

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH AS A
SECOND LANGUAGE TO NORTH SOTHO-SPEAKING
CHILDREN IN THE JUNIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL
WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO ORAL COMMUNICATION

AN EMPIRICAL STUDY

by

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DECLARATION

I, Abram Lekalakala Mawasha declare that
this thesis is my own original effort.

A.L. Mawasha

DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my wife Belsey, without whose support and sympathetic understanding it could not have been completed in time for submission.

PREFACE

The present researcher wishes to put on record his sincere gratitude to all those who assisted him in this project. He feels particularly indebted to:

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Finally, Mrs R.E. Swart, who typed the manuscript of this thesis.

In the final analysis, however, all ideas expressed in this thesis are the writer's own and not those of the institutes or individuals who assisted him.

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DIE ONDERRIG VAN ENGELS AS 'n TWEDE TAAL BY DIE NOORD-SOTHOSPREKENDE LEERLING MET SPESIALE VERWYSING NA ENGELS AS SPREEKTAAL. 'n EMPIRIESE ONDERSOEK.

OPSOMMING

Die doel van die ondersoek is om empiries vas te stel watter probleme ervaar word by die aanleer van Engels as tweede taal, deur Swart leerlinge in die algemeen en Noord-Sothosprekende leerlinge in Junior Sekondêre Skole in besonder. Die ondersoek het veral gekonsentreer op die probleme wat ondervind word by die aanleer van konsonante en konsonantgroepe in Engels, en 'n diepte studie is onderneem ten opsigte van die vokaal- en diftongklanke.

Daar is gebruik gemaak van 'n vraelys, mondelinge ondervraging, kontrasterende analise en van foutanalise as basiese navorsingsteknieke. Eersgenoemde twee is hoofsaaklik gebruik om gegewens te bekom van doserende personeel en laasgenoemde twee om gegewens ten opsigte van klankprobleme by toetslinge te bekom.

Hoewel hierdie ondersoek hoofsaaklik gebruik gemaak het van primêre en sekondêre bronne, het dit hoofsaaklik gesteun op empiriese gegewens wat direk verkry is van die Noord-Sothosprekende leerlinge, in skole wat Noord-Sotho as voertaal besig, en 'n eksperiment wat uitgevoer is in die Taalburo se laboratorium van die Universiteit van die Noorde.

In hoofstuk 2 word die taalfenomeen as kommunikasiemiddel ondersoek. Hoofstuk 3 is 'n historiese oorsig van die probleme wat ondervind word by die onderrig en leer van Engels deur Swart leerlinge op skool. Bronne waarna verwys word dateer so ver terug as 1799 en is so reserant as 1976. Daar is intens gebruik gemaak van onderwys- en koerantverslae.

In hoofstuk 4 word die aandag gevestig op onderwysers in die betrokke gebied. Die rede hiervoor is omdat die prestasie of probleme van leerlinge verband hou met die bevoegdheid van die onderwyser. Probleme wat leerlinge ondervind, in die aanleer van Engels as 'n tweede taal reflekteer dikwels die onderwyser se professionele en akademiese tekortkominge. Drie belangrike tekortkominge word dan ook blootgelê by onderwysers wat Engels aan sekondêre skole onderrig.

Eerstens, as die besit van 'n enkel graadkursus in Engels as 'n minimum vereiste vir 'n sekondêre onderwyser geneem word, sal meer as 70% van die onderwysers, wat by die ondersoek ingesluit is, onbevoegd wees om Engels te onderrig. Indien hierdie bevinding veralgemeen word na al die skole vir Swart leerlinge moet tot die gevolgtrekking gekom word dat 'n groot aantal onderwysers onbekwaam is vir die poste wat hulle vul. Tweedens is bevind dat meer as 45% van die onderwysers gekwalifiseerd is om in die primêre skool onderrig te gee en nie in die sekondêre skool nie; en derdens is bevind dat meer as 60% van die gevalle wat ondersoek is, Engels as spreektaal nie van waarde beskou nie. In die ondersoek is ook bevind, deur middel van vergelyking, dat die primêre skool onderwysers beter gekwalifiseerd is vir hulle poste, as hulle eweknie op sekondêre skool. Meer as 63% van die onderwysers wat in die ondersoek betrokke was, het die nodige akademiese en professionele kwalifikasies vir daardie pos besit. Daar was egter 23,4% wat nie voldoen het aan die vereistes minimum kwalifikasies nie. Primêre skool onderwysers behoort egter, soos hul eweknie op sekondêre vlak, aandag te gee aan Engels as spreektaal. Van die onderwysers wat in die ondersoek betrek is, kon slegs 10% die belangrikheid van Engels as spreektaal insien.

In hoofstuk 5, van die ondersoek, word sekere Engelse vokale geïsoleer wat deur die Noord-Sothosprekende leerling moeilik uitgespreek word. In volgorde volgens moeilikheid word gevind: Eerstens, die sentrale klanke /ʌ/ /ə/ en /ɔ/ of /ɜ/ gevolg deur die lang /a:/ klank, die /ɛ/ klank, die kort /ɪ/, die /e/ en dan deur die lang /ɔ:/ klank. Die kort /ə//ɜ/en/i/ het min of geen probleme veroorsaak nie. Ook is geen probleme ondervind by die uitspraak van die /u/ klank nie.

Deur Engelse en Noord-Sotho vokaal-en diftongklanksisteme te vergelyk en te kontrasteer, is daar gepoog om die uitspraak probleme van toetslinge vas te stel. Uitspraakfoute wat sodoende geïdentifiseer is in hoofstuk 5, het genoegsame stof verskaf om 'n remediëringsprogram saam te stel wat dan ook in die ondersoek gebruik is. In hoofstuk 6 is die program se doeltreffendheid as remediëringsprogram uitgetoets. 'n Eksperimentele groep van 10 toetslinge is geselekteer vir gebruik in hierdie eksperiment. Die resultaat het aangetoon dat die program 'n remediërende effek gehad het op al 10 toetslinge.

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE TO NORTH SOTHO-SPEAKING
CHILDREN WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO ORAL COMMUNICATION

AN EMPIRICAL STUDY

SUMMARY

The main purpose of this study is to attempt an empirical investigation into problems relating to the teaching and learning of English as a second language in Black Schools in general and of oral English among the North Sotho-speaking junior secondary school children in particular.

To delimit the field and to render it researchable, the study has made only a cursory reference to the problems bearing on the mastery of English consonants and consonant-clusters but focused more pertinently on the vowel and diphthongal sounds.

The study has made use of a questionnaire, oral elicitation of data, Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis as basic research techniques. The first two methods have been used mainly to obtain data from the teaching personnel whilst the latter two have been used mainly to process data obtained from test-samples.

Although the study has made extensive use of primary and secondary sources it has nonetheless leaned heavily on empirical data drawn directly from North Sotho-speaking schools, processed and experimented upon in the language laboratories of the Language Bureau, University of the North.

In Chapter 2 the study examines the language phenomenon as a mode of communication while in Chapter 3 it gives a bird's-eye view of the problems of teaching and learning English in Black Schools in a historical perspective. Sources referred to in the latter Chapter date as far back as 1799 and upto as recent as 1976. Extensive reference has been made to education and newspaper reports to obtain this information.

Chapter 4 focuses on the teaching personnel in the area selected for the project. The rationale for the inclusion of this section is that pupil performance is often related to teacher-competency i.e. problems experienced by children in, say, the learning of English as a second language, are often a reflection of the teacher's professional or academic limitation.

2.

The study has revealed three main shortcomings in the secondary school teaching personnel (English): first, that if one degree course in English is taken as a minimum requirement for a secondary school English language teacher, then over 70% of the teachers sampled have been found to be inadequately qualified for their posts. If this finding is generalised to all Black schools, then we may conclude that most teachers of English are inadequately qualified for their posts. Secondly, over 45% of the teachers sampled have been actually trained to teach in the primary school and not in the secondary or high school, and thirdly over 60% of those sampled do not regard the teaching of oral English as paramount. The latter finding may well explain the high level of aberrant oral English found in Black schools throughout the country.

The study has revealed that by comparison primary school teachers are better qualified for their posts than their secondary school counterparts. Over 63% of those sampled hold the required academic and professional qualifications for their posts. There are, however, some 23,4% who hold qualifications below the required minimum.

Primary school teachers, like their secondary school counterparts are yet to give paramouncy to oral English. Only 10% of those sampled in this study have indicated the paramouncy of oral English in primary school teaching.

In Chapter 5 the study isolates certain English vowel and diphthongal sounds which North Sotho-speaking children find most difficult to articulate. In order of difficulty these problem-sounds are: first-the central vowels /ʌ/, /ə/ and /ɜ:/ or /ɜ:/; followed by the long /u:/ sound, the /ɛ/ sound, the short /ī/, the /a/ and then by the long /ɔ:/ sound. The short /a/, /ɔ/ and /i/ sound present ^{little} or no difficulty. The /u/ sound too presents no articulatory problems.

The study has attempted to account for these articulatory problems by comparing and contrasting the North Sotho and the English vowel and diphthongal sound systems. To explain the type of errors the test-subjects have made, figures with arrow showing error-tendencies have been used.

the/3...

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3.

Pronunciational errors identified in Chapter 5 provide material for designing a remedial programme which has been used in this study.

In Chapter 6 the programme has been tested for effectiveness as a remedial instrument. An experimental group of 10 test-subjects has been selected for use in the experiment. Their pre- and post-programme scores have been carefully compared to determine the effect of the programme on the subjects. The results have shown that exposure to the programme has had a positive remedial effect on all 10 subjects.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 One language for the world

"What would happen if all the children in the world learned another language along with their own? Not just another language, but the same language? (16, Introduction)

Mario Pei uses this challenging question to introduce his thesis on the need for a common second language to be learned and used alongside the world's national languages. Such an international second language could be introduced as early as the primary school.

Pei is not alone in this viewpoint; in a Gallup Poll conducted a few years ago in the United States, Canada, Norway and the Netherlands nearly 80% of those polled in each of the four countries expressed themselves in favour of an international tongue to be taught in the elementary schools of the world on the basis of complete parity with national languages. The implication being that children of each country would grow up speaking two languages i.e. the national language and the international one with equal fluency (Loc. cit.).

Although an international language such as the one envisaged by Pei will not be easy to find at this stage, yet English is currently fulfilling this function to a very large extent. In this connection Wilkinson writes as follows:

"English is an international language, the most widespread in the world, second only to Mandarin Chinese in the number who speak it ... English is spoken as a first language in England, U.S.A., Canada, New Zealand, Australia and by some people of European stock in parts of Africa. (26, 15)

In South Africa English is not only one of the official languages but also a traditional lingua franca of Black education (Vide infra Chapter 3).

In this thesis we recognise the international status of English and therefore its practical value for the Black school-going child in South Africa. Accordingly the broad thrust of our research will be directed towards problems experienced by Black pupils in learning and using English as a medium of communication (Vide infra Chapter 5), as well as to the preparation of remedial material to cope with such problems (Vide infra Chapter 6).

1.2 Language acquisition

1.2.1 First language acquisition

Our submission in this thesis is that the human child is born to speak. All children irrespective of race, colour or creed are innately endowed with the capacity to acquire language and to use it as a medium of communication.

In Chapter 2 of this study a detailed exposition of the language phenomenon will be given and the process of first language acquisition will receive special attention (Vide infra 2.6).

1.2.2 Second language acquisition

Researchers in language acquisition are agreed that the acquisition of a first language is normally a natural process unlike the acquisition of a second language which is often a difficult task. In adulthood the learner rarely achieves native-like fluency in the second language.

Different hypotheses have been put forward in an attempt to account for this problem. Henry Sweet (1899) and Robert Lado (1957) ascribed it to the problem of interference of the source language on the target language; Eric Lenneberg (1967) ascribed it to "atrophied learning ability"; R.C. Gardner and W.E. Lambert (1972) ascribed it to "Variations in motivation" (3, 279).

Since the publication of S.P. Corder's paper: "The Significance of learner's errors" in the International Review of Applied Linguistics in 1967, however, later researchers have adopted a modified approach to the one mentioned in the preceding paragraph. William Nemser (1971) for example proposed that the learner's language or what he styled "approximative system" evolves in a series of stages as it

approximates the target language norm; Larry Selinker (1972) called the area of attempted production the "interlanguage" of the speaker; S.P. Corder (1971) suggested that the language of the learner is a special sort of dialect which he styled "idiosyncratic dialect". This "dialect" has its own set of rules which may be peculiar to the learner's source language, or to the target language or even to the learner himself. M.P. Jain (1969) on the other hand emphasised an effort on the part of the learner to simplify the target language (3, 280).

Underlying these later hypotheses is the assumption that the speech of the second language learner is, like any other language, systematic, and that it can be subjected to linguistic analysis (Loc. cit.).

In this thesis, the researcher will, firstly, identify with Sweet (1899) and Lado (1957) and their mother-tongue interference hypothesis i.e. that the acquisition of an additional set of linguistic habits cannot but interfere with those already acquired; and secondly with Lenneberg's (1967) hypothesis of "atrophied learning ability" i.e. that ability to gain native-like control over a target language, especially its phonology, ebbs with age.

Attitude and motivation play quite a significant role in second-language learning. The attitude of the learner towards the target language often determines the extent to which he can be motivated to learn it. The same is true about his attitude towards the speakers of the target language (20, 209). Even attitude towards the culture of the speakers of the target language can either enhance or inhibit the acquisition of the target language (23, 255).

1.3 The need for a second language

In his introduction to M. West's Bilingualism, M.E. Sandler points out that although our mother-tongue is for us more expressive and most intimate, yet it "does not suffice for all we want to hear, read and say". A second language is necessary in order that we may have the key to what is otherwise locked against us (26, iii).

West maintains that bilingualism means no more than the co-existence of two languages both at a level of efficiency, both being indispensable. But the two languages are not equal in efficiency nor do they

fulfil the same function; the one may be the language of ordinary occasions and the home, while the other is subsidiary and serves certain special occasions (26, 59).

In South Africa today, the Vernacular serves the first function while English serves broadly the second function - it is one of the languages of the school, the Courts of Law, Commerce and other areas where Black citizens come into contact with their White counterparts. English also comes in handy where Blacks who speak different languages need a common medium of communication. This occurs in social and public gatherings where speakers of a variety of indigenous languages come together.

Later in this Chapter (Vide infra, 1.5) further reference will be made to the value of English as a second language to the Black school-going child and his community as a whole.

1.4 Language situation in South Africa

"In the colourful days of Sophiatown, and Western Native Township, a man who could not speak 'die Taal', Afrikaans was a 'moegoe', literally meaning a slow-thinking guy, for 'moeg' in Afrikaans means tired." (27, 21)

If this quotation is read together with Chapter 3 of this study, it will be realised that first the Black people of South Africa found the use of their indigenous languages quite adequate to meet their social, religious and educational needs. Daily communication, offerings to the gods, instruction at the initiation schools and even the "Makgotla" (councils) were all conducted effectively through the medium of the indigenous languages. But when the Christian missionary-teacher with his evangelization and his Western-style education (Vide infra, 3.1) came onto the scene, the traditional life-style changed. Indigenous languages receded into the background and English assumed top priority as the lingua franca of the school. Even the indigenous languages were taught through the medium of English.

Then with the increase in Black urbanization contact with the Afrikaner at all levels increased and at the same time contact between speakers of a variety of indigenous languages also increased. In the Black

townships speakers of a variety of African languages lived side by side with Coloureds, Indians and Chinese. Therefore "you had to speak Afrikaans to talk to these people, for this was the lingua franca" (27, 21). English, however, continued to hold its own in the classroom and among Black intelligentsia. Efforts to give greater prominence to the indigenous languages by using them as media of instruction never really received the blessing of the Black communities (Vide infra 3.2.2; 3.3.2).

1.5 The problem stated

The problem of teaching English as a second language to Black pupils and the use of that language as medium of instruction in their schools is indeed as old as their education as a whole. The reason for this is not difficult to appreciate: when the Western concept of education i.e. formal education was first introduced to Black communities in South Africa by the early Christian missionary-teachers, English was the predominant medium of communication (Vide infra, Chapter 3).

Education reports dating as far back as the mid-ⁿNineteenth ^cCentury - samples of which have been cited in this study - bear testimony to the extend^t to which the problem has engaged the attention of educationists and educational administrators serving in Black schools in this country.

Over the years various attempts encompassing a variety of methods have been tried out in an attempt to meet the problem, but time and experience have proved that much more research into the problem is still needed. It is with the consciousness of this need that we have deemed it both necessary and opportune to undertake this project.

In the interest of a wider perspective of, and a better insight into, the problem, we need to mention here that the problem is not exclusively endemic to the South African Black school. The 1961 Commonwealth Conference on the Teaching of English as a Second Language observed that: "the teaching of English as a second language is still a relatively unexplored field" (18, 2). After describing the field as "huge", the Chairman of Conference, Sir Michael Grant, proceeded to point out that the field was not only inadequately cultivated but was also imperfectly understood (18,3). It was precisely as a result of this need that Conference recommended, inter alia, that numerous research projects be undertaken as a matter of urgency.

Coming back to the South African scene: the bulk of the literature that is available on the problem of teaching English as a second language and its use as medium of instruction is based largely on observations and research projects far removed from the South African scene. As Adenkule rightly observed in a slightly different context (i.e. in West Africa), that it is unrealistic to base teaching strategies on theories developed elsewhere without modifications in terms of factors peculiar to the local environment. Borrowed ideas are only useful when adapted to local situations (1, 269). Commenting on the same problem, Elizabeth M. Rudd observed that there is no real shortage of English teaching material in general, but there is a lack of materials designed specifically for particular groups of learners (1, 60). It is with this latter observation in mind that in this thesis efforts have been made to design a programme based on pupil's L1¹⁾ and the errors made in English as L2²⁾; hence the use of the twin-strategies of C.A.³⁾ and E.A.⁴⁾.

It is appropriate at this point to pause and look back at the possible reasons why the problems of teaching English in Black schools today seem to be on the increase rather than on the decrease. The following seem to be some of the possible reasons:

- 1.5.1 In the past it was quite possible to recruit a substantial number of English-speaking teachers for Black schools; today this is no longer the case. The Black school population has far out-stripped the rate of possible availability of such teachers so much so that it would be highly unrealistic to look to the English-speaking world to provide manpower both for the teaching of English as a second language and for providing an English milieu by teaching through the medium of that language. Thus the Black school has to make do with non-English speakers to provide an English environment.
- 1.5.2 The introduction of mother-tongue instruction in the primary schools which came in the wake of the Bantu Education Act

1) L1 means first language

2) L2 means second language

3) C.A. means Contrastive Analysis

4) E.A. means Error Analysis

of 1953 has appreciably minimised the pupils' chances of amassing a wide vocabulary through contact with various subject terminology. This situation is further aggravated by the fact that when English is later introduced as medium of instruction at secondary school level it is often done ~~so~~ concurrently with Afrikaans in addition to the Vernacular - a step which often leads to a three-way interference (12, 5-6).

- 1.5.3 The ever-increasing Black school population coupled with the acute shortage of sufficiently qualified teachers to teach English and to use it to advantage as medium of instruction not only renders effective individual attention and possible remedial teaching well-nigh impossible, but also checks vocabulary-building and consequent proficiency in the use of English as a means of self-expression and communication.
- 1.5.4 Over and above all these there is the lack of adequate literature dealing with the problem as it occurs in Black schools in South Africa today.

The magnitude of the problem on hand will be better appreciated if it is borne in mind that whereas the White citizens of South Africa can meet the immediate needs of the South African environment with only one official language and a working knowledge of the other, the Black citizens on the other hand need to be conversant with both official languages if they are to function adequately in the country's social setting. Thus, whereas English to the Afrikaans-speaking South African is an additional mode of communication, to the Black it is one of the only two gateways to conducting business at various levels in the country. No wonder therefore that any sign of deterioration in the standard of English in Black schools is regarded with disquiet by all interested parties.

Furthermore, present-day efforts at international dialogue hinge in no small way on English and since the Black South African cannot accept the Western civilization and what it stands for without at the same time entering into dialogue with those who subscribe to that civilization, his proficiency in English is, to say the least, an imperatival matter. In a statement issued by the English Academy of Southern Africa in June 1976, this point is supported in the following words: "English has been, is and will remain South Africa's main gateway to the outside world".

It is also interesting to note that English not only brings Blacks and Whites into dialogue or communication, but also provides a lingua franca for the different Black national units of South Africa many of whose languages are not mutually intelligible. In gatherings of various types ranging from social gatherings to staff meetings, English serves as a convenient common language of communication.

1.6 Delimitation of scope, general aim and rationale of study

Although the primary aim of this study is to investigate problems bearing on the teaching of English as L2 to North Sotho-speaking children and the use of that language as medium of instruction, yet it has been deemed reasonable to confine the actual fieldwork to oral English, specifically the articulation of English sounds.

This delimitation of scope was decided upon the following considerations:

- 1.6.1 To the best of our knowledge no extended research project has as yet been undertaken to establish empirically problems of articulation of English sounds among North Sotho-speaking children in the Lebowa area of the Northern Transvaal. Prof. L.W. Lanham undertook a similar study - but not specifically among North Sotho-speaking children - in the Johannesburg area and used his findings to prepare a remedial programme for Black children in general (Vide 6). Prof. William Branford did no more than refer to the problem; he focused mainly on the Nguni group (Vide 3, 63-67).
- 1.6.2 Any attempt to cover all the facets of the problem of teaching English as L2 to North Sotho-speaking children will confront us with a field so vast that it would hardly be possible for one to research it adequately enough to render the study useful. At best the attempt would yield a multiplicity of problem areas modestly researched and an unwieldy series of remedial programmes or at worst a study so long that it would hardly be considered reasonable for purposes of a single thesis¹⁾.

¹⁾ This study should therefore be seen as the first in a series that the writer intends undertaking over a number of years.

1.6.3 Any research in language-use should, while not disregarding other areas of this complex mode of human behaviour, pay special attention to its oral manifestation because language is first and foremost a spoken thing. Placed in its natural context of a speech act, language-use aims at oral communication between dyads.

If North Sotho children are to function effectively through the medium of English, then it is important that they should gain reasonable control over the sound system of English so that they may be able to encode and decode oral messages transmitted through the agency of that language.

It is, however, not the aim of this study to underpin the degree or level of accent among North Sotho-speaking children but rather to isolate those areas of aberrancy in oral English that may be classified as "bad pronunciation". By "bad pronunciation" here we mean incorrect articulation of English sounds to the extent that it may lead to either intelligibility, misunderstanding or both in a regular speech-act in which either the interlocutor or audience is English. Wilkinson speaks of a form of English as L2 that is "acceptable to the international community of educated speakers of the language" (26, 16). This is what this study is aimed at.

1.6.4 Most of the strategies in second language teaching today aim at oral communication. In fact the twin-skills of listening and speaking constitute the foundation on which the idea of the language laboratory and self-instruction aural-oral machines is grounded (Vide infra Chapter 6).

1.6.5 It is hardly disputable that a serious disruption of the phonological system of a target language by a non-native speaker is more likely to impair communication than would an incorrect stringing of its lexical items, an unacceptable derivation or an incorrect transformation.

1.6.6 Although North Sotho-speaking children ultimately master the English syntactic system and learn to appreciate a sizeable portion of the English literature by the time they complete

their Matriculation course, yet very few of them ever gain sufficient control over the English phonological system to be able to use the language without serious pronounciational shortcomings. Indeed even at university level many of them still produce certain English sounds so aberrantly that their performance warrants concern.

To sum-up: the primary aim of this study is to establish empirically those English sounds that seem to be particularly difficult for the North Sotho-speaking child to articulate, to isolate them and to suggest remedial drills to control them with the aid of a language laboratory programme.

Speaking of sounds leads us to the question: which sounds? Vowels including diphthongs or consonants including consonant-clusters?

Our experience as a native teacher of North Sotho who has received virtually all his instructions through the medium of English as L2 in South Africa and in the United States and has been involved in the teaching of English as L2 at secondary, high school and university levels over the past twelve years, has revealed that although speakers of North Sotho often find it difficult to articulate certain consonants and consonant-clusters, yet it is the vowel and diphthongal sounds that seem to constitute the main area of difficulty. Perhaps a possible reason for this problem could be that whereas the North Sotho-speaker has only five to seven vowel sounds in his language to deal with, in English he has to learn to control twenty-one vowel sounds.

As far as we have been able to establish by informal yet systematic observation, the only areas of difficulty worth noting in which consonants and consonant-clusters are involved are:

Firstly, the incorrect use of the voiceless bilabial stop [p] and its voiced counterpart [b] in free variation. This problem leads to errors such as:

- *depate for debate
- *pelly for belly
- *perry for berry, and so forth.

*This mark, the asterisk, is used to designate an unacceptable sound or construction in this study.

Secondly, the incorrect use of the voiced alveolar stop [d] and its voiceless counterpart [t] in free variation thus producing pronunciation errors such as:

- * Biedispek for Pietersburg
- * domahawk for tomahawk
- * tance for dance, and so forth.

Thirdly, the substitution of the consonant-cluster (the voiced interdental fricative) [θ] with the voiced alveolar stop [d] or its voiceless counterpart [t] thus producing errors such as:

- * tê or * dê for the
- * têm or * dêm for them
- * trow or * drow for throw, and so forth.

Fourthly, the incorrect substitution of the English voiceless lateral plosive [kl] with the North Sotho voiceless lateral ejective [kʰ] which leads to pronunciation errors such as:

- * tleā^{*} for clear
- * tlean for clean
- * tleva for clever, and so forth.

Given this knowledge about consonants and consonant-clusters and their relative limited area of difficulty for the North Sotho-speaking child it was decided to delimit the field of study still further and to concentrate all effort on the main problem area - vowels and diphthongal sounds.

The above discussion constitutes scope, rationale and the general aim of this study; the subsidiary aim is to establish the extend^{*} to which the phonological system of the pupil's L1 interferes with that of English as L2 and to indicate the extend^{*} to which the twin-strategies of Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis could be used in the processing of oral data and the preparation of remedial drills for use in a language laboratory.

It is not the aim of this study to try and cope with dialectal problems whether in English or in North Sotho since to do so would merely compli-

* This mark, the asterisk, is used to designate an unacceptable sound or construction in this study.

cate the study and render the compilation of a remedial programme impossible because even among the speakers of English as L1 the world over there are dialectal differences. These differences, however, do not impair communication and therefore need not distract us from our main theme of research.

1.7 Specific aims of study

Concisely stated the following are the specific aims of the study:

1.7.1 To establish empirically those areas of oral English - specifically vowels and diphthongal sounds - that North Sotho-speaking children find most difficult to produce acceptably, isolate them and then prepare remedial drills to deal with them (Cf. Chapters 3 and 5).

1.7.2 To establish the extend^t to which the two strategies of Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis could be used in processing oral data with the view to preparing remedial drills for use in a language laboratory (Cf. Chapter 6).

1.8 Methods of research

1.8.1 Detailed study of literature

Given the magnitude and complexity of the field to be covered in this thesis, the researcher thought it convenient to divide available literature into three categories viz.

1.8.1.1 Literature dealing with the language phenomenon in general.

1.8.1.2 Literature dealing with ESL¹⁾ programmes and related research programmes abroad - largely in the United States and Canada.

1.8.1.3 Literature dealing with the problem in South Africa²⁾.

1.8.2 Questionnaire

A questionnaire will be prepared and administered personally to the teachers in the area in which the field-work for the study will be undertaken.

1) ESL means English as a second language.

2) In this connection the researcher relied heavily on education reports since other secondary sources are still wanting.

The purpose of the questionnaire will be to sample details bearing on the teaching personnel engaged in the area covered by the project.

1.8.3 Sampling oral data

Oral data for use in this study will be sampled by means of a high fidelity tape recorder for later play-back and analysis.

1.8.4 Contrastive Analysis

A selective Contrastive Analysis of English and North Sotho phonological systems will be made to establish a useful practical starting-point for the project.

1.8.5 Error Analysis

Oral data sampled will be subjected to a careful Error Analysis to establish areas of difficulty in the pupils' spoken English.

1.9 Analysis of title

1.9.1 The teaching of English as a second language

There is a difference between teaching English as a first language and teaching it as a second language. In the case of the former the teacher can build on whatever language the child has already acquired while in the case of the latter, the teacher has to contend with the first language the child has already acquired.

Any research in second-language teaching must therefore take cognizance of this difference if appropriate strategies are to be suggested.

1.9.2 North Sotho-speaking children

In order to study systematically the extend^t to which the first language interferes with the acquisition of a second language it is important to delimit the field of study to such an extend^t that it is possible to focus on only two languages i.e. the source language and the target language.

In this project the focus is on North Sotho as a source language and English as a target language.

1.9.3 In the junior secondary school

This project focuses on the Form II class. This forms part of the junior secondary school as against Forms III, IV and V which constitute the senior secondary school.

1.9.4 With special reference to oral communication

The spoken word is the most common means of daily communication. Research in second language learning and second language use should therefore pay special attention to the oral manifestation of the target language concerned.

1.9.5 An empirical study

The bulk of the information contained in this study is derived from data sampled in the schools, processed and experimented upon in the language laboratory of the University of the North.

The main contribution of the study is therefore not theoretical knowledge but rather knowledge discovered through observation and experimentation in a language laboratory.

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Chapter 2

THE LANGUAGE PHENOMENON

2.1 Introduction

The pedagogical encounter presupposes communication between the educator and the educand. The role of language in such an encounter can never be overemphasised.

Education has to do with the whole person. By the whole person we mean more than the unity of the body, mind and soul: we mean man-in-the-world (Vide 36, 15). This being-in-the-world encompasses the vital element of communication which not only brings man into dialogue with his fellowmen, but also with his God (44, 141). An example of this instance is in prayer. The educator-educand relationship also has recourse to such dialogue which includes the use of language.

The language phenomenon provides a medium through which the human child can give verbal interpretation to the reality that constitutes his environment. This reality is not initially accessible to him, but is acquired largely through the agency of language.

In a pedagogical encounter, the educator is able to move into the world of the educand mainly with the aid of language. The educator informs, names, questions, suggests, demands, gives orders, listens to the educand and in turn expects the educand to listen to him and to react accordingly. In this way the educator gets to know the educand - his needs, shortcomings, desires, fears and so forth and so plan his guidance more relevantly (Vide 17, 162; 17, 310-311).

Formal education depends to a large extent on the child's ability to manipulate verbal symbols advantageously. In many educational systems, school readiness is often coupled with reasonable language proficiency. Preference of mother-tongue instruction in the elementary school is grounded principally on this consideration.

In the case of Black children the acquisition and use of English as a second language is vital, since it is through the agency of this language that the child is to acquire the bulk of his higher formal education and to maintain dialogue with his South African White neigh-

hours in the first place and with the rest of the English-speaking world in the second place.

2.2 The concept language

According to Sapir, language is not merely a more or less systematic inventory of various items of experience which seem to be relevant to the individual, but rather a self-contained, creative, symbolic organization which not only refers to experience acquired without its help, but actually defines experience by reason of its formal completeness and because of our conscious projection of its implicit expectations into the field of experience (16, 128). Language is "man's most distinctive achievement" (37, vii); it is purely human and non-instinctive and provides a mode of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced sounds (38, 7).

Although language comprises "arbitrary vocal sounds" (1, 7), yet it is a "purposeful activity" (19, 7; 23, 10) which must never be separated from the speaking individual and the reason why he acts the way he does.

Man is the only creature capable of abstracting by using symbols to stand for "aspects of the existential environment in which he tries to survive" (37, vii). This in turn permits him to transcend space and time in that he is free to move, symbolically, backwards and forwards in time¹⁾. This unique attribute of man is enshrined in his ability to use language. Recalling the past, recounting the present and speculating on the future are by their very nature brain-children of language.

Ong summarises the concept of language as follows:

"Man communicates with his whole body, and yet the word is his primary medium. Communication, like knowledge itself, flowers in speech." (32, 1)

Words are also useful in affecting other human beings. The best understood of these effects is in the case in which the word causes someone to act as if he has direct experience of the word's referent. But human language behaviour has no direct instrumental effect on the inanimate world (3, 157).

¹⁾ J.C. Steenekamp: Waarneming Gesien vanuit die Liggaamlikheid van die Breinbeskadige kind - 'n Nuwe Perspektief, Ph.D Thesis, 1970 UNISA pp. 108, 218-219 elaborates on the question of man's movement

2.3 Some common theories about the origin of language

According to Jenkins (5, 161), when Christopher Columbus set sail "in the sunset" in 1492, his ship carried an under-officer who was assigned to the expedition because he spoke fluent Hebrew. The under-officer was to act as interpreter anywhere in the world because then it was believed that Hebrew, the language of the Scriptures, was the original tongue of all mankind.

This belief in Hebrew was re-iterated in 1680 by Cotton Mather who wrote in defence of the fact that in the beginning "the whole earth was of one speech" (5, 162). In 1808 the philosopher Friedrich von Schlegel "persuaded himself that the ancestor of all languages was the Sanskrit of ancient India" (5, 162). In the 1830's the lexicographer Noah Webster gave it as his opinion that the prototype of language must have been "chaldee", that is, Aramic - the language of the Holy Land in Christ's day (5, 162).

In the latter half of the 19th ^Century along came a new generation of linguists who were a little more disposed to the scientific approach than their predecessors with the idea of Divine Ur-language. At the same time along came Charles Darwin to dispute the whole concept of Creation as it was known and accepted. Some scholars were greatly impressed by this new Theory of Evolution so much so that they strained hard to apply it to the origin of language, just as much as they had previously strained to validate the Theory of Babel (5, 162). One of these scholars was Friedrich Max Müller who earnestly suggested that the grunts and squeaks of man's animal ancestors all over the earth had gradually evolved towards speech in the same way as their brains had evolved towards intelligence, and that the world's languages would already have been infinitely various even before the genus Homo had attained full Sapience (5, 162).

Although Müller's theory was never really taken seriously, the Darwian ⁿⁱ theory opened up a new vista - about a million years of human evolution - in which scholars could manoeuvre, as against the Bible which provided them with only a few thousand years (5, 162).

According to the Bible, language, in the form of The Word, preceded all else. In the Gospel according to Saint John we read as follows:

"In the beginning was the Word, and the Word was with God, and the Word was God." (20)

This creative Word through which everything was brought into being (11) and through which order was made to replace chaos, was made flesh in the form of "the only Son from the Father" (20, verse 14). It is important to note here that the Word (also known as the Logos) is much more than mere speech: it is God in action: creating, revealing and redeeming. Christ is the incarnation of this Word.

Although after Charles Darwin a host of anthropologists, archeologists, and paleontologists began to turn up evidence that a fair measure of human civilization had been achieved as long as 6 000 B.C. and that man must have been living in possible social intercourse - implying some degree of effective communication - a good three quarters of a million years before that (5, 162), yet even today there is still no conclusive evidence regarding the origin of language. It is possible to trace satisfactorily the relatedness of languages, but the primary source of these languages is still shrouded in the mystery of the distant past. Indeed there are certain languages that are not easy to relate to other known proto languages and there is all reason to believe that others, long extinct, may have been equally difficult to classify (5, 163).

The extent of the problem bearing on the origin of the human language is contained in the following well-known theories (5, 163-164):

2.3.1 The Bow-wow Theory

According to this theory man learned to talk by parroting the cries of animals. Considering the fact that man was originally a hunter, the notion has a certain degree of plausibility. Once a group of men had agreed, say, that a boar was an "oink" and that an auroch was a "moo", they would eventually have aspired to naming other things.

2.3.2 The Poo-Poo Theory

According to the Poo-Poo Theory, man's first meaningful noises were involuntarily jolted out of him by sudden events or situations somewhat in the "manner of a duchess finding a worm in her salad". It is a little hard to believe that a caveman ever uttered anything so finical as "poo-poo", but considering the thorny environment in which

he must have lived, it is quite possible that he could have made a sound like "ow!"

2.3.3 The Ding-Dong Theory

The Ding-Dong Theory is based on onomatopoeia just like the Bow-wow Theory except that the former surmises that man's first words were echoes of natural sounds rather than those of animals. For instance, he might have cried "whack!" in merry mimicry of a club bouncing off a rival's skull or muttered a fearful "bumble-boom" in imitation of the thunder.

2.3.4 The Yo-He-Ho Theory

This theory maintains that the earliest effective speech was the result of man beginning to co-operate and co-ordinate with his fellowmen. That is, a group of men may have learned to lighten their labour by shouting some sort of cadence count like sailors' chants or soldiers' marching songs when they were hauling home a sabertooth's carcass or levering boulders down onto an invading war-party.

2.3.5 Gestures

Paget (3, 131) and Wundt (3, 131) are two of those who support the theory that the human language originated in gestures. The premise is that the articulatory muscles can imitate motion and contours in the external world. Marden J. Clark actually maintains that it "seems indisputable" that sign-language by gestures must have long preceded and accompanied the development of "any meaningful grunts and mumbles" (5, 164). We still find gestures handy for beckoning, shooing, threatening and even as aids in explaining. In fact gestures today could be regarded as body-language and classified as paralinguistics.

The above theories indicate that it is not easy to trace language to its very origin; the reason is partly that there is no "primitive" language surviving that could be studied and used as a starting point. Attempts to use "primitive peoples'" languages have always proved futile, since what is primitive for the researcher is not necessarily so for the speaker of that language.

Hardly surprising therefore that all the theories outlined above are taken with great reservations by modern linguists. Langacker describes them as "so untypical of the human language that it is hard to see why

they should be postulated as the source of all language" (22, 18). He, however, hastens to point out, and rightly so, that this area of linguistics will always be limited to speculation (Loc. cit.).

Langacker feels that a major inadequacy of most of the theories seeking to account for the origin of language is that they try to explain how primitive man was first induced to vocalize. The real problem according to him, is to explain how language in all its present complexity and abstractness could ever develop from the very modest beginnings it must have had. He feels that without positing neural evolution as a major factor, there is no apparent way to explain how the intricate and highly complex grammatical and phonological system of human language could have arisen in accordance with reasonable psychological principles. It is Langacker's opinion that man must have acquired language as a result of evolutionary changes in the structure of the mind. It was not a matter of someone "getting the idea" and the others "catching on"; which is almost equivalent to the notion that "a group of primitive men sat down around a conference table and voted to invent language" (22, 18)¹⁾.

The present writer's standpoint is that man was created by his Creator as a being with innate ability to manipulate verbal symbols, quite distinct from any other creature on earth. Man, like all other creatures, is a product of a biological fusion between a male and a female reproductive cell. Like all other creatures, he is born into the world and, like all other creatures, he must adapt to the environment. But unlike all other creatures he soon acquires language in such a way that he does not only produce parrot-wise what he hears around him, but rather internalises that system of language to such an extent that he is able to generate utterances some of which he has never heard before. This is a remarkable achievement that can only be interpreted and accounted for by the contention that the human child was born to speak.

But, we must hasten to add, language can only develop normally in a linguistic environment. Evidence of this is found in case of feral and isolated man. Roger Brown discusses some of these cases: (3, 186-193)²⁾.

1) For further details see sub-heading: First language acquisition in man, later in this chapter.

2) Vide Schmidt, W.H.O: Child Development, Harper and Row, Publishers, New York, 1973, pp. 26-37.

In 1349 the Hessian wolf-boy was discovered; in 1661 the Lithuanian bear-boy was discovered and in 1724 Wild Peter of Hanover was discovered - in all these cases the individuals lacked language and moved on all fours because of isolation.

In 1850 Amala and Kamala were discovered among wolves in India. Both children had adopted the way of life of wolves and did not have any language. Interesting enough, when these children were exposed to language they showed all ability of coping with the problem of language acquisition, enough to convince anyone that given a linguistic environment a feral child can acquire language.

In recent years two cases have been reported: that of Anna (1937), who was discovered kept in isolation in a room in Illinois, and that of Isabella who was discovered at about the same time in Ohio. Both girls showed ability to acquire language as soon as they were exposed to it.

Eric H. Lenneberg, however, is rather sceptical about these languageless children. He points out that very little background information is available on them and therefore it is difficult to draw reliable conclusions about their linguistic position. He feels that the nature of the social and physical environment is never clear and the possibility of genetic deficiencies or congenital abnormalities can never be ruled out (40, 234).

In the Sunday Times Magazine of April 11, 1976 David Barritt reported under the title "The boy who thinks he is a monkey" a touching story of a little Black boy who was found by a band of soldiers deep in the forests of Burundi in Central Africa living with a team of grey ekende monkeys. Dr Viatcheslav Zarotchintsev, a Russian psychiatrist who examined the boy said: "His behaviour was entirely consistent with that of a monkey". Clinically the boy, named John, was classified as an idiot with an I.Q. of a one-year old child. He could hear normally but was unable to speak except to chatter and scream as do monkeys when excited or frightened.

Although Dr Zarotchintsev opined that the boy was not likely to live long enough to "communicate his experiences to us" yet the nurse who was responsible for his care said: "We have made a lot of progress in a short time. He now responds to his name and the phrase 'come and eat'".

Like Lenneberg, Zarotchintsev pointed out that it was not possible to establish whether or not there were congenital abnormalities in the child that contributed to his failure to acquire language.

The case of John is significant in that it corroborates other reported cases of feral children.

Barring all else regarding the origin of language, it can hardly be disputed that language acquisition is species uniform and species specific in that all human beings acquire language but no other animal does.

2.4 Language and the human form

Max Picard (35, 116-120) put forward a beautiful case to illustrate that man was created to be a talking being. Man's entire physical make-up and the manner in which he relates to his environment speak of a being made to communicate primarily by means of language.

Picard points out that unlike the animal face, the human face is not a mere continuation of the rest of the body; it has not come from below, finally reaching its destination on top of the body, but rather it has been, as it were, set down from above. "The body comes to full stop here; there can only be a completely new beginning".

Just as a human face comes as a sudden surprise on top of the body, so too does language; it comes "unexpectedly, surprisingly - the surprise only lasts for a moment, for one immediately realises that the human face is the only thing possible on top of the body, and language is the only thing possible that can come out of the human face". The reaction of surprise is followed hard upon by the realisation that this is only a natural reaction of man to a phenomenon brought about by the direct act of the Creator.

Picard goes on to point out that man is upright - the suddenness and decisiveness of the act by which man was made to stand erect is present in the solitary vertical line of the human form. The movement by which this vertical was created is in solitariness and seclusion of the upright figure.

Erwin W. Straus (9, 137-165) also discusses the significance of man's upright posture. For Straus, it is through the upright posture that

man experiences himself in relation to the world. "The upright posture pre-establishes a definite attitude towards the world; it is a specific mode of being-in-the world." But to achieve the vital upright posture man "must oppose the forces of gravity" and win. The successful countering of the forces of gravity is a great achievement in the growth and development of man - one need only see a child who stands erect for the first time; the excitement of both the child and parents signifies the importance of the upright posture for man. From the attainment of the upright posture follows language as a logical sequence of human growth and development.

The decisiveness with which language breaks through silence, says Picard, and the decisiveness of the vertical in the human form correspond to one another. "Indeed, man keeps the vertical by means of language." Picard sees a direct link between the vertical stature of man and the idea of God - a reaching out towards heaven above where the Word resides.

"The Word of Truth draws man upward, to the Logos: the uprightness of the body is confirmed by language". (Loc. cit.)

It is important to note at this stage that it is through language that man reaches out to and seeks to communicate with his God through prayer; with his face turned up and his hands raised man seeks to bring himself closer to his Creator. In this connection Picard contends that the decisiveness of the human language, its uniqueness as a mode of self-expression and communication, matches the uniqueness of form of the human face. He concludes that the "circumscribed act of decision and the circumscribed form of the face belong to one another".

Picard's discussion of the human form and language would be incomplete without reference to silence. He observes that what makes the human form dignified when the creature is silent is that his silence does not mean the absence of language but rather a pause before language occurs - silence is a harbinger of language, a dawn before sunrise. "The silence reaches out beyond man himself and gives him dignity."

One need only observe the over-powering dignity of a judge's brief silence before pronouncing judgment to appreciate Picard's thesis on this aspect of the talking man being silent.

2.5 Animal language

The problem of studying animal language is that it is not always easy to tell for certain whether the behaviour has been learned or is instinctive. What we do know, however, is that animal communication is not in any way as complex as human language behaviour. For example, a six-year old child can watch a playmate carry out an intricate series of actions at one point and later he can give a running account of it. No other animal known can do this (2, 1). It is for this reason that Roland W. Langacker feels that "we learn nothing conclusive about the origin of language by examining the various ways in which animals communicate" (22, 18).

Roger Brown (3, 157-186) discusses the animal languages of the bee, the jackdaw, and the chimpanzee. The following is a summary of his discussion:

2.5.1 The bee

Since about 1920 Karl von Frisch has conducted experiments which sought to explain the fact that when one bee has found a source of food and returned to the hive, numerous other bees shortly find their way to the same food source. It seemed to him that the finder bees need to "tell" the secondary bees where they have been and what they have found.

Von Frisch actually designed a glass hive through which he was able to study the manner in which the information was communicated. He observed that the finder bee performed some dance in which it was joined by the secondary bees before flying out directly to the food source. It struck him as if the secondary bees decoded the finder's message and used the resultant information to guide their flight. The dance of the finder seemed to signal both the direction and distance of the find.

Bolinger, however, describes this mode of communication as "slight and highly stereotyped" (2, 2).

2.5.2 The jackdaw

Korad Lorenzo, a naturalist expert in mimicking sounds made by different birds, made a study of a jackdaw he called Jock. His interest in Jock caused him to rear a whole colony of jackdaws so that he could study their social life.

Lorenzo discovered a mode of courtship which he called "language of the eyes" whereby the male stares lovingly directly at the female. Once "married" the female jackdaw "greet" her "husband" with gestures of "symbolic inferiorism". She squats before him, quivering her wings and tail. The male tenderly feeds her and the two "speak" in low whispers. This loving speech consists of notes heard from infant jackdaws begging for food, but are reserved in the adult for tender moments.

Lorenzo distinguished two types of flight calls. What he called the kia i.e. a call to fly abroad and the kiaw i.e. a call for homeward-bound birds.

The jackdaw's "speech" of anger is a rattle sound which precedes an attack. Lorenzo believed that if you provoke the rattle sound and the subsequent attack at least three times, you lose the friendship of the bird. What is more, the offended jackdaw is able to "tell" others that this is an enemy and they will seem to understand the message.

2.5.3 The chimpanzee

Yerkes made a study of the orang utan, chimpanzee, gorilla and gibbon. He discovered that the vocal mechanism of the chimpanzee was adequate for the production of a large variety of sounds. "It makes possible definite articulations similar to those of the human speech." In fact the chimpanzee has been described as a vigorous vocalizer - it seems always to have something to "say".

Köhler felt that the chimp lacked speech, yet he too found that it has many "phonetic elements". Its lack of speech, according to Köhler, could be the absence of peripheral phonation. Rothman and Teuber were able to establish that the chimp was particularly able to produce the vowels [O] and [U].

The chimps' utterances seem to have "semantic value". Köhler, for example, reported that his chimps "grumbled", "called one another" and "greeted him in the morning". Although Köhler was satisfied that chimps possessed a whole gamut of phonetics, yet all these were purely subjective and could only express emotions but could not designate or describe objects.

The present writer's opinion is that animal language is largely instinctive while true human language is an acquired response which is conscious and purposeful. Animals do not seem to be able to combine their "linguistic" response in accordance with any rules of syntax, while the human language is a highly structured system governed by certain set syntactical and phonological rules.

Human language has a clearly defined lexicon which is a system of names covering the conceptual repertoire of a community. New names are created according to principles embodied in the existing names, and new names are created whenever a new grouping-principle is utilised by the community. In English, for example, the word "hippie" could be created and incorporated in the existing lexicon, but chances of a word like "gxutli" being created and incorporated in the English lexicon are so remote that they may be considered non-existent. The reason for this is that even in the creation of a lexicon, there are certain linguistic constraints that determine which sounds or sound combinations would belong to a particular language.

