

READABILITY LEVEL:

Sixth grade and above

HARRIS-JACOBSON READABILITY FORMULA 2: WORKSHEET

Title: "July's People"

Author: Gordimer N

Publisher: Penguin Books

Publication Date: 1982

SAMPLES:

	1	2	3	4	5
Pages:	16	47-8	79	112	144
A. No. of words in sample	203	204	201	229	202
B. No. of words not in list	53	45	58	42	41
C. No. of sentences	10	12	13	17	18
STEP:					
1. $V1 = B/A \times 100$	26.11	22.06	28.86	18.34	20.3
2. $V2 = A/C$	20.3	17	15.46	13.47	11.22
3. $V1 \times ,140$	3.655	3.088	4.04	2.568	2.842
4. $V2 \times ,153$	3.106	2.601	2.366	2.061	1.717
5. Add Steps 3 & 4 + ,56	0.56	0.56	0.56	0.56	0.56
Predicted Score:	7.321	6.249	6.965	5.189	5.119
Average Predicted Score:	6.169				

READABILITY LEVEL:

Eighth grade and above

HARRIS-JACOBSON READABILITY FORMULA 2: WORKSHEET

Title: "Down Second Avenue"

Author: Mphahlele E

Publisher: Faber & Faber

Publication Date: 1990

SAMPLES:

	1	2	3	4	5
Pages:	22	66	110	154	198
A. No. of words in sample	204	207	222	203	211
B. No. of words not in list	51	40	37	31	43
C. No. of sentences	8	19	14	12	11
STEP:					
1. $V1 = B/A \times 100$	25	19.32	16.67	15.27	20.38
2. $V2 = A/C$	25.5	10.89	15.86	16.92	19.18
3. $V1 \times ,140$	3.5	2.705	2.333	2.138	2.853
4. $V2 \times ,153$	3.902	1.667	2.426	2.588	2.935
5. Add Steps 3 & 4 + ,56	0.56	0.56	0.56	0.56	0.56
Predicted Score:	7.962	4.932	5.319	5.286	6.348
Average Predicted Score:	5.969				

READABILITY LEVEL:

Seventh grade and above

HARRIS-JACOBSON READABILITY FORMULA 2: WORKSHEET

Title: "The Wanderers"

Author: Mphahlele E

Publisher: David Philip

Publication Date: 1984

SAMPLES:

	1	2	3	4	5
Pages:	35	105	179	255	330
A. No. of words in sample	201	213	201	212	210
B. No. of words not in list	50	28	33	55	34
C. No. of sentences	13	23	14	33	17
STEP:					
1. $V1 = B/A \times 100$	24.88	13.15	16.42	25.94	16.19
2. $V2 = A/C$	15.46	9.261	14.36	6.424	12.35
3. $V1 \times ,140$	3.483	1.84	2.299	3.632	2.267
4. $V2 \times ,153$	2.366	1.417	2.197	0.983	1.89
5. Add Steps 3 & 4 + ,56	0.56	0.56	0.56	0.56	0.56
Predicted Score:	6.408	3.817	5.055	5.175	4.717
Average Predicted Score:	5.034				

READABILITY LEVEL:

Fifth grade and above

HARRIS-JACOBSON READABILITY FORMULA 2: WORKSHEET

Title: "Waiting for the Rain"

Author: Mungoshi C

Publisher: Zimbabwe Publishing House Publication Date: 1990

SAMPLES:

	1	2	3	4	5
Pages:	18	54	90	126	162
A. No. of words in sample	202	222	202	201	212
B. No. of words not in list	21	24	30	28	45
C. No. of sentences	20	21	9	19	17

STEP:					
1. $V1 = B/A \times 100$	10.4	10.81	14.85	13.93	21.23
2. $V2 = A/C$	10.1	10.57	22.44	10.58	12.47

3. $V1 \times ,140$	1.455	1.514	2.079	1.95	2.972
4. $V2 \times ,153$	1.545	1.617	3.434	1.619	1.908
5. Add Steps 3 & 4 + ,56	0.56	0.56	0.56	0.56	0.56

Predicted Score:	3.561	3.691	6.073	4.129	5.44
Average Predicted Score:	4.579				

READABILITY LEVEL: Fourth grade and above

HARRIS-JACOBSON READABILITY FORMULA 2: WORKSHEET

Title: "Fools and other stories"

Author: Ndebele N S

Publisher: Ravan Press

Publication Date: 1990

SAMPLES:

	1	2	3	4	5
Pages:	28	84-5	140	196	255
A. No. of words in sample	201	203	209	213	213
B. No. of words not in list	35	11	37	41	39
C. No. of sentences	17	28	31	14	14
STEP:					
1. $V1 = B/A \times 100$	17.41	5.419	17.7	19.25	18.31
2. $V2 = A/C$	11.82	7.25	6.742	15.21	15.21
3. $V1 \times ,140$	2.438	0.759	2.478	2.695	2.563
4. $V2 \times ,153$	1.809	1.109	1.032	2.328	2.328
5. Add Steps 3 & 4 + ,56	0.56	0.56	0.56	0.56	0.56
Predicted Score:	4.807	2.428	4.07	5.583	5.451
Average Predicted Score:	4.468				

READABILITY LEVEL:

Fourth grade and above

HARRIS-JACOBSON READABILITY FORMULA 2: WORKSHEET

Title: "Animal Farm"

Author: Orwell G

Publisher: Longman

Publication Date: 1973

SAMPLES:

	1	2	3	4	5
Pages:	9	43	77		
A. No. of words in sample	200	230	204		
B. No. of words not in list	48	36	46		
C. No. of sentences	11	10	15		
STEP:					
1. $V1 = B/A \times 100$	24	15.65	22.55		
2. $V2 = A/C$	18.18	23	13.6		
3. $V1 \times ,140$	3.36	2.191	3.157		
4. $V2 \times ,153$	2.782	3.519	2.081		
5. Add Steps 3 & 4 + ,56	0.56	0.56	0.56		
Predicted Score:	6.702	6.27	5.798		
Average Predicted Score:	6.257				

READABILITY LEVEL:

Eighth grade and above

HARRIS-JACOBSON READABILITY FORMULA 2: WORKSHEET

Title: "Houseboy"

Author: Oyono F

Publisher: Heinemann

Publication Date: 1989

SAMPLES:

	1	2	3	4	5
Pages:	12	36	60	84	108
A. No. of words in sample	202	221	222	200	200
B. No. of words not in list	26	48	39	28	32
C. No. of sentences	18	17	17	15	18

STEP:					
1. $V1 = B/A \times 100$	12.87	21.72	17.57	14	16
2. $V2 = A/C$	11.22	13	13.06	13.33	11.11

3. $V1 \times ,140$	1.802	3.041	2.459	1.96	2.24
4. $V2 \times ,153$	1.717	1.989	1.998	2.04	1.7
5. Add Steps 3 & 4 + ,56	0.56	0.56	0.56	0.56	0.56

Predicted Score:	4.079	5.59	5.017	4.56	4.5
Average Predicted Score:	4.749				

READABILITY LEVEL:

Fourth grade and above

HARRIS-JACOBSON READABILITY FORMULA 2: WORKSHEET

Title: "A Class Divided"

Author: Peters W

Publisher: Yale University Press Publication Date: 1987

SAMPLES:

	1	2	3	4	5
Pages:	17	50-1	88	125	159
A. No. of words in sample	225	220	213	207	204
B. No. of words not in list	24	41	33	40	17
C. No. of sentences	12	17	17	10	17
STEP:					
1. $V1 = B/A \times 100$	10.67	18.64	15.49	19.32	8.333
2. $V2 = A/C$	18.75	12.94	12.53	20.7	12
3. $V1 \times ,140$	1.493	2.609	2.169	2.705	1.167
4. $V2 \times ,153$	2.869	1.98	1.917	3.167	1.836
5. Add Steps 3 & 4 + ,56	0.56	0.56	0.56	0.56	0.56
Predicted Score:	4.922	5.149	4.646	6.432	3.563
Average Predicted Score:	4.942				

READABILITY LEVEL:

Fifth grade and above

APPENDIX F

EXAMINATION: PRACTICAL ENGLISH

Duration: 3 Hours

100 Marks

SECTION A

Answer both questions from this section.

1. COMPREHENSION

Since barbarism has its pleasures it naturally has its apologists. There are panegyrists¹ of war who say that without a periodical bleeding a race decays and loses its manhood. Experience is directly opposed to this shameless assertion. It is war that wastes a nation's wealth, chokes its industry, kills its flower, narrows its sympathies, condemns it to be governed by adventurers and leaves the puny, the deformed, and unmanly to breed the next generation.

Internecine war, foreign and civil, brought about the greatest set-back which the life of reason has ever suffered; it exterminated the Greek and Italian aristocracies. Instead of being descended from heroes, modern nations are descended from slaves; and it is not their bodies only that show it.

¹ panegyrists: those who openly praise war.

(a) From the passage find words that mean approximately the same as 5 of the following:

- | | |
|---------------|-----------------|
| .1 savagery | .4 effeminate |
| .2 weak | .5 statement |
| .3 killed off | .6 occurring at |
- (5)

(b) Put the first sentence in your own words. (3)

(c) Give, in your own words, the argument in favour of war. (3)

(d) Explain the following phrases:

- | | |
|---------------------------|--|
| .1 kills its flower | |
| .2 narrows its sympathies | |
| .3 the life of reason | |
- (6)

(e) What does the author mean by the concluding sentence: "... and its not their bodies only that show it." (3)

(20)

2. USAGE

- (a) Write out the following sentences, incorporating the correct present tense forms of the verbs in brackets:

His followers (quarrel) all day. He hears a shot,
and (tell) that John (murder) Sam. (6)

- (b) Put the word "only" into the correct position in the following sentence:

A fool would have risked crossing him. (2)

- (c) Fill in the missing words:

He gives _____ unnerving account on the occasion
_____ which he had to execute a man to prevent the
tribe _____ wreaking _____ own vengeance. (8)

- (d) The sentence "It need not have happened" can be rephrased to read "It was unnecessary for ...". (Complete the second sentence.) (4)

(20)

SECTION TOTAL: 40

SECTION B

Answer both questions from this section.

1. LETTER AND POINT OF DEPARTURE

You have just finished reading an original work from which one of the prescribed excerpts in *Point of Departure* is taken, and you wish to share your response with a fellow-student. Write a letter of about a page in length in which you briefly relate what the book is about and say why you found it interesting. Do not waste time on a lengthy preamble.

(20)

2. ANIMAL FARM AND LORD OF THE FLIES

Answer both (a) and (b).

- (a) Assess the following passage, commenting on its significance in the novel.

"Comrades," he said quietly, "do you know who is responsible for this? Do you know the enemy who has come in the night and overthrown our windmill? SNOWBALL!" he suddenly roared in a voice of thunder.

(20)

- (b) Discuss the character of Simon in *Lord of the Flies*. Explain the insight that he has into the central problem facing the boys stranded on the island.

(20)

SECTION TOTAL: 60

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