Higher primates which have been credited with a system of communication that was approximated to human language lack the ability to generate an infinite number of utterances from some given lexicon. We cannot determine beyond all doubt that the chimp has internalised a lexicon from which it can generate an infinite number of utterances of varying degree of grammatical complexity.

In all fairness to the higher primates, however, we need to mention here that some of them are known to have learned to "communicate" with humans via visual stimuli. They are known to have been trained to string together a number of separate symbols to convey messages decoded into notions such as: "You me go out hurry" or "sorry sorry please good out" (22, 21).

2.6 First language acquisition in man

2.6.1 Introduction

Our discussion from 2.1. through 2.5 above illustrates that the mystery of language acquisition and language use has interested man since ancient times and continues to do so even today.

In this subsection a more detailed exposition of first-language acquisition is given.

2.6.2 The first noises

The first noise - a cry - a baby makes seems to be its response to the shock of birth when it draws its first breath of air. Subsequent noises are more differentiated and may be classified into categories of comfort and discomfort noises. These noises are somehow meaningful to the mother (49, 53; 39, 40).

Walburga van Raffler Engel (10, 10-11) points out that these first noises - crying and screaming - may well be classified as "expressions", but they are not language in the true sense of the word in that they persist even after language has been completely acquired. For the same reason gurgling sounds are not precursors of language in that they often persist as "sounds of pleasure" into later stages of child-language development.

2.6.3 Babbling

Von Raffler Engel (10, 10) regards babbling as the first and true attempt at language use (because this phase disappears as soon as true language has been acquired). In fact she reports from observations made on her son that she was able to detect a real effort at articulating a word during babbling (Loc. cit.).

Wilson too maintains that babbling, in addition to its being motivated by sheer pleasure of activity, provides a basis for word-articulation. He describes babbling as "syllabic and repetitive" and proceeds to hold that during this phase, adults are often able to identify certain sounds that belong to adult language (49, 53).

The child's first sounds are those that seem to be easiest to produce, hence the predominance of da-da-da-da or ma-ma-ma-ma. Usually adults capitalise on these sounds, place them in their language context and ascribe a semantic value to them thereby reinforcing the child's achievement.

For example, ma-ma-ma-ma is modified into mama (mother) and da-da-da-da is modified into dada or dad (father).

Since children irrespective of colour or creed tend to produce the same array of initial sounds during babbling, the words "placed" by parents tend to be the same. In fact M.M. Lewis speaks of "six achtypal

nursery words"; these are mama, nana, papa, baba, tata, dada (49, 54). From these archtypal nursery words we get, for example, the English "mama", the French "maman" the German "mama", the Italian "mamma", the Swahili "mama", the Chinese "mah" (Loc. cit.). We also have the Sotho "mma" and the Afrikaans "ma".

Interesting enough, however, these words need not have the same semantic value for all the languages in which they occur. For example, in one of the languages spoken in Southern Russia, "mama" means father and "dada" means mother! (49, 54). This is the direct opposite of the Sotho languages of South Africa or of Afrikaans.

It might be of interest to note at this stage that some interesting studies have been made regarding the response of babies to adult language and other sounds in the environment in which they are born. Meuman, for example, maintained that children begin to respond to adult speech at the age of two months; O'Shea, at the end of three months; Bühler and Hetzer, within the first fortnight (25, 38-39). Löwenfeld on the other hand maintained that children in their first months i.e. during the babbling stage, respond not so much to the quality of the sound they hear, but rather to its intensity. The more intense the noise, the more likely it is to cause the child to cry (25, 38).

Hoyer (25, 44) provides the following observations made on his son:

First week : The child seemed to fix his eyes on the speaker.

Third week : The cry of the child ceased in response to an adult voice.

Fourth week : The child showed pleasure in response to a lullaby when this was accompanied by a caress.

Sixth week : The child smiled to a heard voice.

Seventh week : The child turned at the sound of a voice, sometimes to the direction from which the voice came.

Of course the major shortcoming of studies made during this period of child-language development is that almost without exception such studies are undertaken by the parents of the children and as such

are not always free of a certain measure of subjectivity.

This factor is aggravated by the fact that a babbling infant makes good company to its parents and as such exaggerated value may be ascribed to the sounds produced or the actions made.

2.6.4 Early language

As far back as 397 A.D. St Augustine had already put forward the contention that ability to speak a language is an innate quality. St Augustine, like the present writer, regarded this quality to be a gift of God to man. St Augustine wrote as follows in his Confessions, Book 1 (28, 690).

"For I was no longer a speechless infant but a speaking boy. This I remember; and have since observed how I learned to speak. It was not that my elders taught me words ... in any set method, but I, longing by cries and broken accents ... did myself¹⁾, by the understanding which Thou, my God, gavest me, practice the sounds of my memory."

St Augustine, however, rightly conceded that the final selection of a mother-tongue depends on the language to which the infant is exposed. He also underlines the value of paralinguistic factors in the acquisition of the first language (28, 690).

In 1926 William Stern put forward his intellectualistic viewpoint regarding early language in children. He pointed out that as soon as the child achieves the two powers of "upright position and speech" he attains a distinguishing characteristic that differentiates man from beasts. Stern points out that the upright position brings about a certain concluding stage of the sense-mastery of surrounding space; speech opens to the child the higher world of the mind (41, 139).

Speech is not only an instrument of enormous development in the child's power of perception, emotion and will, but also provides "the power of all real thought; generalization, comparison and comprehension" (Loc. cit.).

1) Emphasis mine.

It was precisely as a result of this intellectualistic startingpoint in early child-language acquisition that Stern regarded the beginning of speech as "that moment in which the child, for the first time, utters a sound with full consciousness of its meaning and for purposeful communication" (41, 141).

Stern contended that with language acquisition comes "the ability to mean something when uttering sounds, to refer to something objective" (45, 25). This viewpoint was based on his concept of "intentionality" by which he understood "a directedness towards a certain content or meaning" in language (Loc. cit.).

Stern's intellectualistic conception of language acquisition and development led him to maintain that at the age of two, the child already has the ability to realise that each object has its permanent symbol, a sound pattern that identifies it - that each thing has a name. The child is not only aware of this symbol, but also realises that the understanding of the relation between sign and meaning that dawns on the child at this stage of development is something different in principle from the simple use of sound image, object images, and their association. The requirement that each object of whatever kind has its name may be considered a true generalization which the child makes - possibly his first (45, 26-27).

Vygotsky disagrees with Stern's theory on the grounds that Stern's intellectualistic conception of speech development in the child is based on idealistic foundation and it is largely invalid from a strictly scientific point of view (45, 25). For example, Vygotsky points out that in the studies made over the years there is no evidence to support Stern's contention that at the age of one-and-a-half or two years, a child is already able to realise that each object had its permanent symbol, a sound pattern that identifies it. It is highly questionable whether at this stage a child could possibly be aware of symbols and the need of them. This is a highly complex intellectual operation that clearly stands beyond the ken of a two-year old child (45, 26-27). *expectational case*

Vygotsky regarded the development of early child-language as an "extremely complex process which has its early beginning and transitional forms at the more primitive developmental levels, and again its cultural history with its own series of phases, its own quantitative,

qualitative and functional growth; its own dynamics and laws", hardly a process that could be discovered once and for all as Stern seemed to imply (Loc. cit.).

In the same strain Vygotsky finds Stern's "intentional tendency" in language development which springs spontaneously to be quite unacceptable because by subscribing to this viewpoint Stern is "assigning to the intellect an almost metaphysical position of primacy as the origin, the unanalyzable first cause of meaningful speech" (45, 29).

Vygotsky makes a point that needs special underlining when he points out that the one-word sentence of a child should not be studied in isolation but rather in conjunction with the accompanying paralinguistic features of motion of limbs in concert with the utterance. Thus when a child says "mama" for "mama put me in the high-chair" there is always a reaching-out towards the chair, trying to hold on to it, etc. (45, 30). For this reason Vygotsky concludes:

"Here the 'affective-conative' directedness towards the object is as yet inseparable from the 'intentional tendency' of speech." (Loc. cit.)

The two are indeed still a homogeneous whole and the only correct translation of "mama" or any other early words of child-language utterance is the pointing gesture. This pointing gesture plays a mediatory role in establishing the meaning of the first words. Vygotsky then concludes:

"The inescapable conclusion would be that pointing is, in fact, a precursor of the 'intentional tendency'." (Loc. cit.)

Vygotsky, on the basis of his genetic approach, maintained that in the child's development "progress in thought and progress in speech are not parallel. Their growth curves cross and recross" (45, 33). The roots and the developmental course of the intellect differ from those of speech. "Initially thought is non-verbal and speech non-intellectual" (45, 49). This separation, however, does not mean that speech development and thought do not meet altogether, they do. "Thought development is determined by language i.e. by the linguistic tools of thought and by the socio-cultural experience of the child" (45, 50-51).

Jean Piaget's theory (45, 11-19) of the development of language presupposes the existence of a polarity between two forms of thought, viz.

directed thought and undirected thought. Direct thought is conscious i.e. it pursues aims that are in the mind of the thinker. This form of thought is intelligent in that it is adapted to reality and strives to influence it. It is susceptible to truth and error and it can be communicated through language. Undirected thought (also called Autistic thought), on the other hand, is subconscious, i.e. the goals it pursues and the problems it sets for itself are not present in consciousness. Undirected thought is not adaptable to external reality, but creates for itself a reality of imagination or dreams. It tends to gratify wishes rather than establish truths; it is strictly individualistic and thus incommunicable by means of language.

Direct thought by virtue of its communicability through the medium of language is essentially social and is influenced by laws of experience and logic in its development. Undirected thought, on the other hand, owing to its incommunicability, is individualistic and obeys a set of special laws of its own.

Piaget goes on to point out that between these two modes of thought there are varieties in regard to their degree of communicability. These intermediate varieties must obey a special logic of Autistic thought and the logic of intelligence, i.e. direct thought. The name ego-centric thought is given to the principle underlying these intermediate forms. Thus, ego-centric thought stands midway between autism and socialising thought.

In its development the language of the child is divided into two large categories of thought viz. ego-centric thought and socialising thought. Ego-centric thought is individualistic while socialising thought is directed towards others with a view to influence¹⁾.

M.M. Lewis' contention is that the early cries of a child are "expressive" of the child's condition; when the child is silent he may be said to be in a state of indifference. Lewis therefore concludes that the child's cry of discomfort is an innately-determined expression of that state (25, 21).

Lewis actually isolated certain sounds in early child-language development and associated them with certain states of the child. For example,

¹⁾ Piaget's theory on language is discussed further under the sub-heading: Functions of language, later in this chapter.

the nasals [m] and [n] are expressive of hunger - they are audible manifestations of mouth movements which are bound up with that state. Lewis also felt that since the expression of hunger was the most important function of the child's utterance during the earlier months, the nasals [m] and [n] "become one of the chief means by which the child enters into linguistic communication with those about him" (25, 35).

Lenneberg (40, 219), a much quoted linguist on child-language development, starts off by pointing out that just as much as there is no special training for standing or gait in child development, so also there is no systematic teaching of language. He feels that the important difference between pre-language and post-language development originate in the growing individual and not in the external world or in the availability of stimuli. What causes language to develop are maturational processes within the individual (Loc, cit.).

There is a regularity of speech - "a series of more or less well-circumscribed events that take place between the second and the third year of life. Certain speech milestones are reached in a fixed sequence and at a relatively constant chronological age" (40, 221).

Lenneberg, however, agreed that a child cannot acquire language unless he is exposed to it. "Apart from this trivial point, the role of the environment is not immediately clear" (40, 227).

Lenneberg wants to stress that although certain studies have proved that there are differences in speech habits in children from upper, middle and lower classes, this does not in any way contradict the thesis that speech acquisition is innate because such studies are cross-sectional studies in which the nature and quality of speech ~~is~~ ^{are} compared with a norm, but the age of the onset of certain speech phenomena is not determined in these studies (40, 228). In fact, M. Morley (1957) - quoted by Lenneberg (40, 228) - found that language habits that emerged at a common time soon showed impoverishment in the underprivileged children. This observation indicates that although the environment does influence speech habits, yet the onset of speech is relatively unaffected by the environment.

Lenneberg develops his argument further by pointing out that even children born of deaf-mute parents generally go through the same stages

of child-language development as children of normal parents (40, 229-230).

✓ Lenneberg contends that between the ages of two and three years, language emerges by an interaction of maturation and self-programmed learning. Between the ages of three and the early teens the possibility of primary language acquisition remains good; the individual appears to be most sensitive to stimuli and tends to preserve his innate flexibility for the "organization of brain function" to carry out the complete integration of subprocesses necessary for the smooth elaboration of speech and language (40, 239-240).

✓ David McNiell's (40, 16) startingpoint is to argue that whereas traditionally child-language was often regarded as an impoverished version of adult language, today the tendency is to "look upon the child as a fluent speaker of an exotic language". This means that a psycholinguist who is studying early child-language development is in the same position as a field linguist studying some other language - neither linguists may impose the grammar of their "well-formed" L1's on the corpus (Loc. cit.).

McNiell supports the thesis of innate language universals in language acquisition. He maintains that early speech of children comprises largely two-word utterances and shows a non-random combination of words. The utterances follow a definite pattern which reveals a grammar that is constant. Indeed there is a hierarchy of progressive differentiation of grammatical categories that represents linguistic universals that are part of the child's innate endowment. The role of a universal hierarchy to categories would be to direct the child's discovery of the classes of English (or any other language). It is as if he were equipped with a set of "templates" against which he can compare the speech he happens to hear from his parents. Presumably the child classifies the random specimens of adult speech he encounters according to universal categories that the speech exemplifies. Since these distinctions are at the top of a hierarchy that has the grammatical classes of English (or any other language) at its bottom, the child is prepared to discover the appropriate set of distinctions (40, 35-36). In other words, McNiell is arguing a case that the child has knowledge of the set of distinctions that define the classes of the language he has acquired, and his problem is to discover the ones that are relevant.

Between the ages of 1½ and 2 years the child uses what is called "telegraphic language", so called because of its resemblance to the adult language used in telegraphic transmissions (40, 18). In most cases articles, prepositions, and auxiliary verbs are omitted. For example:

- *hear tractor (article omitted)
- *put truck window (article and preposition omitted)

McNiell hastens to point out that when we say that a child uses "telegraphic language" in the early stages of his language development, we do not mean that the child intentionally abbreviates well-formed adult utterances, but rather that the child possesses a simple grammar the output of which is telegraphic language (40, 18-19). This type of language disappears as the child's grammar becomes more complex.

McNiell makes an important observation about early child-language development when he observes that at this stage, the child is unable to effect any transformation. For example, a child generates the following negative sentences:

- *no wipe finger
- *no fit
- *no singing song, and so forth

clearly indicating his inability to effect the necessary transformation to derive the adult version of these utterances.

Adult speech is essentially directional in that it provides the child with some basis for choosing among options offered by the linguistic universals of his L1 (40, 65).

What McNiell refers to as telegraphic language above, was further investigated by Roger Brown, Ursula Bellugi and Colin Fraser (4, 81) who arrived at the conclusion that children tend to effect a reduction in their imitation of adult speech i.e. even if the adult can provide a well-formed utterance, the child will produce his own version in trying to imitate. The researchers give the following examples:

Model utterance

Child imitation

Wait a minute

wait a minute

Daddy's brief-case

*Daddy brief-case

Fraser will be happy

*Fraser happy

Fraser will be happy

*Dog Denver

In practice, however, mothers tend to expand on children's reduced utterances. The following are examples of how this occurs:

<u>Child</u>	<u>Mother</u>
*Baby high-chair	Baby is in the high-chair
*Eve lunch	Eve is having lunch
*Throw Daddy	Throw it to Daddy (4, 86)

It is significant to note that whatever expansions the mother effects to the child's reduced utterances, she does not change the sequencing but merely adds more morphemes. This is in line with McNiell's major thesis of innate quality of language in children.

Slobin (39, 41) supports both Lenneberg and McNiell by pointing out that every human child has an inborn repertoire of "noises expressing a spectrum of need states". The child is born with an innate passive grammar (as against active grammar) that enables him to understand the grammatical pattern of the adult speaker even before he is able to manipulate such grammar himself.

After noting that the child's grammar deviates from that of the adult, Slobin goes on to point out that early childhood speech also has a phonological system of its own which does not always tally with that of the adult speaker. Thus, for example, the presence of certain distinctive features in the phonological repertoire of the child does not always imply that the child will be able to use these features contrastively. In the following examples, the child was asked to imitate the adult speaker:

<u>Adult</u>	<u>Child's pronunciation</u>
ba <u>d</u>	ba <u>t</u>
cu <u>t</u>	da <u>t</u>
cu <u>p</u>	da <u>p</u>
la <u>mp</u>	ba <u>p</u> (39, 64)

Furthermore, Slobin quotes a report by Muller (1963) in which the latter indicates that the child does not necessarily have to be able to perceive the element of contrast involved. The following dialogue provides an example of this:

"Recently a three year-old child told me her name was Litha. I answered 'Litha'. 'No, Litha'. 'Oh, Lisa'. 'Yes, Litha!'. (39, 65)

Clearly here the child could make an aural distinction between the voiceless alveolar fricative /s/ and the voiceless interdental /θ/ even though she herself could not as yet make an oral distinction between them.

On the basis of the above dialogue Slobin puts forward a further thesis that imitation and reinforcement are not necessarily critical in the acquisition of language. In support of this thesis he refers to studies made by Eric H. Lenneberg on a speechless child who, notwithstanding his inability to produce normal articulated speech, was however, perfectly able to understand all major complexities of the English phonology and syntax. The child could understand stories told and could answer questions by pointing to pictures or by nodding his head; he could also carry-out complicated instructions given orally. Slobin goes on to state that "studies of such children (anarthric children) have demonstrated that their perception of phonological contrasts is normal. Yet these children have never imitated speech and have never been reinforced for saying anything" (39, 65-66).

Ruth H. Weir (40, 153) makes two interesting observations regarding child-language development: First that in the utterances of little children there seem to be sentence-like chunks regardless of the intelligibility of the utterance to the adult speaker. This led her to the second observation, namely, that pitch and intonation patterns may be signals perceived and that these are learned early in speech development, and perhaps occur independently of the segmental phonemes. In connection with the latter observation she writes elsewhere:
(47, 29)

"If a stimulus word or sentence with a rising intonation is given to the child for imitation, he will repeat it with just that. If a falling contour is used, the child will reproduce that just as easily."

Arlene I. Maskowitz (10, 93-94) ascribes a semantic role to intonation in early child-language. She contends that it is not so much the phoneme per se that bears the semantic value for the child, but rather

intonation (and rhythm). In other words, it is the manner in which a word is said that carries the semantic load.

To understand the point made by Arlene I. Maskowitz one needs only to consider the various meanings that might be conveyed by ascribing various intonations to the word "no". Note the following examples:

- $\bar{N}\bar{O}$: Simple negative
 $\bar{N}\acute{O}$: surprise that the reply is a negative
 $\bar{N} \dots \bar{N}\hat{O}$: negative with some reservation
 $\bar{N}\bar{O}$ (with a love laugh) : meant to be interpreted as anything but a negative.

Every day communication abounds with instances such as the ones illustrated above.

2.7 Functions of language

2.7.1 Introduction

The adult conveys different modes of thought by means of language. At times he uses language merely to assert, to state an objective fact, to convey information in which case words used are closely bound up with cognition. For example: "The weather is changing for the worse", or "Bodies fall to the ground". Language can also be used to express commands or desires, criticism or threats, in other words to arouse feelings and provoke action. For example: "Let's go", or "How horrible!" (34, 1).

Although language is used primarily to communicate thoughts to other people, yet instances are known of people who talk to themselves. We may say here that the solitary talker invokes imaginary listeners in the same way as a child can invoke imaginary play-fellows. In other words, the individual is repeating in relation to himself a form of behaviour which he originally adopted only in relation to others. In talking to himself the individual experiences sufficient pleasure and excitement to divert him from the desire to communicate his thoughts to other people (34, 2).

We elect to discuss the functions of language under the following sub-

headings: ego-centric speech, socialized speech, language as a means of expression, language and religion, language and thought, language and behaviour, language and emotions, language and cognitive development.

2.7.2 Ego-centric speech

Piaget sub-divides this type of speech into three categories viz. repetition, monologue and duel or collective monologue (34, 11-28).

2.7.2.1 Repetition

In the first years of his life a child loves to repeat the words he hears and to imitate syllables and sounds, even those of which he hardly understands the meaning.

It is not very easy to define the function of this imitation in a single formula, but from the viewpoint of behaviour E. Claparède is of the opinion that imitation is an ideomotor adaptation by means of which the child reproduces and then simulates the movements and ideas of those around him. But from the viewpoint of personality and from the social point of view, it would seem to be a confusion between the I and the not-I, between the activity of one's own body and that of other people's bodies.

It is interesting to note that often the child is not fully conscious that he is imitating, he plays the game as if it were his own creation. That is why most children when asked to repeat something they act as though they themselves have created such a thing: this makes the imitative action of the child ego-centric in the main.

2.7.2.2 Monologue

In a monologue the child talks to himself as if he were thinking aloud. He does not address anyone in particular.

To the child words are much nearer to action and movement than they are to the adult. The child seems impelled, even when he is alone, to speak as he acts, to accompany his movements with words. But what is even more fascinating about the function of language in childhood is that often the child is able to use words to bring about what action of itself is powerless to do.

The fact that the child is addressing himself makes this type of speech function only a stimulus to an action and by no means a means of communication.

2.7.2.3 Duel or Collective monologue

This form of talk is the most social of the ego-centric varieties of child language, since to the pleasure of talking it adds that of soliloquising before others and of interesting or thinking to interest them in one's own actions and one's thoughts. But the child in this case is not really talking to anyone; he is talking aloud to himself in front of others. He does not succeed in making his audience listen.

This way of behaving manifests itself in certain adults who often think aloud as though they were talking to themselves, but are conscious of their audience. Piaget refers to this as a manifestation of "a puerile disposition" which the adult has not succeeded in outgrowing.

Stones points out that later in the development of the child, ego-centric speech disappears and is replaced by inner-speech and eventually by thought. Stones continues:

"As speech becomes internalized its functions as a director of activity are internalized, so that the process of regulation started by the mother's speech and continued by the child's ego-centric speech, is replaced by control through the internal flow of meanings and concepts. These are the mechanisms of self-regulation characteristic of man" (42, 172).

2.7.3 Socialised speech (Vide 26, 67-98)

Piaget divides this type of speech into the following categories: adapted information, criticism and derision, commands, requests and threats, questions and answers.

2.7.3.1 Adapted information

The most important characteristic of adapted information is that it is successful. The child actually tries to make his hearers listen and even contrives to influence them - to tell them something.

In this case the child speaks from the point of view of his audience. The function of language is no longer merely to excite the speaker to

action, but actually to communicate his thoughts to others.

Adapted information forms the basis of a dialogue.

The major distinction between the collective monologue and the adapted information is that in the former, though there is an audience there is yet no collaboration between the speaker and the audience, while in the latter case there is definite collaboration between the two parties - there is a dialogue evoked.

2.7.3.2 Criticism and Derision

This category of speech functions as the most important type of socialized language for children.

Criticisms and derisions have the same character as adapted speech in that the remarks made are specified in relation to a given audience. They include remarks made about the work of behaviour of others.

Criticisms and derisions do not function so much in conveying thought in as much as they do in satisfying non-intellectual instincts such as pugnacity, pride, emulation etc.

It is interesting to notice that when children use this type of speech there is always more subjectivity than objectivity even where they try to give an objective criticism or judgment. They are rarely (if ever) statements of fact. They contain elements of derision and of the desire to assert personal superiority.

2.7.3.3 Commands, Requests and Threats

In most cases the child does not communicate with his fellow-beings in order to share thoughts and reflexes; he does so in order to play. The result is that the part played by intellectual interchange is reduced to a bare minimum. The rest of the language will only assist action and will consist of commands, requests and threats.

2.7.3.4 Questions and Answers

Generally speaking, most of the questions asked by children among themselves call for answers and are therefore classed as socialized speech.

Sometimes, however, a child may ask a question to which he does not expect a reply; often he supplies the answer himself!

2.7.4 Language as a means of expression

Language can also be used to express emotions and inner feelings - hate, love, desire, distress, fear, happiness and sadness, in which case it is used to serve an affective function (6, 119; 46, 85). Often such expressions are used to influence the activities of others - sparking off love, arousing desire, causing distress, inspiring fear, introducing happiness, and so forth. It is for this reason that Socio-Linguists speak of the language of love, fear, happiness, distress and so forth.

All these forms are characterised by various registers. The words used to spark off or reinforce love are not the same as those used to inspire fear; the words used in happy moments are not the same as those used in moments of distress. In many speech communities the world over, it is regarded as bad taste to joke and laugh at a funeral¹⁾ because the occasion calls for words of comfort and reassurance.

Language can also be used to express an opinion, state a fact or to acquire information, in which case the language is used to fulfil a cognitive function. In fact Humphrey (14, 264) regards thought and language as inseparable. He asserts that "certain objective experiments offer a parallel which makes it legitimate to speak of language as expressing thought".

The most important distinction between the language of emotion and the language of cognition is that the former appeals to the interlocutor's "feelings", i.e. it is emotive; while the latter appeals to the interlocutor's intellect, i.e. objective evaluation of what is conveyed.

2.7.5 Language and Religion

Language as a means of imparting knowledge and as a medium of communication bears particular significance for the Christian educator-teacher. This significance becomes even more apparent when it is borne in mind that the essence of education is closely linked with, among other things, the cultural-historical development of the community of which both the child and the educator form a part/ (29) because if we hope

¹⁾ The writer is, however, aware of certain religious sects that forbid mourning at their funerals.

to raise a balanced community, guided by true Christian morality and commitment to God as Creator, then what we communicate to the educand must have a definite Christian orientation.

In the very first Book of the Holy Bible, Genesis, Chapter 1, (11) creation is ascribed to God's uttered word. Philo actually sees this Word as "the embodiment of the divine powers which acted upon the universe; the intermediary between God and man; the interpreter of God's will to man" (12).

Thus, the Christian educator uses his word (language) to impart knowledge about the Word and so leads the child towards the highest ideal of Christian morality (Vide 15, 16).

The creative element of language first used as the Word by God and today by the educator can best be understood when contrasted with silence. Before the Word was pronounced creation could not commence; similarly before the educator speaks true pedagogical guidance cannot be fully realised.

2.7.6 Language and thought

2.7.6.1 Language and thinking

When the child is initiated into a language spoken by those around him, he is at the same time initiated into their mode of thought (26, 47). When the child's ability to think and to understand grows, a transformation in his baby-language occurs as a result of his striving to acquire and master his mother-tongue. His attempts to master the mother-tongue are constantly determined by the familiar forms of his own baby-language (26, 47-48). In other words, the child has to assimilate what is known to what has become habitual; he adapts what he has been accustomed to say to what he hears (26, 48).

The growth of the child's vocabulary of his first language is much more than a mere acquisition of words; it is a continual process of modification of the patterns of his linguistic behaviour. These patterns are related to the child's experiences.

It is clear therefore that there is a close relationship between the growth and development of language and the growth and development of thought or ability to think. As Vygotsky points out, "it would be

wrong to regard thought and speech as two unrelated processes" (45, 119).

As the child encounters new situations he contracts or expands the meanings of words. There is a constant process of progressive adaptation in which the meanings of any one speech-form tend to expand and contract under the influence of intercourse with others (26, 49). Vygotsky, like Lewis, also points out that "word-meanings develop" (45, 121).

We recognise some rudiments of conceptual thinking in children when they begin to use certain words in their baby-language to designate specific or similar objects. The fact that the child can make a specific sound when he sees, say, a dog (i.e. wow-wow) is an indication that the child has some recognitional capacity. Even when a child names an object in baby-language, a certain measure of thinking is implied because what he says is actually a vocalization of his total response to a particular situation.

As the child's mastery over language improves, he gets to know for certain that certain words used by those around him may be names of things. "This is perhaps the most powerful factor in his cognitive development, helping him towards the modes of abstract thinking current in the society in which he lives" (26,57).

Kwant succinctly summarizes the close relationship between the development of language and the development of thought when he says that the development of thought is closely linked with the development of speech; every new development in thought finds expression in the language. Accordingly, whoever seeks to control the thoughts of others must of necessity control their speech or language (21, 155; Vide 14, 245; 31, 297; 43, 164-182).

Even in inner-speech we make use of language. Inner-reflection finds expression in words. Even sign language such as the one used in mathematics is also regarded as language because it is resorted to to supplement the usual day-to-day language even though day-to-day language can be used to explain certain mathematical concepts.

2.7.6.2 Language and concept formation

Although experiments have proved that it is possible for

animals such as monkeys to solve tasks involving the use of the concept of oddity; and that deaf-mute children are able to form concepts of shape, size and colour without the aid of language, yet it is generally conceded that a child without language of any kind will have much more difficulty in forming concepts than normal children (42, 121).

R. Gagné argues that the very first step in learning a concept is probably for the child to learn the word which symbolises it through "an instrumental conditional reflex", so that the child can repeat the word at will when asked (Loc. cit.). The follow-on argument here is that the teacher should present the child with sufficient range of situations to ensure that an adequate coverage of the concept is made. In this connection language plays a very important role.

In every language there is a manipulation of symbols according to grammatical conventions which in turn makes possible the elaboration of complex relationships between things, actions, and attributes otherwise impossible. This property of language enables the child "to form concepts, to draw conclusions from accepted assumptions, to master logical connections, to cognize laws far surpassing the boundaries of direct personal experience" (42, 122).

Expressing himself in support of the existence of a relationship between language and concept formation, Sapir points out that it is only when we have the symbol (i.e. the word) that we feel that we hold the key to the immediate knowledge or understanding of the concept (38, 16-17).

2.7.7 Language and behaviour (42, 169-176)

The acquisition of conceptual thought invest man with the ability to comprehend his environment with the depth and complexity beyond the range of any other animal. This understanding of the environment (or the world) is built up through man's interaction with reality; it does not grow spontaneously. Similarly conceptual thought cut off from the real world soon becomes sterile. In other words, conceptual thought plays a role in helping man to adjust himself to his environment more effectively.

Language not only acts as the main agent of conceptual thought but also as a medium which links conceptual thought to practical activity.

Lewis refers to a case of a child who was playing on the floor. His ball was in a corner where it had lain unheeded by him all day. Then his mother said: "Baby where's ballie?" The child turned and crawled towards the ball. On the way there, he halted at the coal-box - a favourite plaything. His mother repeated the question, whereupon he resumed his journey, seized the ball and looked up at her.

This is a remarkable example of how language can regulate behaviour from the very early days of childhood. In this example the mother directed the behaviour of the child towards part of the environment which was outside his immediate centre of attention. It should be noted, however, that the action was not spontaneous, but rather a response to the language of the adult - a phenomenon to which the child has been exposed for some time. This indicates that at a certain stage of development in the human child, control by physical means gives place to control through the medium of speech.

It is interesting to notice that just as much as the adult is able to regulate and direct the action or behaviour of the child by means of language, so too is the child able to regulate the action or behaviour of the adult by means of his baby-language e.g. by crying, screaming, babbling and so forth.

By way of conclusion we may note the following steps in the regulation of the child's behaviour: first, the child is regulated physically by the adult; later, the adult is able to control the action of the child by means of language; then later still, the child understands the full meaning of words and his behaviour is regulated more by their semantic significance. And so we agree with Stones that:

"Through the medium of language and conceptual thought, man is able to regulate his behaviour according to pre-formulated strategies. The child develops from the stage where his activity is almost entirely regulated by the immediate environmental forces to a stage where he is able to plan his activity taking into consideration generalized laws about the nature of the world" (42, 176).

2.7.8 Language and emotions

When the child begins to acquire language he acquires each new word in an affective context. That is, the word will always carry with it the emotional overtones of the situation in which it was acquired. As the

significance of the word as a concept changes with the flux of experience which gives it its generalized nature, so the variety of affective tones obtaining in the circumstances in which the word is used becomes generalized (42, 123).

It is for this reason that the words of admonition or prohibition which are used by the mother to the child will carry with them a generalized emotional content of the different situations in which they are used. This also applies to the words of comfort and approval used in other situations. The word will also have the power of evoking not only the objective generalized notion of the class of things to which it refers, but will also carry with it the affective associations of those phenomena (42, 123-124).

Thouless, R.H. points out that words such as coward, hero, patriot, filthy, convey both information and affect. The politician and the demagogue usually use words "which convey little information but much affect" (42, 124).

Lewis points out that from the outset heard adult speech comes to the child steeped in affective quality. In the first month adult speech soothes him; a month later it actually makes him smile. This affective character of speech remains with the child throughout his development to adulthood. Löwenfeld endorses Lewis' standpoint and goes on to assert that as early as the fourth month the child already shows differentiation of response according to the affective quality of sound - a pleasant sound arouses a positive response while an unpleasant sound arouses a negative response (25, 43-45).

The emotional quality of language not only influences the manner in which certain propositions are made, but also the manner in which such propositions are interpreted. Language does not only evolve emotions, but also expresses them (44, 36).

2.7.9 Language and cognitive development

The relation between the development of language and cognitive development can best be understood when it is borne in mind that as the child grows^s older he moves from the limited childhood environment of his home into a wider more complex environment of his community and of society as a whole. In this connection Lewis points out that the

child's cognitive development is not only subject to the same social influences (26, 168).

At this stage of development the child not only shares his experience with other children but also begins to see the necessity to follow adult guidance and to seek help from adults when in difficulties. These factors in turn combine with natural maturation of cognitive abilities to produce certain forms of reasoning which are mainly in harmony with his environment. To meet the needs of this new enlarged world, the child requires, in addition to his erstwhile child-language, the language of the adult, the language of the school, the language of his group and even the language of his sex (26, 170).

Accordingly his vocabulary extends and his use of words becomes more discriminative and more precise in cognitive reference. His relation with adults becomes even more precisely defined while his personal identity also emerges more precisely and more clearly defined.

Lewis observes that at this stage of development the force of attraction towards adult-language is evident in characteristic eagerness and desire to show greater familiarity with adult vocabulary including locutions which often characterise adult speech (Loc. cit.).

A significant point to note here is that just as the adult uses language as a mode of thinking, particularly abstract thinking, the child also gradually develops towards that level. Lewis points out that where a child's elders are not given to abstract thinking and do not often use language that symbolises thinking of this kind, the child's progress towards abstract thinking may be slowed down (26, 170-171).

Basil Bernstein also points out the existence of a correlation between poor performance and linguistic inadequacy in the lower working-class in the U.S.A. He also observed "the difficulty of sustaining and eliciting adequate communication" (8, 91). Likewise Nesbet also observed that "linguistic limitation affected in some way general cognitive impoverishment" (Loc. cit.). Mitchell goes further to state that "the verbal meaning and fluency scores for the low status children could be used to predict their scores on a range of different factors" (Loc. cit.).

No wonder John Carroll feels that "the teaching of words and their

meanings and concepts they designate or convey, is one of the principal tasks of teachers at all levels of education" (8, 219). This becomes even more significant when we see the problem as H. Werner and E. Kaplan see it, i.e. that the child learns the meaning of the word in two ways: one way is direct and explicit - the adult names a thing or defines a word for the child; the other way is indirect and implicit - through experience with concrete and or verbal context (Loc. cit.).

The foregoing bears out the fact that there is a close relationship between normal cognitive development and the development of language. Where, due to economic and social factors, the parent-child and or teacher-child linguistic interaction is limited to a certain level, the child's cognitive development is likewise impaired or limited to that level.

2.8 Conclusion

Barring the uncertainty as to the historical origin of language, the relevance of the above discussion to our overall study cannot be disputed. If language as a mode of communication is species uniform and species specific (as we have indicated above) then the acquisition of a language, whether first or second, is within the ability of every normal human being. This implies that, all being equal, our efforts to teach English as a second language to North Sotho-speaking children stand a very good chance of success. In other words, we maintain that language capacity is inborn and therefore all languages can be learned.

Furthermore, the discussion refers to a critical age - the onset of puberty and adolescence - at which the ability to acquire native-like control over the phonological system of a second language by regular exposure (including classroom exposure) tends to ebb. This observation is very important for purposes of our study, since the subjects we intend using are all above the critical age and, therefore, regular exposure to oral English will not do for our purpose. The only way out, therefore, will be to resort to some kind of drill work if any aberrancies in the subjects' oral English are apparent. But whether it will be possible for us to achieve authentic English pronunciation among our North Sotho-speaking research subjects, who in all probability have been exposed to non-standard pronunciation and intonation for at least ten years of formal schooling, remains a moot question at this

stage. We might, for practical purposes, have to settle for intelligibility and social acceptability in oral performance rather than native-like authenticity. This will then enable us to focus on controlling "bad pronunciation" rather than on accent. Our rationale will then be: accent does not necessarily impair communicativity and it is not necessarily socially unacceptable¹⁾ while "bad pronunciation" usually does affect communicativity and is normally socially unacceptable among native speakers of the target language. This rationale will in turn enable us to establish a criterion on the basis of which we will be able to evaluate the performance of our subjects before and after the administration of whatever drill lessons may be necessary.

The above exposition also reveals what might seem to be a serious gap in our investigation of language development in children - that hardly anything has been said about the acquisition and development of language among North Sotho-speaking children. The reason for this gap is that as far as we have been able to establish, this area has never been researched. This is to be regretted, but studies such as the one we are busy on at the moment could herald a new future in this area. Fortunately, it has been adequately proved that stages in language acquisition and language development are basically the same for all children irrespective of nationality. Dan Slobin provides samples of two-word sentences generated by children from six language groups to support this standpoint. The following table²⁾ illustrates this:
(39, 44-45)

1) Americans for example do not seem to be particularly unhappy with Dr. Henry Kissinger's heavy foreign accent because his ability to communicate through Standard American English is not impaired by such an accent.

2) The table is reproduced only in part since our aim is merely to show that irrespective of the child's nationality, his language acquisition follows a certain (almost) fixed pattern of development.

TABLE 1: SAMPLES OF UTTERANCES GENERATED BY CHILDREN FROM SIX LANGUAGE GROUPS

LANGUAGES						
FUNCTION OF UTTERANCE	ENGLISH	GERMAN	RUSSIAN	FINNISH	LUO	SAMOA
Locate, Name	there book that car see doggie	buch da [book there] gukuk wauwau [see doggie]	Tosya tam [Tosya there]	tuossa Rina [there Rina] vettä siinä [water there]	en saa [it clock] ma wendo [this visitor]	Keith lea [Keith there]
Demand, desire	more milk give candy want gum	mehr milch [more milk] bitte apfel [please apple]	yeshchë moloko [more milk] day chasy [give watch]	anna Rina [give Rina]	miya tamtam [give candy] adway cham [I-want food]	mai pepe [give doll] fia moe [want sleep]
Negate	no wet no wash not hungry allgone milk	nicht blasen [not blow] kaffee nein [coffee no]	Vody net [water no] gus' tyu-tyu [goose gone]	ei susi [not wolf] enää pipi [anymore sore]	beda onge [my-slasher absent]	le'ai [not eat] uma mea [allgone thing]
Describe event or situation	Bambi go mail come hit ball block fall baby highchair	Puppe kommt [doll comes] tiktak hängt [clock hangs] sofa sitzen [sofa sit]	mama prua [mama walk] papa bay-bay [papa sleep] korka upala [crust fell]	Seppo putoo [seppo fall] talli 'bm-bm' [garage car]	chungu biro [European comes] odhi skul [he-went school] omoyo oduma [she-dries maize]	pa'u pepe [fall doll] tapele'oe [hit you] tu'u lalo [put down]

The functions of language are also of particular interest to us because, as we have already indicated under 2.1 above, it is through the various uses of language that the educator and the educand are able to establish a pedagogical relationship which makes education and teaching possible.

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Chapter 3

TEACHING ENGLISH IN BLACK SCHOOLS

A BRIEF HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

3.1 Introduction

Historically, English both as a language and as a medium of instruction, has enjoyed a key position in Black education. When education for Blacks was initiated in 1799 the pioneer teachers were in the main Christian missionaries who were predominantly English-speaking. These Christian missionary-teachers could not but bring their language and culture to bear on the curriculum for Black schools (13, 89). So strong was the influence of English in these schools that even the grammar of African languages was often taught through the medium of English. Even today, studies in African languages at University level - including Black universities - are still conducted mainly through the medium of English, though lately Afrikaans is also being used.

3.2 Past observation3.2.1 English as subject

The very critical role which English was assigned to play in Black education was made clear in 1841 in a memorandum setting out conditions upon which allowances were to be granted from the Colonial Treasury in aid of mission and certain other schools not on the Government establishment. It was stipulated that the English language should form a branch of instruction in all schools thus aided and, where practicable, English should be used as the colloquial language of the school (19, 146).

To meet this requirement teachers engaged in Black education not only used English as medium of instruction, but also studied it as a language. In fact they devoted "a great part of their energies to the instruction of English as a language" (6a, par. 33).

English was seen as having the same educational value for the Black child as the classical languages had for the White child. In this connection E.H. Brookes stated that English gave the Black child "the

breadth and sweep of culture" which the classical languages gave to the White child (1, 65-66). Where a choice was to be made between English and the Classical language, Lovedale Institution felt that the latter could be sacrificed if they stood on the way of the pupils' acquiring a thorough understanding of English (16, 160).

Generally, it was felt that English formed the link between Africa and the rest of the world and contained the "complex heritage of European civilization" which had to be preserved and disseminated in Africa (1, 67-68). No wonder it was felt as early as 1925 that the Department of Public Education in the Cape Province "could not afford" to lower the standard of English by giving preference and prominence to the Vernacular of the pupils (3d, 56).

Although English was given such great prominence in Black education, a study of various reports on Black education reveals that English language teaching has been and still is a problem to reckon with. We refer hereunder to few such reports:

In 1913 J.E. Adamson, an Inspector of Education in the Transvaal, reported as follows:

"Turning to language as such, it may be said of English that the standard of attainment reached, whether in speech or writing, is far below what one would like to see" (41, 29).

The Inspector was of the opinion that those responsible for the teaching of English "have signally failed to meet expectations" (Loc. cit.).

In 1920 N.D. Achterberg, then Inspector of Native Education in the Transvaal, ascribed the problem of poor performance in English both as a language and as medium of instruction to a possible over-hastiness on the part of teachers to introduce it in the curriculum. As a result of this, it was found that in most cases "pupils acquired a very superficial knowledge" of several subjects of instruction and of English as a language (4b, 192). In the same year two other Inspectors of Native Education, viz. J.C. Johns (Loc. cit.) and R.W. Swartbreck (41, 195-196), expressed concern over the pupils' inability to express themselves coherently in English and ascribed this to ineffective teaching methods and techniques. Swartbreck singled out certain serious mispronunciations as the most disconcerting. He said:

"The absence of the short English 'i' sound in Sotho converts 'little' to 'leettle' and confuses 'fit' with 'feet'..... In most cases the mistakes on the part of the children are but a reflection of the teacher's own pronunciation" (Loc, cit.).

Between the years 1924 and 1933 Inspectors Achterberg (4c, 180), Johns (4d, 114) and G.H. Franz (4f, 119) still reported reading in English as weak and tending to be mechanical; that very little notice was taken of punctuation marks while intonation was practically absent; speech was "very poor" and the importance of extensive reading of English works was not sufficiently stressed.

In the Cape Province the problem was equally serious, so much that as early as 1893 W.M. Milne, an Inspector of Education in that Province, after observing that reading in Black schools was "very deficient, with sentences glibly rattled off without the pupils' knowing the meaning of one word" felt that "some other method of teaching English" was urgently needed (3a, XX).

In 1897, W.G. Bennie, another Inspector of Education in the Cape Province, expressed grave concern over the teachers' apparent unawareness of the significance of "deliberate and clear enunciation" in English language teaching in Black schools and the extent to which reading and recitations could be used as agencies in eradicating habitual mispronunciations (3b, 8a). This problem was aggravated by the fact that "in some cases the teacher's own reading was very faulty" (Loc. cit.).

Although Inspector F. Howe Ely (3c, 38a) was of the opinion that the problem could be alleviated somewhat if teachers occasionally exercised their pupils in reading at sight from a book not in ordinary use in the school, Inspector Oscar J.S. Satchel (3c, 183a) was not so optimistic. He felt that

"... for the Native mission schools the ideal Reader is still to be produced; it should deal with subjects that appeal to the Native mind ..."

He stressed the futility of prescribing works dealing with subjects about which neither the teacher nor the pupil had any rational ideas (Loc. cit.).

In Natal, Dr. C.T. Loram then Chief Inspector of Native Education in

that Province, after observing that the standard of English in Black schools was unsatisfactory, proceeded to pinpoint the following areas of difficulty (5a, 47):

- a. That the pronunciation of English was often slipshod and non-melodious. He ascribed this to the fact that English teaching in Black schools was done by non-English speakers whose English was often essentially aberrant. To cope with this problem Loram recommended that prospective teacher-trainees be admitted on the basis of high proficiency in English, especially oral English. He also recommended that the teacher-training programme itself should include training in oral English.
- b. Much energy was spent on formal grammar without at the same time stressing actual English language usage. The result was that very few pupils could actually communicate in English. The Chief Inspector was, however, pleased with the introduction of modern English manuals which were to replace the traditional grammar books since the former, unlike the latter, emphasised "the correct and copious use of the language".

Loram also observed, perhaps not quite fairly, that as regards the comprehension of English, tests had proved that the ability to understand English of the Black pupil in standard VI was equal to that of a White pupil (English) in standard IV. What renders the last observation incorrect and unfair is that a language acquired at mother's knee provides the primary mode of communication for the greater part of the speaker's waking hours, while with a second language it is rarely so. This difference obviously accounted for the better performance in English by L1 speakers of that language when compared with Blacks who were learning English as L2.

Loram observed that Black pupils were not always keen to use readers that were of a lower standard of difficulty, even though attempts were being made to introduce such easier texts.

Traditionally Blacks have always been very sensitive about standards in education and the use of English has always been regarded as a safeguard against the lowering of the standard of education generally. In fact G.H. Franz, an Inspector of Education in the Transvaal, reported in 1931 that "efforts to introduce mother-tongue as medium

of instruction aroused violent opposition on the part of the parents" (4e, 115). Indeed even Whites regarded a decline in the standard of English as indicative of the decline in the standard of education as a whole in Black schools. An example of this viewpoint was revealed by the Natal Chief Inspector of Native Education, D. Mck Malcolm, when he endorsed a report by Inspector Spargo regarding the decline in the ability to teach English and the possible adverse effect of this on the overall standard of education and teaching in Black schools (5b, 63-64).

Although the observations of these two Inspectors may seem somewhat exaggerated, a closer look may reveal some truth in them; for it is hardly deniable that the greater the teacher's ability to communicate (teach) through the medium of a particular language, the greater are his chances of conveying forcefully and clearly his ideas to the class. For the same reason, the greater the proficiency of the learner in the language used as medium of instruction, the greater the chances of that learner performing effectively through the medium of that language.

Furthermore, it is hardly deniable that every subject has its own vocabulary - its own grammar. This implies that ability to grasp and reproduce ideas of a particular subject calls for a familiarity with the grammar of the subject at issue. But since grammar must of necessity belong to a particular language, mastery of that language is a prerequisite if it is to function effectively as a medium of teaching. The Interdepartmental Committee on Native Education, 1935 - 1936 (6a, par. 484)¹⁾ actually regarded it as a "very serious handicap" for a child to be taught through a "poorly understood medium". Put in other words, there must be a reasonable balance between the student's receiving/comprehension vocabulary and his reproduction vocabulary if he is to benefit from instruction provided through the medium of any given language. Where a second language is involved, the problem is even more serious.

3.2.2 English as medium of instruction

Although certain missionary societies were not against the use of indigenous languages as media of instruction in the primary school of their Black converts, the general pattern was to switch over to the

¹⁾ Vide 15, 82.

use of a second language - usually English - at a later stage in the education of the Black pupils (2, 135 - 136).

The Interdepartmental Committee on Native Education, 1935 - 1936 reported that between 1864 and 1920 there was practically no difference between the courses prescribed for White children and those prescribed for Black children. The Commission also observed that in practice language difficulties together with the comparatively poor qualifications of the Black teachers at the time brought about considerable difference in actual performance between White and Black pupils (6a, par. 32).

Both Chief Inspectors W.G. Bennie (3e, 84) and G.H. Welsh (3f, 38) reported that although Black teachers had the option to use the Vernacular as medium of instruction, many preferred and used English instead. In certain cases the teaching of the Vernacular as a subject was even neglected. Welsh gave the following viewpoint regarding this tendency:

"The origin of this tendency is not far to seek. The official language was long and still is regarded as the key to knowledge and power, the Vernacular as something already known, not requiring study and worthy only of that more or less benevolent contempt which is bred of familiarity. The process of instilling sounder educational doctrines into the masses of teachers is a slow one and conservatism, as always, dies hard particularly in a race who, as yet, have not felt the urge of selfconscious nationalism driving them to struggle for rather than against, their mother tongue" (Loc. cit.).

It is interesting to observe that even today many Black intelligentsia and parents regard the standard of education as high if instruction is through the medium of English. Later in this Chapter a more detailed exposition of the problem of medium of instruction in Black education will be given.

3.3 Present-day arrangement

3.3.1 English as subject

3.3.1.1 In the nursery school

In many Black nursery schools throughout the Republic of South Africa

toddlers get their first smattering of the English language. This usually takes the form of ditties, especially those accompanying certain games.

Well-known children's prayers (or portions thereof) such as "Father we thank Thee for the night ..." are often taught to Black children at the nursery school. Such prayers are often sung rather than said. Nursery rhymes have always formed part and parcel of nursery school teaching in Black education.

Isolated English words such as ball, game, win, lose, tin, green-grass, sand, concrete, baby, mammy, daddy, table, chair, floor and so forth, form part and parcel of the Black child's vocabulary at nursery school level.

The reason for all this is that a nursery school is essentially a Western idea of caring for pre-school children and it is often seen as a step towards actual schooling. In certain urban areas children who attended nursery school are preferred for registration in the Sub-Standard A class.

We must hasten to point out, however, that save for the children's prayers and the isolated English words which are randomly scattered within the Vernacular sentences, the toddlers do not always seem to have full comprehension of the content of what they are reciting. Be that as it may, what interests us at this stage of our discussion is that the Black child is introduced to English as a language as early as the nursery school level.

3.3.1.2 In the primary school

The syllabuses of the Department of Bantu Education for both the lower and the higher primary school courses make provision for the teaching of English as a subject.

The syllabus for the lower primary school course stipulates the following as the primary aim of teaching English at this stage in the education of the Black child:

- a. To understand the spoken language (English) fairly well;
- b. to speak simple English with some confidence;

- c. to read English with some understanding;
- d. to write simple acceptable English;
- e. to arouse the pupils' interest in English to such an extent that he will strive to extend his knowledge of the language;
- f. to enable the pupil to read simple stories and books for pleasure (18a, 16).

To attain the above objectives, teachers are encouraged to put great emphasis on the spoken language i.e. to apply the Oral-Aural Approach, avoiding the Vernacular as much as possible during the English lesson. Teaching aids, including informal dramatizations, are to be employed to render teaching even more effective.

Oral work supplemented by reading aloud is also emphasised in the syllabus. The primary purpose of this is to encourage the pupil, in addition to classroom reading, to read other simple stories and books, including children's newspapers and the like.

Memorisation and recitation of simple poems is also emphasised with a view to developing good taste and to encourage them to learn to appreciate and understand simple English poetry.

Grammar is to be taught largely informally, finding the bulk of its matter from the living language encountered during oral lessons, reading and reciting. Grammar is to be taught only in as far as it helps the pupils to eliminate language errors and to cultivate correct language habits (18a, 16-17).

Essentially the higher primary school syllabus is similar to that of the lower primary school course except that in the former more information relating to English language use is to be given to the pupils. For example, pupils are expected to memorise at least fifty lines of poetry in addition to having practice in the presentation of short dialogues some of which may be memorised (18b, 31).

Pupils are also encouraged to discuss what they have read in addition to their having to pay special attention to pronunciation and intonation in their speech (18b, 32-40).

3.3.1.3 In the post-primary school

3.3.1.3.1 In Forms I and II (18c, 33-45, 17d, 33-45)

In terms of scope, the new syllabuses for Forms I and II are similar. It is for this reason that we have decided to couple them for purposes of discussion.

The syllabuses for Forms I and II stipulate the following as the aims of teaching English at this level:

- a. To develop the pupil's understanding of the spoken and the written word in English;
- b. to improve his ability to speak English;
- c. to encourage the reading of English material for pleasure and profit;
- d. to train pupils in the use of the library and its resources;
- e. to promote steady improvement in his ability to write acceptable English;
- f. to extend his knowledge of English language structure and usage, but only in so far as this is needed to achieve the degree of fluency and confidence in the use of the spoken and written English which he may reasonably be expected to achieve at the Junior Secondary level.

The syllabuses for Forms I and II are designed in such a way that they consolidate and extend the work done in the primary school. The reason for this is to equip the pupils with sufficient knowledge of English to enable them to cope with the more exacting syllabuses of the Senior Secondary courses.

As a starting-point therefore, the Forms I and II teacher of English must seek to identify fundamental weaknesses in the pupils' written and spoken language and prepare remedial programmes to control such weaknesses. Since English is also used as medium of instruction, the syllabuses make provision for the assistance of the English teacher by other teachers in the school who teach through the medium of English.

The English teacher is also advised to refer to other content subjects in his teaching.

Like the primary school syllabus, the junior secondary school syllabuses regard oral work as of primary importance and therefore insist on the use of the Aural-Oral Approach. Lessons in oral work must focus on the expansion of vocabulary paying special attention to acceptable colloquial expressions including contractions such as can't, I'll, we're and so forth, which are quite appropriate for informal conversation. Attention must also be given to pronunciation of English sounds; also to the importance of intonation, enunciation, stress, rhythm and word-grouping in every-day speech.

Since most of the English teachers in Black schools are non-native speakers of English, the syllabuses encourage the use of teaching aids such as the gramophone and the tape recorder with language records and tutor tapes to ensure that the pupil is exposed to acceptable English provided by a model speaker of that language.

The syllabuses also make provision for the study of English literature - poetry and prose. The primary aim of this area of the syllabuses is "to introduce the pupil to the rich heritage of English literature and to develop good taste in reading matter". The syllabuses make it very clear that the teacher must at all times "resist the temptation to confine his class to the reading of the prescribed books only" least of all to "the study of the few threadbare specimens of English verse which have been handed down from generation to generation since our schools were first established". Instead, the English teacher must constantly seek new material to meet the pupil's growing and diversifying tastes and interests.

The syllabuses also stress that literature should be used as an aid to oral expression. Therefore, recitations must be taught in such a way that they enable the pupils to make use of diction, modulation, stress and rhythm to bring out and appreciate the mood of the poem as reflecting the emotion that prompted the poet to produce the lines that he had produced.

As regards reading, the syllabuses lay down that at this level emphasis should gradually shift from reading aloud to silent reading and from the progressive development of mechanical reading ability to rapid

comprehension. To meet these stipulations the syllabuses make provision for the use of graded supplementary readers, library books and children's magazines in addition to the class readers or prescribed books.

Teachers of English are allowed reasonable latitude within the broad frame-work of the syllabuses to adapt the material to suit specific instances - urban communities, rural communities, age, rate of progress in the mastery of English and so forth.

3.3.1.3.2 In Form II/ (18e)

The syllabus for Form III stipulates the following as the aim of teaching English at this level:

- a. To teach the pupil to express himself acceptably and clearly in spoken and written English, and to enable him to use English with increasing ability and assurance;
- b. to interest the pupil in English literature so that he will read English books of his own accord and develop a sense of discrimination in his reading;
- c. to familiarise the pupil with English usage;
- d. to make the pupil aware of the importance of English to him as a key to knowledge and communication.

According to the new arrangement in Black education, Form III is the first year of the senior secondary school course. Accordingly the English teacher in Form III has the responsibility of ensuring that the work that should have been covered in the junior secondary school has in fact been adequately covered and also to equip his class with adequate background to enable it to move into the senior secondary work with a reasonable chance of success.

The English teacher is expected to keep a steady watch on the performance of his pupils so that if the school desires to enter certain pupils for English on the higher grade in Forms IV and V, he should be in a position to make the necessary recommendation. The Form III syllabus itself, is not divided into lower and higher grades, but it is designed to prepare pupils for either grades in the next two years of the senior secondary school.

In terms of areas of study, the Form III syllabus is the same as those of Forms I and II - it covers oral work, reading, comprehension and language study and written work. The difference is that at this level more intensive work is to be done in oral communication, intensive and extensive reading, choice of words in written English and over all better control of the English syntax.

3.3.1.3.3 In Forms IV and V

The National Senior Certificate makes provision for English higher grade and English standard grade. The syllabus for English standard grade has the following as its aim:

- a. To teach the pupil to express himself correctly and clearly in spoken and written English, and to enable him to use English with increasing ability and assurance;
- b. to interest the pupil in English literature so that he will read English books of his own accord and develop a sense of discrimination in his reading;
- c. to familiarise the pupil with English usage;
- d. to make the pupil aware of the importance of English to him as a key to knowledge and communication in South Africa and in the world (18f).

As with the case of Form III, the Forms IV and V syllabuses are set out under four headings viz, oral work, written work, reading and comprehension and language study.

Lessons in oral work are centred on oral compositions, reading, singing, discussions, speeches, debates and dramatic activities. In all these lessons emphasis falls on clear articulation, acceptable pronunciation and appropriate word choice.

Lessons in written work include compositions of a descriptive, expository, dialogue and report nature as well as the different types of letters. Topics chosen should encourage imaginative and disciplined writing and may be based on certain prescribed works.

Reading includes prescribed works, at least six works selected from the Departmental Reading List to be read privately by the pupil and controlled

by the teacher and some "controlled 'quick-reading' of suitable and stimulating material leading to discussions in class" (18f, 5).

Comprehension and language study focus on the understanding and correct usage of English syntax.

The syllabus for English higher grade stipulates the following as the aim of teaching English in Forms IV and V:

- a. General aim: To promote the pupil's intellectual, emotional and social development (18g, 4).
- b. Specific aims:
 1. To increase the pupil's capacity to observe, to discriminate, to see relationships, to order his thoughts coherently by providing opportunity and motivation for such activities, and by offering such help and constructive criticism as may be necessary;
 2. to help the pupil to understand himself and his own emotional and moral responses, so that he may live more fully and consciously and responsibly: by encouraging observation and discussion of states of mind, of emotional reactions and of moral values, particularly in the context of literature; by encouraging the exploration, through speech, writing and dramatic expression, of his own feelings and states of mind;
 3. to extend, through increasing his capacity to communicate with others, the pupil's mental and emotional world: by stimulating discussions in the classroom, by encouraging receptive and responsible listening, and by fostering critical enjoyment of plays, films, radio, and television programmes (18g, 4-5).

In terms of lay-out and scope the area to be covered for English higher grade is the same as that for the standard grade save that in the former emphasis falls on deeper knowledge of literary appreciation and criticism as well as greater control of the English syntax. Unlike in the case of the standard grade "the examining of content in unimportant detail should be avoided" (18g, 7-8).

It will not be necessary to discuss the English syllabus for the Joint

Matriculation Board (Standards 8, 9 and 10)¹⁾ because, according to an addendum added to the syllabus in 1973, there is no difference whatsoever between that syllabus and the National Senior Certificate for both English higher grade and English standard grade (181, 36-45). Besides, there are only ten high schools in Black education taking the Joint Matriculation Board examination as compared to two hundred and three taking the National Senior Certificate examinations²⁾.

3.3.1.4 Comment

It is important to note even at this stage that the English syllabuses for Black education are based on universal principles for language programmes, viz. great emphasis is put on oral communication, ability to write the language using the idiom of the native speakers and ability to read material written in that language.

If the performance of Black pupils is not as good as it should be, the reason for the problem should be looked for elsewhere but not in the scope and form of the syllabuses. Later in this chapter we shall comment in some detail on this issue.

3.3.2 English as medium of instruction

In the past many Black parents held the view that English, rather than the Vernacular, was a better medium of instruction for their children (Vide supra B 2). This viewpoint still prevails. We provide hereunder evidence of this as articulated by Black leaders and Black intelligentsia in recent times.

One of the first decisions made by the Transkeian Legislative Assembly after its institution in 1963 was that an official language was to be used as medium of instruction from standard II upwards. "The choice of language was left to the local committees and, without exception, English was chosen throughout" (9, 4).

In April 1973 Chief Gatsha Buthelezi, Chief Councillor of KwaZulu was reported in the Sunday Times as having said:

1) At the time of writing, Grades in English were under review. See circular letter of 14th April, 1976 sent to universities.

2) Information provided by Dr. K.B. Hartshorne, Director of Planning, Department of Bantu Education at the time of writing.

"But I would like to say that my Government will introduce legislation next month which will make English the medium of education from standard II upward in KwaZulu. It seems logical to me that Zulus living in, say, Soweto, will have to come under this legislation because it will be illogical that Zulus in the urban areas should vote in KwaZulu elections, but not come under legislation passed in KwaZulu" (17).

Commenting in the same article Mrs. C. Taylor of the United Party was reported as having said:

"African parents should be able to choose the medium through which they wanted their children to be taught. If they want English, fine. If they want their children to be taught in the Vernacular that, too, should be their free choice" (Loc. cit.).

At the time of writing Homeland leaders had opted as follows:

- a. Gazankulu, KwaZulu and Lebowa: half the subjects to be taught through the medium of English as from standard III upwards.
- b. Transkei: Only two subjects to be taught through the medium of Xhosa as from standard III upwards; the rest to be taught through the medium of English.
- c. Bophuthatswana, Caprivi, Ciskei and Vandaland: English to be used exclusively as medium of instruction as from standard V upwards.
- d. Qwaqwa: English and Afrikaans to be used as parallel media of instruction on a 50-50 basis as from standard V upwards.
- e. South West Africa: Afrikaans to be used as medium of instruction in Kovango from standard III upwards and from standard V upwards in Owambo¹⁾.

It is important to note that of all the ^hHomelands mentioned above only KwaZulu and the Ciskei have set up their own in-service training centres at which English is probably one of the important areas attended to. As far as Dr. K.B. Hartshorne is aware "no specific approaches have been

¹⁾ Information provided by Dr. K.B. Hartshorne at the time of writing.

made to the Central Department by the other Homelands", but as long as courses are offered at the In-Service Training Centre in Mamelodi, Homelands will be allowed to attend as in the past.

In a memorandum signed by its Secretary-General, Mr H.H. Dlamlenze, the powerful African Teachers' Association of South Africa (ATASA) which represents all Black teachers in the Republic of South Africa expressed itself as follows:

- a. In all subjects except Afrikaans, the Mother-tongue and religious education the language of instruction should be English from standard III to Senior Certificate.
- b. Afrikaans should be a concurrent compulsory subject up to Senior Certificate.
- c. For the Black pupil English is best because:
 1. it is a language used internationally for commercial, intellectual and artistic communication;
 2. books and other publications in English are a store-house of ideas and knowledge larger than in any other language;
 3. English is the lingua franca of all people - Black and White in Southern Africa;
 4. as Homeland Governments have already chosen English as the language of instruction, English will obviously be important to Black pupils as future citizens of these Homelands;
 5. because English is the lingua franca and because it is the main language of the Black Press, Black pupils find it easier to understand and communicate in English than in Afrikaans (20).

The words of Dr. W.W.M. Eiselen, who was the first Commissioner-General for the North Sotho national group, seem to summarise the sentiments of many Blacks as regards the position of English in their schools. He writes:

"It is inconceivable that English which has been regarded as practically synonymous with education and development from time immemorial should be discarded" (7; vide 8, 91-92).

To summarize: It seems quite clear from the above exposition that notwithstanding pedagogical and didactical problems involved in the use of a second language as a medium of instruction Black parents, teachers and leaders would rather have their children taught through the medium of English at least from standard III upwards. The directive of the Department of Education that in urban areas either English or Afrikaans be preferred as medium of instruction depending on the language of the predominant White group in the neighbourhood (12) does not offer any solution from a didactical point of view.

Hartshorne (9) rightly warns of the problems that lie ahead for the Black teachers and pupils in the choice of English as medium of teaching. He points out that if the teachers who are to use English as medium of instruction from standard III upwards were native speakers of English, then the learner's ability to function within that language would be standing a good chance of improvement; but as it is "this is not the case: they are Bantu teachers using English as a second language, who often have themselves limited resources in that language and in the process re-inforce non-standard forms of English in their pupils".

In the light of this warning, concentrated effort will have to be made to improve both the teachers' and the pupils' control of English. Since much time in the classroom is spent in oral communication, oral English will need special attention. This thesis hopes to make a contribution in this direction.

3.3.3 English and Afrikaans in Black education

English and Afrikaans are twin official languages and feature both as subjects and as media of instruction in Black education. Of the two languages, however, English was the first to enter into Black education. In a paper read in 1973 the present writer gave the following reasons for this situation (12):

- a. Most of the missionary teachers who worked in Black education in its initial stages were English-speaking and therefore could not help giving prominence to their language in their teaching.
- b. The aim of the missionary teacher was not only to evangelize but also to Westernize the African convert; this endeavour could

hardly be attained without involving and giving prominence to the language of the tutor, which, as we have seen, was in the main English.

- c. Many Blacks were introduced to the Western concept of Education through the agency of the English language and as a result many of them naturally came to associate formal classroom instruction and education generally with the English language.
- d. The bulk of reading material that is available to Blacks appeared (and still does) mainly in English and this obviously tipped the scale in favour of the English language.
- e. English is currently the most commonly known (and used) international mode of communication among Blacks and their preference for it is therefore, quite understandable.
- f. Afrikaans is comparatively a newcomer in Black education. In the Cape Province and in Natal very little, and in some instances no Afrikaans was taught as a subject in Black schools prior to 1955. It was not until 1937 that Afrikaans found its way into the curriculum of teacher-training institutions in the Transvaal. Only in the Orange Free State was there a satisfactory balance between English and Afrikaans by 1955 (Vide 9).

A distribution of enrolment and performance as between English and Afrikaans also reveals that English is more entrenched in Black schools when compared with Afrikaans. For example, in the 1971 external examinations, of the 500 candidates who wrote English Higher Grade 74,4% passed with an average mark of 50% in the Joint Matriculation Board examinations and 41% in the National Senior Certificate examinations. Of the 3 045 who wrote English Lower Grade 96,5 passed. The J.M.B. average mark was 47,0% while that of the National Senior Certificate was 45,8%. In Afrikaans Lower Grade, taken by all but 12 Black candidates who wrote the Higher Grade, 70,6 passed with average marks of 35,6% and 36,0% respectively in the two examinations. "You will notice that this indicates a general lower level of attainment in Afrikaans than in English" (9, 3).

It is noteworthy that whereas 500 candidates set for English Higher Grade only 12 set for Afrikaans Higher Grade; and of the former 74,4% passed.

The writer is fully aware that statistics provided above in support of his observation regarding Afrikaans and English in Black education cannot be regarded as completely reliable from a scientific point of view, since there is no guarantee that all papers were scored with the same degree of objectivity with all possible variables taken into account and duly controlled at the time of testing; yet, for practical purposes of providing a global picture of the situation, they are quite useful¹⁾.

Further statistical evidence in support of the entrenched position of English as against Afrikaans in Black schools is given in the Bantu Education Journal of September 1970. In 1970 there were 21 872 Forms I - V pupils who took English on the Higher Grade as against 2 260 who took Afrikaans on the Higher Grade - a difference of about 19 612 in favour of English.

The use of English and Afrikaans as parallel media of instruction in Black schools situated in urban areas is at the time of writing this thesis, a serious bone of contention between schools and parents on the one hand and the Central Department of Bantu Education on the other.

In its issue of April 21, 1976 the Rand Daily Mail (Inside Mail) reported under the heading: "Language burden on too few teachers" that Black schools situated in urban areas were reluctant "to have important subjects like mathematics and physical science taught in the medium of Afrikaans". The main reason for this reluctance was that "there are no African teachers proficient in teaching these subjects in Afrikaans". The newly-appointed Deputy Minister of Bantu Education, on the other hand, is reported in the same issue of the Mail as having said that "Afrikaans was used as medium of instruction in the 'interest' of Africans". He however, stressed that both official languages must be given equal treatment.

Amid all these arguments, Mr. M.A.H. Engelbrecht a senior official in the Education Department issued the following statement as representing official policy at this point in time:

1) From practical experience, the writer is aware of the great efforts that examiners and sub-examiners make to achieve reasonable objectivity in scoring language papers; sub-examiners are provided with marking memoranda and their scoring is constantly checked and controlled by senior sub-examiners.

"For the past 20 years the policy has been that the vernacular should be the medium of instruction in all primary education and that English and Afrikaans should be on a 50-50 basis in the secondary education. This policy remains unchanged" (Loc. cit.).

3.3.4 Some comments on performance in English

Undoubtedly the syllabuses suggested by the Department of Bantu Education, the Joint Matriculation Board and the National Senior Certificate are of a very high standard. But some observers have pointed out, however, that the actual performance of pupils in English is not commensurate with the high ideals envisaged by those who framed the syllabuses.

Hartshorne, for example, expressed himself as follows about the English syllabuses and the actual performance of Black pupils:

"Good as the intentions of the syllabuses are, in practice the limitations of the teachers lead to much formal teaching about language and to the development of much that is non-standard both in speech and in usage" (10, 67).

Hartshorne points out further that although the syllabuses purport to cultivate reading habits in Black pupils in practice "little use is made of supplementary reading material and library books except in a minority of schools" where young teachers are making a concerted effort to meet the requirements of the syllabus (Loc. cit.). A concomitant to this shortcoming is that when the pupil leaves the primary school his competence in reading aloud from the standard VI reader is satisfactory, but he has too little experience of reading silently for his own enjoyment or to gain information. "His comprehension of what he reads is severely limited" (10, 68).

Hartshorne is of the opinion that some of these problems are caused by the fact that the majority of English teachers are Blacks whose qualifications are not always adequate to enable them to teach the language effectively. In the case of the primary school, for example, one out of every six teachers is still unqualified, "and unfortunately too many of these teachers are to be found in the lowest classes where the foundations of language are laid" (10, 67).

Eiselen expressed himself in similar ^evain when he pointed out that a specially devised test of proficiency in the spoken English applied to teacher trainees in all parts of South Africa furnished "irrefutable proof that the present generation's command of English is very poor by comparison". More than half the total number of trainees could not name correctly the hands of a clock. Some referred to them as "horns" others as "sticks" and yet others as "wings" (7, 4). Gone are the days that "produced several generations of Africans (in South Africa) who had excellent command of English so often commented upon by English-speaking visitors who have travelled through Africa" (Loc. cit.).

G.W. Sneesby, an ex-Inspector of Schools, wrote an article for an over-sea journal in which he pointed out that there had been a steady deterioration in the standard of English in Black schools in South Africa in recent years. He ascribed the decline mainly to the fact that whereas in the pre-Bantu Education Act era many of the English teachers in teacher-training institutions were English-speaking Europeans, today the position is different; practically all junior and senior secondary schools are staffed by Black personnel. Exceptional cases are schools with mixed staff (Black and White teachers); but even then the White members of staff are in most cases Afrikaans-speaking (11, 61).

Sneesby feels that a vicious circle has been set up in connection with the teaching of English in Black schools. In the secondary schools and in the teacher-training institutions the learner's opportunities of getting to use English correctly and fluently as a medium of communication are very much fewer than they were some years ago. The faults he acquire, are passed on to his pupils, who, if they become teachers themselves, pass them on to the pupils in turn (Loc. cit.).

The Commission of Inquiry into the Teaching of Official Languages and the Use of Mother Tongue as Medium of Instruction in Transkeian Primary Schools also reported a decline in the general standard of English, but hastened to point out quite rightly that the Departmental syllabuses ^{could} cannot be held responsible for this, since they compared very favourably with those of other educational departments in South Africa¹⁾.

¹⁾ In an interview with the Rand Daily Mail of April 14, 1976 Dr. A.B. Fourie, director of control of the Department of Bantu Education confirmed this view when he said among other things: "... all departments base their syllabuses on common core syllabuses drawn up by committees representing all education departments".

The Commission ascribed the poor performance to obsolete methods of teaching used by most teachers together with the poor qualifications of the teachers of English (Vide 11, 62).

Prof. L.W. Lanham¹⁾ and his team of researchers, after noting much the same problem as the other observers referred to above, arrived at the conclusion that a systematic approach to the teaching of English pronunciation in Black schools was essential to halt the serious deterioration and restore norms which were socially acceptable and adequate for communication with English mother-tongue speakers. The use of tutor-tapes in conjunction with a phonetic alphabet could be tried out to cope with the problem.

3.3.5 A recent development

A potentially useful development in the teaching of English in Black schools was heralded in 1973 at what has come to be known as the Roma Conference. At that Conference - which was held at the then University of Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland - the present writer suggested the founding of an Association of English Teachers (AET) in Black Schools. The English Academy of Southern Africa regarded the effort as worthy of its support and accordingly caused the founding of the English Language Teaching Information Centre (ELTIC) to serve as a clearing-house for AET.

ELTIC collects all manner of material - tutor-tapes, graded language lessons etc. - and makes them available to schools upon request. ELTIC also assists in the organization of conferences and workshops for purposes of bringing together teachers of English in Black schools and experts in this field.

For the smooth running of this effort, ELTIC and the English Academy of Southern Africa have made the following provisions:

- a. A Newsletter called ELTIC - AET Newsletter²⁾ has been started, among other things, to acquaint the teachers of English with some of the material that is available in the field.

¹⁾ Prof. L.W. Lanham has been working on the problem of English in Black schools and is still doing so today.

²⁾ Later called the ELTIC Reporter.

- b. A steering Committee has been formed to discuss and plan the activities of ELTIC.
- c. A full-time Field Officer has been appointed to act as a link between ELTIC and the teachers of English.

The potential value of this development should not be under-estimated. At the Language Bureau of the University of the North initial efforts have already been made with Remedial programming in English for teacher-trainees. This effort is expected to be developed fully in the near future and valuable contributions in this field are expected soon.

3.4 Conclusion

It is clear from the above exposition that English permeates Black education from the nursery school through university. This arrangement renders the need for continual research into the teaching of English as L2 an extremely pressing issue. Teachers as well as pupils need to be conversant with English if teaching in Black schools is to be meaningful and worthwhile.

That the curriculum per se is more than adequate cannot be disputed, but whether the present-day teaching personnel is able to utilise this curriculum to best advantage is another matter - a matter that is as urgent as it is challenging to the Black teacher, researcher and second-language methodologist.

The most important problem areas that are spotlighted above are pronunciation, enunciation and intonation; reading and comprehension; shortage of native English teachers to teach English and to use English to advantage as medium of instruction both in the schools and in the teacher-training institutions; controversy over English and Afrikaans as media of instruction on a 50-50 basis.

Although all these areas are important for both the teacher and the pupil, only one area, pronunciation, will be researched in this study. This will be done mainly for purposes of delimiting the scope of this study with a view to rendering it manageable and researchable. Hopefully, subsequent studies by other researchers will cover the other areas.

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out that although more than a hundred years of vigorous linguistic investigation has gone into L2 methodology as yet no absolute statement can be made as to which strategy will yield the best results under all circumstances. Fries points out further that sometimes enterprising teachers of English as L2 are hampered by administrative stipulations that must be met by all teachers.

In this Chapter we wish to establish empirically professional and academic qualifications of teachers of English in certain Black schools and also to find out some of the methods they prefer most. A survey was made for this purpose, the details of which are provided below.

4.2 Aim and rationale of survey

The aim of the survey was to make a sample study of the personnel engaged in the teaching of English as a second language. In particular we desired to obtain a sample distribution in terms of sex, academic qualification, standard up to which English was studied and whether it was studied on the higher grade or on the lower grade, and professional qualifications. In addition we intended spot-lighting areas in English language teaching which, in the opinion and experience of the teachers directly involved in the task, present the greatest difficulty in teaching.

Furthermore, the survey purported to establish, albeit on the basis of a sample, whether the problems experienced by pupils in the learning and use of English as a second language were caused by the manner in which the language is being taught to them or by the teachers' academic and professional shortcomings. Such information, we hope, will enable us to diagnose more accurately the reasons why certain problems in the teaching of English as a second language in Black schools have become chronic, with a strong tendency towards deterioration rather than improvement.

Although the survey was conducted in 1973¹⁾ its value has not diminished because it not only provides a scientifically planned example of an

1) Between June 1973 and end 1974 the writer was reading for a Master's degree in English as a Foreign Language at Southern Illinois University in the United States. Much of the information gathered then has been incorporated into the present study.

empirically-based sample of its kind, but also provides us with a useful rationale on the basis of which we can make a statement bearing on the teaching personnel (English) in Black education in general and in the area delimited for our project in particular.

Furthermore, the manner in which the data was sampled together with the findings that accrued from its interpretation may prompt further surveys of the same kind among other national groups comprising the South African citizenry. The value of research projects lies in their ability to generate further research in related areas.

4.3 Research methods used in the survey

Two methods of research were used to obtain data relating to the teaching personnel in the area delimited for the project. The methods were:

4.3.1 The questionnaire

After a thorough consideration of the various aspects bearing on the teaching personnel and drawing freely from experience as a teacher of English in Black schools, a questionnaire was drawn-up for administration at the schools selected for the survey (Vide infra Appendix 2).

To render data obtained from the questionnaire reliable and reasonably objective, two techniques were employed viz.

- a. interviewees were not required to indicate their names on the questionnaire forms;
- b. the questionnaire was administered personally by the researcher.

Experience has shown that in projects such as the one at issue, identification by name leads to two major problems viz.

- a. interviewees feel embarrassed if they are to reveal certain details about themselves which they consider personal e.g. academic qualifications, professional qualifications, age etc.
- b. interviewees often fill in information that they believe will either place them in a favourable light in the esteem of the researcher or information they believe the researcher would like to have - both of which are altogether incompatible with objectivity so vital in research of this type.

Furthermore, researchers are painfully aware that questionnaires send^t out more often than not end up in the waste-paper basket rather than back on the researcher's desk. Many researchers therefore overlook the financial burden involved and opt for a personal administration of their questionnaires. In our case we had the following advantages in mind when we administered our questionnaire personally:

- a. to ensure that all participants comprising the sample complete the questionnaire;
- b. to be on hand to explain whatever item may seem unclear to any interviewee¹⁾;
- c. to forestall any temptation at "group-work" in responding to either the entire questionnaire or certain items of the questionnaire;
- d. to lend a note of seriousness to the activity.

4.3.2 Oral elicitation of data

Since a questionnaire cannot always cover all areas that are of interest to interviewees, the researcher made provision for oral elicitation of data over and above the questionnaire items and oral comments by those interviewees who desired to share their experiences and problems with the researcher. Although some of the comments and observations made were not always relevant to the survey, yet those that were relevant were carefully noted and later processed into the interpretation of the data from the questionnaire.

4.4 Survey group

The interviewees covered the complete range of the school system i.e. from the lower primary school right up to the secondary and high school as well as school principals.

The rationale behind this selection was as follows: although the project per se was grounded in the lower secondary school, yet we found it necessary and deemed it worthwhile to present a composite picture of the personnel involved in the orientation of the pupils who formed our research sample as well as those who actually taught them and those

¹⁾ In an L2 situation, problems of interpretation of certain items cannot be avoided at all times.

who finally saw them through high school. This was necessary since any personnel problem at any one stage is bound to affect subsequent stages in the education of the child.

Principals were included in the survey group because in Black education school principals participate in classroom teaching in addition to their regular administrative duties.

Besides, the presence of the principal as part of the survey group helped reinforce the seriousness of the activity and so heightened the level of reliability of the data given by the interviewees. The principal as a symbol of authority in the school gave a note of "authority" to the survey in his school.

4.5 The teaching personnel

The survey conducted revealed the following position regarding the teachers of English in Black schools in the area delimited for the study:

4.5.1 Position in the secondary and high schools

Forty teachers of English as a second language were sampled from fifteen secondary and high schools in the Lebowa area of the Northern Transvaal for interview. The interviewees were required to provide information about themselves as well as about issues relevant to the teaching of English in their schools. A questionnaire was provided to elicit the information.

The following results were obtained:

4.5.1.1 Sex and age distribution

The majority of the teachers of English in the secondary and high schools in Black schools are males. In our sample we found that only 2% of the teachers of English were female and the rest i.e. 98% were male.

The age distribution of the female teachers of English was rather narrow, ranging between 24 and 30 years. The age distribution of the male teachers of English, however, was wide, ranging between 21 and 65 years.

The following table illustrates the distribution of the age of male English teachers worked out in percentages:

TABLE 2: AGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

AGE RANGE	DISTRIBUTION IN %
0 - 20	0
21 - 25	11
26 - 30	27
31 - 40	29
41 - 50	17
51 - 60	11
61 - 65	5

TOTAL: 100%

As can be seen from the above Table, the bulk of the male teachers in our sample fell within the age group 26 - 40 years followed by those who were between 41 - 50 years.

This age distribution is quite normal for Black teachers. At the time when the survey was made, those who wished to train as teachers had to spend approximately thirteen years between Sub-standard A and matriculation and a further two years at a teacher-training institution. This brought the total number of years required to about fifteen¹⁾.

4.5.1.2 Academic qualifications

The general academic qualifications of the teachers of English in our sample ranged between Junior Certificate and a University degree with or without English as a major subject.

The majority of the teachers i.e. 37,5% were found to be undergraduates in possession of a first year or second year university course. Those who held the Matriculation or Senior Certificate only were second in line, i.e. 32,5%; while full university graduates were 22,5% of the total sample and the remaining 7,5% held only the Junior Certificate.

The following table illustrates a percentage distribution of the teachers of English according to qualifications:

¹⁾ Generally Black pupils start schooling at the age of seven.

TABLE 3: DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH ACCORDING TO ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS

QUALIFICATIONS	DISTRIBUTION IN %
Junior Certificate	7,5
Matriculation/Senior Certificate	32,5
Undergraduates	37,5
Graduates	22,5

TOTAL: 100%

TABLE 3 above provides a distribution of English teachers according to their general academic qualifications, but does not take into account their qualification in English as a subject; this specific qualification is considered in TABLE 4 below.

4.5.1.3 Standard up to which English was studied

The academic qualifications of teachers taken in isolation can be quite misleading because a teacher of English can be a full university graduate and yet have only one university course in English; similarly he might have a second year university course and yet have only Matriculation or Senior Certificate English.

The following percentages from our sample study will help illustrate what we mean:

Of the forty teachers sampled, only 7,5% had three university courses, while only 2,5% had two university courses in English. Those with one university course in English formed 17,5% of the sample while those with Practical English also formed 17,5% of the sample. The bulk of the teachers of English in the sample i.e. 55% had studied English only up to Matriculation or Senior Certificate level.

The following table illustrates a percentage distribution of the teachers of English according to the standard up to which they had studied English:

TABLE 4: DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH ACCORDING TO STANDARD UP TO WHICH ENGLISH WAS STUDIED

STANDARD UP TO WHICH ENGLISH WAS STUDIED	DISTRIBUTION IN %
Junior Certificate	0
Matriculation or Senior Certificate	55
Practical English Course	17,5
One degree course	17,5
Two degree courses	2,5
Three degree courses	7,5
Post-degree courses	0

TOTAL: 100%

If we regard at least one university course in English as a bare requirement for English language teaching at secondary and high school level, then the bulk of our teachers i.e. 72,5% are not sufficiently qualified to hold their present posts in that they hold either a Practical English Course or a Matriculation or Senior Certificate Course in English. Only 27,5% are actually qualified to teach English in the secondary and high schools in that they have at least one university course in that language.

This distribution is significant in that some of the problems relating to performance in English in Black schools could be directly related either to lack of English language proficiency or outright limited linguistic background on the part of the teacher to render teaching effective enough to produce good results.

If we regard the above distribution as an example of the position in Black schools in general, then the decline in the standard of English in Black education commented upon by the various observers such as the ones mentioned in Chapter 3 (3.3.4) above is explained. In particular the observation by Hartshorne regarding "the limitation of the teachers" is borne-out empirically here. Similarly Eiselen's observation that the standard of English of teacher-trainees was "very poor by comparison" is explained - the teacher-trainees are a product of poor tuition at secondary and high school level. This latter observation ties in with

Sneesby's¹⁾ contention that the reason for the deterioration in the standard of English is because a vicious circle has been set up in this area in Black education i.e. poorly prepared students enroll as teacher-trainees to become poorly prepared teachers who in turn turn out poorly prepared students and so the vicious circle continues uninterrupted from generation to generation.

4.5.1.4 Grade at which English was studied

Many Black secondary and high schools offer English on the lower grade and very few offer English on the higher grade for both Junior Certificate and Matriculation²⁾. Thus, a great many of the teachers in charge of English have studied English on the lower grade for their secondary education (Vide supra 3.3). But in our sample, we were pleasantly surprised to find, that there were actually more (although slightly) teachers, i.e. 52,5%, who had studied English on the higher grade for their Matriculation than those who had studied it on the lower grade. The latter group constituted 47,5% of the total sample.

There are two possible reasons to explain this situation. The first is that some of the teachers in the secondary and high schools belong to the earlier generation of teachers most of whom had to pass English on the higher grade to satisfy the requirements for the Matriculation course. The second possible reason is that many of the young teachers who find their way into the secondary and high school and are placed in charge of English are the exceptional group who distinguished themselves in this language while still at secondary and high school and impressed their English teachers sufficiently to cause them (the English teachers) to enter them for English higher grade in the final year of their Matriculation or Senior Certificate Course. The latter arrangement is not uncommon in Black education and applies to both English and Afrikaans.

4.5.1.5 Professional qualifications

It was interesting to note that in the area sampled for study, the majority of English teachers, i.e. 47,5%, were people actually trained

1) Vide supra 3.3.4

2) At the time of writing, the "Grades" in English were due to be changed.

for the higher primary school rather than for the secondary or high school - they held the Higher Primary Teachers' Course. Indeed 5% were actually trained for the lower primary school - they held the Lower Primary Teachers' Course.

The sample showed that those who were actually trained to teach in the secondary and high school were distributed as follows: 7,5% held the Junior Secondary Teachers' Diploma; 25% held the South African Teachers' Diploma (later named the Secondary Teachers' Diploma) and 10% held the University Education Diploma. Only 5% were found to be unqualified teachers with no professional certificate.

The following table illustrates a percentage distribution of teachers of English in our sample according to professional qualifications:

TABLE 5: DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH ACCORDING TO PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS

PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS	DISTRIBUTION IN %
No professional certificate	5,0
Lower Primary Teachers' Certificate	5,0
Higher Primary Teachers' Certificate	47,5
Junior Secondary Teachers' Diploma	7,5
South African Teachers' Diploma	25,0
University Education Diploma	10,0

TOTAL: 100%

A significant point brought to light in the above table is that although only 5% of the teachers in the sample were unqualified, yet the bulk of the qualified ones, i.e. 47,5% were not professionally qualified to teach (English) in the secondary or high school. Here again a parallel can be drawn between professional competency and the level of performance in English at secondary and high school level.

We cannot dispute the fact that teaching methods for primary schools differ markedly from those preferred for secondary and high schools. Therefore it remains a question open to debate whether with primary school training in the teaching of English a teacher can effectively

handle a lesson in that language in the secondary and high school. The Look-and-Say Method which normally works out so well in the primary school is not likely to have equal success in a Form V class, while the Lecture Method which sometimes works out very well in a Form V class is not likely to prove as successful in a Sub A class.

4.5.1.6 Sections most difficult to teach

Interviewees were also required to indicate which areas of English they found most difficult to teach. The majority of them i.e. 60% indicated that grammar and general language use presented the most difficulty in teaching English while 20% thought the teaching of continuous prose, i.e. essays and letters, most difficult to teach.

What was most interesting, however, was that only 10% found the teaching of oral work i.e. conversation, narration, debates, and reading aloud, to be the most difficult to teach. This became even more remarkable when we bear in mind that it is the spoken language that is causing more concern today. One would have expected this to claim the highest percentage.

Those who found the teaching of literature more difficult to handle formed 5% of the sample while another 5% thought the teaching of comprehension (both oral and written) most difficult to handel.

The interviewer was struck by the fact that when all the teachers sampled were taken together, only 7,5% thought the teaching of pronunciation difficult. This was rather odd since all the interviewees were Black and so were their pupils. The only conclusion that could be drawn from this was that either the teachers did not regard correct pronunciation and intonation as relevant aspects of English language teaching, or that most of them, if not all of them, have had no training in remedial teaching to enable them to correct errors of pronunciation and intonation with the result that they were unable to respond to errors in this area of language teaching.

Alternatively they regarded errors of this type either as insignificant to general language mastery or as part and parcel of the English of the Black pupil. That the teachers themselves are often guilty of serious errors of pronunciation and intonation cannot be overlooked.

This apparent disregard of the importance of correct pronunciation and intonation in the teaching of English in Black education revealed in our survey in part explains the observation made by Inspector R.W. Swartbreck (Vide supra 3.3.1) when he said: "In most cases the mistakes on the part of the children are but a reflection of the teacher's own pronunciation". No wonder C.T. Loram recommended that teacher-trainees be admitted on the basis of high proficiency in English and that the Method of English programme itself should include training in oral English (Vide supra 3.2.1).

TABLE 6: DISTRIBUTION OF THOSE AREAS OF LANGUAGE THAT ENGLISH TEACHERS FOUND MOST DIFFICULT TO TEACH

AREA MOST DIFFICULT TO TEACH	DISTRIBUTION IN %
Grammar and language use	60
Essays and letters	20
Oral work	10
Literature	5
Comprehension (both oral and written)	5

TOTAL: 100%

4.5.1.7 Examinations in English

Interviewees were also required to express an opinion on our present methods of testing and examining pupils in English both internally and externally. None referred directly to internal examinations, but many expressed themselves on various aspects bearing on the external examination.

Of the sampled forty teachers of English 12,5% were of the opinion that external examiners' pattern or mode of setting questions did not always tally with the different teachers' approaches to and interpretation of the syllabus for English. This discrepancy rendered the final year's scores in English an unreliable measure to evaluate the pupils' actual performance in this language. Contact between the teachers of English and the external examiners in English was either lacking or was inadequate.

About 15% of the interviewees expressed themselves on two aspects of the end-of-the-year oral examinations in English in the Junior Certificate Course. They felt, in the first place, that these examinations did not reflect the pupils' true performance in the spoken English in that they were usually short and only a limited sample of pupils per school were used as a metre-stick for oral performance in that language for the whole group. In the second place, these teachers felt that such oral examinations should either be internally organized and controlled on a progress-card record basis or be discontinued altogether, as an aspect of the final year Junior Certificate examination.

The latter viewpoint could not but strike us, since we are of the opinion that language is first and foremost a spoken thing, which implies that oral work should be given even greater prominence in English language teaching and consequently in English language testing, be it for grading or for promotion. The interviewer could not help gaining the impression once more that many English teachers in Black education today had their priorities in English language teaching somewhat in reverse order which, perhaps, partly accounts for the serious errors of pronunciation and intonation evident in the spoken language of so many of our pupils today.

Another 7,5% of the teachers were of the opinion that since questions on prescribed works in English did not always cover the entire individual set-work, scores on this area of the work as reflected in the general performance in English in the final year Junior Certificate and Matriculation or Senior Certificate examinations did not always give a true and reliable indication of the pupils' actual ability in this section of English language learning and English language use. More often than not teachers emphasised certain sections of a particular set-work - even set internal test papers on them - thus unintentionally focusing attention on such section, only to find that at the end of the year the external examiner has selected altogether different sections of the same prescribed work, a step which might completely off-balance the pupils and bring down scores significantly enough to create an impression of poor performance in English literature as a whole.

Some 5% of the interviewees felt that the general standard of today's English examination papers for the Junior Certificate in particular was somewhat lower than that of the nineteen forties. It seemed to

them that the examiners today tend to bring down the standard of their papers to accommodate the pupils' inadequacies in English and the teachers' limitations in English language teaching instead of the pupils' performance being raised to meet the set standard and the teachers' efficiency improved to match the needs of a high examination standard in English.

An elderly interviewee belonging to this group of teachers expressed himself thus emphatically:

"In my opinion, they (the examinations in English) are still far from being satisfactory. The language is rather superficially tested - (compare for example a Junior Certificate, University J.C., question paper of 1942 with that of 1971.)"

The interviewee advocated a reversion to the methods of teaching and examining of "the good old days".

Another 10% of the interviewees felt that the teaching of English and the decision as to which pupil deserved a pass-mark (or promotion) in that language, should be left in the hands of the teachers of English. Left to themselves the teachers of English will approach the task from whatever angle they deemed best for their particular pupils and effect whatever intensive teaching they consider necessary without being fettered or chased along by the stipulations of the syllabus or the external examiner. These teachers also recommended the use of progress record-cards compiled and kept by the English teacher but checked and controlled by both the principal and the inspector in charge of English language teaching in the circuit in which the school is situated. These cards should be used as a basis for promotion and or grading.

Questioned orally, however, these teachers sounded rather vague as to how a generally accepted standard for the Junior Certificate English was to be ensured if the English syllabus and the external examiner were to be relegated to the background.

The remaining group of interviewees felt that the present methods of examining pupils in English were good enough to give a true and reliable indication of the pupils' mastery or otherwise of the English language for the standard concerned; or that there was no alternative method that could be resorted to to get more reliable results and better guidance for the teacher of English.

It should be mentioned at this stage that teachers in Black education are encouraged to improve their academic qualification to the highest possible. In the case of primary school teachers, promotion to the secondary school serves as motivation. Improvement of academic qualifications is realised largely through private studies and upon completion of the Matriculation or Senior Certificate Course, a primary school teacher is placed on a higher salary scale. This provides further motivation. The bulk of the teachers, however, commence their primary school teaching career with the Junior Certificate - hence the 66,3% indicated in the table above.

Due to a shortage of teaching personnel, school principals are often obliged to fall back on teachers whose qualifications are below the required Junior Certificate level.

4.5.2.3 Professional qualifications

For primary school purposes, a teacher is qualified if he holds either a Higher Primary Teachers' Course or a Lower Primary Teachers' Course. The present-day tendency, however, is to limit enrollment for the latter and encourage enrollment for the former. It is perhaps as a result of this tendency that we found that the majority of teachers were in possession of the Higher Primary Teachers' Course. Our survey revealed that 14,9% of the sample were unqualified (mostly privately-paid) teachers.

The following table illustrates a percentage distribution of teachers according to their professional qualifications:

TABLE 10: DISTRIBUTION OF PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS ACCORDING TO PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS

PROFESSIONAL CERTIFICATE	DISTRIBUTION IN %
Higher Primary Teachers' Course	53,1
Lower Primary Teachers' Course	32,0
No professional certificate	14,9

TOTAL: 100%

At the time of writing the L.P.T.C. was being phased out in favour of a new course - the P.T.C.

It should be mentioned here that in primary schools generally, each teacher is required to teach all the subjects including English. Therefore professional qualifications of the teachers are particularly relevant to this study since, all things being equal, the professional teacher has received some training, among other things, in the teaching of English as a second language to beginners, while the untrained teacher has to depend solely on his inborn talent as a teacher - an extremely unreliable measure.

For the sake of accuracy, however, we need to mention further that often principals divide their personnel in such a way that some concentrate on the teaching of English while others concentrate on the teaching of Afrikaans. This arrangement was revealed by our survey when four schools were found to be following this approach to the teaching of official languages. The principals concerned pointed out that they were prompted into following this procedure when they discovered that some of their teachers were particularly good at teaching English while others were particularly good at teaching Afrikaans. The researcher found this explanation laudable, since in later years certain high schools had opted for an Afrikaans bias while others had opted for an English bias. Even today the tendency is to give English and Afrikaans equal treatment in many areas, especially in those areas that are outside the Black homelands.

4.5.2.4 Standard up to which English was studied

Another well-nigh perfect distribution was obtained when information relating to the standard up to which English was studied was sought and obtained. The survey revealed that 54,3% of the sample had studied English up to the Junior Certificate level while a smaller number, i.e. 20,6%, had studied English up to a standard below the Junior Certificate level; 25,1% had studied English up to Matriculation or Senior Certificate.

The following table illustrates a percentage distribution of the sampled teachers according to the standard up to which they had studied English.

TABLE 11: DISTRIBUTION OF PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS ACCORDING TO THE STANDARD UP TO WHICH THEY HAD STUDIED ENGLISH

STANDARD UP TO WHICH ENGLISH WAS STUDIED	DISTRIBUTION IN %
Below Junior Certificate	20,6
Junior Certificate	54,3
Matriculation or Senior Certificate	25,1
Above Matriculation or Senior Certificate	0,0

TOTAL: 100%

The reason why we have 25,1% here as against 10,3% under 4.5.2.2 above is that the National Senior Certificate Examination Board permits the study of the Senior Certificate Course by instalments; so that it is not uncommon to have teachers whose overall academic qualification is a Junior Certificate while they already have English at Senior Certificate level. This arrangement holds true for all subjects comprising the Matriculation or Senior Certificate Course syllabus.

4.5.2.5 Grade at which English was studied

The survey also wanted to establish whether most of our teachers of English studied English on the higher grade or on the lower grade in their Junior Certificate Course. The questionnaire administered yielded the following results: that most of the teachers, i.e. 65,1%, had studied English on the lower grade. The remaining 20% had studied English up to a level below Junior Certificate.

The following table illustrates a percentage distribution of the teachers according to the grade at which they had studied English at Junior Certificate level.

TABLE 12: DISTRIBUTION OF PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS ACCORDING TO THE GRADE AT WHICH THEY HAD STUDIED ENGLISH AT THE JUNIOR CERTIFICATE LEVEL

GRADE AT WHICH ENGLISH WAS STUDIED	DISTRIBUTION IN %
English Lower Grade	65,1
English Higher Grade	14,9
English below Junior Certificate level	20,0

TOTAL: 100%

It should be pointed out that English lower grade is the course mostly preferred in many Black schools and only a few exceptionally good pupils are entered for English on the higher grade. This is particularly true of the Junior Certificate Course. No wonder therefore that the bulk of the teachers in the primary school have English on the lower grade.

Two reasons account for the preference of English on the lower grade: First, school administrators feel that English lower grade emphasises practical language use while English higher grade lays stress on the study and appreciation of English literature which often presents great difficulties to the Black pupil whose entire background and experience are anything but English. This arrangement, however, merely defers rather than solves the problem because as the pupil proceeds with his education to the university, he is expected to give a very good account of himself in English literature if he desires to study this language. It is at this level that his limited knowledge disadvantages him seriously. Secondly, it is much easier to pass English lower grade at the end-of-the-year examinations than it is to pass English on the higher grade. Very few administrators are keen to risk good overall examination results for the sake of English higher grade which, due to its difficulty, might reduce both general and average scores.

The reason why there are so many teachers whose qualification in English is below the Junior Certificate course is that initially, teachers who wished to enroll for the Lower Primary Teachers' Course needed only a Standard VI certificate to qualify. A great many of these teachers have as yet to improve their qualifications.

4.5.2.6 Sections most difficult to teach

As was the case with the teachers in the secondary and high school, primary school teachers were also requested to indicate in the questionnaire those areas of English language which they found most difficult to teach.

The overall picture that emerged from the processing of the questionnaire data was that the majority of the primary school teachers, i.e. 30,7%, found the teaching of grammar and general language use most difficult to present. Almost without exception they indicated that pupils found it difficult to master the Verb tenses, Number and Concord.

Side by side with the problems relating to the teaching of grammar and general language use in English, interviewees indicated oral work and pronunciation as further twin problems. In fact, 18,9% indicated oral work as such, while 17,1% stipulated pronunciation as the most difficult aspect of English to teach.

Some 17,3% found the teaching of reading difficult while 16% found the teaching of essays and letters most difficult to handle.

The following table illustrates a percentage distribution of sections of English language teaching which teachers found most difficult to teach:

TABLE 13: DISTRIBUTION OF THOSE AREAS OF ENGLISH THAT PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS FOUND MOST DIFFICULT TO TEACH

AREA MOST DIFFICULT TO TEACH	DISTRIBUTION IN %
Grammar and Language use	30,7
Essays and Letters	16,0
Oral work	18,9
Reading aloud	17,3
Pronunciation	17,1

TOTAL: 100%

4.5.2.7 Examinations in English

By and large this section of the questionnaire did not affect the primary school teachers since the bulk of their examinations are internal.

4.6 Some comparisons between the position in the primary school and the position in the secondary and high school

We find it interesting at this stage of our study to make a brief but important comparison between the positions in the primary school and the secondary and high school regarding the teaching personnel.

A striking point to emerge from the survey bears on the professional qualification of the teachers. It is clear from our sample that the primary school teachers are comparatively better qualified professionally for their jobs. As we have noted above, 53,1% hold the Higher Primary Teachers' Certificate while 32,0% hold the Lower Primary Teachers' Certificate. By contrast teachers in the secondary and high schools are not adequately qualified professionally for their jobs in that the majority of them are professionally trained for the primary school, i.e. 47% of them hold the Higher Primary Teachers' Certificate while 5% hold the Lower Primary Teachers' Certificate giving us a total of over 50%.

The reason for this type of distribution is that by and large promotion from primary school to secondary school teaching is based on academic rather than professional qualifications.

As far as unqualified teachers are concerned, the primary school takes the lead with 14,9% as against only 5% in the secondary and high school. The reason for this unfortunate distribution is that it is the primary school principal who has to contend with a serious shortage of staff and consequently it is he who falls back more heavily on unqualified personnel to keep his school going. From a pedagogical point of view this is highly disturbing, since it is at the primary school level that foundations are laid for future more advanced school careers. That pupils should be exposed to inadequately trained teachers during their formative years can only be described as pedagogically unfortunate.

It was extremely interesting to note from our survey that it is the primary school teacher who seems to be more alive to the significance of oral work and good pronunciation in the teaching of English as a second language in Black schools. Whereas 17,1% of the primary school teachers found pronunciation a difficult area to teach, only 7,5% of the secondary and high school teachers found it so; and whereas 18,9% of the primary school teachers found the teaching of overall oral work difficult only 10% of their secondary and high school colleagues thought so.

In the light of this information, one has cause to fear that even if the primary school teachers may be alive to the significance of oral work in the teaching of English as a second language his efforts may not be equally supported by his secondary and high school colleague. If this is the case, then it is hardly surprising that pronunciation, even at post-primary level, is as unsatisfactory as it is.

Grammar and general language use top the list in the entire school system according to our survey. In the primary school 30,7% of the teachers found this area difficult to teach while in the post-primary school 60% of the teachers found this area hard to teach.

The reason for this seems to be that the teachers are rather unsure as to which method to employ. Many, even without admitting it, still lean heavily on the tradition Grammar-Translation Method which tends to teach the pupils about the language rather than the language per se. Others try out some sort of Eclectic Approach which combines several strategies, depending on the class and the section to be treated. Very few are able to use the Structural Approach effectively.

In our discussion below, we indicate the wide variety of methods preferred by teachers both in the primary school and in the post-primary school.

4.7 Methods preferred

4.7.1 Introduction

Our survey also sought to establish teaching strategies that interviewees found most useful in their teaching of English as L2. Analysis of the questionnaire data revealed the information indicated below.

4.7.2 In the secondary and high school

The majority of the interviewees, i.e. 35%, indicated preference for the Direct Method while the Inductive and the Deductive Procedures were rated second, with 25% of the teachers preferring them.

The Oral Method, also known as the Lecture Method, was preferred by 12,5% of the interviewees, while the Discussion Method and the Do-and-Say Method received a preference rating of 10% each. As indicated under 4.5 above, some of the teachers who find their way into the post-primary school and ultimately end up in charge of English language teaching are people who were in fact trained to teach in the primary school; that is why certain primary school methods such as the Do-and-Say Method are being preferred (albeit by name only) even by secondary school teachers.

From our personal experience the Do-and-Say Method and the Look-and-Say Method are rarely, if ever, preferred for practical application in the secondary school, let alone in the high school. The nature of the syllabus and the textbooks used render the use of these two methods virtually impracticable.

The Self-Activity Method was preferred by 5% of the interviewees while the Functional Method and Dramatization received 2,5% preference each.

Preference for the "Phonetic Method" and the Drill Method was conspicuous by their absence. This tied up rather smartly with the reason why only 7,5% of the total number of interviewees regarded the teaching of English pronunciation difficult. Clearly this aspect of English language teaching does not receive the attention it rightly deserves in Black schools. Small wonder that even at university level students still experience great difficulties in articulating acceptably certain English sounds.

The following table illustrates a percentage distribution of methods mostly preferred in the teaching of English as a second language in Black secondary schools.

TABLE 14: DISTRIBUTION OF METHODS MOSTLY PREFERRED IN THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH IN THE SECONDARY AND HIGH SCHOOL

METHODS PREFERRED	DISTRIBUTION IN %
Direct Method	35,0
Inductive and Deductive	22,5
Oral Method	12,5
Discussion Method	10,0
Do-and-Say Method	10,0
Self-Activity Method	5,0
Functional Method	2,5
Dramatization	2,5

TOTAL: 100%

4.7.3 In the primary school

The bulk of the primary school teachers interviewed, i.e. 40,6%, indicated that they preferred the Direct Method in their teaching of English as a second language. 22,3% preferred the Do-and-Say Method, while 21,1% indicated preference for the Look-and-Say Method.

Contrary to expectation only 0,6% indicated preference for the Drill Method, 2,7% the "Phonetic Method", and 1,7% Dramatization. We thought this rather interesting since these three strategies, especially the Drill Method, are so very important to beginners who are learning an L2.

Equally interesting was the fact that although the sample comprised primary school teachers, only 4,6% preferred the Play Method while only 0,9% indicated preference for the Self-Activity Method.

Although some 0,6% of the teachers indicated preference for the Dalton Plan and another 0,6% for the Project Method our experience in the actual Black school setting caused us to receive these responses with great reservations indeed. The nature of a typical Black school setting, together with the type of training the majority of Black teachers have received, renders the practical application of these two approaches highly impracticable even to the most enterprising of teachers.

A further 2,3% of the interviewees indicated preference for the Oral Method in their teaching of English as L2. Random observation outside the sample selected for study and spread over a number of years in the teaching of English in Black schools, however, has shown that many of the teachers in Black schools use the Oral Method freely though this is often coloured by various other strategies not excluding the Grammar-Translation Method.

The remaining 4,7% preferred no particular method in their teaching of English. Two possible reasons account for this: Firstly, some of the interviewees who belonged to this category were the unqualified teachers who were never introduced to any particular method by name; and secondly some teachers are never conscious of any particular method in their teaching of English and as a result could not remember any particular method by name.

The following table illustrates a percentage distribution of methods preferred by primary school teachers in their teaching of English.

TABLE 15: DISTRIBUTION OF METHODS MOSTLY PREFERRED IN THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS

METHOD PREFERRED	DISTRIBUTION IN %
Direct Method	40,6
Do-and-Say Method	22,3
Look-and-Say Method	21,1
Drill Method	0,6
Dramatization	1,7
Play Method	4,6
Self Activity Method	0,9
Dalton Plan	0,6
Project Method	0,6
Oral Method	2,3
No particular method	4,7

TOTAL: 100%

4.8 Some observations on methods preferred in primary and post-primary schools

An observation on methods preferred by primary school and secondary and high school teachers of English will not be out of place at this stage.

It will be noted from the tables provided above that the Direct Method is by far the most preferred method in the teaching of English in Black schools. In the secondary and high schools 35,0% of the sampled interviewees indicated preference for it while in the primary schools 40,6% indicated preference for it. The reason for this is that the majority of the inspectors of schools, in an attempt to discourage the traditional Grammar-Translation Method in the teaching of English as L2, tend to emphasize the Direct Method. So that even if teachers do not always use this method, they are most likely to indicate it as a matter of course. During what are known in Black schools as "Panel Inspection", teachers of English tend to use this approach in their demonstration lessons before the inspectors.

The distribution of the Do-and-Say Method, i.e. 22,3% and the Look-and-Say Method, i.e. 21,1% for the primary schools is normal since these two methods are emphasised in teacher-training institutions as being particularly suitable for beginners. Likewise the Inductive and the Deductive Procedures with a 22,5% preference are normal, since many teacher-training programmes for secondary and high school teachers emphasise these two strategies.

4.9 Teachers' comments on general problems

The survey also sought to obtain data relating to what the teachers consider to be some of the problems that the teachers and the pupils have to contend with in the teaching and learning of English as a second language in Black schools.

Analysis of the questionnaire revealed the following information:

4.9.1 The pupils' home environment

The mastery of a second language requires regular practice. In the case of Black pupils, opportunity to practice spoken English outside school hours is minimal. Neither the general environment nor the home environment provide any meaningful contact with spoken English.

There was a consensus of opinion among the teachers sampled that this problem was rendered even worse by the following subsidiary problems:

- a. Many Black pupils come from poor home environments in which very few experiences which can positively stimulate the use and learning of English are to be found. Social, cultural, economic, educational and psychological factors often render a typical Black home environment, to say the least, anything but educationally supporting. Thus, what the teacher initiates at school in such specialised fields of learning as the learning and use of English is not continued at home.
- b. In certain instances even the general environment is not particularly educationally supporting as far as English learning and use are concerned. A child in a typical Black settlement is altogether removed from cinemas, opera houses, newspapers, libraries and business centres where English as a means of communication is used. This naturally constricts his area of operation in English language learning and use.

4.9.2 The pupils' exposure to English

Although opinions differ as to the effect that mother-tongue instruction might have had on the Black pupils' language proficiency in English many interviewees were of the opinion that under the old dispensation of having English as a medium of instruction from the primary school upward, the child was exposed for longer periods to English and consequently his mastery of the English idiom as ^{well} was his chances of amassing a richer English vocabulary were greatly improved. The child was exposed to so much English that the element of mother-tongue interference was controlled and the error-frequency resulting from this linguistic phenomenon substantially reduced.

4.9.3 School setting and teaching facilities

Notwithstanding the efforts that are being made, many Black schools especially those in the rural areas, still lack the most basic aids in the teaching of English as a second language. The dearth is even more pronounced in primary schools where the availability of reading materials beyond the prescribed readers is an exception rather than the rule, while teaching aids such as tape recorders and tutor-tapes

to provide models for drill work in pronunciation and intonation are sadly wanting. The state of school library facilities in both the S primary and secondary schools certainly needs looking into. Many interviewees intimated as much.

4.9.4 Actual teaching

The survey revealed to us that many teachers in Black education are not specially trained to teach English in a typical Black setting. Teacher-training institutions tend to concentrate more on the study of general principles and theories underlying the teaching of L2, but such training does not always take cognizance of the actual or practical issues involved in the teaching of English in a typical Black school setting.

It was clear from our sample that not many of the teachers had received special training in remedial work. This accounts for the teachers' inability to mount remedial teaching programmes specifically geared to meet the needs of the pupils.

4.10 Conclusion

Although our study deals primarily with the teaching personnel in Black education we found it meet to conclude our discussion with a cursory reference to the position in White education¹⁾ as well.

Dr. Harold Holmes, former Rector of the Johannesburg College of Education, was reported in the Star of February 2, 1976 as having pointed out that although the drop-out rate in English-medium teacher-training colleges was a cause for concern for English-medium schools, "the allegation that English-speakers do not provide their own teachers is exaggerated. In recent years young English-speakers have come forward in encouraging numbers". This observation does not seem to be in complete agreement with the National Bureau's findings²⁾ that "due to the fact that English-speaking candidates for the profession have not come forward in sufficient numbers the teaching of English to English-speaking pupils often devolves on Afrikaans-speaking teachers and those with home languages other than the two official languages"

1) For details see National Bureau for Educational and Social Research, Research Series No's 42 and 43.

2) Unless there has been an improvement since 1969 when the Bureau undertook its survey.

(2, 41). Mr. Izzy Kramer, Chairman of the governing body of the Boksburg High School and Boksburg Management Committee, made a statement which was reported in the Star of February 3rd, 1976 and which seemed to be in line with the National Bureau's observation. He suggested that suitably qualified teachers be recruited from overseas to cope with the teacher shortage, especially in standards 9 and 10. He said: "oversea teachers could make a particularly significant contribution to the teaching of science, Latin and English"¹⁾.

Generally speaking therefore it would appear that there is a general shortage of English-speaking teachers in White education - a fact that makes recruitment of such teachers for Black education infinitely more difficult.

As has been the case in our survey, the National Bureau found that in certain cases principals and vice-principals "besides their official duties, also teach English in the secondary school". In fact about 9,9% of those who responded to the Bureau's questionnaire were principals and vice-principals who taught English in secondary schools (2, 20).

As far as professional qualifications were concerned the National Bureau found that the number of "persons without diplomas was relatively negligible" (2, 20) i.e. only 1,5% of the survey group (2, 19)²⁾ and as far as academic qualifications were concerned, the National Bureau found that "the majority of teachers of English are in possession of a Bachelor's degree" i.e. 48,2% of the survey group (2, 22). A total of 9,7% of the survey group held degrees above Bachelor's level; 2% held Doctor's degrees in English and 5,1% the Master's degree in English (2, 22).

Compared with Black education therefore, White education seems better off in terms of professionally and academically qualified teaching personnel.

As far as external examinations are concerned, teachers of English in Afrikaans-medium schools seem to agree with some of the teachers in our own sample. At a conference³⁾ of teachers of English in Afrikaans-

1) Emphasis mine.

2) In Natal, the Bureau found that 96% held the teachers' diploma (2, 24).

3) Held from the 11th to the 15th August 1975 at the Onderwyskollege in Pretoria.

medium schools organised by the English Academy of Southern Africa, teachers "recommended that in the second language (English) the external Standard 10 examination in Literature should be replaced by an internal examination partly oral and partly written ..."¹⁾.

As far as methodology is concerned, English teachers in White education seem to prefer the Direct Method, the Formal Method, the Eclectic Method (6, 212 - 231), and the Inductive method (2, 135). As is the case in Black education, many teachers in White education prefer the Direct Method in their teaching.

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Chapter 5

PUPILS' ORAL PERFORMANCE:
SAMPLING AND ANALYSIS OF DATA5.1 Introduction

In Chapter 1 above we gave a detailed exposition of the aim of this thesis: we stressed the importance of the spoken word in a second language programme - in our case English as L2 for North Sotho-speaking children.

Accordingly our sampling focused on oral performance and our analysis sought to pinpoint some of the serious pronounciational aberrancies characteristic of North Sotho-speaking children at Form II level who are learning to use English as a medium of communication - specifically oral communication.

5.2 Procedure used in sampling data5.2.1 Selection of pupils

Fifteen secondary and high schools were selected for purposes of the experiment. The schools were selected at random within the Lebowa Homeland in the Northern Transvaal. The area is predominantly North Sotho-speaking.

Although high schools were included in the sample, actual selection of test subjects was confined to the Junior Certificate level - Form II. The aim was to focus on a homogeneous group of pupils rather than on a heterogeneous one in terms of level of education.

To ensure a reasonable degree of reliability of data sampled, care was taken to select those pupils who had been exposed to English as a second language for the same number of years, i.e. ten years, and had followed the same syllabuses stipulated by the Department of Bantu Education for the lower primary, higher primary and the lower secondary school.

Unfortunately it was not possible to take into account all possible variables that might have had an influence on the test subjects' early acquisition of English as L2. We are thinking here of variables such

as teacher-competency in the lower and higher primary schools, degree of literacy in the home, and so forth. For one thing it would have proved impossible to isolate and control all possible variables in a study such as this one.

5.2.2 Selection of test passages and the sampling of data

Three hundred pupils were selected and requested to read certain passages (Vide infra a through h) chosen from simple novels commonly read by pupils at this level of schooling either as officially prescribed readers or as books most preferred by pupils¹⁾ for their additional reading²⁾.

Each pupil read through all eight passages selected for the experiment. Pupil performances were recorded on a high fidelity tape recorder for later playback and analysis.

Since the main aim of the study was neither to evaluate performance at any particular school nor to evaluate the performance of a particular pupil or pupils but rather to obtain an overview of the performance of North Sotho-speaking children at Form II level who were learning and using English as L2, it was thought unnecessary to record the names of the schools on the tape or to require the pupils to identify themselves before being recorded. Even so, short pauses were allowed in between pupils and longer pauses in between various groups of pupils. The reason for this was merely to render analysis easier.

The data thus sampled was then subjected to a careful phonological error-analysis:

The following were the passages used as cues in sampling data for a phonological error-analysis:

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- 1) To determine which books were most preferred by pupils, the researcher used two simple methods:
 - a. His own experience as a teacher of English as L2 and subsequent involvement in the activities of teachers of English through ELTIC and the English Academy of Southern Africa.
 - b. Consultation with Principals and Assistant Principals who had indicated a special interest in the teaching of English as L2 in their schools.
 - 2) Additional reading of English novels by pupils in the secondary school is insisted upon by Departmental regulations and a record of books read must be kept by each pupil and controlled by the English teacher.

- a. Rider Haggard: King Solomon's Mine, p. 42

"Curse it!" said Good - for I am sorry to say he had a habit of using strong language when excited, contracted no doubt in the course of his nautical career; "curse it! I've killed him."

- b. Rider Haggard: King Solomon's Mine, p. 63

Still we did not halt, though by this time we should have been glad enough to do so, for we knew that once the sun was fully up, it would be almost impossible for us to travel.

- c. Thomas Hardy: Tess of the d'Urbarvilles, p. 77

This morning the eye returns involuntarily to the girl in the pink cotton jacket, she being the most flexuous and finely-drawn figure of them all.

- d. Thomas Hardy: Tess of the d'Urbarvilles, p. 107

At intervals she stands up to rest and to retie her disarranged apron or to pull her bonnet straight. Then one can see the oval face of a handsome young woman with deep dark eyes and long heavy tresses which seem to clasp in a beseeching way anything they fell against. The cheeks are paler, the teeth more regular, the red lips thinner than is usual in a country-bred girl.

- e. Jack London: White Fang, p. 10

Breakfast eaten and the slim camp-fire lashed to the seed, the men turned their backs on the cheery fire and launched out into the darkness.

- f. Jack London: White Fang, p. 129

And right here Baserk erred. Had he contended himself with looking fierce and ominous, all would have been well.

- g. Anthony Hope: The Prisoner of Zenda, p, 156

The stout ruffian turned to face me again. But his own hand had prepared his destruction: for in turning he trod in the pool of blood that flowed from the dead physician. Like a dart I was upon him.

h. Herman Melville: Moby Dick, p. 51

Now the whale's head is raised against the ship's side, but only half way out of the sea, so that it might be partly supported by the water; the ship leans steeply over it by reason of its great weight.

5.2.3 Analysis of sounds isolated for purposes of the experiment5.2.3.1 Introduction

A contrastive ^aAnalysis of English and North Sotho vowel and diphthongal sounds was made (Vide infra, 5.4) to establish tentatively those sounds that the testees were most likely to mispronounce.

5.2.3.2 Vowel sounds

The following vowel sounds were isolated for the purpose of the experiment:

a. Passage 1

- /ɜr/ as in curse
- /v/ as in good
- /i/ as in he
- /æ/ as in had
- /ɪ/ as in in
- /ɔ/ as in course
- /ɒ/ as in contracted
- /ɛ/ as in said

b. Passage 2

- /ɪ/ as in still
- /ɔ/ as in not
- /i/ as in been
- /æ/ as in glad
- /ɑ/ as in sun
- /v/ as in fully
- /ʌ/ as in us
- /ɒ/ as in travel

c. Passage 3

/I/ as in this
 /i/ as in returns
 /u/ as in involuntarily
 /ər/ as in girl
 /ɔ/ as in cotton
 /ə/ as in figure
 /ɛ/ as in them
 /ɔ:/ as in all

d. Passage 4

/æ/ as in at
 /ə/ as in intervals
 /ʌ/ as in up
 /ɛ/ as in rest
 /i/ as in retie
 /I/ as in disarranged
 /ɔ/ as in of
 /ə/ as in young
 /ɑ:/ as in dark
 /v/ as in woman
 /ər/ as in girl

e. Passage 5

/æ/ as in breakfast
 /i/ as in eaten
 /I/ as in slim
 /ɛ/ as in men
 /ər/ as in turned
 /ɑ:/ as in darkness
 /ɔ/ as in launched

f. Passage 6

/ər/ as in erred
 /æ/ as in had
 /I/ as in himself
 /v/ as in looking

/ɔ/ as in ominous
 /ɔ:/ as in all
 /i/ as in been
 /ɛ/ as in well

g. Passage 7

/ɑ/ as in ruffian
 /ɑ:/ as in dart
 /ɔr/ as in turned
 /i/ as in me
 /ə/ as in again
 /ʌ/ as in but
 /ɪ/ as in his
 /æ/ as in hand
 /ɔ/ as in trod
 /u/ as in pool
 /ɛ/ as in fell

h. Passage 8

/ɛ/ as in head
 /ɪ/ as in is
 /ə/ as in against
 /ʌ/ as in but
 /ɑ:/ as in half
 /i/ as in sea
 /æ/ as in that
 /ɔ:/ as in supported
 /ɔ/ as in only

5.2.3.3 Diphthongal sounds

The following diphthongs were isolated for purposes of the experiment:

a. Passage 1

/ɔv/ as in no

b. Passage 2

/əv/ as in so

c. Passage 4

/əʊ/ as in oval
 /eɪ/ as in paler

d. Passage 8

/əʊ/ as in so

5.3 Description of methods used in the analysis of data5.3.1 Introduction

Two methods were used in the analysis of the data sampled viz. Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis. The Contrastive Analysis was used to establish a hypothesis bearing on possible problem areas and the Error Analysis was used to confirm, supplement or refute the hypothesis on the basis of actual analysis.

The use of these two strategies proved handy, since they rendered the study manageable by providing guide-lines which could be followed to home-in on actual problems experiences by pupils selected for this study.

5.3.2 Description of methods used

The following is a brief description of and comment on the two methods used.

5.3.2.1 Contrastive Analysis

Contrastive Analysis as a research method is actively pursued in many universities and research institutions, but since the writer is more conversant with the American scene, examples are cited mainly from that country. The following are examples of institutions where Contrastive Analysis is used: University of Michigan, Indiana University, University of Washington, University of Hawaii, Georgetown University, Stanford University and the Centre of Applied Linguistics of Washington D.C. (For details vide 4, xiii-xv)¹⁾.

¹⁾ It was at Southern Illinois University, however, where the writer studied and applied C.A. as a research method in language studies.

In Europe the C.A. research method is used at the Technical University of Stuttgart and at the University of Zegreb. Contrastive studies are also pursued in countries such as Rumania, Poland, Hungary and Czechoslovakia (4, xv).

The aim of Contrastive Analysis as a research method is clear: it is "to provide separate detailed phonological and syntactic analyses of different languages according to the principles of structural linguistics and to show up the differences and similarities by comparing the results" (7, 83).

The rationale of this research method therefore is to seek and find a procedure of predicting those mistakes in pronunciation and sentence construction that foreign learners of a language are likely to make and to devise drills to prevent these mistakes from occurring (7, 83).

C.A. assumes that usually where there are major structural differences between the L1 and the L2, then the chances are that there will be high interference in the learning process and that the interference in the distinctive units will be more serious in regard to intelligibility (7, 84).

Vladimir Mach (9, 103) sums up the usefulness of this research method for the L2 teacher when he points out that psychological research into the process of learning shows that one main task of a foreign language teacher is to try and suppress the inhibitory effect of the native language on the internalization of the target language system. The task of the teacher should cover both the syntactic and the phonological systems of the target language.

For purposes of our thesis we applied the method to the study of vowel and diphthongal sounds only, focusing mainly on areas of difference rather than of similarity. The reason is that in our case C.A. is used as a means to an end and not as an end in itself - to establish a guide-line for an error analysis and, subsequently, remedial drills.

5.3.2.2 Error Analysis

Error Analysis as a research method is used to pinpoint syntactic and phonological errors in the learning and use of a target language.

The method lends itself particularly well where a researcher wishes

to establish patterns of error occurring in a particular L2 learning situation.

There are many researchers and second language teachers who prefer to start off directly with an error analysis of a corpus rather than to use C.A. first as a guide-line. Their argument is that even if one starts off with C.A. one ends up with E.A. anyway (Cf. 6, 137-147).

It will not prove a useful exercise to go into details of whether or not E.A. should be preceded by C.A., since for our purposes we need C.A. to establish a hypothesis and E.A. to test the hypothesis.

5.3.3 Criterion used in the analysis of data

Since the basic premise is to research oral communication in English as L2 among North Sotho-speaking children, in the error analysis of the data sampled, intelligibility will be used as a criterion, and the testees' oral performance will be judged acceptable or otherwise on the basis of this criterion.

Using intelligibility as a criterion it will be possible to quantify aberrancies and therefore be able to represent them in numerical terms. This criterion will also enable the researcher to bypass dialectal and regional variants which though characteristic of any language (including English) may render a study such as this one well-nigh impossible and consequently render the preparation of remedial material equally impossible¹⁾. Needless to say that it is comparatively easy to quantify data bearing on, say, the tendency to omit the Article, failure to effect a specific transformation or inability to categorize the verb into, say, regular and irregular forms; but to describe similarities and dissimilarities between two sounds systems in a second language learning situation is anything but easy: it calls for repeated playbacks per testee to arrive at a reliable decision.

5.3.4 Method used in scoring

To control discrepancies that may arise from the competence-performance dichotomy, it would be necessary to analyse each testee's performance on each of the eight passages but noting only those areas that have

¹⁾ Remedial material in any second language programme is usually presented in the "Standard" dialect of the target language concerned.

been identified as probable problem areas by Contrastive Analysis of North Sotho and English vowel and diphthongal sounds. But for the sake of ease of scoring a sound will be scored as correctly or incorrectly articulated only once per passage even if it occurs more than once in that same passage. The rationale behind this is that the largeness of the sample together with the different contexts in which the same sound occurs in the different passages will provide an overview detailed enough to enable the researcher to generalize reliably on the performance of the sample group as representatives of speakers of North Sotho as L1 learning English as L2.

In practice therefore the oral performance of all three hundred testees will be scored on the basis of "correctly articulated" and "incorrectly articulated" pre-selected English sounds identified in all eight passages. The resultant scores will be represented numerically and categorized in error-frequency tables.

The error-frequency tables therefore will contain totals of "correctly articulated" and "incorrectly articulated" sounds for all three hundred testees but will represent each of the eight passages separately. In the analysis and discussion of the error-frequency tables, the highest reach in "incorrect production"¹⁾ and the lowest reach in "incorrect production"²⁾ will be used to determine a critical point in incorrect production of certain sounds. Given the highest reach and the lowest reach in incorrect production it will not be necessary to give the highest and the lowest reaches in correct production since this can be established by simple arithmetic. For example if 285 testees produced the /a:/ sound incorrectly, then it follows that 15 produced it correctly.

The highest and the lowest reaches will be determined by comparing all eight passages used in the experiment.

5.4 Contrastive analysis of North Sotho and English vowel and diphthongal sounds

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- 1) i.e. the highest number of times that the sound was incorrectly produced.
- 2) i.e. the lowest number of times that the sound was incorrectly produced.

5.4.1 Introduction

Although the very act of contrasting English and North Sotho vowel and diphthongal sounds constitutes a research method in its own right in that it enables the researcher to discover similarities and dissimilarities between the phonological systems of two languages yet for purposes of this study both the contrasting itself and the information resulting therefrom will be regarded as part and parcel of the primary research methods described under 5.3 above. The decision is merely for convenience and ease of lay-out and discussion rather than of a set research principle.

Contrasting the two systems provides a useful base for the error analysis in that what is described herein constitutes the norm used in deciding whether or not an articulated sound will be judged acceptable in the target language and how it "stands"/sounds relative to the source language.

5.4.2 English vowel and diphthongal sounds

A.C. Gimson (5, 94-143) provides the following vowels and diphthongs as the ones usually associated with the British Received Pronunciation (RP) - a variety of spoken English usually taken as "standard" and taught to non-natives for communicational purposes:

- /i/ - produced with the tongue tense and its front raised with the sides making firm contact with the upper molars; the lips are spread. It occurs in words such as tree, cheek, sea.
- /ɪ/ - produced with the tongue lax, nearer to the centre than the front and with its side rims making light contact with the upper molars. The lips are loosely spread. It occurs in words such as sit, rich, with.
- /ɛ/ - produced with the front of the tongue raised between the half-open and the half-closed positions; the tongue makes light contact with the upper molars. The lips are loosely spread but slightly wider apart than for the /ɪ/. It occurs in words such as set, bed, dead.

- /æ/ - produced with the mouth slightly more open than for the /ɛ/; the front of the tongue is raised to just below the half-open position with its rim making slight contact with the back upper molars. It occurs in words such as sat, hand, lamp.
- /ʌ/ - produced with considerable separation of jaws and with the lips neutrally open; the centre of the tongue is raised to just above the fully open position. There is no contact between the tongue and the upper molars. It occurs in words such as sun, but, dull.
- /ɑ:/ - produced with considerable separation of jaws, but with lips neutrally open. Part of the tongue is in fully open position with none of its parts making contact with the upper molars. It occurs in words such as pass, bath, calm.
- /ɑ/ - produced with wide-open jaws and slight lip-rounding; the back of the tongue is in the fully open position with no contact being made with the upper molars. It occurs in words such as what, want, watch.
- /ɔ:/ - produced with medium lip-rounding with the back of the tongue raised between the half-open and the half-closed positions and making no contact with the upper molars. It occurs in words such as bought, horse, talk.
- /ɒ/ - produced with slight lip-rounding with back of the tongue slightly raised and making no contact with the upper molars. It occurs in words such as box, not, pot.
- /ʊ/ - produced with a part of the tongue nearer to the centre in a half-close position with no firm contact with the upper molars. The lips are closely but loosely held. It occurs in words such as put, full, butcher.
- /u/ - produced with the tongue raised but relaxed and making no firm contact with the upper molars. The lips are closely rounded. It occurs in words such as who, soon, rude.

- /ɜ:/ - produced with the centre of the tongue raised between half-close and half-open and making no firm contact with the upper molars. The lips are neutrally spread. It occurs in words such as girl, bird, nurse.
- or
/əɹ/
- /ə/ - produced with neutral lip position and the tongue raised between half-open and half-close. It occurs in words such as mother, picture, China.
- /eɪ/ - the glide begins from slightly below half-open front position and moves in the direction of the R.P. /ɪ/, there being a slight closing movement of the lower jaw. The lips are spread. It occurs in words such as day, ape, lady.
- /aɪ/ - the glide begins at a point slightly behind the front open position and moves back in the direction of the position associated with the R.P. /ɪ/. The lips change from neutral to a loosely spread position. It occurs in words such as time, dry, bite.
- /ɔɪ/ - the tongue glide begins at the point between the back half-open and open position and moves in the direction of /ɪ/. The lips are open-rounded for the first element changing to neutral for the second. It occurs in words such as boy, toy, voice.
- /əʊ/ - the tongue glide begins at the central position, between half-close and half-open and moves in the direction of the R.P. /ʊ/, then follows a slight closing movement of the lower jaw. The lips are neutral for the first element but tend to round for the second element. It occurs in words such as so, folk, go.
- /aʊ/ - the glide begins at a point between the back front positions, slightly more fronted than the R.P. /a:/ and moves towards the R.P. /ʊ/ though the tongue may not be raised above the half-close level. The lips change from a neutrally open to a weakly rounded position. It occurs in words such as cow, town, allow.

- /ɪə/ - the glide begins with the tongue position at centralised front half-close and moves in a direction of /ə/. The lips are neutral throughout but there is often a slight movement from spread to open. It occurs in words such as idea, here, Ian.
- /ɛə/ - the glide begins in half-open front position and moves in the direction of /ə/. The lips are neutrally open throughout. It occurs in words such as care, air, chair.
- /ʊə/ - the tongue moves from the position of /ʊ/ to that of /ə/ with the lips weakly rounded at the beginning of the glide, becoming neutrally spread as the glide progresses. It occurs in words such as poor, pure, tour.

5.4.3 North Sotho vowel sounds

The following are the North Sotho vowel sounds (3; 13, 120-122):

- /i/ - produced with the mouth cavity narrowed by the front of the tongue and the lips spread. For practical purposes the /i/ vowel is identical with the Cardinal Vowel No. 1.
- /e/ - produced with the mouth cavity less narrowed by the tongue than is the case for the /i/ vowel and lips slightly spread. It lies between Cardinal Vowels Nos 1 and 2.
- /ɛ/ - produced with the mouth cavity less narrowed by the tongue than is the case for the /e/ vowel and lips slightly spread. For practical purposes it is identical with Cardinal Vowel No. 3 although it is slightly more open.
- /a/ - produced with the lips and tongue in a position requiring a minimum of tension for articulation. The mouth cavity is rounded. It lies between Cardinals 4 and 5.
- /ɔ/ - produced with the mouth cavity slightly narrowed by the back of the tongue and with the lips slightly rounded. It is practically the same as Cardinal No. 6 although it is slightly more open.
- /o/ - produced with the mouth cavity narrowed by the tongue and with lips rounded. It lies between Cardinals No's 7 and 8.

/u/ - produced with mouth cavity narrowed considerably by the back of the tongue and with lips fully rounded. It is practically identical with Cardinal No. 8.

The above described vowel phonemes are basic in North Sotho but some of them, namely /e/, /ɛ/, /o/ and /ɔ/, have raised variants which are brought about by environments, notably by the suffixing of the locative morpheme /ŋ/.

5.4.4 Contrasting English and North Sotho vowel sounds

The first obvious difference between North Sotho and English vowel and diphthongal sounds is that whereas North Sotho has only seven basic vowels (the other four being variants) English recognises no fewer than twenty-one vowel and diphthongal sounds. One may reasonably predict that the enormous difference between these two systems will lead to varying degrees of difficulty to North Sotho-speaking children trying to cope with the English vowel sounds.

The second difference is that whereas the North Sotho /i/, /o/, /ɔ/ and /u/ are practically the same as Cardinal Numbers 1, 7, 6 and 8 respectively, English does not have an identical arrangement. This difference too could turn-out to be an area of difficulty for the North Sotho child learning English as L2.

The third difference is that whereas English has central vowel sounds North Sotho does not. This too could turn-out a problem area.

The fourth difference between the two languages is that whereas certain English vowel sounds have the suprasegmental feature of length which is phonemically significant in that it carries a contrasting feature, North Sotho does not have a comparable characteristic. Where length occurs in North Sotho it does not introduce any contrast but rather some regional variant of the same sound.

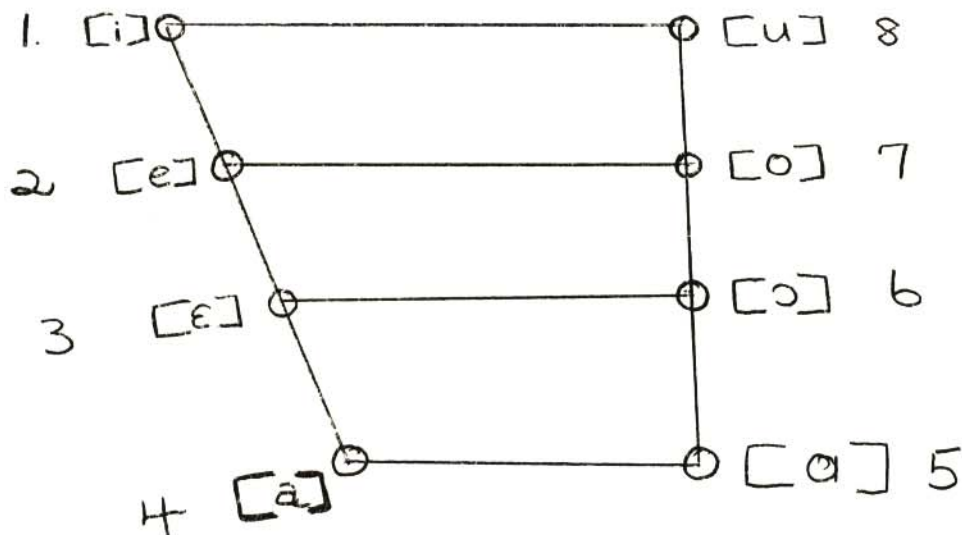
The fifth difference is that whereas diphthongization in North Sotho is almost invariably represented in the lexicon, in English the situation is not always so. For example the changing quality of the [o] in so, no etc. is not lexically represented. This is a significant difference and a possible area of difficulty.

The sixth difference is that whereas English has reduced vowels North Sotho does not. Again this is a significant difference and a possible

5.4.5 Position of Vowels: Cardinal, English and North Sotho

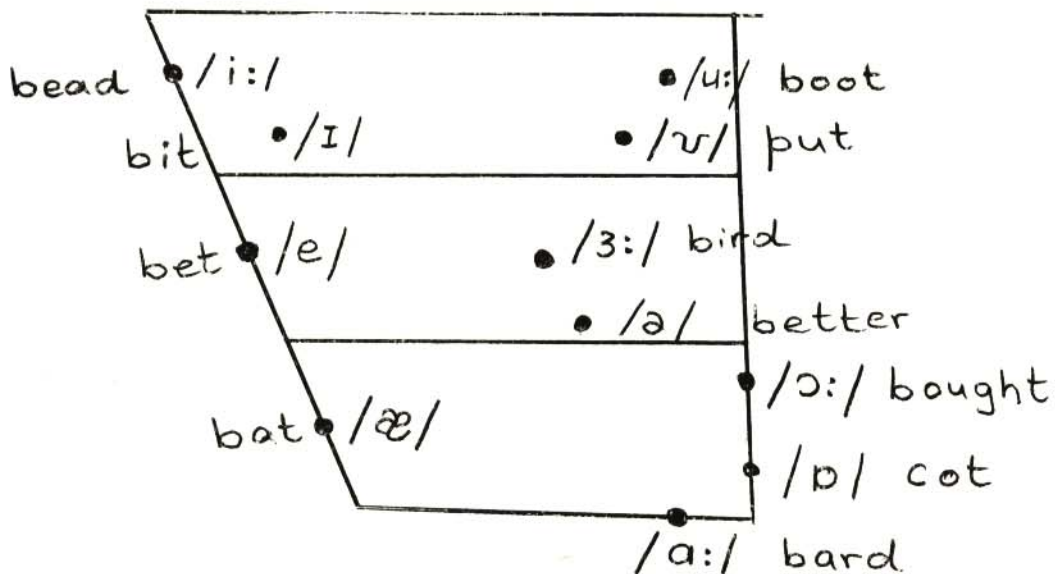
For easy reference we provide hereunder the relative position of vowels that are relevant to this study. They are Cardinal Vowels, English Vowels and North Sotho Vowels (Vide infra, Figures 1, 2 and 3).

FIGURE 1: CARDINAL VOWEL CHART



After Branford, W. (2, 51)

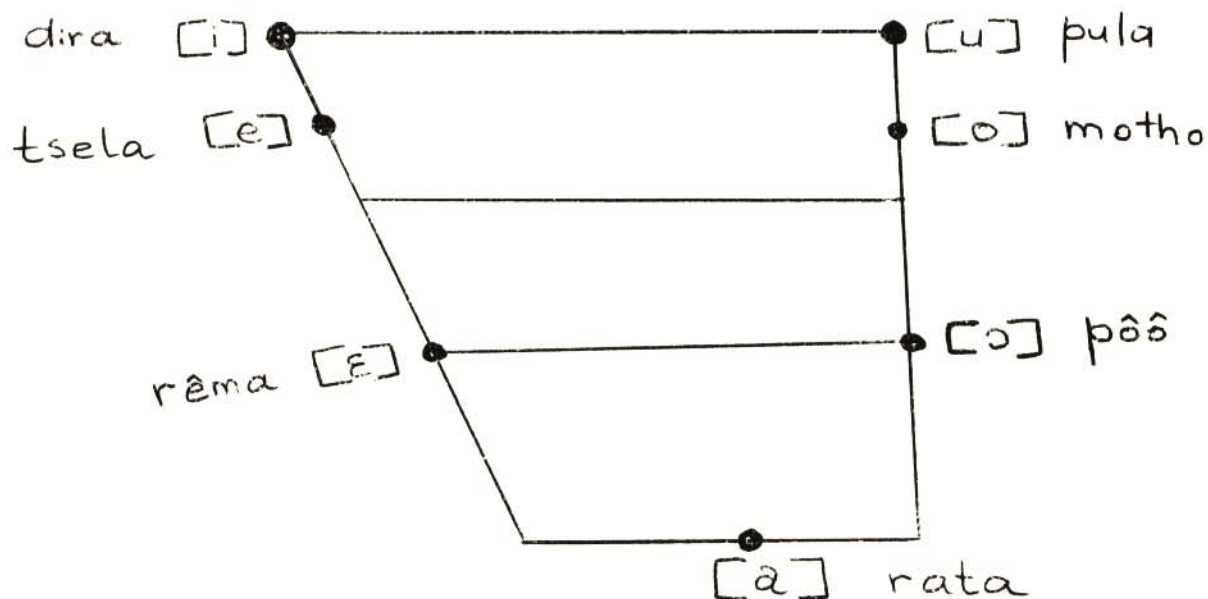
FIGURE 2: ENGLISH VOWEL CHART



After Branford, W. (2, 57)

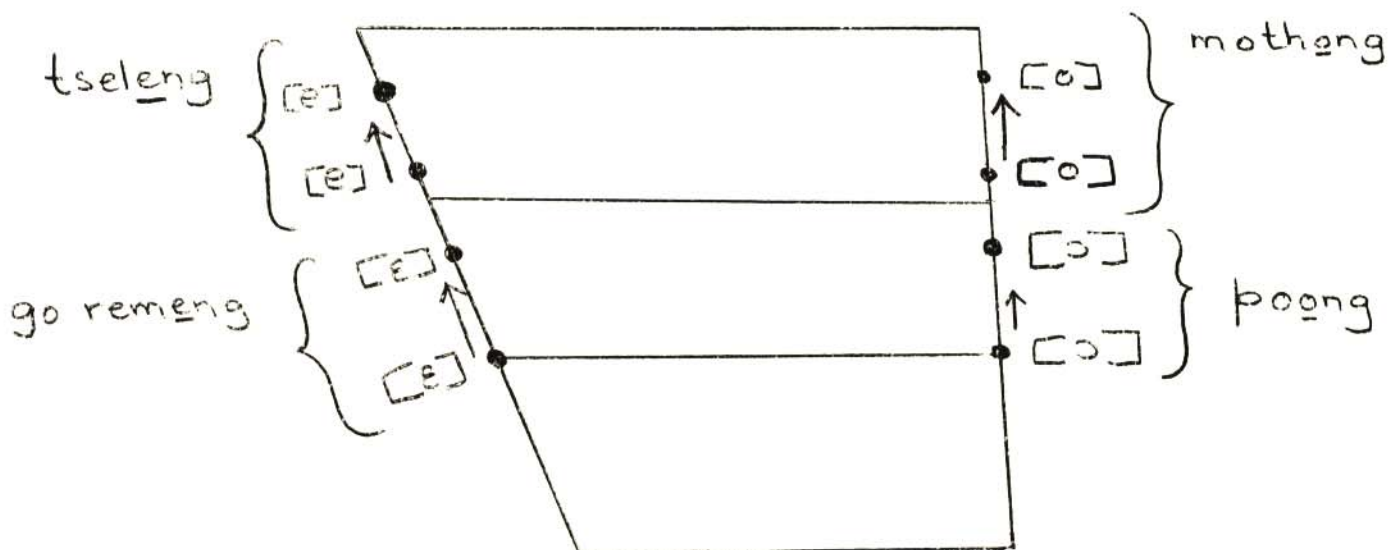
NOTE: In our discussion the symbol /ɛ/ is used for Branford's /e/,
 /a:/ is used for his /a:/ and
 /əɾ/ is used for his /ɜ:/

FIGURE 3: NORTH SOTHO VOWEL CHART



After Ziervogel, D. (13, 120)

FIGURE 4: NORTH SOTHO VOWEL CHART SHOWING VOWEL RAISING OR MUTATION



After Ziervogel, D. (13, 121) and (3)

5.5 Formulation of a hypothesis

It will be noted from 5.4.1 through 5.4.5 above that in contrasting North Sotho and English vowel and diphthongal sounds we were in effect hypothesising that differences in the phonological structure of the source language and the target language may increase possibilities of difficulty for the learners of the target language concerned.

The hypothesis, formulated on the strength of the Contrastive Analysis made under 5.4.1 through 5.4.5 above, will be tested against the results of the Error Analysis made on the actual data sampled for study.

5.6 Phonological Error Analysis of data and findings

5.6.1 Introduction

A striking discovery to emerge from the phonological Error Analysis of the performance of the pupils who participated in the project was that there was very little difference between the results of the Contrastive Analysis made under 5.4.1 through 5.4.5 above and the Error Analysis made.

This finding seems to confirm our hypothesis formulated under 5.5. above.

Those phonological features that were found in English but did not have near-counterparts in North Sotho turned out to be the most incorrectly articulated by the testees.

Notice that we would rather speak of near-counterparts (Cf. 12, 1-2) rather than counterparts because strictly speaking sound systems comprising the phonological values of the different languages of the world are somewhat unique to those languages. But this does not mean that "approximate" sounds i.e. sounds that do not render intelligibility and communicativity altogether impossible cannot be identified; indeed they can. For example, the sound / ǃ / in the North Sotho word [ǃa] will not necessarily disrupt the phonological value of the English / i / sound in the word [il]. What the native speaker of English will not fail to hear will be an "accent" identified as foreign. This in itself, however, will not constitute an aberrancy of sufficient seriousness to render intelligibility impossible.

This feature of near-counterparts could be generalised to dialectal variations in the production of certain sounds which, however, do not impair communication between speakers of the language concerned. Also idiolectal differences such as /dɪvɔ:s/ and /dɑɪvɔ:s/ or /fɪnəns/ and /fɑɪnəns/ do not normally impair communication between native speakers of English.

5.6.2 Error frequency analysis

5.6.2.1 Introduction

In order to bring out a clearly defined picture of the degree of difficulty of the different vowel and diphthongal sounds we found it necessary to provide error-frequency tables for all the pupils who participated in the project.

The error-frequency tables are a useful guide-line in determining the intensity of drill work to be done for certain sounds.

5.6.2.2 Error frequency tables

The following are error frequency tables showing data obtained from the analysis of the corpus sampled for this study:

- a. Sounds isolated for purposes of the study.
- b. Number of pupils who failed to produce the sound.
- c. Number of pupils who succeeded in producing the sound accurately.
- d. Total number of pupils who participated in the project.
- e. Summary of error frequency tables.

For the sake of clarity and comparative ease of calculation the error-frequency tables are drawn according to the reading passages 1 through 8.

5.6.2.2.1 Vowel sounds

PASSAGE 1

TABLE 16: ERROR-FREQUENCY TABLE FOR PASSAGE 1

SOUND	NUMBER OF PUPILS WHO FAILED TO PRODUCE THE SOUND CORRECTLY	NUMBER OF PUPILS WHO SUCCEEDED IN PRODUCING THE SOUND CORRECTLY	TOTAL NUMBER OF PUPILS PER SOUND
/ər/	300	0	300
/ʊ/	300	0	300
/i/	0	300	300
/æ/	165	135	300
/ɪ/	120	180	300
/ɔ:/	195	105	300
/ɒ/	0	300	300
/ɛ/	225	75	300

PASSAGE 2

TABLE 17: ERROR-FREQUENCY TABLE FOR PASSAGE 2

SOUND	NUMBER OF PUPILS WHO FAILED TO PRODUCE THE SOUND CORRECTLY	NUMBER OF PUPILS WHO SUCCEEDED IN PRODUCING THE SOUND CORRECTLY	TOTAL NUMBER OF PUPILS PER SOUND
/ɪ/	165	135	300
/ɒ/	0	300	300
/i/	15	285	300
/æ/	150	150	300
/ɑ:/	0	300	300
/ʊ/	285	15	300
/ʌ/	300	0	300
/ə/	300	0	300

PASSAGE 3

TABLE 18: ERROR-FREQUENCY TABLE FOR PASSAGE 3

SOUND	NUMBER OF PUPILS WHO FAILED TO PRODUCE THE SOUND CORRECTLY	NUMBER OF PUPILS WHO SUCCEEDED IN PRODUCING THE SOUND CORRECTLY	TOTAL NUMBER OF PUPILS PER SOUND
/ɪ/	195	105	300
/i/	0	300	300
/u/	0	300	300
/æ/	255	45	300
/ɔ/	0	300	300
/ə/	285	15	300
/ɛ/	240	60	300
/ɔ:/	165	135	300

PASSAGE 4

TABLE 19: ERROR-FREQUENCY TABLE FOR PASSAGE 4

SOUND	NUMBER OF PUPILS WHO FAILED TO PRODUCE THE SOUND CORRECTLY	NUMBER OF PUPILS WHO SUCCEEDED IN PRODUCING THE SOUND CORRECTLY	TOTAL NUMBER OF PUPILS PER SOUND
/æ/	135	165	300
/ə/	285	15	300
/ʌ/	300	0	300
/ɛ/	255	45	300
/i/	0	300	300
/ɪ/	240	60	300
/ɔ/	0	300	300
/ɑ/	0	300	300
/ʊ/	300	0	300
/ɑ:/	120	180	300
/ær/	300	0	300

PASSAGE 7**TABLE 22: ERROR-FREQUENCY TABLE FOR PASSAGE 7**

SOUND	NUMBER OF PUPILS WHO FAILED TO PRODUCE THE SOUND CORRECTLY	NUMBER OF PUPILS WHO SUCCEEDED IN PRODUCING THE SOUND CORRECTLY	TOTAL NUMBER OF PUPILS PER SOUND
/ə/	45	255	300
/ɑ:/	270	30	300
/ər/	285	15	300
/i/	0	300	300
/ə/	300	0	300
/ʌ/	285	15	300
/I/	165	136	300
/ə/	105	195	300
/ɔ/	0	300	300
/u/	0	300	300
/ɛ/	240	60	300

PASSAGE 8**TABLE 23: ERROR-FREQUENCY TABLE FOR PASSAGE 8**

SOUND	NUMBER OF PUPILS WHO FAILED TO PRODUCE THE SOUND CORRECTLY	NUMBER OF PUPILS WHO SUCCEEDED IN PRODUCING THE SOUND CORRECTLY	TOTAL NUMBER OF PUPILS PER SOUND
/ɛ/	225	75	300
/I/	180	120	300
/ə/	270	30	300
/ʌ/	300	0	300
/ɑ:/	285	15	300
/i/	0	300	300
/ə/	120	180	300
/ɔ:/	195	105	300
/ɔ/	0	300	300

5.6.2.2.2 Diphthongal soundsPASSAGE 1

TABLE 24: ERROR-FREQUENCY TABLE FOR PASSAGE 1

SOUND	NUMBER OF PUPILS WHO FAILED TO PRODUCE THE SOUND CORRECTLY	NUMBER OF PUPILS WHO SUCCEEDED IN PRODUCING THE SOUND CORRECTLY	TOTAL NUMBER OF PUPILS PER SOUND
/əʊ/	281	19	300

PASSAGE 4

TABLE 25: ERROR-FREQUENCY TABLE FOR PASSAGE 4

SOUND	NUMBER OF PUPILS WHO FAILED TO PRODUCE THE SOUND CORRECTLY	NUMBER OF PUPILS WHO SUCCEEDED IN PRODUCING THE SOUND CORRECTLY	TOTAL NUMBER OF PUPILS PER SOUND
/əʊ/	279	21	300
/eɪ/	187	113	300

PASSAGE 8

TABLE 26: ERROR-FREQUENCY TABLE FOR PASSAGE 8

SOUND	NUMBER OF PUPILS WHO FAILED TO PRODUCE THE SOUND CORRECTLY	NUMBER OF PUPILS WHO SUCCEEDED IN PRODUCING THE SOUND CORRECTLY	TOTAL NUMBER OF PUPILS PER SOUND
/əʊ/	280	20	300

TABLE 27: TABLE SHOWING IN SUMMARY FORM THOSE ENGLISH VOWEL SOUNDS THAT NORTH SOTHO SPEAKING CHILDREN FIND MOST DIFFICULT TO PRODUCE. THE SOUNDS ARE LISTED IN ORDER OF DIFFICULTY.

SOUND	HIGHEST REACH "INCORRECT PRODUCTION" ¹⁾		LOWEST REACH "INCORRECT PRODUCTION" ²⁾	
	NUMERICAL	PERCENTAGE	NUMERICAL	PERCENTAGE
/ə/	300	100%	285	95%
/ʌ/	300	100%	285	95%
/ɑr/	300	100%	285	95%
/ʊ/	300	100%	285	95%
/ɑ:/	295	95%	120	40%
/ɛ/	255	85%	210	70%
/ɪ/	240	80%	105	35%
/æ/	210	70%	105	35%
/ɔ:/	195	65%	165	55%
/ɑ/	45	15%	0	0%
/ɔ/	15	5%	0	0%
/i/	15	5%	0	0%
/u/	0	0%	0	0%

TABLE 28: TABLE SHOWING IN SUMMARY FORM THOSE ENGLISH DIPHTHONGAL SOUNDS THAT NORTH SOTHO SPEAKING CHILDREN FIND MOST DIFFICULT TO PRODUCE. THE SOUNDS ARE LISTED IN ORDER OF IDFFICULTY.

SOUND	HIGHEST REACH "INCORRECT PRODUCTION" ³⁾		LOWEST REACH "INCORRECT PRODUCTION" ³⁾	
	NUMERICAL	PERCENTAGE	NUMERICAL	PERCENTAGE
/əʊ/	281	94%	279	93%
/eɪ/	187	62%	- 4)	- 4)

1) The highest number of times that the sound was incorrectly produced.

2) The lowest number of times that the sound was incorrectly produced.

3) Vide supra, footnote Table 26.

4) This sound is listed only once in the error-frequency table and therefore it was not possible to establish its "lowest reach".

5.6.2.3 Analysis and discussion of error-frequency tables

5.6.2.3.1 Introduction

The above error-frequency tables provide quantified representation of those English vocalic and diphthongal sounds that North Sotho-speaking children find difficult to articulate acceptably.

The following discussion represents an analysis of the data reflected in the above error-frequency tables.

5.6.2.3.2 Vowel sounds

a. The /ə/ and /ʌ/ sounds

The two sounds are central vowel sounds and both of them are not paralleled in North Sotho. Possibly as a result of this, many North Sotho speaking children find these two vowel sounds extremely difficult to produce.

According to our survey, between 95% and 100% of the children tested produced these two sounds aberrantly (Vide supra, Table 26). We may add here that our personal experience as teacher of L2 in Black schools support this finding. In a survey conducted by Lanham and Traill (8, 13) it was also found that Black pupils found this sound particularly difficult to produce acceptably (Cf. 2, 65).

b. The /ər/ sound

This is a central vowel sound with length. Like the schwa sound discussed under 5.6.2.3.2a above, the /ər/ sound does not occur in the North Sotho phonological system.

According to our survey, the /ər/ sound is just as difficult to produce as the schwa sound. As table 26 above clearly shows, between 95% and 100% of the pupils tested articulated this sound aberrantly (Cf. 8, 25).

c. The /ʊ/ sound

This is a reduced vowel and like the /ə/, /ʌ/ and /ər/ sounds it does not occur in the North Sotho sound system.

Our survey revealed that North Sotho-speaking children found this sound just as difficult to produce as they did in the case of /ə/, /ʌ/ and /əɾ/. Our survey revealed that between 95% and 100% of the pupils tested produced this sound incorrectly (Vide supra, Table 26).

d. The long /ɑ:/ sound

According to our sample study the long /ɑ:/ sound was the next line in terms of difficulty of production after /ə/, /ʌ/, /əɾ/ and /ʊ/. A wide range of between 40% and 95% instances of production by the survey group was aberrant (Vide supra, Table 26).

This was rather surprising since the /ɑ:/ sound does occur in the North Sotho sound system; for example in the word [pa:le]. The only possible explanation is that the aberrance is a product of incorrect tuition rather than interference of the phonological system of the source language on that of the target language (Vide supra, 3, 2). In other words, the children have never been adequately taught to discriminate between the long /ɑ:/ and the short /ɑ/ sounds.

e. The /ɛ/ sound

The /ɛ/ sound also proved to be a problem area for North Sotho-speaking children. In fact, our survey placed it third in line in order of difficulty (Vide supra, Table 26). Between 70% and 85% of the survey group articulated it aberrantly.

f. The short /ɪ/ sound

The short /ɪ/ sound is a classical problem sound for Black children learning English as a target language. As early as 1913 Inspector R.W. Swartbreck commented specifically on the problem Black pupils had in learning to produce this sound (Vide supra, 3.2). According to our survey the short /ɪ/ sound had between 35% and 80% incorrect frequency of production by the sample group (Vide supra, Table 26).

g. The /æ/ sound

According to our survey, the /æ/ sound proved to be almost as

difficult to articulate as the short /ɪ/ sound. As Table 26 above shows, between 35% and 70% of the pupils tested failed to produce it correctly.

h. The long /ɔ:/ sound

The long /ɔ:/ sound was, according to our sample study, the sixth in line in terms of difficulty of articulation (Vide supra, Table 26). Between 55% and 65% of the survey group produced it aberrantly.

As was the case with the long /ɑ:/ sound, this was rather surprising since the long /ɔ:/ sound does occur in North Sotho, for example in the word [phɔ:kɔ]. Again here the possible reason for the aberrant production of the sound is poor instruction rather than interference of a source language with a target language.

i. The sounds /ɑ/, /ɔ/, /i/ and /u/

According to our survey these four sounds did not prove to be serious areas of difficulty for the North Sotho-speaking child. Only between 0% and 15% instances of production were sufficiently aberrant to warrant concern.

All four sounds occur in North Sotho as near-counterparts of the English ones.

5.6.2.3.3 Diphthongal sounds

Diphthongization proved to be a serious problem for North Sotho-speaking children learning English as a second language. In our sample study the diphthongs /əʊ/ and /eɪ/ had a production error-frequency of up to 94% for the former and 62% for the latter (Vide supra, Table 27).

Diphthongization that is not lexically represented does not occur in North Sotho.

5.7 Accounting for the errors

5.7.1 Introduction

It is hardly disputable that in the acquisition of an additional

variety of a phonological system, there is no sure way in which the first variety could be altogether subdued. There will always be an element of interference which to a greater or lesser extent will affect the production of the L2 sound system.

The problem will, in most cases, manifest itself along two fronts. First, the learner's effort to produce the phonemes of the target language as if they were entirely identical with those of his L1 and, second, the absence of certain sounds in the learner's L1 phonological system¹⁾ leads to problems of production.

We attempt hereunder to provide some possible explanations for the production errors discovered in our survey.

5.7.2 Accounting for specific errors

a. The schwa sounds

North Sotho does not have any schwa sounds comparable to those of English. Thus, when a North Sotho speaking child is confronted with any one of these sounds he tends to produce a North Sotho sound which sounds, at least to his ear, as the problem sound confronting him.

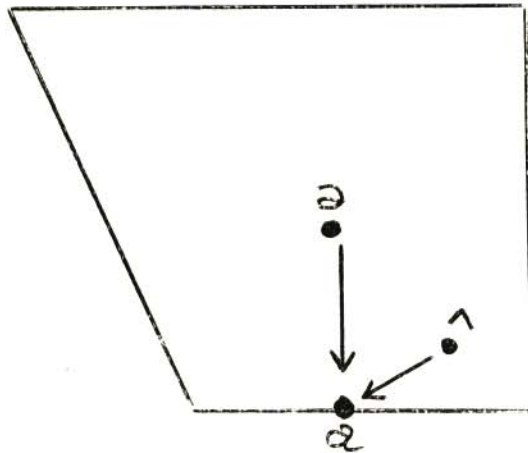
In our study, almost without exception, testees produced the open back vowel /ɑ/ in lieu of the schwa sound. Thus /əgeɪnst/ was articulated as /ɑgeɪnst/*¹⁾ and /wotə/ as */wotʰɑ/.

Subsidiarily we might note here that the second element of the diphthongal sound in /əgeɪnst/ was aberrantly articulated because this element i.e. the /ɪ/ does not occur in North Sotho neither as a pure vowel nor as an element of a vowel of changing quality.

The error tendency in the case of the production of the schwa sounds by North Sotho-speaking children could be represented as follows:

¹⁾ or what we have referred to in this study as "near-counterparts".

*The asterisk is used here to indicate a sound that is not acceptable.

FIGURE 5: ERROR TENDENCY IN THE PRODUCTION OF /ə/ AND /ʌ/b. The long central vowel /ɑr/ or /ɜ:/

The suprasegmental feature of length does occur in North Sotho; for example in words such as [mɛ:tse], [fɛ:la] and so forth. The problem however is that North Sotho does not have central vowels - whether long or short.

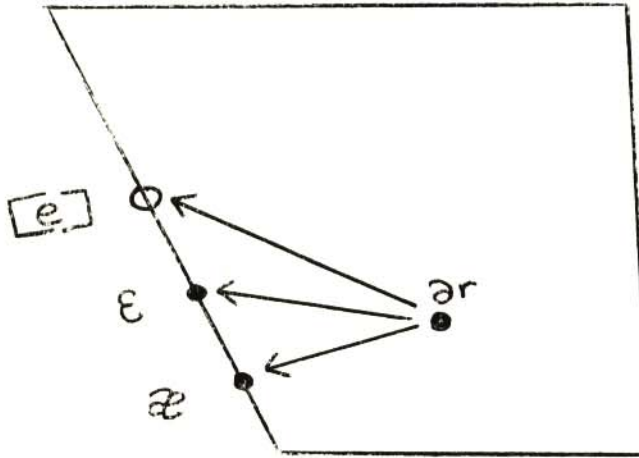
Thus, when North Sotho-speaking children are confronted with this sound, i.e. the long central vowel /ɑr/, they tend to fall back on one of three "solutions" to cope with the problem.

In our survey group the following seemed the most commonly used "solutions"

1. Falling back on the Cardinal Vowel /e/ thus producing ^{*}/bed/ for /bard/
2. falling back on the North Sotho /ɛ/ sound thus producing ^{*}/gɛl/ for /gɑr/
3. falling back on a sound approximating the English /æ/ but with a strong tendency towards the North Sotho /ɛ/ sound thus producing ^{*}/tʰæn/ or /tʰɛn/ for /tʰɑrn/

The error tendency in this area could be represented as follows:

FIGURE 6: ERROR TENDENCY IN THE PRODUCTION OF THE LONG CENTRAL VOWEL /ər/ OR /ɜ:/



c. The reduced vowels /ʊ/ and /ɪ/

The problem of the English reduced vowels /ʊ/ and /ɪ/ falls in the same category as that of the central vowels /ə/ and /ər/. Thus, again the North Sotho speaking child has to make use of whatever skills he has already acquired to cope with these "problem" sounds.

In the case of the /ʊ/ sound, testees tended to produce one of three sounds, namely:

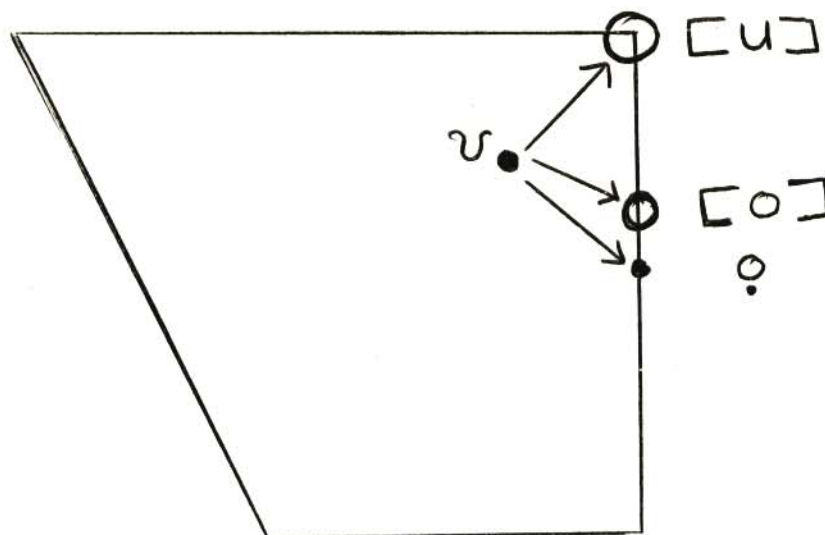
1. the Cardinal Vowel /o/ thus producing */p^hot/ for /p^hut/;
2. the North Sotho /o/ such as it occurs in the word [t³ola] thus producing */p^hot/ for /p^hut/.
3. the Cardinal Vowel /u/ thus producing */p^hut/

The last-mentioned error tendency was rather difficult to place accurately since in actual communicational speech it is not easy to differentiate between the Cardinal /u/ and the English /u/.

In our sample - for the third error tendency mentioned above - pupils tended to produce the /ʊ/ sound with the terseness characteristic of the Cardinal Vowel /u/ i.e. with the tongue at its furthest back position.

Thus the error tendency for the /ʊ/ sound could be represented as follows:

FIGURE 7: ERROR TENDENCY IN THE PRODUCTION OF THE REDUCED VOWEL /ʊ/

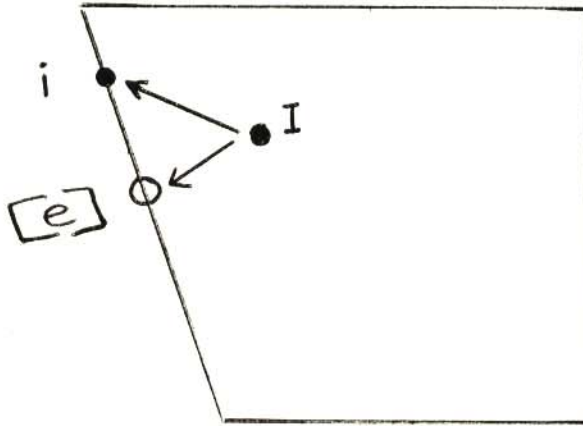


The short /ɪ/ sound is another problem area but not as difficult to cope with as the /ʊ/ sound. In our survey, the error tendency for the /ɪ/ sound was predominantly in two directions viz.

1. towards the English /i/ sound which led to /sɪp/ and /sɪp/ being both produced as /sɪp/.
2. towards the Cardinal Vowel sound /e/ which led to /ɪt/ being produced as */et/.

By and large the predominant error was the first one i.e. of not differentiating between the long /i/ and the short /ɪ/ sounds. The second error seemed to occur as a result of an effort at differentiating between the two sounds.

The error tendency for the /ɪ/ sound could be represented as follows:

FIGURE 8: ERROR TENDENCY IN THE PRODUCTION OF THE REDUCED VOWEL /ɪ/d. The /ɛ/ sound

The English /ɛ/ sound¹⁾ proved itself a particularly interesting sound. Testees often managed to produce it when it occurred in the environment of the voiceless continuant /h/ but in all other environments it seemed to present serious articulatory problems.

There seems to be no obvious explanation for this phenomenon except that since /h/ has no "sound"²⁾ of its own - attaining "sound" only when used with other consonants or vowels - it evidently does not present any phonological "obstruction" for the North Sotho-speaking child when he produces the /ɛ/ sound. If this is the case, then we may conclude that if the /ɛ/ sound were to occur initially (or with the /h/ sound) then it would not present as much difficulties as it does when it occurs medially.

On the whole, the error-tendency in connection with the /ɛ/ sound was almost always towards the /æ/ sound. The problem here is somewhat easy to account for: whereas English distinguishes constantly and obligatorily between /ɛ/ and /æ/ North Sotho does not; instead North Sotho has a variation of the /ɛ/ sound which is higher than the regular North Sotho /ɛ/ sound (Vide supra, Figure 3 and Figure 4), and accidentally of the Cardinal as well (Vide supra, Figure 1). This variation occurs in words

1) or /e/ according to A.C. Gimson (Cf. 5, 100).

2) i.e. being voiceless.

such as [tʂɛbɛŋ] which is the locative derivation of the word [tʂɛbɛ].

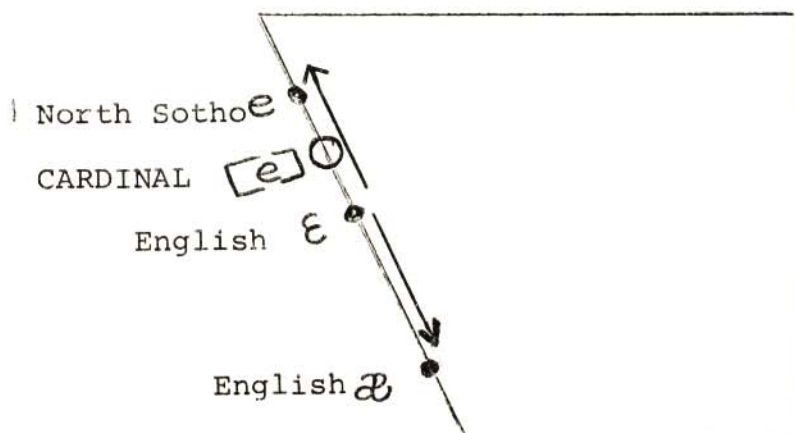
The tendency to move towards the /æ/ sound resulted in */fæi/ for /fɛi/ and */ræst/ for /rɛst/. This tendency could be generalised to other words such as failure to differentiate between /thæn/ and /thɛn/¹⁾, /phæn/ and /phɛn/²⁾ and similar minimal pairs. Without referring to North Sotho in particular, Gimson also comments on this type of problem (Cf. 5, 100).

Interesting enough, conscious effort to produce the English /ɛ/ sound often leads to the production of the Cardinal [e] instead. Thus, for example, the word [fɛi] in our survey was mispronounced */fɛi/.

A possible explanation for this interesting phenomenon is that the English /ɛ/ sound lies roughly mid-way between the North Sotho /ɛ/³⁾ and the Cardinal [e] thus, in an attempt to produce the English /ɛ/, the North Sotho child easily slips into the Cardinal [e] with which he is somewhat familiar⁴⁾. (Vide supra Figures 1, 2 and 3).

The error tendency for the /ɛ/ sound may be represented as follow

FIGURE 9: ERROR TENDENCY IN THE PRODUCTION OF THE /ɛ/ SOUND



- 1) spelled tan and ten respectively
- 2) spelled pan and pen respectively
- 3) which corresponds to the Cardinal /ɛ/
- 4) In the word [e|a] for example, the /e/ sound is very similar to the Cardinal [e] in quality.

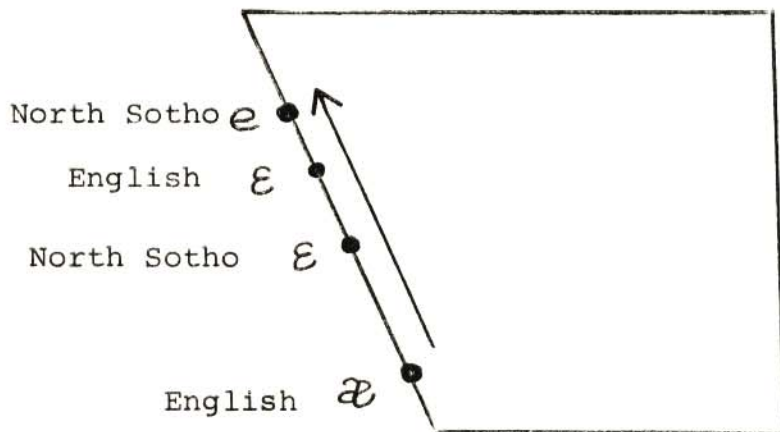
e. The /æ/ sound

The English /æ/ sound proved to be yet another interesting sound. Whereas efforts to produce the /ɛ/ sound often led to the production of a sound similar to the English /æ/ sound, efforts to produce the English /æ/ sound led to the production of a sound roughly mid-way between the North Sotho /ɛ/ and the English /æ/ sounds.

It^{is} for this reason that North Sotho speaking children find it difficult to contrast the English /æ/ and /ɛ/ sounds. Thus /lɛd/ and /læd/ both come out as ^{*}/læd/, ^{*}/lɛd/ or ^{*}/led/

Basically the error tendency for the /æ/ sound could be represented as follows:

FIGURE 10: ERROR TENDENCY IN THE PRODUCTION OF THE /æ/ SOUND

f. The long and the short /ɔ/ sounds

The difference between the North Sotho vowel sound /ɔ/ such as in the word /ɔlɔ/ and the English vowel sound /ɔ/ such as in the word /ɔl/ is so slight that it does not constitute an aberrancy of sufficient seriousness to impair communicativity in actual spoken English.

The English long /ɔ:/ sound presents some problems because of three possible reasons:

1. The common practice in North Sotho is to represent the supra-segmental feature of length by duplicating the vowel to be

lengthened. For example, the word [p^hɔ:kɔ] is spelled phōōkō and the word [p^hɔ:fɔlɔ] is spelled phōōfōlō. In English this is not the case.

2. Length does not constitute a contrasting feature for the sound /ɔ/ in North Sotho. For example, in conversational North Sotho /p^hɔkɔ/ and /p^hɔ:kɔ/ will not be understood as representing two different concepts but rather as a dialectal tendency or as an idiosyncrasy of some kind or other on the part of the speaker. In English /p^hɔt/ and /p^hɔ:t/ are two different concepts.
3. Whereas the English /ɔ/ sound in the environment of certain consonants is either lengthened or shortened, this phenomenon does not occur in North Sotho. In English, for example, /ɔ/ in the environment of the /l/ sound such as in the word stalk as articulated as /stɔ:k/ and in the word stock is articulated as /stɔk/.

North Sotho children overlook the significance of the phonemic distinction between /ɔ/ and /ɔ:/ and therefore fail to appreciate the contrast brought about by the inclusion of the suprasegmental feature of length in conversational English.

g. The short and the long /a/ sounds

The problem here is the same as the one discussed under 5.7.2f above. The /a/ sound taken by itself presents very little articulatory problem, but given length, it does cause difficulties.

Again in this case, there are three possible reasons why this problem occurs:

1. In North Sotho the length in /a:/ is realised by a reduplication of the vowel [a]. Thus, for example, the word [ma:ta] is spelled maatla and the word [pa:le] is spelled paale.
2. /a:/ and /a/ do not always contrast in North Sotho. Thus in conversational North Sotho /mata/ and /ma:ta/ will be encoded as representing variations of the same concept rather than as two different concepts.

We need to sound a note of warning here. Often, in North Sotho we

find words such as [ā̄] and [á:ā̄] meaning to spread and those respectively. But the phonemic distinction here is not carried by length per se, but rather by tone. The same phenomenon is observed in the two words [nà] meaning to rain and [nâ] meaning whether. The distinctive feature here centres around the low tone versus the circumflex rather than length per se.

3. Whereas in English the /ɑ/ sound achieves length in the environment of certain consonant sounds such as the /r/ sound (as in /bɑ:k/) and drops it in the environment of others such as the /k/ sound (as in /bɑk/), in North Sotho this phenomenon does not occur. The result of this difference is that the North Sotho-speaking child tends to pronounce bard and bud both as /bɑd/.

h. The /u/ and the /i/ sounds

The reason why these two sounds had a production error-frequency of between zero and 5% is that their production in both North Sotho and English is so close that the level of aberrancy is negligible. The /i/ sound in the word [ʃi] meaning here it is and in the English pronoun [ʃi] sound so close in normal conversation that they hardly cause any trouble for the North Sotho-speaking child. The same holds for the /u/ sound in [rúri] meaning truly and [tru].

i. Diphthongization

We have indicated under 5.7 above that the error frequency of the diphthongs /əʊ/ and /eɪ/ was 94 and 62 per cent respectively. This relationship can be explained as follows: In the case of /əʊ/ both elements comprising the diphthong do not have near-parallels in North Sotho.

The /eɪ/ diphthong was comparatively better produced because at least one element of the diphthong does occur in North Sotho; only the last element does not.

5.8 Limitations

It is important to mention that although utmost care was taken in the sampling and analysis of data for this project, yet certain limitations have to be acknowledged.

5.8.1 Sampling

In sampling data for a project such as this one, it is not always possible to control all variables that might influence the performance of the children. For example the presence of a stranger in the classroom, the idea of being recorded, time of day, class teacher-pupil relationship, degree of exposure to native speakers of English and so forth could have influenced performance to be a greater or lesser extent¹⁾.

5.8.2 Error Analysis

Although high fidelity recorders were used in this study, yet the inevitable problem of linguistic performance versus linguistic competence could not be eliminated altogether. This limitation, too, was contained by the large number of sound-groups that were analysed.

5.9 Conclusion

In any second language study, the critical issue is to pinpoint the problem area, account for the problems and then to prepare remedial material to cope with such problem areas.

In this study we managed to isolate certain English sounds which North Sotho-speaking children in the lower secondary school find difficult to produce acceptably. As Table 26 above shows, these sounds occurred in the following order of difficulty:

- First, the central vowels /ə/, /ʌ/ and /ɔ:/ or /ɜ:/;
- second, the reduced vowel /ʊ/;
- third, the long /ɑ:/ sounds;
- fourth, the /ɛ/ sound;

¹⁾ H. Douglas Brown ("Affective Variables in Second Language Acquisition" Language Learning, Vol, 23, No. 2, Dec. 1977, pp. 231-243) writing about the problems of controlling all variables in L2 acquisition points out that in dealing with the human species and how it processes language input and output "we are dealing with an extremely complex process within a complex organism; countless variables are interacting and it will be difficult enough to identify even the most salient factors. Second, as more and more variables are found to be influencing the process of second language acquisition, it will become increasingly difficult to type individuals and to classify groups of individuals together. Third, individuals tend to be somewhat inconsistent within themselves from day to day, or even moment to moment".

fifth, the reduced vowel /ɪ/;
 sixth, the /æ/ sound;
 seventh, the long /ɔ:/ sound. The short /a/, the short /ɔ/ and the /i/ sounds do not, according to our findings, present any great articulatory problems. The /u/ sound seems to be the easiest to produce.

We may, therefore, draw a line under the long /ɔ:/ sound in Table 26 and regard this point as a critical point in the sounds isolated for this study. All sounds above this sound in the table, i.e. Table 26, will then be classified as problem sounds and will therefore receive special attention when remedial drills are administered.

We have also attempted to account for the aberrancies that have been revealed by the study and have concluded that though inadequate instruction could not be ruled out, the interference of the North Sotho phonological system with that of English seems to be of primary importance. For this reason we have attempted to account for the errors by referring to the sound systems of the two languages being researched.

Our next problem therefore is to prepare some remedial material that could be administered to North Sotho-speaking children in the lower secondary school in an attempt to control the aberrancies we discovered in this study. Such material will constitute the subject of the next chapter in this research project.

What we need to emphasise at this point, however, is that the hypothesis that we put forward under 5.5 above, has been largely borne out by our study. This study has shown that a Contrastive Analysis of the source language and the target language could provide a useful startingpoint for a subsequent Error Analysis.

5.10 References

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Chapter 6

TESTING THE EFFECTIVENESS
OF THE REMEDIAL PROGRAMME6.1 Rationale

The primary aim of this chapter is to test the effectiveness of the programme that was designed on the basis of the error analysis that was made in Chapter 5 of this study.

The main focus of the experiment will be concentrated on the extent ^{to which} we think the programme can be administered in a typical language laboratory and the degree to which its administration can influence the oral performance of the remedial group of pupils. In other words, the purpose of the experiment is to find out whether or not the remedial programme designed can serve the purpose for which it was intended.

Overall, the value of the chapter lies in the fact that only limited research has so far been done in the area of phonology in second language instruction and second language learning. Terone (13, 88), for example, observed that "one area of second language acquisition which research has overlooked until very recently has been the area of phonology. Most recent studies have centred upon the acquisition of morphemes, the auxiliary and some higher order structures".

6.2 Method used in testing the effectiveness of the remedial programme6.2.1 Introduction

To test the effectiveness of the programme first a sample group of 40 pupils was selected, tested and their oral performances scored on the basis of an Error Analysis.

Then a study group of 10 pupils was selected from the sample group of 40 to serve as an experimental group. The ten were pre-tested on both the individual word-list sub-test and the reading test (Vide infra 6.2.10.2) to establish their level of performance prior to the administration of the remedial programme. The group was then exposed to the programme for a stipulated period (Vide infra 6.12) before being post-

tested. The post-test was based on the same tests described under 6.2.10.2 above and used for the pre-test. An Error Analysis of the post-test performance was made and scores compared with those of the pre-test to establish the effect of the programme on the oral performance of the experimental group.

The results of the pre- and post-tests were expected to give an indication of the level of effectiveness of the programme.

6.2.2 Selection of the sample group

The sample group was selected mainly on the basis of availability, i.e., arrangements were made with a particular school and a typical junior secondary class of 40 subjects was selected.

The available group was considered suitable for purposes of the experiment in that it was an arts group i.e. a group whose curriculum was geared towards the arts stream rather than the science or commerce streams. This means that the group had a special interest in, among other related subjects, language for language sake.

Furthermore, the available group was, according to the records of the school, neither abnormally poor nor exceptionally good. In terms of their general scholastic performance, therefore, the group was typical for a regular junior secondary school level in Black education.

Six specific criteria were, however, taken into account in this selection. These criteria were: level of education, General Aptitude, Aptitude in English Language Use, sex, age and home language.

These six criteria provide a good basis for describing the sample group and are therefore discussed under 6.2.3 below for the purpose.

6.2.3 Detailed description of the sample group

The following exposition represents a detailed description of the sample group used in the experiment. The six criteria listed under 6.2.2 above serve as sub-headings in order to provide a comprehensive coverage of the rationale underlying the selection of the sample group.

6.2.3.1 Level of education

The sample group of 40 subjects represented a typical Form II class in

a junior secondary school in Black education.

The level of education is an important variable to take into account since the number of years of schooling may well give an important indication of the length of time to which the child has been exposed to formal instruction in English.

Furthermore, the overall level of education gives a good indication of the child's level of cognitive development, in that a child with serious cognitive problems rarely (if ever) progresses sufficiently to be promoted from primary to post-primary school, save where such a child had received some clinically-designed type of instruction. Indeed, the level of education may also give an idea of a child's affective state, in that a child who is extremely impaired or disturbed is not likely to progress normally through his primary school education.

Since the survey group were according to their school records, typical pupils, their level of education vis-à-vis their level of cognitive development and affective state qualified them generally to learn and, by extension of this assumption, to learn through a specially-designed method of instruction, i.e. a remedial programme. The extent to which they can learn from this specially-designed instructional procedure can also be determined after the study group will have been exposed to the remedial programme.

At this level of education we may also reasonably assume that the testees must be familiar with most if not all the words comprising the tests; this in turn will give a good indication of those sounds that the testee has either acquired aberrantly or is influenced by his first language's phonological pattern to articulate aberrantly. Both indications will then provide a rationale for the administration of the remedial programme to re-orientate the pupil's oral performance with a view to bringing it in line with more socially acceptable norms of spoken English.

6.2.3.2 Aptitude scores

Aptitude scores for all 40 test subjects were obtained by administering the Aptitude Test for Junior Secondary Bantu Pupils in Form I which was designed and standardized by the Human Sciences Research Council's Institute for Psychometric Research in Pretoria (1971).

The Test is divided into two parts viz, Core Battery and Supplementary Battery. The Core Battery comprises six sub-tests covering English language use, spatial perception, non-verbal reasoning, mathematics, Afrikaans and verbal reasoning. The Supplementary Battery comprises five sub-tests covering comparisons, numerals, mechanical insight, co-ordination and writing speed.

First the entire test was administered to obtain General Aptitude scores of the group and then the English Language Use Sub-test was administered on the same group to obtain scores in English language use.

The General Aptitude test was scored out of a possible 632 points and the English Language Use sub-test was scored out of a possible 33 points.

The distribution of the General Aptitude scores for the group was considered satisfactory for this study since it manifested the following spread:

TABLE 29: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF GENERAL APTITUDE SCORES

<u>Scores</u>	<u>Number of test subjects</u>
500 +	1
400 +	12
300 +	22
200 +	3
100 +	2
TOTAL:	40

Arithmetic mean : 367,7

Standard deviation: 79,0

6.2.3.3 Aptitude scores in English Language Use

Aptitude scores in English language use were obtained by administering the English Language Use sub-test¹⁾ on all 40 test subjects.

The purpose of this test was to obtain the group's specific aptitude level in English language use.

1) This sub-test is contained in the Aptitude Test for Junior Secondary Bantu Pupils in Form I which was referred to under 6.2.3.2 above.

The distribution of scores on the English Language Use sub-test was taken as acceptable since it manifested the following frequency distribution:

TABLE 30: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF APTITUDE SCORES IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE USE

<u>Scores</u>	<u>Number of test subjects</u>
21	1
19	1
18	3
17	2
16	4
15	2
14	5
13	3
12	5
11	4
10	3
9	2
8	1
7	1
6	2
5	1
	TOTAL: 40

Arithmetic mean : 12,9

Standard deviation: 3,7

The range of aptitude scores on both the General Aptitude Test and the English Language Use sub-test indicates that the group is a heterogeneous one with a gradual spread around the mean. The group was therefore considered suitable for purposes of the present study.

6.2.3.4 Sex distribution

The Form II class that was selected for purposes of this study provided a balanced sample of 50% boys and 50% girls.

This arrangement was considered suitable for purposes of this study since the sex variable may well be a determinant factor in either general performance in second language learning or in the degree of

instruments of research, save only for superficial aspects of communicative competence (Loc, cit.).

Jakobovits does, however, concede that children have a remarkable ability to develop communicative competence in a second language under natural conditions of acquisition. "They seem to learn a second language effortlessly ... and sound more like native speakers than adults in comparable situations" (7, 121). Jakobovits makes this statement with some reservations though.

Terone (13, 89), on the other hand, speaks of "phonological fossilizations", by which she understands the problem of failing to master the target language phonology even though other areas have been mastered. The reason for this fossilization, she reasons, is that the organs of speech have been used to the production of certain sounds for years and therefore find it difficult to readjust to new movements, or the fact that at a certain age ability to acquire a new language diminishes. Larry Selinker (3, 4) also speaks of "fossilizations", but for him they are "those forms which though absent from the learner's speech under normal conditions tend to reappear in his linguistic performance when he is forced to deal with very difficult material, when he is in a state of anxiety or when he is extremely relaxed:."

Fathman (6, 245) conducted experiments to establish empirically the relationship between certain aspects of the second language acquisition process and age. She found that after exposing 200 non-native children between the ages of six and fifteen to an English oral production test "the older children scored higher on the morphology and syntax subtests, whereas the younger children received higher rating in phonology".

It is clear from the foregoing brief exposition that although more research evidence is still needed to establish scientifically the relation between the age of the learner and his success (or otherwise) in second language learning, the weight of evidence seems to be in favour of this viewpoint. Accordingly, in the selection of test subjects for the present study, the age variable was taken into consideration.

The age distribution of the sample group manifested the following spread:

experimental group that will be used as a sample to test the effectiveness of the remedial programme.

The description and selection of the sample of the 40 test-subjects is provided under 6.2.2 through 6.2.9 above.

6.3.2 Description and rationale of oral tests used

The oral tests used on the sample group of 40 were divided into two, viz., a reading test and an individual word-list sub-test.

The reading test was selected from the eight reading portions used in Chapter 5 above. It was selected on the grounds that it contained good examples of those sounds that have been identified in the phonological Error Analysis made in Chapter 5 above as problem sounds.

The individual word-list sub-test comprised individual words selected from the reading test and containing those sounds that have also been isolated and identified in the phonological Error Analysis made in Chapter 5 above as problem sounds. The individual words used were 13 in number, representing the thirteen problem sounds that have been identified as problem sounds in Chapter 5 of this study.

First a test-subject was required to read-out the individual words comprising the individual word-list sub-test to establish in advance those sounds that he was most likely to mispronounce. These sounds were noted and used as "guides" in scoring the performance of the testee on the reading test.

Then the test subject was required to read aloud the passage selected to serve as a reading test.

Each test subject was scored on both the individual word-list sub-test and the reading test.

The word-list comprising the individual word-list was the following:

<u>a</u> t	:	to test the /æ/ sound
thinner <u>e</u> r	:	to test the /ɛ/ sound.
<u>u</u> p	:	to test the /ʌ/ sound.
f <u>e</u> ll	:	to test the /ɛ/ sound.
<u>d</u> eep	:	to test the /i/ sound.

<u>l</u> ips	:	to test the /I/ sound.
<u>b</u> onnet	:	to test the /O/ sound.
<u>y</u> oung	:	to test the /a/ sound.
<u>p</u> ull	:	to test the /v/ sound.
<u>d</u> ark	:	to test the /a:/ sound.
<u>g</u> irl	:	to test the /aɪ/ sound.
<u>a</u> pron	:	to test the diphthongal sound /eɪ/.
<u>o</u> val	:	to test the diphthongal sound /əʊ/.

The passage comprising the reading test was the following:

"At intervals she stands up to rest or to retie her disarranged apron or to pull her bonnet straight. Then one can see the oval face of a handsome young woman with deep dark eyes and heavy tresses which seem to clasp in a beseeching way anything they fell against. The cheeks are paler, the teeth more regular, the red lips thinner than is usual in a country-bred girl."

Thomas Hardy: Tess of the D'Urbavilles,
p. 107.

6.3.3 Analysis and scoring of oral performances of sample group

6.3.3.1 Introduction

Oral performances of test-subjects were recorded on a high fidelity tape-recorder and later scored.

The criterion for scoring was intelligibility defined in the same terms as in Chapter 5 above.

6.3.3.2 Description of the method used for sampling and scoring oral data

The method used for sampling data was basically the same as the one used in Chapter 5 for the same purpose. The following additional steps were added though: First, unlike in Chapter 5, testees in Chapter 6 were identified by name before being tested. This was done to facilitate whatever calculations may be required later in the study. Second, unlike in Chapter 5, testees in Chapter 6 were required to read out words containing the problem sound already identified (Cf. Chapter 5) before reading the test passage. The reason for this was two-fold: first, it enabled the researcher to double-check the testee's ability or other-

wise to produce the problem sound and, second, it provided a "guide" that would be used in scoring the testee's performance on the reading test. Those sounds that were aberrantly produced in the individual word-list sub-test were carefully listened to when scoring the testee's performance on the reading test.

Possible scores for both the individual word-list sub-test and the reading test were worked out as follows:

- a. Individual word-list sub-test: each of the 13 problem sounds contained in the 13 words comprising this sub-test was assigned one point thus giving a total of 13 possible points.
- b. Reading test: the number of times that each of the 13 problem sounds occurred in the reading passage was noted and the sum total of these represented the possible score for this test. The sound-occurrences were calculated as follows:

<u>sound</u>	:	<u>frequency</u>	:	<u>points</u>
/æ/	:	7	:	7
/ə/	:	4	:	4
/ʌ/	:	1	:	1
/ɛ/	:	12	:	12
/i/	:	7	:	7
/ɪ/	:	11	:	11
/ɑ/	:	3	:	3
/ʊ/	:	4	:	4
/ɑ:/	:	2	:	2
/ɔ:/	:	1	:	1
/ɔ/	:	3	:	3
/eɪ/	:	2	:	2
/əʊ/	:	1	:	1

This gives a total of 58 possible points for the reading test.

To obtain a total possible score for each testee the 13 possible points for the individual word-list sub-test were added to the 58 possible points for the reading test. This gives a grand total of 71 possible points.

Each test subject was therefore scored out of 71 possible points in the oral test.

6.3.3.3 Results of analysis of oral data

The results of the phonological Error Analysis made on the oral corpus sampled under 6.3.3.2 above revealed a comparable error distribution similar to the one obtained in Chapter 5 above.

These vowel and diphthongal sounds that were identified as problem sounds in Chapter 5 proved to be the same for Chapter 6.

6.3.3.4 Scores for the oral performance tests

Scores on the oral performance tests for the group manifested the following spread:

TABLE 32: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF THE ORAL PERFORMANCE SCORES FOR THE SAMPLE GROUP

<u>Scores</u>	<u>Number of test-subjects</u>
30 +	17
20 +	13
19	4
18	5
13	1
	TOTAL: 40

Arithmetic mean : 26,5

Standard deviation: 7,1

The oral performance scores for the group ranged from 13 points to 39 points out of a possible 71 with an Arithmetic mean of 26,5 and a Standard deviation of 7,1.

6.3.4 Summary of sample group

Table 33 below is built around the oral test scores which are arranged in ranking order from the highest to the lowest with all other scores and data added to match each one of the 40 test-subjects used in the sample.

The reason for this arrangement is that the remedial programme to be tested for effectiveness has been designed and compiled on the basis of oral performances of the North Sotho-speaking survey group and the

experimental group to be used will also be selected on the basis of oral performance. This does not mean that other criteria will be ignored in the selection but rather that oral performances scores will be used as a basic selection criterion.

Table 33 also reveals that there is a positive correlation of 0,33 between the oral tests' scores and the scores on Aptitude in English Language Use. Although this correlation is not high, it nonetheless is significant at the 5% level.

The data in the table show that there is a high correlation between the General Aptitude scores and the Aptitude in English Language Use scores. The correlation is ,70 ($Pr < ,01$).

This high positive correlation seems to suggest that the oral tests' scores for the group tend to correlate more with General Aptitude than with Aptitude in English Language Use.

The possible reason for this discrepancy could be ascribed to the nature and form of the English Language Use sub-test that was administered. For one thing this test tends to measure largely general comprehension and vocabulary and not specifically oral performance. It is also quite possible that the test's reliability did not apply to this particular group.

6.4. Selection of study or experimental group

6.4.1 Introduction

The purpose of selecting a study or experimental group was to obtain a small manageable sample on whom the remedial programme could be tested to determine its effectiveness. The experimental group comprised 10 study subjects selected from the sample of 40 discussed under 6.2.2 above.

The aim of selecting a small sample was to enable the researcher to approach the experiment from a case-study angle in which the responses of the group will be analysed and discussed on individual basis to determine the individual's response to the programme. Pseudo-names are used to identify study subjects.

TABLE 33: SUMMARY OF DESCRIPTION OF SAMPLE GROUP AS A WHOLE

TEST SUBJECT	SEX	AGE	ORAL TESTS SCORES (71) 1)	GENERAL APTITUDE SCORES (632) 1)	SCORES FOR APT. IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE USE (33) 1)	LEVEL OF EDUCATION	HOME LANGUAGE
1	girl	17	39	389	9	Form II	North Sotho
2	girl	18	38	481	17	Form II	North Sotho
3	boy	22	37	389	5	Form II	North Sotho
4	girl	15	37	504	18	Form II	North Sotho
5	girl	16	36	437	16	Form II	North Sotho
6	boy	17	35	450	19	Form II	North Sotho
7	boy	19	35	416	18	Form II	North Sotho
8	girl	18	34	385	14	Form II	North Sotho
9	girl	15	34	314	13	Form II	North Sotho
10	girl	18	33	362	9	Form II	North Sotho
11	girl	16	33	399	14	Form II	North Sotho
12	boy	15	32	453	14	Form II	North Sotho
13	girl	17	31	431	12	Form II	North Sotho
14	boy	19	30	419	14	Form II	North Sotho
15	boy	17	30	473	17	Form II	North Sotho
16	boy	17	30	408	16	Form II	North Sotho
17	boy	19	30	311	18	Form II	North Sotho
18	girl	17	28	367	8	Form II	North Sotho
19	girl	15	27	331	10	Form II	North Sotho
20	boy	16	26	463	11	Form II	North Sotho
21	boy	17	25	357	14	Form II	North Sotho
22	boy	17	25	357	10	Form II	North Sotho

1) Possible scores.

TEST SUBJECT	SEX	AGE	ORAL TESTS SCORES	GENERAL APTITUDE SCORES	SCORES FOR APT. IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE USE	LEVEL OF EDUCATION	HOME LANGUAGE
23	girl	17	24	390	13	Form II	North Sotho
24	girl	17	24	428	10	Form II	North Sotho
25	boy	19	23	349	15	Form II	North Sotho
26	boy	18	22	324	21	Form II	North Sotho
27	boy	19	21	133	13	Form II	North Sotho
28	girl	18	21	289	12	Form II	North Sotho
29	girl	17	20	353	11	Form II	North Sotho
30	girl	17	20	306	12	Form II	North Sotho
31	boy	19	19	126	16	Form II	North Sotho
32	girl	16	19	383	12	Form II	North Sotho
33	girl	18	19	340	6	Form II	North Sotho
34	boy	21	19	287	16	Form II	North Sotho
35	girl	15	18	289	7	Form II	North Sotho
36	boy	17	18	363	11	Form II	North Sotho
37	girl	17	18	318	11	Form II	North Sotho
38	boy	18	18	392	12	Form II	North Sotho
39	boy	20	18	310	15	Form II	North Sotho
40	boy	19	13	133	6	Form II	North Sotho
A.M.		17,5	26,5	367,7	12,9		
S.D.		1,56	7,1	79,0	3,7		

r O. E.U. = 0,33 (Pr < ,05)

r O. G.A. = ,70 (Pr < ,01)

KEY: O : stands for oral test scores
 E.U.: stands for English Language Use test scores
 G.A.: stands for General Aptitude test scores

The advantage of this approach is that it will enable the researcher to generalise acceptably on the basis of specific information obtained from individual responses to the remedial programme.

Criteria used for selecting the experimental group were similar to those used for selecting the larger sample of 40 discussed under 6.2.2 above.

6.4.2 Description of experimental group

6.4.2.1 Level of education

All test-subjects were in the junior secondary school i.e. Form II and had had ten years of schooling vis-à-vis ten years of exposure to English under formal classroom conditions (Cf. 6.2.3.1).

None of the test-subjects had ever been accelerated and none had ever failed.

It was therefore reasonable to assume that for purposes of this experiment the test-subjects were acceptably well-selected in terms of level of education.

6.4.2.2 Oral performance scores

The oral performance scores were used as basic criteria for selecting the experimental group.

First the oral tests' scores described under 6.3.3.4 above were arranged in ranking order with the highest score above and the lowest below. Then a test-subject was selected approximately from every other score of the 40 scores listed from highest to lowest. In practice this meant selecting the following test-subjects:

4	(girl)	37 points	
7	(boy)	35 points	
11	(girl)	33 points	
14	(boy)	30 points	
18	(girl)	28 points	
20	(boy)	26 points	
24	(girl)	24 points	
26	(boy)	22 points	
29	(girl)	20 points	
39	(boy)	18 points	(Cf. Table 33 above)

The top-most scores were, for purposes of this experiment, treated as exceptional and therefore omitted in the selection. The lower-most score was treated as sub-normal and likewise omitted in the selection.

In the same order test-subjects were assigned the following pseudo-names:

Lesetša	(girl)
Matome	(boy)
Mapula	(girl)
Pōtōnkō	(boy)
Potoki	(girl)
Motlhaume	(boy)
Puledi	(girl)
Tsakata	(boy)
Motlalepula	(girl)
Mašiba	(boy)

Actual oral test scores were distributed as follows:

TABLE 34: DISTRIBUTION OF ORAL TEST PERFORMANCE SCORES FOR EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Lesetša	:	37 points
Matome	:	35 points
Mapule	:	33 points
Pōtōnkō	:	30 points
Potoki	:	28 points
Motlhaume	:	26 points
Puledi	:	24 points
Tsakata	:	22 points
Motlalepula	:	20 points
Mašiba	:	18 points

Arithmetic mean (A.M.) : 27,3

Standard deviation (S.D.): 5,9

If these scores are read together with the detailed ones used under 6.3.3.4 above, it will be noted that they form a representative spread of the group's performance in the oral tests.

The Arithmetic Mean of 27,3 for the experimental group is very close to

that of 26,5 for the total group of 40 and the comparatively smaller Standard Deviation of 5,9 as against 7,1 is caused by the fact that 3 high scores above were cut-off and the lowest score which is very low was also cut-off.

6.4.2.3 Aptitude scores

Aptitude scores were used as a supporting criterion in the selection of the experimental group. As subjects were selected on the basis of their oral performance scores, care was simultaneously taken to spread the sample as representatively as possible in terms of aptitude.

Aptitude scores for the experimental group were therefore distributed as follows:

TABLE 35: APTITUDE SCORES FOR EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

<u>Test subject</u>	<u>Scores</u>
Lesetša	504
Matome	416
Mapule	428
Pōtōnkō	419
Potoki	367
Motlhaume	463
Puledi	428
Tsakata	324
Motlalepula	353
Mašiba	310

Arithmetic Mean (A.M.) : 401,2
Standard Diviation (S.D.): 54,3

If these scores are read together with the General Aptitude scores used under 6.2.3.2 above it will be seen that they are representative of the total group's General Aptitude.

In terms of General Aptitude therefore the group is suitable to serve as an experimental group for this study.

6.4.2.4 Aptitude scores in English language use

Aptitude scores in English language use were also used as a supporting

criterion in the selection of the experimental group and were accordingly taken into account when the selection was made.

Care was taken to obtain a representative group in terms of Aptitude in English Language Use.

TABLE 36: APTITUDE SCORES IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE USE

<u>Test subjects</u>	<u>Scores</u>
Lesetša	18
Matome	18
Mapule	14
Pōtōnkō	14
Potoki	8
Motlhaume	11
Puledi	10
Tsakata	21
Motlalepula	11
Mašiba	15

Arithmetic Mean (A.M.) : 14
Standard Deviation (S.D.): 4,9

These scores are representative of the total group's Aptitude in English language use. The Arithmetic Mean of 14 and the Standard Deviation of 4,9 compare favourably with the Arithmetic Mean of 12,9 and the Standard Deviation of 3,7 for the total group of 40 (Vide supra, Table 30).

6.4.2.5 Sex and age distribution

A subsidiary aim of the experiment is to study the extent to which sex and age influence performance on a remedial drill. Accordingly while performance scores were used as stronger selection criteria due consideration was also given to age and sex in the final selection of the experimental group.

The final experimental group was selected on the basis of 5 girls and 5 boys:

TABLE 37: AGE AND SEX DISTRIBUTION OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

<u>Test subject</u>	<u>Age</u>	<u>Sex</u>
Lesetša	15	girl
Matome	19	boy
Mapula	16	girl
Pôtonkô	19	boy
Potoki	17	girl
Motlhaume	16	boy
Puledi	17	girl
Tsakata	18	boy
Motlalepula	17	girl
Mašiba	20	boy

Arithmetic Mean (A.M.) : 17,4

Standard Deviation (S.D.): 1,5

6.4.2.6 General performance in English

Although this criterion could not be controlled scientifically yet it was thought necessary to get an idea of the general performance of the study group in English in the class. According to their class records the group was neither exceptionally good nor exceptionally poor. It was an average group such as the one one would expect to find in a typical junior secondary school.

Class records used as criteria in selecting a study group are important in the sense that they often give an idea of the pupil's performance over a longer period and also help control whatever unreliability the researcher's scores may have as a result of some Hawthorn Effect that his presence might have introduced in the group.

6.4.2.7 Home language

The source language of all study subjects was North Sotho and the target language English. This was yet another important criterion to consider since most phonological errors made were explained in terms of the influence of North Sotho on the acquisition of English as a second language.

TABLE 38: SUMMARY OF DESCRIPTION OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP (PRE-TEST)

TEST SUBJECT	SEX	AGE	ORAL TESTS SCORES	GENERAL APTITUDE SCORES	SCORES FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE USE	LEVEL OF EDUCATION	HOME LANGUAGE
Lesetša	girl	15	37	504	18	Form II	North Sotho
Matome	boy	19	35	416	18	Form II	North Sotho
Mapula	girl	16	33	428	14	Form II	North Sotho
Pōtōnkō	boy	19	30	419	14	Form II	North Sotho
Potoki	girl	17	28	367	8	Form II	North Sotho
Motlhaume	boy	16	26	463	11	Form II	North Sotho
Puledi	girl	17	24	428	10	Form II	North Sotho
Tsakata	boy	18	22	324	21	Form II	North Sotho
Motlalepula	girl	17	20	353	11	Form II	North Sotho
Mašiba	boy	20	18	310	15	Form II	North Sotho
A.M.		17,4	27,3	401,2	14,0		
S.D.		1,5	5,9	54,3	3,9		

r O. E.U. = 0,25 (Pr > ,05)

r O. G.A. = 0,86 (Pr < ,01)

r O. a. = -0,34 (Pr > ,05)

KEY: O. : means oral tests' scores
 E.U.: means English Language Use scores
 G.A.: means General Aptitude scores
 a : means age

6.4.3 Summary of experimental group

Table 38 above provides a summary of the pre-test situation of the experimental group used in this study.

The high positive correlation of 0,86 between the General Aptitude scores and the oral tests' scores which is more significant than at the 1% level renders the group interesting as a research sample, since it will be interesting to note how this variable influences response to remedial work in oral English among the North Sotho-speaking children.

The data in the Table also shows that there is a low and insignificant correlation of 0,25 between the oral tests' scores and the scores in Aptitude in English Language Use. This is somewhat unusual but is nonetheless in correspondence with the group of 40 referred to above (Vide supra, 6.2.2).

The Table also shows a low negative correlation of -0,34 between the oral tests' scores and age. This correlation which is below the 5% level of significance does not offer a very strong support for the viewpoint that ability to master the phonology of the target language is indirectly proportionate to the age of the learner, but it reflects a tendency to do so.

6.5 Pre-testing the experimental group

6.5.1 Introduction

The criteria used in the selection of the experimental group provided a basis for controlling variables that might have had a bearing on the performance of the testees on both the tests and the remedial programme.

Accordingly, all testees were selected from the same standard so that none had undue advantage of longer exposure to English at formal classroom level; their performance on the General Aptitude Test as well as on the English Language Use sub-test revealed that none of them was either gifted or retarded; they represented both sexes on a 50-50 basis; they were selected from the adolescent age group and their school record in English proved them typical for their standard.

Other variables that were controlled were:

- a. Time of day: the group was tested in mid-morning before they had done any other subject;
- b. tester-testee relationship: since the researcher was of the same national group as the testees, it was not difficult to establish rapport and win confidence and co-operation;
- c. home environment and home language: all testees were from a rural environment and none had parents who could provide additional practice in English language use outside the school hours and all testees spoke North Sotho as their source language.

In general therefore the group was a suitable sample to serve as an experimental group.

6.5.2 Testing and scoring oral performance of the experimental group

The procedure followed in testing the experimental group was the same as the one used in testing the larger sample of 40 described under 6.3.2 above and the scoring technique was also the same as the one used for the same purpose described under 6.4. above.

The reason for retaining these two techniques was that their application under 6.3.2 and 6.4 above proved effective and practical and therefore it was unnecessary to discard them for this section of the project.

For the sake of detail, we provide hereunder the word-contexts for the sounds used in both the reading test and the individual word-list sub-test used in the experiment.

TABLE 39: WORD-CONTEXTS FOR THE SOUNDS TESTED IN THE READING TEST

<u>Sound tested</u>	<u>Word-context</u>	<u>Frequency</u>
/æ/	at, stands, and, can, handsome, and, anything	7
/ə/	interval, paler, regular, thinner	4
/ʌ/	up	1
/ɛ/	rest, her, her, bonnet, then, the tresses, fell, the, red, bred	12
/i/	she, retie, deep, seem, beseeching, cheeks, teeth	7

<u>Sound tested</u>	<u>Word-context</u>	<u>Frequency</u>
/ɪ/	<u>interval</u> , <u>disarranged</u> , <u>with</u> , <u>clinging</u> , <u>which</u> , <u>in</u> , <u>anything</u> , <u>lips</u> , <u>thinner</u> , <u>is</u> , <u>in</u>	11
/ɔ/	<u>or</u> , <u>bonnet</u> , <u>of</u>	3
/ɑ/	<u>young</u> , <u>clasp</u> , <u>than</u>	3
/ʊ/	<u>pull</u> , <u>woman</u> , <u>regular</u> , <u>usual</u>	4
/ɑ:/	<u>dark</u> , <u>are</u>	2
/ɑr/ or /ɜ:/	<u>girl</u>	1
/eɪ/	<u>apron</u> , <u>paler</u>	2
/əʊ/	<u>oval</u>	2
	TOTAL:	58

TABLE 40: WORD CONTEXTS FOR SOUNDS TESTED - INDIVIDUAL-WORD SUB-TEST

<u>Sound tested</u>	<u>Word-context</u>	<u>Frequency</u>
/ə/	<u>at</u>	1
/ə/	<u>thinner</u>	1
/ʌ/	<u>up</u>	1
/ɛ/	<u>fell</u>	1
/i/	<u>deep</u>	1
/ɪ/	<u>lips</u>	1
/ɔ/	<u>bonnet</u>	1
/ɑ/	<u>young</u>	1
/ʊ/	<u>pull</u>	1
/ɑ:/	<u>dark</u>	1
/ɑr/ or /ɜ:/	<u>girl</u>	1
/eɪ/	<u>apron</u>	1
/əʊ/	<u>oval</u>	1
	TOTAL:	13

The grand total for the oral performance test is obtained by adding 58 and 13 thus getting a total of 71 points.

6.6 Results of Error Analysis (Pre-test) of experimental group

6.6.1 Introduction

In order to discover more fully the degree of effectiveness of the remedial programme to be tested, it was decided to deal with this

section of the project on a case-study basis. This will entail a detailed study of the errors made by each and every test-subject before and after exposure to the remedial programme.

Accordingly a series of tables were designed showing the name¹⁾ of the test-subject, his General Aptitude, his Aptitude in English Language Use, his sex and age, his oral performance score on vowel and diphthongal sounds in both the individual word-list sub-test and the reading test.

6.6.2 Summary of testees' pre-test performance

Table 41a. through j. below indicate the performance of the test-subject on both the reading test and the individual word-list sub-test prior to exposure to the remedial drills.

6.6.3 Conclusion

It is quite clear from Table 41 that by and large those sounds that were originally discovered as problem sounds (Vide supra, Chapter 5) remained problem sounds even for the experimental group.

The vowel sounds /əʊ/ or /ɜ:/, /ɪ/, /ə/, /ʌ/, /ɑ:/, /ɛ/ and /æ/ proved difficult for members of the experimental group to articulate while the vowel sounds /ɑ/, /ɔ/ and /i/ proved less difficult to articulate. The diphthongal sounds /eɪ/ and /əʊ/ also proved difficult for the experimental group.

Further description of the performance of the experimental group is given under 6.14 below.

The next problem is to administer the remedial programme to the experimental group to determine the extent to which their oral performance on both the individual word-list sub-test and the reading test would be affected thereby.

TABLE 41: SUMMARY OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP'S ORAL PERFORMANCE BEFORE EXPOSURE TO THE REMEDIAL PROGRAMME

1) pseudo-name.

a. First subject

Name of testee : Lesetša
 Sex : girl
 Age : 15
 General Aptitude Score: 504 (out of 632 points)
 Aptitude in English
 Language Use score : 18 (out of 33 points)

PASSAGE TEST

Sounds in the passage	Frequency of the-sounds in the passage	Correct production of sound	Percentage	Incorrect production of sound	Percentage
/ə/	7	4	57,14	3	42,86
/ə/	4	2	50,00	2	50,00
/ʌ/	1	0	0	1	100,00
/ɛ/	12	5	41,67	7	58,33
/i/	7	7	100,00	0	0
/I/	11	4	36,36	7	63,64
/ɔ/	3	2	66,67	1	33,33
/ɑ/	3	3	100,00	0	100,00
/ʊ/	4	2	50,00	2	50,00
/ɑ:/	2	1	50,00	1	50,00
/ər/	1	0	0	1	100,00
/eɪ/	2	0	0	2	100,00
/əʊ/	1	0	0	1	100,00
SUB-TOTALS :	58	30		28	
WORD-LIST SUB-TEST :	13	7	53,85	6	46,15
GRAND TOTALS:	71	37		34	

b. Second subject

Name of testee : Matome
 Sex : boy
 Age : 19
 General Aptitude score: 416 (out of 632 points)
 Aptitude in English
 Language Use score : 18 (out of 33 points)

PASSAGE TEST

Sounds in the passage	Frequency of the sounds in the passage	Correct production of sound	Percentage	Incorrect production of sound	Percentage
/æ/	7	3	42,86	4	57,14
/ə/	4	1	25,00	3	75,00
/ʌ/	1	0	0	1	100,00
/ɛ/	12	6	50,00	6	50,00
/i/	7	7	100,00	0	0
/ɪ/	11	4	36,36	7	63,64
/ɔ/	3	2	66,67	1	33,33
/ɑ/	3	3	100,00	0	0
/ʊ/	4	1	25,00	3	75,00
/ɑi/	2	1	50,00	1	50,00
/əʀ/	1	0	0	1	100,00
/eɪ/	2	1	50,00	1	50,00
/əʊ/	1	0	0	1	100,00
SUB-TOTALS :	58	29		29	
WORD-LIST SUB-TEST :	13	6	46,15	7	53,85
GRAND TOTALS:	71	35		36	

c. Third subject

Name of testee : Mapula
 Sex : girl
 Age : 16
 General Aptitude score: 399 (out of 632 points)
 Aptitude in English
 Language Use score : 14 (out of 33 points)

PASSAGE TEST

Sounds in the passage	Frequency of the sounds in the passage	Correct production of sound	Percentage	Incorrect production of sound	Percentage
/æ/	7	4	57,14	3	42,86
/ə/	4	1	25,00	3	75,00
/ʌ/	1	0	0	1	100,00
/ɛ/	12	4	33,33	8	66,67
/i/	7	7	100,00	0	0
/ɪ/	11	2	18,19	9	81,81
/ɔ/	3	1	33,33	2	66,67
/ɑ/	3	2	66,67	1	33,33
/ʊ/	4	1	25,00	3	75,00
/ɑ:/	2	1	50,00	1	50,00
/ər/	1	1	100,00	0	0
/eɪ/	2	2	100,00	0	0
/əʊ/	1	1	100,00	0	0
SUB-TOTALS :	58	27		31	
WORD-LIST SUB-TEST :	13	6	46,15	7	53,85
GRAND TOTALS:	71	33		38	

d. Fourth subject

Name of testee : Pötönkő
 Sex : boy
 Age : 19
 General Aptitude score: 419 (out of 632 points)
 Aptitude in English
 Language Use score : 14 (out of 33 points)

PASSAGE TEST

Sounds in the passage	Frequency of the sounds in the passage	Correct production of sound	Percentage	Incorrect production of sound	Percentage
/æ/	7	5	71,43	2	28,57
/ə/	4	2	50,00	2	50,00
/ʌ/	1	0	0	1	100,00
/ɛ/	12	4	33,33	8	66,67
/i/	7	3	42,86	4	57,15
/ɪ/	11	4	36,36	7	63,64
/ɔ/	3	2	66,67	1	33,33
/ɑ/	3	3	100,00	0	0
/ʊ/	4	0	0	4	100,00
/ɑ:/	2	0	0	2	100,00
/ər/	1	0	0	1	100,00
/eɪ/	2	1	50,00	1	50,00
/əv/	1	0	0	1	100,00
SUB-TOTALS :	58	24		34	
WORD-LIST SUB-TEST :	13	6	46,15	7	53,85
GRAND TOTALS:	71	30		41	

e. Fifth subject

Name of testee : Potoki
 Sex : Girl
 Age : 17
 General Aptitude score: 367 (out of 632 points)
 Aptitude in English
 Language Use score : 8 (out of 33 points)

PASSAGE TEST

Sounds in the passage	Frequency of the sounds in the passage	Correct production of sound	Percentage	Incorrect production of sound	Percentage
/æ/	7	3	42,86	4	57,15
/ə/	4	2	50,00	2	50,00
/ʌ/	1	0	0	1	100,00
/ɛ/	12	5	41,66	7	58,34
/i/	7	7	100,00	0	0
/I/	11	2	18,18	9	81,82
/ɔ/	3	1	33,33	2	66,67
/ɑ/	3	2	66,67	1	33,33
/ʊ/	4	0	0	4	100,00
/ɑ:/	2	0	0	2	100,00
/ər/	1	0	0	1	100,00
/eɪ/	2	0	0	2	100,00
/əv/	1	0	0	1	100,00
SUB-TOTALS :	58	22		36	
WORD-LIST SUB-TEST :	13	6	46,15	7	53,85
GRAND TOTALS:	71	28		43	

f. Sixth subject

Name of testee : Motlhaume
 Sex : boy
 Age : 16
 General Aptitude score: 463 (out of 632 points)
 Aptitude in English
 Language Use score : 11 (out of 33 points)

PASSAGE TEST

Sounds in the passage	Frequency of the sounds in the passage	Correct production of sound	Percentage	Incorrect production of sound	Percentage
/æ/	7	2	28,57	5	71,43
/ə/	4	0	0	4	100,00
/ʌ/	1	0	0	1	100,00
/ɛ/	12	3	25,00	9	75,00
/i/	7	7	100,00	0	0
/I/	11	3	27,27	8	72,73
/ɔ/	3	2	66,67	1	33,33
/ɑ/	3	2	66,67	1	33,33
/ʊ/	4	1	25,00	3	75,00
/ɑː/	2	1	50,00	1	50,00
/ɑr/	1	1	100,00	0	0
/eɪ/	2	0	0	2	100,00
/əʊ/	1	0	0	1	100,00
SUB-TOTALS :	58	22		36	
WORD-LIST SUB-TEST :	13	4	30,76	9	69,24
GRAND TOTALS:	71	26		45	

g. Seventh subject

Name of testee : Puledi
 Sex : girl
 Age : 17
 General Aptitude score: 428 (out of 632 points)
 Aptitude in English
 Language ^{Use} score : 21 (out of 33 points)

PASSAGE TEST

Sounds in the passage	Frequency of the sounds in the passage	Correct production of sound	Percentage	Incorrect production of sound	Percentage
/æ/	7	5	71,43	2	28,58
/ə/	4	2	50,00	2	50,00
/ʌ/	1	0	0	1	100,00
/ɛ/	12	2	16,67	10	83,34
/i/	7	6	85,71	1	14,29
/I/	11	1	9,09	10	90,91
/ɔ/	2	0	0	3	100,00
/ɑ/	3	2	66,67	1	33,33
/ʊ/	4	0	0	4	100,00
/ɑ:/	2	0	0	2	100,00
/ər/	1	0	0	1	100,00
/eɪ/	2	1	50,00	1	50,00
/əv/	1	0	0	1	100,00
SUB-TOTALS :	58	19		39	
WORD-LIST SUB-TEST :	13	5	38,46	8	61,54
GRAND TOTALS:	71	24		47	

h. Eighth subject

Name of testee : Tsakafa
 Sex : boy
 Age : 18
 General Aptitude score: 324 (out of 632 points)
 Aptitude in English
 Language Use score : 21 (out of 33 points)

PASSAGE TEST

Sounds in the passage	Frequency of the sounds in the passage	Correct production of sound	Percentage	Incorrect production of sound	Percentage
/æ/	7	2	28,57	5	71,43
/ə/	4	2	50,00	2	50,00
/ʌ/	1	0	0	1	100,00
/ɛ/	12	3	25,00	9	75,00
/i/	7	6	85,71	1	14,29
/I/	11	2	18,17	9	81,83
/ɔ/	3	1	33,33	2	66,67
/ɑ/	3	1	33,33	2	66,67
/ʊ/	4	0	0	4	100,00
/ɑ:/	2	1	50,00	1	50,00
/ər/	1	0	0	1	100,00
/eɪ/	2	0	0	2	100,00
/əʊ/	1	0	0	1	100,00
SUB-TOTALS :	58	18		40	
WORD-LIST SUB-TEST :	13	4	30,77	9	69,23
GRAND TOTALS:	71	22		49	

i. Nineth subject

Name of testee : Motlalepula
 Sex : girl
 Age : 17
 General Aptitude score: 353 (out of 632 points)
 Aptitude in English
 Language use score : 11 (out of 33 points)

PASSAGE TEST

Sounds in the passage	Frequency of the sounds in the passage	Correct production of sound	Percentage	Incorrect production of sound	Percentage
/æ/	7	2	28,57	5	71,43
/ə/	4	0	0	4	100,00
/ʌ/	1	0	0	1	100,00
/ɛ/	12	3	25,00	9	75,00
/i/	7	7	100,00	0	0
/ɪ/	11	1	9,09	10	90,91
/ɔ/	3	1	33,33	2	66,67
/ɑ/	3	1	33,33	2	66,67
/ʊ/	4	0	0	4	100,00
/ɑː/	2	0	0	2	100,00
/ɑr/	1	0	0	1	100,00
/eɪ/	2	0	0	2	100,00
/əʊ/	1	0	0	1	100,00
SUB-TOTALS :	58	15		43	
WORD-LIST SUB-TEST :	13	5	38,46	8	61,54
GRAND TOTALS:	71	20		51	

j. Tenth subject

Name of testee : Mašiba
 Sex : boy
 Age : 20
 General Aptitude score: 310 (out of 632 points)
 Aptitude in English
 Language Use score : 15 (out of 33 points)

PASSAGE TEST

Sounds in the passage	Frequency of the sounds in the passage	Correct production of sound	Percentage	Incorrect production of sound	Percentage
/æ/	7	2	28,57	5	71,43
/ə/	4	0	0	4	100,00
/ʌ/	1	0	0	1	100,00
/ɛ/	12	3	25,00	9	75,00
/i/	7	6	85,71	1	14,29
/ɪ/	11	0	0	11	100,00
/ɔ/	3	1	33,33	2	66,67
/ɑ/	3	1	33,33	2	66,67
/ʊ/	3	0	0	4	100,00
/ɑ:/	2	1	50,00	1	50,00
/əʊ/	1	0	0	2	100,00
/eɪ/	2	0	0	2	100,00
/əʊ/	1	0	0	1	100,00
SUB-TOTALS :	58	14		44	
WORD-LIST SUB-TEST	13	4	30,67	9	69,24
GRAND TOTALS:	71	18		53	

6.7 Design of the programme

The programme¹⁾ used in this study was designed as follows:

Firstly, all the problem sounds established by means of Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis in Chapter 5 above were arranged in linear order from Lesson 1 to Lesson 8 to form Book 1 of the programme.

Secondly, the same sounds were then contextualised in sentences or phrases over eight lessons to form Book 2 of the programme. The purpose of contextualising sounds is to enable the learners to practice the problem sounds in the context of actual speech or communication. Experience in ESL has proved that often non-natives are able to produce certain target language sounds when they occur in isolation but fail to produce them acceptably in continuous speech.

Thirdly, those problem sounds that contrast in English were arranged in double columns in five lessons to form Book 3 of the programme. The reason for arranging these sounds in this way was to enable the learners to practise them as contrasting sounds. In North Sotho contrasting sounds that parallel the English ones are rare. It is for this reason that North Sotho-speaking children often fail to distinguish between, say, tan and ten or full and fool.

In the fourth Book of the programme the contrasting sounds are contextualised to give learners practice in discriminating between sounds in continuous speech. Practice in this area controls errors such as:

"The sheep sails across the sea*";

"I bought tan eggs*";

"Beds fly across the lake*"; and so forth.

Book 5 treats the diphthongal sounds in the same way as Books 1 through 4 treats vowel sounds.

The programme is basically linear and is designed on the format cue-response-reinforce i.e. the Master Tape gives a cue sound either in word-context or in syntactic or phrasal context; the pupils response^d in imitation and the Master Tape repeats the cue-sound or utterance to give the learner an immediate knowledge of the results of his performance.

The programme is designed in such a way that all the learners go through the lesson at the same pace and all the learners listen to the playback at the same time (Vide supra, 6.11).

6.8 Rationale of programme

Experience in ESL both in South Africa and in the United States has revealed that students or pupils learning English as L2 often manage, after sufficient practice, to produce "problem sounds" satisfactorily if these occur in isolation but when the self-same sounds occur in context, aberrancies occur; when these very sounds contrast either in isolation or in context again problems occur.

To prepare a remedial programme therefore we had to cater for:

- a. "Problem sounds" in isolation.
- b. "Problem sounds" in context.
- c. Contrasting sounds in isolation.
- d. Contrasting sounds in context.

6.9 Preparing the programme for use

First rough manuals of the programme were prepared and then the programme was recorded on tape so that it could be used in the language laboratory.

Test subjects were allowed simultaneously to look at their manuals and listen to the tape through their earphones. The advantage of this approach is that testees get acquainted with the programme quickly and so focus on actual practice of problem sounds rightaway.

An important point to mention here is that since the programme was prepared for remedial work in spoken English, it was necessary to have it recorded by a native speaker of English. This precaution ensured that the testees imitated a typical speaker of English.

6.10 Application of the programme

In the administration of the programme we have designed, two strategies

need to be applied, viz., Cognitive Code Learning Theory and the Audio-Lingual Approach.

The rationale underlying this model is that first the pupils need to understand that there are certain areas of oral English that they need to practise anew. Secondly, they need to understand that certain features of North Sotho phonology are bound to interfere with those of English, thus leading to aberrant oral English with consequent ineffective communication in English. Thirdly, they need to understand that they need to make an effort to learn to articulate English sounds correctly. In all these three instances the operative word is understand.

This insistence on understanding is based on the mentalistic principles of the Cognitive Code Learning theory which we believe are critical in remedial programming in L2 learning.

But it is also necessary that the pupils understand that they need to practise these sounds until they are able to produce them effortlessly and in a manner acceptable to the speakers of English as a first language. To achieve this they need to listen to a tutor-tape and respond in imitation to it until their performance compares favourably with that of the tutor-tape. "Favourably" in this context means: oral performance that is so close to that of the native speaker that intelligibility is ensured and communication is not impaired.

6.11 Description of the language laboratory used in the experiment

6.11.1 Introduction

This experiment was conducted in one of the language laboratories of the Language Bureau, University of the North. The Language Bureau has two fully equipped language laboratories. One unit has accommodation for 24 students and the other for 16. The first unit is equipped with the Philips model complete with remote-control devices and close circuit TV, while the second unit is equipped with the SONY model complete with remote-control devices but without close circuit TV.

The experiment described in this chapter was conducted in the SONY unit because the student cassettes in this model can be easily removed after recording for purposes of analysis on a separate machine.

6.11.2 Size of the laboratory used

The laboratory used for the experiment is approximately 600 cm. by 780 cm. in size. Since only 10 testees were used, this size provided comfortable sitting-room for the duration of the experiment.

6.11.3 Ventilation

The laboratory has large windows on the eastern flank as well as large wall-fans that ensure proper ventilation at all times.

6.11.4 Lighting

The laboratory is fitted with adequate neon lights that provide sufficient lighting for both the learner and the tutor.

This was particularly important for the experiment since testees were provided with manuals to supplement the oral programme.

6.11.5 Machines

Ten of the sixteen student machines were used for the experiment. All machines were controlled by remote-control devices from the teacher's console. This was done to ensure that all pupils go through the programme at the same pace. This in turn made the scoring of tapes comparatively easier.

6.11.6 Student booths

Each testee used an independent student booth which ensured privacy in the course of the lessons. The advantage of privacy in language laboratory work is that it controls inhibition which often renders oral performance (especially in a second language) in the presence of an audience ineffective.

6.11.7 Teacher's console

The teacher's console enabled the researcher to monitor performances of all testees without their being aware of it. This device also helps to ensure privacy on the part of the learner and consequently freer performance on the remedial programme.

6.11.8 Sound production

The acoustics of the laboratory used is good enough for both practical and experimental purposes in that all student-booths are provided with padding material which improves acoustics per booth and the floor of the laboratory itself is covered with a thick carpet while the windows are provided with curtains all of which are aimed at improving the acoustics of the laboratory.

6.12 Response of the testees to the programme

All testees had not been exposed to any form of programmed instruction before and none had ever learned through teaching machines in a language laboratory and therefore the whole exercise was a novelty to them.

This element of novelty had three consequences on the experimental group: Firstly, interest was created and sustained throughout the experiment; secondly, high-level motivation was ensured for the duration of the experiment and, thirdly, ennui was checked because the lessons were short, sitting-room comfortable and the sound-production good.

Generally the testees responded positively to the exercise - this was evidenced by their keenness to go on with the exercise for the rest of the year!

6.13 Procedure followed in administering the programme

The guiding principle in deciding on the procedure to be followed in administering the programme was to allow the programme "to speak for itself" or to prove its own worth as a teaching strategy. Accordingly the following minimal introductory comments were made at the beginning of the experiment:

First the testees were told what a language laboratory was and how it functioned; then the format of the programme was briefly outlined to them and finally they were asked to follow instructions and to imitate the master tape as closely as possible. Thereafter they were assigned booths which they were to occupy for the rest of the experiment. Their true names were posted on the booths to facilitate identification.

Although in practical situations remedial work is not restricted to any number of days or any number of repetitions; (different learners repeat whichever lesson they need for as many times as is necessary) but for the sake of this experiment time restriction was necessary. This had to be done if the effectiveness of the programme was to be evaluated in quantified terms on a particular study group. Accordingly 9 days were set aside for the administration of the programme. In practice this meant going through the programme three times over by all testees at the same pace.

6.14 Post-testing the experimental group

After the testees had been exposed to the remedial programme for a total of nine days, they were once more tested on the two oral tests described under 6.3.2 above.

The aim of the post-test was to establish the extent to which the programme had influenced their identification and production of certain English sounds in isolation and thereafter they were tested on the reading test to establish the extent to which the programme had influenced their identification and production of certain English sounds (Vide supra 6.6.3) in various contexts.

Performances on these two tests were then scored according to the criterion of intelligibility defined in the same way as it was defined in Chapter 5 above. The method of scoring used was the same as the one described under 6.3.3.2 above.

6.15 Results of Error Analysis (Post-test) of experimental group

6.15.1 Introduction

It was indicated under 6.5.1 above that this section of the project would be approached from a case-study point of view in which test-subjects would be treated individually in terms of their response to the remedial drills.

The ensuing discussion provides a summary of the individual members of the experimental group. The description is preceded by a detailed table indicating pre- and post-programme performance of each subject on both the individual word-list sub-test and the reading test.

For the sake of brevity, each case-study's response to the remedial effect of the programme is classified broadly as positive, average or poor. This is a fairly loose classification, but since a table is provided with detailed percentages it will suffice for our immediate purposes.

6.15.2 First case-study, Lesetša

This case-study was a girl aged 15, with a General Aptitude score of 504 points out of a possible 632 and an Aptitude in English Language Use score of 18 points out of a possible 33.

Her pre-test score on the individual word-list sub-test was 7 points out of a possible 13 and her post-test score was 10 points. This testee's gain on this sub-test was an average of 3 points.

Her post-test performance on the reading test was positive on the sounds /əʊ/, /əʊ/, /eɪ/, /ɪ/, and /æ/, average on the sounds /ɔ/, /əʊ/, /ʊ/, and /ɛ/ but rather poor on the sound /ʌ/. She requires very little or no remedial instruction on the sounds /i/, /a/ and /ɑ:/.

This case requires special attention only on the /ʌ/ sound.

Her overall pre-test score was 37 points out of a possible 71 and her post-test score was 56. This represents a gain of 19 points.

6.15.3 Second case-study, Matome

This case-study was a boy aged 19, with a General Aptitude score of 416 points and an Aptitude in English Language Use score of 18 points.

In the individual word-list sub-test, this testee improved his pre-test score of 6 points by 2.

In the post-test, this testee showed a positive response on the /əʊ/ and the /ʌ/ sounds, an average response on the /ə/, /ɔ/, /ʊ/, /ɪ/, /ɛ/ and /æ/ sounds and a rather poor response on the diphthongal sounds.

This testee requires no remedial drills on the /i/, /a/ and /ɑ/ sounds, but intensive drill-work on the diphthongal sounds.

The overall pre-test score was 35 points and the post-test score was 47. This represents a gain in points of 12.

TABLE 42: FIRST CASE-STUDY: LESETŠA

Sex : girl
 Age : 15
 General Aptitude score
 (out of 632) : 504 points
 Aptitude in English Language Use
 (out of 33) : 18 points

PASSAGE TEST

Name	Sounds in passage	Frequency of sounds in passage	Pre-test scores	Percentages	Post-test scores	Percentages	Gain in points	Gain in percentage
Lesetša	/e/	7	4	57,14	7	100,00	3	42,86
	/ə/	4	2	50,00	3	75,00	1	25,00
	/ʌ/	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	/ɛ/	12	5	41,67	7	58,18	2	16,51
	/i/	7	7	100,00	7	100,00	0	0
	/ɪ/	11	4	36,36	9	81,82	5	45,45
	/o/	3	2	66,67	3	100,00	1	33,33
	/ɑ/	3	3	100,00	3	100,00	0	0
	/ʊ/	4	2	50,00	3	75,00	1	25,00
	/ɑ:/	2	1	50,00	1	50,00	0	0
	/ɔr/	1	0	0	1	100,00	1	100,00
	/ɛr/	2	0	0	1	50,00	1	50,00
	/ɔs/	1	0	0	1	100,00	1	100,00
SUB TOTALS:		58	30		46		16	
WORD-LIST SUB-TEST :		13	7	53,85	10	76,92	3	23,07
GRAND TOTALS :		71	37		56		19	26,76

TABLE 43: SECOND CASE-STUDY: MATOME

Sex : boy
 Age : 19
 General Aptitude score
 (out of 632) : 416 points
 Aptitude in English Language Use
 (out of 33) : 18 points

PASSAGE TEST

Name	Sounds in passage	Frequency of sounds in passage	Pre-test scores	Percentage	Post-test scores	Percentages	Gain in points	Gain in percentage
Matome	/æ/	7	3	42,86	4	57,14	1	14,28
	/ə/	4	1	25,00	2	50,00	1	25,00
	/ʌ/	1	0	0	1	100,00	1	100,00
	/ɛ/	12	6	50,00	8	66,67	2	16,67
	/i/	7	7	100,00	7	100,00	0	0
	/ɪ/	11	4	36,36	6	54,55	2	18,18
	/ɔ/	3	2	66,67	3	100,00	1	33,33
	/ɑ/	3	3	100,00	3	100,00	0	0
	/ʊ/	4	1	25,00	2	50,00	1	25,00
	/ɑ:/	2	1	50,00	1	50,00	0	0
	/ər/	1	0	0	1	100,00	1	100,00
	/er/	2	1	50,00	1	50,00	0	0
/ər/	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	
SUB TOTALS:		58	29		39		10	
WORD-LIST SUB-TEST :		13	6	46,15	8	61,53	2	15,38
GRAND TOTALS :		71	35		47		12	16,90

6.15.4 Third case-study, Mapula

The third case-study was a girl aged 16 with a General Aptitude score of 399 and an Aptitude in English Language Use score of 14 points.

Her pre-test score of 6 points increased by 3 points in the post-test performance.

In the reading test, this testee showed a positive response in the post-test performance in the sounds /ɔ/ and /ɑ/, and an average response in the sounds /æ/, /ə/, /ɛ/ and /ɪ/. Her performance on the /ʌ/ sound was poor.

The testee requires no additional oral practice on the /i/, /ɑ/, /ər/, /eɪ/ and /əʊ/ sounds.

Her overall pre-test score of 33 points increased to 45 points in the post-test.

6.15.5 Fourth case-study, Pōtōnkō

The fourth case-study was a boy aged 19, with a General Aptitude score of 419 points and an Aptitude in English Language Use of 14 points.

In the reading test this testee showed a positive response in the sounds /i/, /ɔ/, /ʊ/, and /ɑ:/, an average response in the /ɛ/ sound and a poor response in the /æ/, /ə/, /ʌ/, /eɪ/ and /əʊ/ sounds. No further remedial work is required for the /i/ and /ɑ/ sounds.

This testee requires additional oral practice in all those sounds in which he responded poorly.

His overall post-test score of 45 points represented a gain of 15 points over his pre-test score.

TABLE 44: THIRD CASE-STUDY: MAPULA

Sex : girl
 Age : 16
 General Aptitude score
 (out of 632) : 399 points
 Aptitude in English Language Use
 (out of 33) : 14 points

PASSAGE TEST

Name	Sounds in passage	Frequency of sounds in passage	Pre-test scores	Percentages	Post-test scores	Percentages	Gain in points	Gain in percentage
Mapula	/ə/	7	4	57,14	6	85,72	2	28,58
	/ə/	4	1	25,00	2	50,00	1	25,00
	/ʌ/	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	/ɛ/	12	4	33,33	6	50,00	2	16,67
	/i/	7	7	100,00	7	100,00	0	0
	/ɪ/	11	2	18,19	4	36,36	2	18,18
	/ɔ/	3	1	33,33	2	66,67	1	33,33
	/ɑ/	3	2	66,67	3	100,00	1	33,33
	/ʊ/	4	1	25,00	1	25,00	0	0
	/ɑ:/	2	1	50,00	1	50,00	0	0
	/əɪ/	1	1	100,00	1	100,00	0	0
	/eɪ/	2	2	100,00	2	100,00	0	0
	/əʊ/	1	1	100,00	1	100,00	0	0
SUB TOTALS:		58	27		36		9	
WORD-LIST SUB-TEST :		13	6	46,15	9	69,23	3	23,08
GRAND TOTALS :		71	33		45		12	16,90

TABLE 45: FOURTH CASE-STUDY: PÔTÔNĶÔ

Sex : boy
 Age : 19
 General Aptitude score
 (out of 632) : 419 points
 Aptitude in English Language Use
 (out of 33) : 14 points

PASSAGE TEST

Name	Sounds in passage	Frequency of sounds in passage	Pre-test scores	Percentages	Post-test scores	Percentages	Gain in points	Gain in percentage
PôtônĶô	/æ/	7	5	71,43	5	71,43	0	0
	/ə/	4	2	50,00	2	50,00	0	0
	/ʌ/	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	/ɛ/	12	4	33,33	6	50,00	2	16,67
	/i/	7	3	42,86	7	100,00	4	57,14
	/I/	11	4	36,36	7	63,64	3	27,27
	/ɔ/	3	2	66,67	3	100,00	1	33,33
	/ɑ/	3	3	100,00	3	100,00	0	0
	/ʊ/	4	0	0	1	25,00	1	25,00
	/ɑ:/	2	0	0	1	50,00	1	50,00
	/ər/	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	/ɪr/	2	1	50,00	1	50,00	0	0
	/əv/	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
SUB TOTALS:		58	24		36		12	
WORD-LIST SUB-TEST :		13	6	46,15	9	69,23	3	23,08
GRAND TOTALS :		71	30		45		15	21,12

6.15.6 Fifth case-study, Potoki

This testee was a 17 year old girl with a General Aptitude score of 367 and an Aptitude in English Language Use score of 8 points.

Her post-test performance of 8 points represented an increase of 2 points over her pre-test score in the individual word-list sub-test.

She responded positively to the remedial programme in the sounds /eɪ/, /ɑ:/, /ʊ/, /ɑ/, /ɪ/, /ɛ/, /ə/, and /ɜ/ but poorly in the /əʊ/ diphthong.

She requires no further oral practice on the /i/ sound.

Since her gains per sound are not particularly high, further exposure to the remedial drills would be useful.

In general, this subject increased her pre-test score of 28 points by 15 in the post-programme performance.

6.15.7 Sixth case-study, Motlhaume

This case-study had an Aptitude in English Language Use score of 11 points and a General Aptitude score of 463 points. He was 16 years of age.

His post-programme score realised a gain of 4 points to stand at 8.

He showed a general positive response to the programme in all the sounds except the /ʌ/ and the /əʊ/. He showed a negative response to the programme on the /ɑr/ sound.

He requires additional oral practice in the /əʊ/ and the /ʌ/ sounds and much more practice in the /ɑr/ sound to counter the negative reaction recorded.

The subject improved his overall pre-test score of 26 points by 18 after exposure to the programme.

TABLE 46: FIFTH CASE-STUDY: POTOKI

Sex : girl
 Age : 17
 General Aptitude score
 (out of 632) : 367 points
 Aptitude in English Language Use
 (out of 33) : 8 points

PASSAGE TEST

Name	Sounds in passage	Frequency of sounds in passage	Pre-test scores	Percentages	Post-test scores	Percentages	Gain in points	Gain in percentage
Potoki	/æ/	7	3	42,86	5	71,42	2	28,57
	/ə/	4	2	50,00	3	75,00	1	25,00
	/ʌ/	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	/ɛ/	12	5	41,66	8	66,67	3	25,01
	/i/	7	7	100,00	7	100,00	0	0
	/I/	11	2	18,18	5	45,45	3	27,27
	/ɔ/	3	1	33,33	1	33,33	0	0
	/ɑ/	3	2	66,67	3	100,00	1	33,33
	/ʊ/	4	0	0	1	25,00	1	25,00
	/ɑ:/	2	0	0	1	50,00	1	50,00
	/ər/	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	/eɪ/	2	0	0	1	50,00	1	50,00
	/əv/	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
SUB TOTALS:		58	22		35		13	
WORD-LIST SUB-TEST :		13	6	46,15	8	61,53	2	15,38
GRAND TOTALS :		71	28		43		15	21,12

TABLE 47: SIXTH CASE-STUDY: MOTLHAUME

Sex : boy
 Age : 16
 General Aptitude score
 (out of 632) : 463 points
 Aptitude in English Language Use
 (out of 33) : 11 points

PASSAGE TEST

Name	Sounds in passage	Frequency of sounds in passage	Pre-test scores	Percentages	Post-test scores	Percentages	Gain in points	Gain in percentage
Motlhaume	/æ/	7	2	28,57	4	57,14	2	28,57
	/ə/	4	0	0	2	50,00	2	50,00
	/ʌ/	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	/ɛ/	12	3	25,00	6	50,00	3	25,00
	/i/	7	7	100,00	7	100,00	0	0
	/I/	11	3	27,27	7	63,64	4	36,36
	/ɔ/	3	2	66,67	3	100,00	1	33,33
	/ɑ/	3	2	66,67	3	100,00	1	33,33
	/ʊ/	4	1	25,00	2	50,00	1	25,00
	/ɑ:/	2	1	50,00	1	50,00	0	0
	/ɑr/	1	1	100,00	0	0	(-1)	0
	/er/	2	0	0	1	50,00	1	50,00
/əʊ/	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	
SUB TOTALS:		58	22		36		14	
WORD-LIST SUB-TEST :		13	4	30,76	8	61,53	4	30,77
GRAND TOTALS :		71	26		44		18	25,35

6.15.8 Seventh case-study, Puledi

The General Aptitude score for this subject was 428 points while her Aptitude in English Language Use was 21 points. Her age was 17.

Her post-programme score of 9 points in the individual word-list sub-test represents a gain of 4 points over her pre-programme score of 5.

The subject reacted positively to the programme in the sounds /æ/, /ɛ/, /ɪ/, /ɔ/, /ʊ/ and /ɑ:/, and average on the /i/ sound but poorly on the /əʊ/ and the /ɑr/ sounds. The programme had a negative effect on the subject in respect of the /eɪ/ sound.

This subject requires additional remedial drills in the diphthongal sounds and the long /ɑr/ sound.

Her overall post-test score of 47 represents an improvement of 23 points on the pre-test score of 24 points.

6.15.9 Eighth case-study, Tsakata

This subject was 18 years of age. His General Aptitude score was 324 points and his Aptitude in English Language Use was 21 points.

He gained 5 points after exposure to the remedial programme.

The subject responded poorly to the programme in respect of the /əʊ/, and the /ɑr/ sounds, average in the /i/ and the /ɛ/ sounds and positively in the rest of the sounds.

More drill exercises are required in the case of the /əʊ/ and /ɑr/ for this case-study.

His overall post-programme performance was 45 points which represented an increase of 23 points over the pre-programme score.

TABLE 48: SEVENTH CASE-STUDY: PULEDI

Sex : girl
 Age : 17
 General Aptitude score
 (out of 632) : 428 points
 Aptitude in English Language Use
 (out of 33) : 21 points

PASSAGE TEST

Name	Sounds in passage	Frequency of sounds in passage	Pre-test scores	Percentages	Post-test scores	Percentages	Gain in points	Gain in percentage
Puledi	/æ/	7	5	71,43	7	100,00	2	28,57
	/ə/	4	2	50,00	2	50,00	0	0
	/ʌ/	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	/ɛ/	12	2	16,67	7	58,18	5	41,51
	/i/	7	6	85,71	7	100,00	1	14,29
	/ɪ/	11	1	9,09	6	54,55	5	45,45
	/ɔ/	3	0	0	3	100,00	3	100,00
	/ɑ/	3	2	66,67	3	100,00	1	33,33
	/ʊ/	4	0	0	2	50,00	2	50,00
	/ɑ:/	2	0	0	1	50,00	1	50,00
	/əʊ/	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	/eɪ/	2	1	50,00	0	0	(-1)	0
	/əʊ/	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
SUB TOTALS:		58	19		38		19	
WORD-LIST SUB-TEST :		13	5	38,46	9	69,23	4	30,77
GRAND TOTALS		71	24		47		23	32,39

TABLE 49: EIGHTH CASE-STUDY: TSAKATA

Sex : boy
 Age : 18
 General Aptitude score
 (out of 632) : 324 points
 Aptitude in English Language Use
 (out of 33) : 21 points

PASSAGE TEST

Name	Sounds in passage	Frequency of sounds in passage	Pre-test scores	Percentages	Post-test scores	Percentages	Gain in points	Gain in percentage
Tsakata	/æ/	7	2	28,57	5	71,42	3	42,85
	/ə/	4	2	50,00	3	75,00	1	25,00
	/ʌ/	1	0	0	1	100,00	1	100,00
	/ɛ/	12	3	25,00	5	41,82	2	16,82
	/i/	7	6	85,71	7	100,00	1	14,29
	/I/	11	2	18,17	7	63,64	5	45,45
	/ɔ/	3	1	33,33	2	66,67	1	33,33
	/ɑ/	3	1	33,33	3	100,00	2	66,67
	/ʊ/	4	0	0	1	25,00	1	25,00
	/ɑ:/	2	1	50,00	1	50,00	0	0
	/ər/	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	/ɛr/	2	0	0	1	50,00	1	50,00
	/ər/	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
SUB TOTALS:		58	18		36		18	
WORD-LIST SUB-TEST :		13	4	30,77	9	69,23	5	38,46
GRAND TOTALS :		71	22		45		23	32,39

6.15.10 Nineth case-study, Motlalepula

The nineth case-study was 17 years of age with a General Aptitude score of 353 points. Her score in the Aptitude in English Language Use sub-test was 11 points.

Her pre-test score in the individual word-list sub-test was 20 points and in the post-test 40 points.

This case-study reacted positively to the remedial programme in respect of all the sounds, but reacted poorly in respect of the sounds /ʌ/, /ʊ/, /ɑr/ and /əʊ/. In these latter sounds the subject requires concentrated sessions of oral practice to improve her performance.

Her overall pre-programme score was 20 points and her post-programme one was 40 points.

6.15.11 Tenth case-study, Mašiba

This case-study was a boy aged 20 with a General Aptitude score of 310 points and an Aptitude in English Language Use score of 15 points.

His post-programme performance showed a gain in points of 3 over his pre-programme performance of 4.

The subject reacted positively to the remedial effect of the programme in respect of the sounds /ɑ/, /ə/, /ɪ/, /ʊ/, /ɛ/, /eɪ/ and /æ/ but moderately in respect of the sound /i/. The subject responded poorly in respect of the sounds /ʌ/, /ɔ/, /ɑ:/ and /əʊ/. More practice is therefore required in these latter sounds to improve performance in them.

His overall pre-programme score of 18 increased by 20 points in the post-programme performance.

TABLE 50: NINETH CASE-STUDY: MOTLALEPULA

Sex : girl
 Age : 17
 General Aptitude score
 (out of 632) : 353 points
 Aptitude in English Language Use
 (out of 33) : 11 points

PASSAGE TEST

Name	Sounds in passage	Frequency of sounds in passage	Pre-test scores	Percentages	Post-test scores	Percentages	Gain in points	Gain in percentage
Motlalepula	/ə/	7	2	28,57	5	71,42	3	42,85
	/ə/	4	0	0	1	25,00	1	25,00
	/ʌ/	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	/ɛ/	12	3	25,00	6	50,00	3	25,00
	/i/	7	7	100,00	7	100,00	0	0
	/I/	11	1	9,09	5	45,45	4	36,36
	/o/	3	1	33,33	3	100,00	2	66,67
	/ɑ/	3	1	33,33	3	100,00	2	66,67
	/ʊ/	4	0	0	0	0	0	0
	/ɑ:/	2	0	0	1	50,00	1	50,00
	/ɑr/	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	/ei/	2	0	0	1	50,00	1	50,00
	/əʊ/	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
SUB TOTALS:		58	15		32		17	
WORD-LIST SUB-TEST :		13	5	38,46	8	61,53	3	23,07
GRAND TOTALS :		71	20		40		20	28,16

6.15.12 Summary

A cursory perusal of Tables 42 through 51 above shows that all the post-test scores for the experimental group are in excess of the pre-test scores.

In general terms this means that the programme has been successful. Sub-headings 6.16, 6.17 and 6.18 below give a more detailed exposition of the degree of success of the programme.

6.16 Analysis of programme-effectiveness in terms of general oral performance of the experimental group6.16.1 Introduction

The rationale of this section of the study is to establish the total effectiveness of the remedial programme administered to the experimental group.

TABLE 52: SUMMARY OF PROGRAMME-EFFECTIVENESS IN TERMS OF GENERAL ORAL PERFORMANCE OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

TEST-SUBJECT	SEX	AGE	PRE-TEST SCORES	POST-TEST SCORES	GAIN IN POINTS	GAIN IN PERCENTAGE %
Lesetša	girl	15	37	56	19	26,76
Matome	boy	19	35	47	12	16,90
Mapula	girl	16	33	45	12	16,90
Pōtōnkō	boy	19	30	45	15	21,12
Potoki	girl	17	28	43	15	21,12
Motlhaume	boy	16	26	44	18	25,35
Puledi	girl	17	24	47	23	32,39
Tsakata	boy	18	22	45	23	32,39
Motlalepula	girl	17	20	40	20	28,16
Mašiba	boy	20	18	38	20	28,16
	A.M.	17,4	27,3 (33,45%)	45,0 (63,35%)	17,7	24,9
	S.D.	1,5	6,1	4,6	3,8	-

r between age and gain: $-.10$ ($Pr > .01$)

r between pre- and post-test: $0,68$ ($Pr < .05$)

t = 3,94 for difference between Arithmetic means of pre- and post-test scores and $Pt < .01$.

6.16.2 Programme-effectiveness in terms of oral performance of experimental group

Table 52 above reveals that on the whole the programme has had a positive remedial effect on the experimental group.

The correlation between the pre-test scores and the post-test scores is quite high at 0,68 (Pr > .05).

The difference between the Arithmetic Means of the pre- and post-test scores gives a t-value of 3,94 which is more significant than at the 1% level.

The high overall percentage gain of 24,9 seems to suggest that in general North Sotho-speaking children can benefit from a remedial programme.

Table 52 also reveals a negative correlation of -,10 between age and gain. This negative correlation of less than 5% significance level seems to nullify the contention that age and ability to gain control over the target language phonology are closely related.

6.17 Analysis of programme-effectiveness in terms of different sounds

6.17.1 Introduction

Under 6.16 above an analysis of the general effectiveness of the programme as a remedial instrument was made and it was found that on the whole post-test scores were in excess of the pre-test ones. This indicated a general positive remedial effect of the programme.

The purpose of the next sub-section (Vide infra 6.17.2) is to analyse the effectiveness of the programme in terms of individual sounds.

6.17.2 Programme-effectiveness in terms of individual sounds

Table 53 indicates that on the whole the programme had minimal remedial effect on the diphthongal sounds /eɪ/ and /aʊ/, on the long /aɪ/ sound and the /ʌ/ sound.

There are two possible reasons for this: either these sounds had a restricted distribution in the reading passage and therefore could not give a clear picture of the case-studies' actual performance in them or

since these sounds do not have near-counterparts in the North Sotho phonological system the case-studies needed a longer exposure to the remedial drills to achieve mastery over them.

The programme had between 22 percentage marks and 36 percentage marks increase in scores with the sounds /ʊ/, /ɪ/, /ɛ/, /ə/, /æ/ and /ɔ/. The level of effectiveness in these sounds gives cause to believe that even better results could have been achieved if the case-studies had been exposed to the remedial programme for a longer period.

The programme was highly successful with the /i/, /a/ and /a:/ sounds. All aberrancies relating to these sounds were completely remedied by exposure to the programme.

The possible reason for this high level success which was achieved in respect of the latter sounds is possibly due to the fact that these sounds have near-counterparts in the North Sotho sound system and therefore needed very little practice to master.

6.18 Programme in general

6.18.1 Introduction

Three important areas need to be underlined in respect of the remedial programme in general.

These areas are: the total gain achieved from exposure to the programme, relationship between General Aptitude and programme-effectiveness and lastly the Effectiveness Criterion of the programme.

6.18.2 Total gain achieved

The high correlation of 0,68 between the pre- and the post-programme score which is more significant than at the 5% level and the t-value of 3,94 which is more significant than at 1% level renders the programme worthy of acceptance as a remedial instrument for North Sotho-speaking children in general at junior secondary school level.

If the programme were to be administered again, there is a high probability level of success comparable to the one achieved in this experiment.

TABLE 53: SUMMARY OF PRE- AND POST-TEST SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP ON THE PROBLEM SOUNDS

READING TEST - Possible score: 58 points
(PROBLEM SOUNDS)

Test subjects	Age	Sex	General Aptitude scores - Possible score: <u>632</u>	Aptitude scores in English language use - Possible score: <u>33</u>	/æ/ (Possible 7)			/ə/ (Possible 4)			(Po
					Pre	Post	Gain	Pre	Post	Gain	Pre
					Lesetša	15	g	504	18	4	7
Matome	19	b	416	18	3	4	1	1	2	1	0
Mapula	16	g	428	14	4	6	2	1	2	1	0
Pôtônkô	19	b	419	14	5	5	0	2	2	0	0
Potoki	17	g	367	8	3	5	2	2	3	1	0
Matlhaume	16	b	463	11	2	4	2	0	2	2	0
Puledi	17	g	428	10	5	7	2	2	2	0	0
Tsakata	18	b	324	21	2	5	3	2	3	1	0
Motlalepula	17	g	353	11	2	5	3	0	1	1	0
Mašiba	20	b	310	15	2	4	2	0	2	2	0
A.M.	17,4		401,2	14,0	3,2	5,2	2,0	1,2	2,2	1,0	0
S.D.	1,5		54,3	3,9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
̄					45,7	74,3	28,6	30,0	55,0	25,0	0

Effectiveness Criteria: Pre-test = $\frac{80}{31}$

Post-test = $\frac{80}{56}$

a	/a/ (Possible 3)		/ʌ/ (Possible 4)			/ɑ:/ (Possible 2)			/ə/ (Possible 1)		
	Post	Gain	Pre	Post	Gain	Pre	Post	Gain	Pre	Post	Gain
3	3	0	2	3	1	1	1	0	0	1	1
3	3	0	1	2	1	1	1	0	0	1	1
2	3	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0
3	3	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0
2	3	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0
2	3	1	1	2	1	1	1	0	1	0	-1
2	3	1	0	2	2	0	1	1	0	0	0
1	3	2	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
1	3	2	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0
1	3	2	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
,0	3,0	1,0	,5	1,4	,9	,6	1,0	,4	,2	,3	,1
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
,7	100,00	33,3	12,5	35,0	22,5	30,0	50,0	20,0	20,0	30,0	10,0

a	/a/ (Possible 3)		/u/ (Possible 4)			/a:/ (Possible 2)			/ar/ (Possible 1)			/er/ (Possible 2)		
	Post	Gain	Pre	Post	Gain	Pre	Post	Gain	Pre	Post	Gain	Pre	Post	Gain
3	3	0	2	3	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1
3	3	0	1	2	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	0
2	3	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	2	2	0
3	3	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0
2	3	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1
2	3	1	1	2	1	1	1	0	1	0	-1	0	1	1
2	3	1	0	2	2	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	-1
1	3	2	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
1	3	2	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1
1	3	2	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
,0	3,0	1,0	,5	1,4	,9	,6	1,0	,4	,2	,3	,1	,5	1,0	
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
,7	100,00	33,3	12,5	35,0	22,5	30,0	50,0	20,0	20,0	30,0	10,0	25,0	50,0	25

/er/ (Possible 2)		
Pre	Post	Gain
0	1	1
1	1	0
2	2	0
1	1	0
0	1	1
0	1	1
1	0	-1
0	1	1
0	1	1
0	1	1
,5	1,0	,5
-	-	-
25,0	50,0	25,0

/əʊ/ (Possible 1)			Individual word-list sub-test - Possible score: <u>13</u> points	Grand Totals - Possible score: 58 + 13 = 71 points (Total Oral Scores)							
Pre	Post	Gain		Pre	Post	Gain	Pre	%	Post	%	Gain
0	1	1	7	10	3	37	52,1	56	79,8	19	26,8
0	0	0	6	8	2	35	49,3	47	66,2	12	16,9
1	1	0	6	9	3	33	46,5	45	63,4	12	16,9
0	0	0	6	9	3	30	42,3	45	63,4	15	21,1
0	0	0	6	8	2	28	39,4	43	60,5	15	21,1
0	0	0	4	8	4	26	36,6	44	62,0	18	25,4
0	0	0	5	9	4	24	33,8	47	66,2	23	32,4
0	0	0	4	9	5	22	31,0	45	63,4	23	32,4
0	0	0	5	8	3	20	28,2	40	56,4	20	28,2
0	0	0	4	7	3	18	25,3	38	53,5	20	28,2
,1	,2	,1				27,4		45,0		17,7	
-	-	-				6,1		4,6		3,8	
10,0	20,0	10,0				38,45		36,35		24,9	

Master tape : bat
 Pupil : bat
 Master tape : bat

Master tape : tan
 Pupil : tan
 Master tape : tan

STEP 3

Now listen carefully to the playback and compare your pronunciation with that of the master tape.

Are you satisfied that your pronunciation is the same as that of the master tape?

Let's go through the lesson again.

(Lesson 7 is repeated)

LESSON 8

The English /ɑ:/ soundSTEP 1

The following words contain the English /ɑ:/ sound. Listen carefully. Do not repeat; just listen.

bark	cart	dark
heart	harm	barn
calm	march	bard
		lark

STEP 2

Now repeat after me paying special attention to the /ɑ:/ sound in the middle of the words.

Master tape : bark
 Pupil : bark
 Master tape : bark

Master tape : heart
 Pupil : heart
 Master tape : heart

Master tape : calm
 Pupil : calm
 Master tape : calm

Master tape	:	<u>cart</u>
Pupil	:	<u>cart</u>
Master tape	:	<u>cart</u>
Master tape	:	<u>harm</u>
Pupil	:	<u>harm</u>
Master tape	:	<u>harm</u>
Master tape	:	<u>march</u>
Pupil	:	<u>march</u>
Master tape	:	<u>march</u>
Master tape	:	<u>dark</u>
Pupil	:	<u>dark</u>
Master tape	:	<u>dark</u>
Master tape	:	<u>barn</u>
Pupil	:	<u>barn</u>
Master tape	:	<u>barn</u>
Master tape	:	<u>bard</u>
Pupil	:	<u>bard</u>
Master tape	:	<u>bard</u>
Master tape	:	<u>lark</u>
Pupil	:	<u>lark</u>
Master tape	:	<u>lark</u>

STEP 3

Now listen carefully to the playback and compare your pronunciation with that of the master tape.

Are you satisfied that your pronunciation is the same as that of the master tape?

Let's go through the lesson again.

(Lesson 8 is repeated)

BOOK 2

LESSON 1

The English /ə/ sound in contextSTEP 1

The following sentences contain the English /ə/ sound in context.
Listen carefully. Do not repeat; just listen.

His fatherer is a doctor.
His motherer is at home.
My brotherer is at school.
My work is better than yours.
Don't botherer about him.
Your book is the best sellerer.
He's a buyerer of antiques.
Are you a teacherer?
I phoned the preacherer.
He's our Rectorer.

STEP 2

Now repeat after me paying special attention to the /ə/ sound in context. (The /ə/ sound is underlined)

Master tape	:	His father <u>er</u> is a doctor
Pupil	:	His father <u>er</u> is a doctor
Master tape	:	His father <u>er</u> is a doctor
Master tape	:	His mother <u>er</u> is at home
Pupil	:	His mother <u>er</u> is at home
Master tape	:	His mother <u>er</u> is at home
Master tape	:	My brother <u>er</u> is at school
Pupil	:	My brother <u>er</u> is at school
Master tape	:	My brother <u>er</u> is at school
Master tape	:	My work is better <u>er</u> than yours
Pupil	:	My work is better <u>er</u> than yours
Master tape	:	My work is better <u>er</u> than yours
Master tape	:	Don't bother <u>er</u> about him
Pupil	:	Don't bother <u>er</u> about him
Master tape	:	Don't bother <u>er</u> about him
Master tape	:	Your book is the best seller <u>er</u>
Pupil	:	Your book is the best seller <u>er</u>
Master tape	:	Your book is the best seller <u>er</u>

Master tape : He's a buyer of antiques
 Pupil : He's a buyer of antiques
 Master tape : He's a buyer of antiques

Master tape : Are you a teacher?
 Pupil : Are you a teacher?
 Master tape : Are you a teacher?

Master tape : I phoned the preacher
 Pupil : I phoned the preacher
 Master tape : I phoned the preacher

Master tape : He's our rector
 Pupil : He's our rector
 Master tape : He's our rector

STEP 3

Now listen carefully to the playback and compare your pronunciation with that of the master tape.

Are you satisfied that your pronunciation is the same as that of the master tape?

Let's go through the lesson again.

(Lesson 1 is repeated)

LESSON 2

The English /ə/ sound in context

STEP 1

The following sentences contain the English /ə/ sound in context. Listen carefully. Do not repeat; just listen.

Mary is a clever girl.
 That is a beautiful bird.
 He's playing in the surf at the seashore.
 A lovely pearl.
 Is she a flirt?
 Don't burn that paper.
Turn to the right.
 She's afraid of a worm.
 A large bottle of turps.
Bert is a strong boy.

STEP 2

Now repeat after me paying special attention to the /ə/ sound in context. (The /ə/ sound is underlined)

Master tape : Mary is a clever girl
 Pupil : Mary is a clever girl
 Master tape : Mary is a clever girl

Master tape : That is a beautiful bird
 Pupil : That is a beautiful bird
 Master tape : That is a beautiful bird

Master tape : He's playing in the surf at the seashore
 Pupil : He's playing in the surf at the seashore
 Master tape : He's playing in the surf at the seashore

Master tape : A lovely pearl
 Pupil : A lovely pearl
 Master tape : A lovely pearl

Master tape : Is she a flirt?
 Pupil : Is she a flirt?
 Master tape : Is she a flirt?

Master tape : Don't burn that paper
 Pupil : Don't burn that paper
 Master tape : Don't burn that paper

Master tape : Turn to the right
 Pupil : Turn to the right
 Master tape : Turn to the right

Master tape : She's afraid of a worm
 Pupil : She's afraid of a worm
 Master tape : She's afraid of a worm

Master tape : A large bottle of turps
 Pupil : A large bottle of turps
 Master tape : A large bottle of turps

Master tape : Bert is a strong boy
 Pupil : Bert is a strong boy
 Master tape : Bert is a strong boy

STEP 3

Now listen carefully to the playback and compare your pronunciation with that of the master tape.

Are you satisfied that your pronunciation is the same as that of the master tape?

Let's go through the lesson again.

(Lesson 2 is repeated)

LESSON 3

The English /ʊ/ sound in contextSTEP 1

The following sentences contain the English /ʊ/ sound in context.
Listen carefully. Do not repeat; just listen.

The glass is full of water.
Look at his hands.
Pull hard at it.
There's much soot in the chimney.
He's selling fire-wood.
This is my book.
Put that down.
A black hood.
A big bull.

STEP 2

Now repeat after me paying special attention to the /ʊ/ sound in context. (The /ʊ/ sound is underlined)

Master tape	:	The glass is <u>full</u> of water
Pupil	:	The glass is <u>full</u> of water
Master tape	:	The glass is <u>full</u> of water
Master tape	:	Look at his <u>hands</u>
Pupil	:	Look at his <u>hands</u>
Master tape	:	Look at his <u>hands</u>
Master tape	:	P <u>ull</u> hard at it
Pupil	:	P <u>ull</u> hard at it
Master tape	:	P <u>ull</u> hard at it
Master tape	:	There's much <u>soot</u> in the chimney
Pupil	:	There's much <u>soot</u> in the chimney
Master tape	:	There's much <u>soot</u> in the chimney
Master tape	:	He's selling <u>fire-wood</u>
Pupil	:	He's selling <u>fire-wood</u>
Master tape	:	He's selling <u>fire-wood</u>
Master tape	:	This is my <u>book</u>
Pupil	:	This is my <u>book</u>
Master tape	:	This is my <u>book</u>
Master tape	:	Put that <u>down</u>
Pupil	:	Put that <u>down</u>
Master tape	:	Put that <u>down</u>

Master tape : A black hood
 Pupil : A black h^{oo}od
 Master tape : A black h^{oo}od

Master tape : A big bull
 Pupil : A big b^ull
 Master tape : A big b^ull

STEP 3

Now listen carefully to the playback and compare your pronunciation with that of the master tape.

Are you satisfied that your pronunciation is the same as that of the master tape?

Let's go through the lesson again.

(Lesson 3 is repeated)

LESSON 4

The English /ɪ/ sound in contextSTEP 1

The following sentences contain the English /ɪ/ sound in context. Listen carefully. Do not speak; just listen.

I kill a snake.
 The dogs lick his wounds.
 That is good English.
 It is a hot day.
 The boys hit a donkey.
 She was sick yesterday.
 They hid behind the trees.
 My ear is itching.
 We'll pitch a tent here tomorrow.
 They climb a hill.

STEP 2

Now repeat after me paying special attention to the /ɪ/ sound in context. (The /ɪ/ sound is underlined).

Master tape : I kill a snake
 Pupil : I kill a snake
 Master tape : I kill a snake

Master tape	:	The dogs <u>l</u> ick his wounds
Pupil	:	The dogs <u>l</u> ick his wounds
Master tape	:	The dogs <u>l</u> ick his wounds
Master tape	:	That <u>i</u> s good English
Pupil	:	That <u>i</u> s good English
Master tape	:	That <u>i</u> s good English
Master tape	:	<u>I</u> t is a hot day
Pupil	:	<u>I</u> t is a hot day
Master tape	:	<u>I</u> t is a hot day
Master tape	:	The boys <u>h</u> it a donkey
Pupil	:	The boys <u>h</u> it a donkey
Master tape	:	The boys <u>h</u> it a donkey
Master tape	:	She was <u>s</u> ick yesterday
Pupil	:	She was <u>s</u> ick yesterday
Master tape	:	She was <u>s</u> ick yesterday
Master tape	:	They <u>h</u> id behind the trees
Pupil	:	They <u>h</u> id behind the trees
Master tape	:	They <u>h</u> id behind the trees
Master tape	:	My ear is <u>i</u> tching
Pupil	:	My ear is <u>i</u> tching
Master tape	:	My ear is <u>i</u> tching
Master tape	:	We'll <u>p</u> itch a tent here tomorrow
Pupil	:	We'll <u>p</u> itch a tent here tomorrow
Master tape	:	We'll <u>p</u> itch a tent here tomorrow
Master tape	:	They climb a <u>h</u> ill
Pupil	:	They climb a <u>h</u> ill
Master tape	:	They climb a <u>h</u> ill

STEP 3

Now listen carefully to the playback and compare your pronunciation with that of the master tape.

Are you satisfied that your pronunciation is the same as that of the master tape?

Let's go through the lesson again.

(Lesson 4 is repeated)

LESSON 5

The English /ɛ/ sound in context

STEP 1

Master tape : This is a good pen
 Pupil : This is a good pen
 Master tape : This is a good pen

STEP 3

Now listen carefully to the playback and compare your pronunciation with that of the master tape.

Are you satisfied that your pronunciation is the same as that of the master tape?

Let's go through the lesson again.

(Lesson 5 is repeated)

LESSON 6

STEP 1

The following sentences contain the English /ɔ:/ sound in context. Listen carefully. Do not repeat; just listen.

He's a short man.
 We worked for naught.
 They stalk game all day long.
 She poured the water out.
 I was not taught to write neatly.
 Rugby is a popular sport in South Africa.
 The lions roared all night long.
 Are you a porter?

STEP 2

Now repeat after me paying special attention to the English /ɔ:/ sound in context. (The /ɔ:/ sound is underlined)

Master tape : He's a short man
 Pupil : He's a short man
 Master tape : He's a short man

Master tape : We worked for naught
 Pupil : We worked for naught
 Master tape : We worked for naught

Master tape : They stalk game all day long
 Pupil : They stalk game all day long
 Master tape : They stalk game all day long

Master tape : She poured the water out of a glass
Pupil : She poured the water out of a glass
Master tape : She poured the water out of a glass

Master tape : I was not taught to write neatly
Pupil : I was not taught to write neatly
Master tape : I was not taught to write neatly

Master tape : Rugby is a popular sport in South Africa
Pupil : Rugby is a popular sport in South Africa
Master tape : Rugby is a popular sport in South Africa

Master tape : The lions roared all night long
Pupil : The lions roared all night long
Master tape : The lions roared all night long

Master tape : Are you a porter?
Pupil : Are you a porter?
Master tape : Are you a porter?

STEP 3

Now listen carefully to the playback and compare your pronunciation with that of the master tape.

Are you satisfied that your pronunciation is the same as that of the master tape?

Let's go through the lesson again.

(Lesson 6 is repeated)

LESSON 7

The English /æ/ sound in contextSTEP 1

The following sentences contain the English /æ/ sound in context. Listen carefully. Do not repeat; just listen.

A bad boy.
He sat down.
They had to call a doctor.
John is a fine lad.
She pat it on the head.
They need a large tract of land.
I am very sad today.
Use a clean pan to fry the fish.
We saw a big bat fly past.
She gained a beautiful tan last summer.

STEP 2

Master tape	:	A <u>bad</u> boy
Pupil	:	A <u>bad</u> boy
Master tape	:	A <u>bad</u> boy
Master tape	:	He <u>sat</u> down
Pupil	:	He <u>sat</u> down
Master tape	:	He <u>sat</u> down
Master tape	:	They <u>had</u> to call a doctor
Pupil	:	They <u>had</u> to call a doctor
Master tape	:	They <u>had</u> to call a doctor
Master tape	:	John is a fine <u>lad</u>
Pupil	:	John is a fine <u>lad</u>
Master tape	:	John is a fine <u>lad</u>
Master tape	:	She <u>pat</u> it on the head
Pupil	:	She <u>pat</u> it on the head
Master tape	:	She <u>pat</u> it on the head
Master tape	:	They need a large tract of <u>land</u>
Pupil	:	They need a large tract of <u>land</u>
Master tape	:	They need a large tract of <u>land</u>
Master tape	:	I am very <u>sad</u> today
Pupil	:	I am very <u>sad</u> today
Master tape	:	I am very <u>sad</u> today
Master tape	:	Use a clean <u>pan</u> to fry the fish
Pupil	:	Use a clean <u>pan</u> to fry the fish
Master tape	:	Use a clean <u>pan</u> to fry the fish
Master tape	:	We saw a big <u>bat</u> fly past
Pupil	:	We saw a big <u>bat</u> fly past
Master tape	:	We saw a big <u>bat</u> fly past
Master tape	:	She gained a beautiful <u>tan</u> last summer
Pupil	:	She gained a beautiful <u>tan</u> last summer
Master tape	:	She gained a beautiful <u>tan</u> last summer

STEP 3

Now listen carefully to the playback and compare your pronunciation with that of the master tape.

Are you satisfied that your pronunciation is the same as that of the master tape?

Let's go through the lesson again.

(Lesson 7 is repeated)

LESSON 8

The English /ɑ:/ sound in contextSTEP 1

The following sentences contain the English /ɑ:/ sound in context.
Listen carefully. Do not repeat; just listen.

The dogs bark at him.
He died of heart attack.
Please calm yourself
He bought a donkey cart.
They have a long march ahead.
I did not harm the child.
She is afraid of the dark.
Children like playing in the barn.
He's a bard of standing.
She sings like a lark.

STEP 2

Master tape	:	The dogs <u>bark</u> at him
Pupil	:	The dogs <u>bark</u> at him
Master tape	:	The dogs <u>bark</u> at him
Master tape	:	He died of <u>heart</u> attack
Pupil	:	He died of <u>heart</u> attack
Master tape	:	He died of <u>heart</u> attack
Master tape	:	Please <u>calm</u> yourself
Pupil	:	Please <u>calm</u> yourself
Master tape	:	Please <u>calm</u> yourself
Master tape	:	He bought a donkey <u>cart</u>
Pupil	:	He bought a donkey <u>cart</u>
Master tape	:	He bought a donkey <u>cart</u>
Master tape	:	I did not <u>harm</u> the child
Pupil	:	I did not <u>harm</u> the child
Master tape	:	I did not <u>harm</u> the child
Master tape	:	They have a long <u>march</u> ahead
Pupil	:	They have a long <u>march</u> ahead
Master tape	:	They have a long <u>march</u> ahead
Master tape	:	She is afraid of the <u>dark</u>
Pupil	:	She is afraid of the <u>dark</u>
Master tape	:	She is afraid of the <u>dark</u>
Master tape	:	Children like playing in the <u>barn</u>
Pupil	:	Children like playing in the <u>barn</u>
Master tape	:	Children like playing in the <u>barn</u>

Master tape : He's a bard of standing
Pupil : He's a bard of standing
Master tape : He's a bard of standing

Master tape : She sings like a lark
Pupil : She sings like a lark
Master tape : She sings like a lark

STEP 3

Now listen carefully to the playback and compare your pronunciation with that of the master tape.

Are you satisfied that your pronunciation is the same as that of the master tape?

Let's go through the lesson again.

(Lesson 8 is repeated)

Master tape : bat - bet
 Pupil : bat - bet
 Master tape : bat - bet

Master tape : tan - ten
 Pupil : tan - ten
 Master tape : tan - ten

STEP 3

Now listen carefully to the playback and compare your own pronunciation with that of the master tape.

Are you satisfied that your pronunciation is the same as that of the master tape?

Let's go through the lesson again.

(Lesson 1 is repeated)

LESSON 2

The English /ɔ/ and /ɔ:/ in contrastSTEP 1

The following words contrast the English /ɔ/ and /ɔ:/ sounds. Listen carefully. Do not repeat; just listen.

shot	-	short	tot	-	taught
not	-	naught	spot	-	sport
stock	-	stalk	rod	-	roared
pod	-	poured	potter	-	porter

STEP 2

Now repeat after me paying special attention to the contrast between the /ɔ/ and the /ɔ:/ sounds. (The contrasting sounds are underlined)

Master tape	:	shot	-	short
Pupil	:	shot	-	short
Master tape	:	shot	-	short
Master tape	:	not	-	naught
Pupil	:	not	-	naught
Master tape	:	not	-	naught
Master tape	:	stock	-	stalk
Pupil	:	stock	-	stalk
Master tape	:	stock	-	stalk

Master tape	:	<u>p</u> od	-	<u>p</u> oured
Pupil	:	<u>p</u> od	-	<u>p</u> oured
Master tape	:	<u>p</u> od	-	<u>p</u> oured
Master tape	:	<u>t</u> ot	-	<u>t</u> aught
Pupil	:	<u>t</u> ot	-	<u>t</u> aught
Master tape	:	<u>t</u> ot	-	<u>t</u> aught
Master tape	:	<u>s</u> pot	-	<u>s</u> port
Pupil	:	<u>s</u> pot	-	<u>s</u> port
Master tape	:	<u>s</u> pot	-	<u>s</u> port
Master tape	:	<u>r</u> od	-	<u>r</u> oared
Pupil	:	<u>r</u> od	-	<u>r</u> oared
Master tape	:	<u>r</u> od	-	<u>r</u> oared
Master tape	:	<u>p</u> otter	-	<u>p</u> orter
Pupil	:	<u>p</u> otter	-	<u>p</u> orter
Master tape	:	<u>p</u> otter	-	<u>p</u> orter

STEP 3

Now listen carefully to the playback and compare your own pronunciation with that of the master tape.

Are you satisfied that your pronunciation is the same as that of the master tape?

Let's go through the lesson again.

(Lesson 2 is repeated)

LESSON 3

The English /ɑ/ and /ɑ:/ in contrastSTEP 1

The following words contrast the English /ɑ/ and /ɑ:/ sounds. Listen carefully. Do not repeat; just listen.

<u>b</u> uck	-	<u>b</u> ark	<u>c</u> ut	-	<u>c</u> art	<u>d</u> uck	-	<u>d</u> ark
<u>h</u> ut	-	<u>h</u> ear <u>t</u>	<u>h</u> um	-	<u>h</u> arm	<u>b</u> un	-	<u>b</u> arn
<u>c</u> ome	-	<u>c</u> alm	<u>m</u> uch	-	<u>m</u> arch	<u>b</u> ud	-	<u>b</u> ard
						<u>l</u> uck	-	<u>l</u> ark

STEP 2

Now repeat after me paying special attention to the contrast between the /ɑ/ and the /ɑ:/ sounds. (The contrasting sounds are underlined)

Master tape	:	<u>b</u> uck	-	ba <u>r</u> k
Pupil	:	b <u>u</u> ck	-	ba <u>r</u> k
Master tape	:	b <u>u</u> ck	-	ba <u>r</u> k
Master tape	:	h <u>u</u> t	-	hea <u>r</u> t
Pupil	:	h <u>u</u> t	-	hea <u>r</u> t
Master tape	:	h <u>u</u> t	-	hea <u>r</u> t
Master tape	:	co <u>m</u> e	-	ca <u>l</u> m
Pupil	:	co <u>m</u> e	-	ca <u>l</u> m
Master tape	:	co <u>m</u> e	-	ca <u>l</u> m
Master tape	:	cu <u>t</u>	-	ca <u>r</u> t
Pupil	:	cu <u>t</u>	-	ca <u>r</u> t
Master tape	:	cu <u>t</u>	-	ca <u>r</u> t
Master tape	:	hu <u>m</u>	-	ha <u>r</u> m
Pupil	:	hu <u>m</u>	-	ha <u>r</u> m
Master tape	:	hu <u>m</u>	-	ha <u>r</u> m
Master tape	:	mu <u>ch</u>	-	ma <u>r</u> ch
Pupil	:	mu <u>ch</u>	-	ma <u>r</u> ch
Master tape	:	mu <u>ch</u>	-	ma <u>r</u> ch
Master tape	:	du <u>ck</u>	-	da <u>r</u> k
Pupil	:	du <u>ck</u>	-	da <u>r</u> k
Master tape	:	du <u>ck</u>	-	da <u>r</u> k
Master tape	:	bu <u>n</u>	-	ba <u>r</u> n
Pupil	:	bu <u>n</u>	-	ba <u>r</u> n
Master tape	:	bu <u>n</u>	-	ba <u>r</u> n
Master tape	:	bu <u>d</u>	-	ba <u>r</u> d
Pupil	:	bu <u>d</u>	-	ba <u>r</u> d
Master tape	:	bu <u>d</u>	-	ba <u>r</u> d
Master tape	:	lu <u>ck</u>	-	la <u>r</u> k
Pupil	:	lu <u>ck</u>	-	la <u>r</u> k
Master tape	:	lu <u>ck</u>	-	la <u>r</u> k

STEP 3

Now listen carefully to the playback and compare your own pronunciation with that of the master tape.

Are you satisfied that your pronunciation is the same as that of the master tape?

Let's go through the lesson again.

(Lesson 3 is repeated)

LESSON 4

The English / i / and / I / in contrastSTEP 1

The following pairs of words contrast the English / i / and / I / sounds. Listen carefully. Do not repeat; just listen.

<u>keel</u> - kill	<u>eat</u> - <u>it</u>	<u>each</u> - <u>itch</u>
<u>leak</u> - <u>lick</u>	<u>seek</u> - <u>sick</u>	<u>heat</u> - <u>hit</u>
<u>ease</u> - <u>is</u>	<u>heed</u> - <u>hid</u>	<u>peak</u> - <u>pick</u>
		<u>heel</u> - <u>hill</u>

STEP 2

Now repeat after me paying special attention to the contrast between the / i / and the / I / sound. (The contrasting sounds are underlined)

Master tape	:	<u>keel</u>	-	kill
Pupil	:	<u>keel</u>	-	k <u>ill</u>
Master tape	:	<u>keel</u>	-	k <u>ill</u>
Master tape	:	<u>leak</u>	-	lick
Pupil	:	<u>leak</u>	-	l <u>ick</u>
Master tape	:	<u>leak</u>	-	l <u>ick</u>
Master tape	:	<u>ease</u>	-	is
Pupil	:	<u>ease</u>	-	<u>i</u> s
Master tape	:	<u>ease</u>	-	<u>i</u> s
Master tape	:	<u>eat</u>	-	it
Pupil	:	<u>eat</u>	-	<u>i</u> t
Master tape	:	<u>eat</u>	-	<u>i</u> t
Master tape	:	<u>seek</u>	-	sick
Pupil	:	<u>seek</u>	-	s <u>i</u> ck
Master tape	:	<u>seek</u>	-	s <u>i</u> ck
Master tape	:	<u>heed</u>	-	hid
Pupil	:	<u>heed</u>	-	h <u>i</u> d
Master tape	:	<u>heed</u>	-	h <u>i</u> d
Master tape	:	<u>each</u>	-	itch
Pupil	:	<u>each</u>	-	<u>i</u> tch
Master tape	:	<u>each</u>	-	<u>i</u> tch
Master tape	:	<u>heat</u>	-	hit
Pupil	:	<u>heat</u>	-	h <u>i</u> t
Master tape	:	<u>heat</u>	-	h <u>i</u> t
Master tape	:	<u>peak</u>	-	pick
Pupil	:	<u>peak</u>	-	p <u>i</u> ck
Master tape	:	<u>peak</u>	-	p <u>i</u> ck

Master tape : heel - hill
 Pupil : heel - hill
 Master tape : heel - hill

STEP 3

Now listen carefully to the playback and compare your own pronunciation with that of the master tape.

Are you satisfied that your pronunciation is the same as that of the master tape?

Let's go through the lesson again.

(Lesson 4 is repeated)

LESSON 5

The English /ʊ/ and /u/ in contrastSTEP 1

The following pairs of words contrast the English /ʊ/ and /u/ sounds. Listen carefully. Do not repeat; just listen.

full	-	fo <u>o</u> l	so <u>o</u> t	-	su <u>i</u> t	ho <u>o</u> d	-	fo <u>o</u> d
l <u>o</u> ok	-	L <u>u</u> ke	w <u>o</u> od	-	w <u>o</u> oed	pu <u>t</u>	-	yo <u>u</u>
pu <u>l</u> l	-	po <u>o</u> l	bo <u>o</u> k	-	mo <u>o</u> n	ho <u>o</u> k	-	ru <u>l</u> e
						bu <u>l</u> l	-	bl <u>u</u> e

STEP 2

Now repeat after me paying special attention to the contrast between the /ʊ/ and /u/ sounds. (The contrasting sounds are underlined)

Master tape : full - fool
 Pupil : full - fool
 Master tape : full - fool

Master tape : look - Luuke
 Pupil : look - Luuke
 Master tape : look - Luuke

Master tape : pull - pool
 Pupil : pull - pool
 Master tape : pull - pool

Master tape : soot - suit
 Pupil : soot - suit
 Master tape : soot - suit

Master tape : wod - wooed
 Pupil : wood - wooed
 Master tape : wod - wooed

Master tape : book - moon
 Pupil : book - moon
 Master tape : book - moon

Master tape : hood - food
 Pupil : hood - food
 Master tape : hood - food

Master tape : put - you
 Pupil : put - you
 Master tape : put - you

Master tape : hook - rule
 Pupil : hook - rule
 Master tape : hook - rule

Master tape : bull - blue
 Pupil : bull - blue
 Master tape : bull - blue

STEP 3

Now listen carefully to the playback and compare your own pronunciation with that of the master tape.

Are you satisfied that your pronunciation is the same as that of the master tape?

Let's go through the lesson again.

(Lesson 5 is repeated)

BOOK 4

LESSON 1

Contrasting the English /ɛ/ and /æ/ sounds in contextSTEP 1

The following sentences contrast the English /ɛ/ and /æ/ sounds in context. Listen carefully. Do not repeat; just listen.

A bad boy stole my bed.
 He sat there till sunset.
 John had a feather in his head.
 The good lad led him to safety.
 I pat my pet on the head.
 When we land in Johannesburg I'll lend you the money.
 He was sad when he said it to us.
 The child drew a pan with his pen.
 I bet, it is the same bat.
 She gained a deep tan in ten days' time.

STEP 2

Now repeat after me paying special attention to the contrast between the /ɛ/ and /æ/ sounds in context. (The contrasting sounds are underlined)

Master tape	:	A <u>bad</u> boy stole my <u>bed</u>
Pupil	:	A <u>bad</u> boy stole my <u>bed</u>
Master tape	:	A <u>bad</u> boy stole my <u>bed</u>
Master tape	:	He <u>sat</u> there till <u>sunset</u>
Pupil	:	He <u>sat</u> there till <u>sunset</u>
Master tape	:	He <u>sat</u> there till <u>sunset</u>
Master tape	:	John <u>had</u> a feather on his <u>head</u>
Pupil	:	John <u>had</u> a feather on his <u>head</u>
Master tape	:	John <u>had</u> a feather on his <u>head</u>
Master tape	:	The good <u>lad</u> <u>led</u> him to <u>safety</u>
Pupil	:	The good <u>lad</u> <u>led</u> him to <u>safety</u>
Master tape	:	The good <u>lad</u> <u>led</u> him to <u>safety</u>
Master tape	:	I <u>pat</u> my <u>pet</u> on the head
Pupil	:	I <u>pat</u> my <u>pet</u> on the head
Master tape	:	I <u>pat</u> my <u>pet</u> on the head
Master tape	:	When we <u>land</u> in Johannesburg, I'll <u>lend</u> you the money
Pupil	:	When we <u>land</u> in Johannesburg, I'll <u>lend</u> you the money
Master tape	:	When we <u>land</u> in Johannesburg, I'll <u>lend</u> you the

Master tape : He was sad when he said it to us
 Pupil : He was sad when he said it to us
 Master tape : He was sad when he said it to us

Master tape : The child drew a pan with his pen
 Pupil : The child drew a pan with his pen
 Master tape : The child drew a pan with his pen

Master tape : I bet, it is the same bat
 Pupil : I bet, it is the same bat
 Master tape : I bet, it is the same bat

Master tape : She gained a deep tan in ten days' time
 Pupil : She gained a deep tan in ten days' time
 Master tape : She gained a deep tan in ten days' time

STEP 3

Now listen carefully to the playback and compare your own pronunciation with that of the master tape.

Are you satisfied that your pronunciation is the same as that of the master tape?

Let's go through the lesson again.

(Lesson 1 is repeated)

LESSON 2

Contrasting the English /ɔ/ and /ɔ:/ sounds in contextSTEP 1

The following sentences contrast the English /ɔ/ and /ɔ:/ sounds in context. Listen carefully. Do not repeat; just listen.

The shot fell short of the target.
 Not that it was for naught that you came, it wasn't
 He poured water on a bean-pod.
 I taught him to drink only one tot of brandy a day.
 It's easy to spot a good sportsman.
 After the broken rod had been replaced, the racing car
roared away
 My father is a potter but I am a porter.

STEP 2

Now repeat after me paying special attention to the contrast between /ɔ/ and /ɔ:/ sounds in context. (The contrasting sounds are underlined)

- Master tape : The shot fell short of the target
Pupil : The shot fell short of the target
Master tape : The shot fell short of the target
- Master tape : Not that it was for naught that you came,
it wasn't
Pupil : Not that it was for naught that you came,
it wasn't
Master tape : Not that it was for naught that you came,
it wasn't
- Master tape : He poured water on a bean-pod
Pupil : He poured water on a bean-pod
Master tape : He poured water on a bean-pod
- Master tape : I taught him to drink only one tot of brandy a day
Pupil : I taught him to drink only one tot of brandy a day
Master tape : I taught him to drink only one tot of brandy a day
- Master tape : It's easy to spot a good sportsman
Pupil : It's easy to spot a good sportsman
Master tape : It's easy to spot a good sportsman
- Master tape : After the broken rod had been replaced, the
racing car roared away
Pupil : After the broken rod had been replaced, the
racing car roared away
Master tape : After the broken rod had been replaced, the
racing car roared away
- Master tape : My father is a potter but I am a porter
Pupil : My father is a potter but I am a porter
Master tape : My father is a potter but I am a porter

STEP 3

Now listen carefully to the playback and compare your pronunciation with that of the master tape.

Are you satisfied that your pronunciation is the same as that of the master tape?

Let's go through the lesson again.

(Lesson 2 is repeated)

LESSON 3

Contrasting the English /ɑ/ and /ɑ:/ sounds in context

The following sentences contrast the English /ɑ/ and /ɑ:/ sounds in context. Listen carefully. Do not repeat; just listen.

The dogs bark at the buck.
 He found its heart in the hut.
 Come now, calm yourself.
 He cut the planks to make a cart.
 If you hum the tune, it will make no harm.
 They'll march much faster during the day.
 Jane was scared by a duck in the dark room.
 She put her bun in the barn.
 I said "bard" and not "bud".
 It was sheer luck that we caught the lark in its nest.

STEP 2

Now repeat after me paying special attention to the contrast between the /ɑ/ and the /ɑ:/ sounds in context. (The contrasting sounds are underlined)

Master tape	:	The dogs <u>bark</u> at the <u>buck</u>
Pupil	:	The dogs <u>bārk</u> at the <u>būck</u>
Master tape	:	The dogs <u>bārk</u> at the <u>būck</u>
Master tape	:	He found its <u>heart</u> in the <u>hut</u>
Pupil	:	He found its <u>hēart</u> in the <u>hūt</u>
Master tape	:	He found its <u>hēart</u> in the <u>hūt</u>
Master tape	:	Come now, <u>calm</u> yourself
Pupil	:	<u>C</u> ome now, <u>cā</u> lm yourself
Master tape	:	<u>C</u> ome now, <u>cā</u> lm yourself
Master tape	:	He <u>cut</u> the planks to make a <u>cart</u>
Pupil	:	He <u>cūt</u> the planks to make a <u>cārt</u>
Master tape	:	He <u>cūt</u> the planks to make a <u>cārt</u>
Master tape	:	If you <u>hum</u> the tune, it will do no <u>harm</u>
Pupil	:	If you <u>hūm</u> the tune, it will do no <u>hārm</u>
Master tape	:	If you <u>hūm</u> the tune, it will do no <u>hārm</u>
Master tape	:	They'll <u>march</u> <u>much</u> faster during the day
Pupil	:	They'll <u>mārch</u> <u>mūch</u> faster during the day
Master tape	:	They'll <u>mārch</u> <u>mūch</u> faster during the day
Master tape	:	Jane was scared by a <u>duck</u> in a <u>dark</u> room
Pupil	:	Jane was scared by a <u>dūck</u> in a <u>dārk</u> room
Master tape	:	Jane was scared by a <u>dūck</u> in a <u>dārk</u> room
Master tape	:	She put her <u>bun</u> in the <u>barn</u>
Pupil	:	She put her <u>būn</u> in the <u>bār</u> n
Master tape	:	She put her <u>būn</u> in the <u>bār</u> n
Master tape	:	I said " <u>bard</u> " not " <u>bud</u> "
Pupil	:	I said " <u>bārd</u> " not " <u>būd</u> "
Master tape	:	I said " <u>bārd</u> " not " <u>būd</u> "
Master tape	:	It was sheer <u>luck</u> that we caught the <u>lark</u> in its nest

Pupil : It was sheer luck that we caught the lark
in its nest
Master tape : It was sheer luck that we caught the lark
in its nest

STEP 3

Now listen carefully to the playback and compare your pronunciation with that of the master tape.

Are you satisfied that your pronunciation is the same as that of the master tape?

Let's go through the lesson again.

(Lesson 3 is repeated)

LESSON 4

Contrasting the English / i / and / I / sounds in contextSTEP 1

The following sentences contrast the English / i / and / I / sounds in context. Listen carefully. Do not repeat; just listen.

The keel of a ship can kill a shark.
They lick water from the leak.
Is the idea to ease the pain?
Eat it at once!
They seek advice regarding their sick dog.
He heeded my advice and hid from them.
I get an itch each time I swim.
The army was hard hit by the heat of the area.
Pick the highest peak for our next excursion.
This is a heel and that is a hill.

STEP 2

Now repeat after me paying special attention to the contrast between the / i / and the / I / sounds in context.

Master tape : The keel of a ship can kill a shark
Pupil : The keel of a ship can kill a shark
Master tape : The keel of a ship can kill a shark

Master tape : Is the idea to ease pain?
Pupil : Is the idea to ease pain?
Master tape : Is the idea to ease pain?

- Master tape : Eat it at once!
Pupil : Eat it at once!
Master tape : Eat it at once!
- Master tape : They seek advice concerning their sick dog
Pupil : They seek advice concerning their sick dog
Master tape : They seek advice concerning their sick dog
- Master tape : He heeded my advice and hid from them
Pupil : He heeded my advice and hid from them
Master tape : He heeded my advice and hid from them
- Master tape : I get an itch each time I swim
Pupil : I get an itch each time I swim
Master tape : I get an itch each time I swim
- Master tape : The army was hard hit by the heat of the area
Pupil : The army was hard hit by the heat of the area
Master tape : The army was hard hit by the heat of the area
- Master tape : Pick the highest peak for our next excursion
Pupil : Pick the highest peak for our next excursion
Master tape : Pick the highest peak for our next excursion
- Master tape : This is a heel and that is a hill
Pupil : This is a heel and that is a hill
Master tape : This is a heel and that is a hill

STEP 3

Now listen carefully to the playback and compare your pronunciation with that of the master tape.

Are you satisfied that your pronunciation is the same as that of the master tape?

Let's go through the lesson again.

(Lesson 4 is repeated)

LESSON 5

Contrasting the English /u/ and /ʊ/ sounds in contextSTEP 1

The following sentences contrast the English /u/ and /ʊ/ sounds in context. Listen carefully. Do not repeat; just listen.

A fool is full of fun.
Look at what Luke has done.

I pull him out of the pool.
 He soiled my suit with soot.
 He wooded her in the wood.
 Can you read a book in the moonlight?
 He carried some food in his hood.
 You put that down!
 You may hook, the rules allow it.
 I've never seen a blue bull, have you?

STEP 2

Now repeat after me paying special attention to the contrast between the /u/ and the /ʊ/ sounds in context. (The contrasting sounds are underlined)

Master tape	:	A <u>fool</u> is <u>full</u> of fun
Pupil	:	A <u>fool</u> is <u>full</u> of fun
Master tape	:	A <u>fool</u> is <u>full</u> of fun
Master tape	:	<u>Look</u> at what <u>Luke</u> has done
Pupil	:	<u>Look</u> at what <u>Luke</u> has done
Master tape	:	<u>Look</u> at what <u>Luke</u> has done
Master tape	:	I <u>pull</u> him out of the <u>pool</u>
Pupil	:	I <u>pull</u> him out of the <u>pool</u>
Master tape	:	I <u>pull</u> him out of the <u>pool</u>
Master tape	:	He <u>soiled</u> my <u>suit</u> with <u>soot</u>
Pupil	:	He <u>soiled</u> my <u>suit</u> with <u>soot</u>
Master tape	:	He <u>soiled</u> my <u>suit</u> with <u>soot</u>
Master tape	:	He <u>wooded</u> her in the <u>wood</u>
Pupil	:	He <u>wooded</u> her in the <u>wood</u>
Master tape	:	He <u>wooded</u> her in the <u>wood</u>
Master tape	:	Can you read a <u>book</u> in the <u>moonlight</u> ?
Pupil	:	Can you read a <u>book</u> in the <u>moontlight</u> ?
Master tape	:	Can you read a <u>book</u> in the <u>moontlight</u> ?
Master tape	:	He carried some <u>food</u> in his <u>hood</u>
Pupil	:	He carried some <u>food</u> in his <u>hood</u>
Master tape	:	He carried some <u>food</u> in his <u>hood</u>
Master tape	:	You <u>put</u> that down!
Pupil	:	You <u>put</u> that down!
Master tape	:	You <u>put</u> that down!
Master tape	:	You may <u>hook</u> , the <u>rules</u> allow it
Pupil	:	You may <u>hook</u> , the <u>rules</u> allow it
Master tape	:	You may <u>hook</u> , the <u>rules</u> allow it
Master tape	:	I've never seen a <u>blue</u> <u>bull</u> , have you?
Pupil	:	I've never seen a <u>blue</u> <u>bull</u> , have you?
Master tape	:	I've never seen a <u>blue</u> <u>bull</u> , have you?

STEP 3

Now listen carefully to the playback and compare your pronunciation with that of the master tape.

Are you satisfied that your pronunciation is the same as that of the master tape?

Let's go through the lesson again.

(Lesson 5 is repeated)

The English diphthongal sound /əʊ/STEP 1

The following words contain the English diphthongal sound /əʊ/. Listen carefully. Do not repeat; just listen.

so	hole
no	go
pose	oh
own	

STEP 2

Now repeat after me paying special attention to the diphthongal sound /əʊ/.

Master tape	:	so
Pupil	:	so
Master tape	:	so
Master tape	:	pose
Pupil	:	pose
Master tape	:	pose
Master tape	:	own
Pupil	:	own
Master tape	:	own
Master tape	:	hole
Pupil	:	hole
Master tape	:	hole
Master tape	:	go
Pupil	:	go
Master tape	:	go
Master tape	:	oh
Pupil	:	oh
Master tape	:	oh
Master tape	:	no
Pupil	:	no
Master tape	:	no

STEP 3

Now listen carefully to the playback and compare your own pronunciation with that of the master tape.

Are you satisfied that your pronunciation is the same as that of the master tape?

Let's go through the lesson again.

(Lesson 1 is repeated)

LESSON 2

The English diphthongal sound /eɪ/

STEP 1

The following words contain the English diphthongal sound /eɪ/. Listen carefully. Do not repeat; just listen.

p <u>a</u> ler	m <u>a</u> le	f <u>a</u> ce
s <u>a</u> le	t <u>a</u> le	c <u>a</u> se
		b <u>a</u> se

STEP 2

Now repeat after me paying special attention to the diphthongal sound /eɪ/. (The diphthongal sound is underlined)

Master tape : paler
Pupil : paler
Master tape : paler

Master tape : sale
Pupil : sale
Master tape : sale

Master tape : male
Pupil : male
Master tape : male

Master tape : tale
Pupil : tale
Master tape : tale

Master tape : face
Pupil : face
Master tape : face

Master tape : case
Pupil : case
Master tape : case

Master tape : base
Pupil : base
Master tape : base

STEP 3

Now listen carefully to the playback and compare your own pronunciation with that of the master tape.

Are you satisfied that your pronunciation is the same as that of the master tape?

Let's go through the lesson again.

(Lesson 2 is repeated)

The English diphthongal sound /əʊ/ in contextSTEP 1

The following sentences contain the English diphthongal sound /əʊ/ in context. Listen carefully. Do not repeat; just listen.

And so ends the story.
 No, I haven't taken it.
 We pose for a photo.
 He came in his own car.
 He dug a hole in the wall.
 They go to school together.
 Oh, is that what you meant?

STEP 2

Now repeat after me paying special attention to the diphthongal sound /əʊ/ in context. (The diphthongal sound is underlined)

Master tape	:	And <u>so</u> ends the story
Pupil	:	And <u>so</u> ends the story
Master tape	:	And <u>so</u> ends the story
Master tape	:	No, I <u>haven't</u> taken it
Pupil	:	No, I <u>haven't</u> taken it
Master tape	:	No, I <u>haven't</u> taken it
Master tape	:	We <u>pose</u> for a photo
Pupil	:	We <u>pose</u> for a photo
Master tape	:	We <u>pose</u> for a photo
Master tape	:	He came in his <u>own</u> car
Pupil	:	He came in his <u>own</u> car
Master tape	:	He came in his <u>own</u> car
Master tape	:	He dug a <u>hole</u> in the wall
Pupil	:	He dug a <u>hole</u> in the wall
Master tape	:	He dug a <u>hole</u> in the wall
Master tape	:	They <u>go</u> to school together
Pupil	:	They <u>go</u> to school together
Master tape	:	They <u>go</u> to school together
Master tape	:	Oh, is <u>that</u> what you meant?
Pupil	:	Oh, is <u>that</u> what you meant?
Master tape	:	Oh, is <u>that</u> what you meant?

STEP 3

Now listen carefully to the playback and compare your own pronunciation with that of the master tape.

Are you satisfied that your pronunciation is the same as that of the master tape?

Let's go through the lesson again.

(Lesson 1 is repeated)

LESSON 2

The English diphthongal sound /eɪ/ in contextSTEP 1

The following sentences contain the English diphthongal sound /eɪ/ in context. Listen carefully. Do not repeat; just listen.

She looked pale after the illness.
 All articles are for sale.
 Jane will stand-in as the male partner
 He told us an interesting tale.
 John has a broad face.
 This is a difficult case to solve.
 All planes returned safely to base.

STEP 2

Now repeat after me paying special attention to the diphthongal sound /eɪ/ in context.

Master tape : She looked pale after her illness
 Pupil : She looked pale after her illness
 Master tape : She looked pale after her illness

Master tape : All articles are for sale
 Pupil : All articles are for sale
 Master tape : All articles are for sale

Master tape : Jane will stand-in as a male partner
 Pupil : Jane will stand-in as a male partner
 Master tape : Jane will stand-in as a male partner

Master tape : He told us an interesting tale
 Pupil : He told us an interesting tale
 Master tape : He told us an interesting tale

Master tape : John has a broad face
Pupil : John has a broad face
Master tape : John has a broad face

Master tape : This is a difficult case to solve
Pupil : This is a difficult case to solve
Master tape : This is a difficult case to solve

Master tape : All planes returned safely to base
Pupil : All planes returned safely to base
Master tape : All planes returned safely to base

STEP 3

Now listen carefully to the playback and compare your own pronunciation with that of the master tape.

Are you satisfied that your pronunciation is the same as that of the master tape?

Let's go through the lesson again.

(Lesson 2 is repeated)

QUESTIONNAIRE

- A. Name of school:
- B. Instructions
1. Please do not write your name on this questionnaire.
 2. Answer questions faithfully and frankly. Completed questionnaires will be treated as highly confidential and all information obtained will be used strictly for purposes of this research project.
- C. Personal information
1. What is your present age?
/ 0 - 20 / 21 - 25 / 26 - 30 / 31 - 40 /
/ 41 - 50 / 51 - 60 / 61 - 65 / 66 and above /
 2. Are you:
/ Male or female /
 3. What are your academic qualifications?
/ Below Junior Certificate / Junior Certificate / Matriculation /
/ Under-graduate (State course) / Graduate / Other (specify) /
 4. Up to what standard have you studied English?
/ Below Junior Certificate / Junior Certificate / Matriculation /
/ University (State courses) / Other (Specify) /
 5. Have you studied English on the lower grade or on the higher grade?
/ Junior Certificate: / Lower grade / Higher grade /
/ Matriculation: / Lower grade / Higher grade /
 6. Do you have a teachers' diploma/certificate?
/ YES / NO /
 7. Which teachers' diploma/certificate do you have?
/ L.P.T.C. / H.P.T.C. / J.S.T.D. / S.A.T.D. / U.E.D. /
/ Other (Specify) /

8. a. In your teaching of English which method(s) do you prefer?
.....
.....
.....
.....

b. Do you have any particular reason(s) for preferring this method(s)?
.....
.....
.....
.....

9. a. Do you use the same method(s) for all sections of the syllabus?

Yes / No

b. If No, which methods do you prefer and for which sections of the English syllabus?

.....
.....
.....
.....

c. If Yes, have you found the use of the same method(s) for all the sections of the English syllabus rewarding? Indicate to what extent.

.....
.....
.....
.....

10. a. Which areas of English do you find most difficult to teach?

- i.
- ii.
- iii.
- iv.
- v.
- vi.
- vii.
- viii.

- ix.
- x.

b. What have you found to be the possible reason(s) for this?
.....
.....
.....
.....

11. In your opinion, to what extent do our syllabuses for English?

a. meet the needs of our pupils?
.....
.....
.....
.....

b. guide you, as the teacher of English, to teach more effectively?
.....
.....
.....
.....

12. Would you say our present methods of testing in English (Examinations included) are satisfactory? Make a short commentary on your opinion.

.....
.....
.....
.....

13. a. Are there any facilities for the teaching of English in your school? (e.g. Tape-recorder, record-player and discs, library etc.)

Yes / No

b. If yes, mention them.
i.
ii.
iii.

- iv.
- v.
- 14. a. Do you have access to recent publications dealing with the
problem of the teaching English as a second language?
/ Yes / No /
- b. If Yes, mention the titles of such publications.
.....
.....
.....

General Information

- 15. What, in your opinion, are some of the major problems that the
teacher of English has to contend with in a Black school setting?
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

6.18.3 Relationship between General Aptitude and programme-effectiveness

The programme had a predictive validity on the experimental group in that those case-studies who scored highly in the General Aptitude test and in the pre-test of the oral performance tests retained their superiority even in the post-test.

There was a high correlation of 0,86 between the General Aptitude scores and the oral performance scores in the pre-test and an equally high correlation of ,70 in the post-test. This means that the programme correlated positively with the case-studies' General Aptitude rather than with their Aptitude in English Language Use.

Table 54 gives a summary of the experimental group's post-test performance.

6.18.4 Effectiveness Criterion of programme

The Effectiveness Criterion for the programme used in this study could be summarized ⁱⁿ with a two-pronged rationale.

Firstly, if we take the criterion that 80% of the class in a typical junior secondary school should be able to articulate certain English sounds acceptably then, according to the pre-programme scores for the experimental group of 10, 80% of the subjects scored 31% and higher. This gives us an Effectiveness Criterion of 80/31 in the pre-programme performance.

In the post-programme performance, however, 80% of the subjects scores 56% and higher. This gives us an Effectiveness Criterion of 80/56 (Vide supra, Table 53).

Secondly, if we take the criterion that most pupils at Form II level should achieve 50% or more in a given oral performance test, than only 1 subject in our experimental group managed to score according to expectation, i.e., about 50% in the pre-programme performance. This gives us an Effectiveness Criterion of 10/50, i.e., 10% of the group scoring 50% or above.

In the post-programme performance, however, all 10 subjects scored 50% or above. This gives us an Effectiveness Criterion of 100/50, i.e. 100% of the group scoring 50% or above.

TABLE 54: SUMMARY OF DESCRIPTION OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP (POST-TEST)

TEST SUBJECT	SEX	AGE	ORAL TESTS SCORES	GENERAL APTITUDE SCORES	APTITUDE IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE USE	LEVEL OF EDUCATION	HOME LANGUAGE
Lesetša	girl	15	56	504	18	Form II	North Sotho
Matome	boy	19	47	416	18	Form II	North Sotho
Mapula	girl	16	45	428	14	Form II	North Sotho
Pôtônkô	boy	19	45	419	14	Form II	North Sotho
Potoki	girl	17	43	367	8	Form II	North Sotho
Motlhaume	boy	16	44	463	11	Form II	North Sotho
Puledi	girl	17	47	428	10	Form II	North Sotho
Tsakata	boy	18	45	324	21	Form II	North Sotho
Motlalepule	girl	17	40	353	11	Form II	North Sotho
Mašiba	boy	20	38	310	15	Form II	North Sotho
A.M.		17,4	45,0	401,2	14,0		
S.D.		1,5	4,6	54,3	3,9		

r O. E.U. = ,37 (Pr < ,05)

r O. G.A. = ,70 (Pr < ,01)

KEY: O : means oral tests' scores
 E.U.: means English Language Use scores
 G.A.: means General Aptitude scores

These Effectiveness Criteria show that the programme designed and used in this study has been a success as a remedial instrument.

6.19 References

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Chapter 7

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Conclusions7.1.1 Aim and rationale of study

The main purpose of this study was to establish empirically some of the main pronunciatonal problems in the oral English of North Sotho-speaking children, to attempt to account for such errors and then to design some remedial drills that would help to deal with such errors.

This study succeeded in identifying some of these problem areas, attempted to account for their occurrence (Vide supra, Chapter 5) and suggested some oral drills that proved encouragingly successful notwithstanding the relatively short period of time at which the learners were exposed to them (Vide supra, Chapter 6).

The project has therefore achieved the main purpose for which it was mounted (Vide supra, Chapter 1).

Subsidiarily, the project aimed at giving an in-depth exposition of the language phenomenon (Vide supra, Chapter 2), in order to establish the state of the art in this area of human behaviour; at giving a bird's eye-view of some of the problems of English language teaching in Black schools in general from a historical perspective (Vide supra, Chapter 3) in order to establish a useful starting point for the present project; at researching the manpower situation in the field of English language teaching in a selected area in the Northern Transvaal in order to attempt an assessment of ^{its} ~~their~~ personal, ^{in terms of} professional and academic competence as teachers of English as a second language (Vide supra, Chapter 4), ^{and} trying to establish the extent to which some of the problems experienced by the pupils in certain areas of English language learning, e.g. pronunciation, are related to the manner in which they are being taught.

Recourse to a wide range of literature makes Chapter 2 fairly comprehensive to serve as a ready-to-hand source of information on the language phenomenon; a detailed study of education reports covering

several decades makes Chapter 3 a useful source of reference about problems in English as a second language in Black schools in a historical perspective, and the in-depth field of English language teaching.

7.1.2 Literature

Literature on the language phenomenon in general is not wanting and literature on the teaching and learning of English as a second language has been increasing steadily over the last 25 years. In countries such as the United States, Canada and the United Kingdom, for example, teachers and researchers in ESL have^{published} and still continue to publish, extensively in this area. References at the end of this project bear testimony to this.

In the United States teachers and researchers in ESL have formed themselves into organizations such as Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) which, as the name implies, specialises in the area of teaching English as a second language. TESOL publishes information on ESL in its journal called the TESOL QUARTERLY. This journal was referred to in this study.

In addition, there are many universities in the United States that publish extensively on ESL. The University of Michigan in Ann Arbor, for example, maintains a journal called Language Learning which publishes information in this field. There is also the English Teaching Forum which focuses on ESL outside the United States; it is subsidised by the U.S. Department of State and distributed by United States embassies throughout the world.

In Canada teachers and researchers in ESL publish information in this field in their journal called The Canadian Modern Language Review, while independent institutes such as the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education use the Working Papers in Bilingualism as a mouth piece in ESL.

In the United Kingdom the International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language focuses on the same area and publishes information in the English Language Teaching Journal.

In South Africa the Foundation for Education, Science and Technology, for example, publishes articles on ESL in its Journal on the Teaching of English.

The English Academy of Southern Africa through its English Language Teaching Information Centre (ELTIC), gives out a journal called The ELTIC REPORTER which publishes articles in ESL mainly for the benefit of the Association of English Teachers in Black schools.

In addition to these few selected journals there are many books on the subject some of which have been referred to directly in this study and listed under Selected Bibliography at the end of this project.

A detailed analysis of this literature, however, reveals two limitations: firstly, it deals with the problem as it occurs mainly in oversea countries among speakers of languages other than South African Black languages¹⁾ and secondly, it deals mainly with problems bearing on the syntax in ESL and very little with the phonology in that area.

The present study has attempted to meet these two limitations by first focusing on ESL in Black schools in general and on North Sotho-speaking children in particular; and, secondly, by delimiting the field to concentrate on oral English, thereby contributing towards meeting the dearth in phonological studies in ESL.

Further perusal of the literature reveals that although much has been published on the language laboratory and its role in ESL, very little has been published on the language laboratory and its role in remedial programming in ESL for North Sotho-speaking children in particular. Available language laboratory ESL material such as the American English 900 series, the Michigan Tapes²⁾ or the British Council programmes aim primarily at second language acquisition for basic communicational purposes rather than at remedying English sounds aberrantly acquired by ESL learners and speakers.

The present study has attempted to meet this shortcoming in modern second language laboratory programming by focusing on ESL learners who have already acquired a working knowledge of English as L2 but who due to either mother-tongue interference, incorrect teaching or both have acquired certain English sounds aberrantly (Vide supra, 5.6.2.3). The study has attempted to account for these pronunciational problems and has suggested remedial drill to correct them³⁾.

1) save on a limited scale only

2) Prepared and produced by the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

3)

This study is, as far as the writer is aware, the first to attempt to deal with the problem of oral English among North Sotho-speaking children from an empirical point of view. The study successfully isolated certain English vowel and diphthongal sounds that North Sotho-speaking children find difficult to produce⁴⁾, accounted for the problem and suggested remedial measures to deal with them.

7.1.3 First language acquisition

The detailed exposition of the language phenomenon given in Chapter 2 of this study reveals that although extensive work has been and still is being done in the field of first language acquisition among the different nations of the world parallel research among North Sotho-speaking children is yet to be initiated.

The present writer elected not to research this virgin area as part of this project for two main reasons: first, his immediate aim was to tackle the more pressing problem of ESL in Black schools and, second, he had to delimit the field of study sufficiently to render it researchable and detailed.

This limitation, however, does not reduce the value of Chapter 2 as part of this study in that the literature referred to proved adequately that the human child irrespective of race, colour or creed is born to speak (Vide supra 2.6). Table 1 provides a comparison of child language development in six language communities and reveals a striking similarity in their stages of language acquisition.

The human child is, however, not born with the capacity to speak any particular language, just as much as he is not born with the capacity to walk in any particular direction. He learns one or other mother-tongue depending on the environment to which he is exposed. A Chinese child brought up in a North Sotho-speaking environment will learn to speak North Sotho just as fluently as North Sotho-speaking children and vice versa (Vide supra 2.6.4).

The relevance of this finding to the study as a whole lies in the fact that if language as a mode of communication is species uniform and species specific then the acquisition of language whether first or

⁴⁾ Vide supra 5.6

second is within the competence of every normal child. The pedagogical implication of this fact is that, all being equal, efforts to teach English to North Sotho-speaking children stand a very good chance of success.

Chapter 6 of this study goes further than this and demonstrates that even aberrantly acquired sounds of a second language can be re-learned in a more acceptable form. All the case-studies that were exposed to the remedial programme showed a marked improvement after a comparatively short period of nine days.

What really makes remedial programming a success is that by the time the child is exposed to the remedial drills he is already aware of certain basic universals about language - its form and function - and is therefore able to modify or change altogether his language behaviour to match that modelled on the tutor-tape. If the same remedial drills were to be administered to a gorilla or a group of gorillas chances of its modifying or significantly changing their mode of communication are so remote that for practical purposes they may safely be regarded as nil. This will be so notwithstanding the fact that these primates have been credited with having a capacity for some form of vocalization (Vide supra 2.5.3).

This linguistic awareness in the human child underlines the value of the first language in second language learning. The child's awareness that his mother-tongue is a mode of inter-personal communication with those in his immediate environment makes him appreciate the role of a second language as an additional mode of communication in an environment much wider than that covered by his mother-tongue. The logical extension of this linguistic awareness is that the child realises that sounds in his mother-tongue need to be articulated in a particular manner, a manner peculiar to that language, if communicativity is not to be impaired and by the very token sounds in the target language need to be articulated in a manner native enough to avoid incomprehensibility, misunderstanding and possible breakdown in communication involving indigenous speakers of that language. It was probably for this reason that all case-studies used in this project successfully modified or changed altogether their erstwhile articulation of those English sounds that they had acquired aberrantly, to match those of the tutor-tape model.

It was not beyond the competence of the case-studies to realise that just as "Mòlâlâ" and "Mólâlá" mean neck and open veld respectively in their mother-tongue so too the English words ship and sheep mean two different things. The oral production of a word whether in the source language or in the target language is critical to a normal speech act.

A subsidiary finding to emerge from Chapter 2 is that in the same way as children tend to understand their mother-tongue even before they can actually speak it (Vide supra 2.6.4), so too second language learners often understand what is said in the target language even before they themselves are able to generate such utterances. This means that in language acquisition, the comprehension vocabulary develops faster than the production vocabulary. ESL teachers who are not aware of this are often bewildered by pupils who seem to understand what the teacher says in English but are unable to perform accordingly when called upon to do so.

An extension of this finding is that children in an ESL classroom are often able to distinguish aurally between their own production of certain English sounds and the production of the same sounds by a native speaker but are quite unable to effect the same distinction in their oral output. Efforts at native-like authenticity often manifest themselves in affected speech which is just as alien to native English as any other aberrant production.

In this study both aberrant production and affected speech were controlled by oral drills administered through a language laboratory. By systematic repetition and imitation the children were able to compare favourably with the model on the mastertape.

7.1.4 English in Black schools

The historical overview given in Chapter 3 of this study reveals that the problems of teaching English as a second language in Black schools have characterised these schools since their inauguration in about 1799. Reports and records some of which have been referred to in this study bear testimony to this.

Efforts that have been made throughout the years to cope with these problems do not seem to have been particularly successful because even today there is still a crying need for material specifically designed

to deal with these problems. Specially-designed teaching strategies are also needed to meet the needs of Black pupils in a typical South African milieu.

Under 7.1.2 above we pointed out that there is no shortage of material in general, but there is certainly a dire shortage of specific material tailored to meet the needs of, say, North Sotho-speaking children.

In this study an attempt has been made to suggest a remedial programme designed specifically to meet the needs of North Sotho-speaking children. The attempt is significant in that it is probably the first of its kind.

Although for purposes of this study the programme was tested for effectiveness in a language laboratory, like all other programmes that have been mounted on tapes, it can be used on an ordinary open-spool tape recorder or cassette recorder. This means that the programme can, with some modification, be used in an ordinary classroom with appreciable success.

Chapter 3 further reveals that although English has and still is an important medium of communication in Black schools, the need to teach it and to use it as medium of instruction to maximum advantage is still as much a contemporary problem as it was in the earlier days. The implication of this finding is that unless newer and more effective strategies are found to improve the ESL situation in Black schools, there is a real danger of overall education standards tending to remain below expectations as a result of ineffective communication in the classroom¹⁾. This in turn calls for intensified research and the compilation of appropriate teaching material in this field. The present study is a contribution in this direction.

At the time of writing the majority of the homelands have opted for English as a medium of instruction from standard III upwards, and civic leaders and parents in the urban areas have demonstratedly identified with the homelands' standpoint. Significantly, however, only two homelands, viz, the Transkei and Bophuthatswana have made provision for in-service training and upgrading of their teachers within the framework of their Governments. All the others still depend on the In-

1) The present syllabuses for Black schools are undoubtedly of a very high standard but whether their application is of a similar standard is a moot question.

Service Training Centre maintained by the Central Department of Bantu Education in Pretoria.

7.1.5 Teaching personnel

It is hardly possible to speak about English in Black schools without at the same time referring to the teaching personnel involved in the use and teaching of that language.

In Chapter 4 of this study a detailed exposition of the teaching personnel is given. Several key findings emerged from this exposition; the following are some of them:

7.1.5.1 In the secondary and high schools

If the sample that was used in this study is taken as representative, it may be concluded that most of the teachers of English in Black secondary and high schools are undergraduates and matriculants (Vide supra, 4.5.1.2).

If these teachers are grouped in terms of the ⁵standard up to which English was studied a less impressive picture emerges. Over 50% of the sampled teachers have studied English up to Matriculation ~~or~~ ^{or} National Senior Certificate level, while those who have only one University course in English are 17% and so are those with a Practical English Course. Those with two and three university courses in English are only 2,5% and 7,5% respectively.

This means that if we take one degree course in English as a minimum requirement for a secondary or high school teacher of English, then over 70% of those sampled were inadequately qualified for their posts (Vide supra, 4.5.1.3). If this finding is generalised to all Black schools, then we may conclude that most teachers are inadequately qualified to teach English at secondary and high school level. If this is the case, then we may conclude further that probably some of the problems experienced by the pupils are due to ineffective teaching on the part of the teachers (Vide supra, 3.2). This ineffective teaching coupled with the lack of specially-designed material makes the task of an average pupil extremely difficult.

According to the sample used in this study, the bulk of the teachers in Black secondary and high schools are not professionally trained

to teach at this level. Over 45% of the sampled teachers held the Higher Primary Teachers' Course while only 10% held the University Education Diploma. Those who held the Junior Secondary School Diploma and the South African Teachers' Diploma were 7,5% and 25% respectively (Vide supra, 4.5.1.5).

The significance of this finding is that those teachers who hold the H.P.T.C. have been specially trained to deal with elementary school children and not with secondary or high school pupils. In this case too poor performance in English at post-primary school level could be the product of professional inadequacy on the part of some of the teachers. That primary school teaching strategies differ from their post-primary counterparts cannot be completely ruled out. For example the Look-and-Say Method which normally works out well in the primary school is not likely to have equal success in the post-primary classes.

Another interesting finding to emerge from this section of the study is that only 10% of the sampled teachers regarded the teaching of oral English as difficult; the bulk, about 60%, indicated grammar and language use as the most difficult areas of English to teach. The reason for this is probably that although most teachers nominally support strategies that encourage oral communication in ESL yet in practice they still adhere to the traditional Grammar-Translation method. It is hardly surprising therefore that many pupils experience great difficulties in producing certain English sounds acceptably.

This possible preference for the Grammar-Translation method was corroborated by some 15% of the interviewees who felt that oral work as part of the Junior Certificate examination should either be internally organized and controlled or be discontinued altogether. Clearly these teachers do not emphasise the spoken language in their ESL classrooms and if they are representative of Black teachers in general, then again the poor oral performance of many pupils in Black schools is quite understandable.

7.5.1.2 In the primary schools

According to our study, most primary school teachers are adequately qualified for their post. Over 63% of those sampled held the Junior Certificate which is the minimum requirement for the primary school. There were, however, some 23,4% who held qualifications below the

Junior Certificate, (Vide supra, 4.5.2.1).

The importance of this finding is that although many primary school teachers have the necessary academic qualification for their posts yet there are still many who are inadequately qualified. From a pedagogical point of view this is a very serious problem since it is in the primary classes that foundations are laid for the child's future academic and professional life. To expose these children to academically ill-prepared teachers is disconcerting, to say the least.

In terms of professional training, the majority of the teachers held the Higher Primary Teachers' Course and the Lower Primary Teachers' Course - 53,1% and 32% respectively. But even in this case there were 14,9% who held no professional certificate at all. This problem is just as serious as that of inadequate academic qualification (Vide supra, 4.5.2.3).

Most of the teachers, 54,3%, had studied English up to Junior Certificate while slightly over 25% had studied it up to Matriculation and Senior Certificate (Vide supra, 4.5.2.4). If this sample is representative, then the position in the primary schools is better than that in the post-primary schools in terms of the standard up to which English was studied relative to the post held by the teacher.

The majority of the teachers in the primary school, like their counterparts in the post-primary school, felt that grammar and language use were the most difficult to teach. Only 18,9% of the sample felt that oral work was difficult to teach (Vide supra, 4.5.2.6). What we have here is a situation in which the syllabus emphasises oral communication but the teachers, in practice, emphasise formal grammar. This confusion is probably responsible for the unfortunate situation in which the syllabuses are up-to-date while the actual teaching is yet to be updated.

It is also very interesting to notice that although the sampled teachers tended to emphasise formal grammar, they nonetheless indicated a preference for the Direct Method in their teaching (Vide supra 4.7). The possible explanation for this seemingly contradictory situation is that teachers are earnestly encouraged by school inspectors and the In-Service Training Centre to try-out newer techniques in their teaching but the teachers themselves find it either difficult or inconvenient to

change their traditional teaching approaches in favour of the newer more effective strategies.

Another important finding to emerge from this section of the research project is that the bulk of the teachers interviewed were not specially trained to mount remedial programmes to cope with specific problems in their classrooms (Vide supra, 4.9.4).

The study also revealed that there was a general shortage of English teachers in South Africa as a whole but that White education was comparatively better off (Vide supra, 4.10). The problem, however, is that there is no possibility of Black schools getting as many English-speaking teachers as they may require since such teachers are in short supply (Vide supra, 1.5.1). It is for this reason that the English Academy of Southern Africa feels that it would be in the interest of the country to consider judicious recruitment of English teachers from abroad. In a statement issued in June 1976 the Academy said:

"If the Republic is to maintain and improve its high standard of English of which we are all proud, it is desirable that the maximum number of home language English teachers be employed at all levels for all races¹⁾. For this reason the Academy feels that it would be wise to recruit judiciously overseas rather than to wait until this step is forced upon us."

Whether South Africa is in a position to mount a recruiting campaign large enough to meet the needs of the whole country is, to put it mildly, a moot question.

The work that the English Academy of Southern Africa is doing through ELTIC could, in the long run, play a very important role in upgrading the standard of English in Black schools (Vide supra, 3.3.5). It is for this reason that the present writer made the following prepared statement at the annual general meeting of the Academy held in Johannesburg on the 18th September, 1976:

"It is clear therefore that ELTIC, by virtue of the role it plays in the teaching of English is

¹⁾ Emphasis mine.

on the way to becoming the 'Professional wing' of the English Academy of Southern Africa. This potential, seen against the background of the needs of the Association of English Teachers, introduces a somewhat new dimension in the life and service of the English Academy of Southern Africa in that the Academy is now brought into a wider and more direct contact with teachers of English in Black schools ..."

7.1.6 Sampling and analysis of data

Chapter 5 of this study focuses on the sampling and analysis of oral data with a view to pinpointing specific errors made by North Sotho-speaking children in using English as a second language. The results of the analysis formed the basis on which the remedial programme used in Chapter 6 is constructed.

The most important findings to emerge from Chapter 5 are the following:

7.1.6.1 Problems of sampling oral data

Sampling oral data for a project in ESL is an extremely difficult task. The first problem is to find a recording machine that is good enough to record the authentic performance of each and every test-subject. If such a machine is available, the next problem is to find an environment quiet enough to exclude extraneous sounds that may interfere with the recording of a testee's oral performance and subsequently render analysis of such performance difficult.

If these two problems are controlled, the next problem is to create an atmosphere of complete relaxation to minimise whatever Hawthorn Effect the presence of a stranger (the researcher) may have on the performance of the sample. This is a very difficult problem to control since the presence of a stranger in the classroom inevitably disrupts routine and generally restructures the classroom situation.

In this project these problems were reasonably controlled in that the Language Bureau of the University of the North has very good recorders which operate on both mains and dry cell batteries. These machines are able to make good recordings and upon playback yield reliable results.

To control problems of extraneous sounds the present researcher used school libraries, domestic science centres or laboratories all of which

are not part of the main school blocks and thus comparatively quiet.

Since the researcher is North Sotho and the sample used was of the same national group, it was comparatively easy to establish rapport, win confidence and generally create a relaxed atmosphere during testing sessions.

By controlling problems in this way, the researcher was able to sample data effectively for this project.

7.1.6.2 Problems of selecting test passages

This was easily one of the most difficult aspects of the project. The problem lay in the fact that it is not always easy to find a passage that contains a diversity of sounds to serve as a test passage. The problem was further complicated by the fact that the researcher needed a passage from a text or texts commonly read at junior secondary school level. This was important if test-subjects were to be able to read the passage with confidence without being inconvenienced by other variables such as difficulty of style or complexity of vocabulary. In order to get a representative spread of sounds, the researcher used 8 passages all of which were to be read aloud by all the test subjects. Three hundred test-subjects were used.

This technique proved very effective although it required time and patience.

7.1.6.3 Problems of analysing oral data

The difference between the spoken language and the written language is that it is comparatively easy to standardize the latter in terms of spelling, capitalization, punctuation, and so forth, while with the former, it is not always easy to standardize variations such as dialect, idiolect, accent and so forth in a particular speech community.

Accordingly, the first step in this project was to decide on a norm on the basis of which a sound would be classified as aberrantly produced or acceptably produced. After careful consideration it was decided to use intelligibility as a norm in the analysis and scoring of data. In this way it was possible to quantify the testees' oral performances and to draw up tables illustrating sounds acceptably produced and sounds unacceptably produced (Vide supra, 5.6.2.2).

7.1.6.4 C.A. and E.A. as research methodologies

This project proved that it is quite possible to use Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis as twin-research methodologies in ESL.

The project revealed that it is much better to make a selective Contrastive Analysis of the two languages to be researched rather than to sample data blindly. A Contrastive Analysis enables the researcher to establish a practical starting point in selecting test passages to be used in sampling data for Error Analysis. It also makes possible the formulation of a working hypothesis to get the project underway.

Error Analysis, on the other hand, focuses pertinently on the actual corpus to be analysed. In this project it was found that the results of the C.A. and those of the E.A. were hardly different. Those sounds that had no near-counterparts in English and North Sotho proved the most difficult for the test subjects to articulate.

7.1.6.5 Problem sounds

In this project the researcher managed to isolate certain sounds in English that North Sotho-speaking children find most difficult to produce. Only vowel and diphthongal sounds were selected for purposes of the study; this was done to delimit the field of study to render it researchable and also because experience has shown that these sounds usually prove the most difficult for non-natives to articulate.

In order of difficulty North Sotho-speaking children find it difficult to produce the following sounds:

First in line of difficulty are the sounds /ə/, /ʌ/, /ər/ and /ʊ/; between 100% and 95% of those tested produced them unacceptably. All these sounds do not have near-counterparts in North Sotho (Vide supra, 5.6.2.3.2).

The second in line in terms of difficulty is the long /ɑ:/ sound; up to 95% of those tested produced it aberrantly. This sound is roughly paralleled in North Sotho and the fact that it was so poorly produced could be ascribed to poor tuition.

The third in line of difficulty is the /ɛ/ sound; between 70% and 85% could not articulate it acceptably. The reason for this problem is that the North Sotho /ɛ/ sound differs in quality from the English /ɛ/

sound and that in North Sotho the /ɛ/ sound never contrasts with the /æ/ sound.

The fourth in line of difficulty is the /ɪ/ sound; up to 80% of those tested had difficulties in articulating it. The possible reason for this is that this sound does not have a near counterpart in North Sotho.

The fifth in line of difficulty is the /æ/ sound; up to 70% of those tested could not produce it acceptably. This sound is not paralleled in North Sotho.

The sixth in line is the long /ɔ/ sound; up to 65% of the testees produced it aberrantly. Again here the possible reason for poor performance is largely ineffective teaching since the sound is roughly paralleled in North Sotho.

The seventh in line of difficulty are /ɑ/, /ɔ/ and /i/ sounds; between 5% and 15% of those tested could not produce them acceptably. The percentage error shows that very few pupils have difficulty with these sounds. The reason is that they are all paralleled in North Sotho and therefore the element of interference is not acute enough to cause unintelligibility.

The study also revealed that North Sotho-speaking children experience great difficulty in producing diphthongal sounds. The two diphthongs /əʊ/ and /eɪ/ which were selected for study were produced aberrantly by between 94% and 62%. The major problem here is that unlike in English North Sotho does not have diphthongal sounds as such and does not have instances where a vowel has a changing quality when articulated.

7.1.6.6 Need for more research

Although this project brought forth valuable findings in terms of those sounds that North Sotho-speaking children find most difficult to produce it should be seen as a pioneering project which must still be supported by several other similar projects by other researchers.

Much research is still needed to standardize methods of sampling, analysing and scoring oral data under circumstances similar to the ones that obtained in this project. If this can be done successfully, it will open-up a new field of preparing standardized teaching material specifically designed to meet the needs of North Sotho-speaking children.

The same methodologies could be used in conducting research among other national groups with a view to designing teaching material to suit the needs of each and every one of them. In this way the dire shortage of material specifically designed to meet the needs of specific pupils would gradually be met with possible improvement in oral English in Black schools as a whole.

7.1.7 Research results

Two important research results emerged from Chapter 6 of this study. These bear on the effect of remedial programming on mother-tongue interference in L2 learning on the one hand and the discrepancy in the correlation of Aptitude scores in English Language Use and scores in oral tests on the other.

7.1.7.1 Mother-tongue interference

One of the most important research results to emerge from this project is that many pronunciation errors in second language acquisition can be controlled by means of carefully graded oral lessons which are mounted on tutor tapes, supported by manuals to match and administered through a language laboratory. Success in this regard can be achieved even if the learners are already in their adolescent age and have been in contact with spoken English at formal classroom level for as long as 10 years.

In Chapter 6 of this study 80% of the case-studies scored 31% and above to a maximum of 52,1% prior to exposure to the remedial drills but 80% of the same sample scored 56% and above to a maximum of 79,8% after exposure to the remedial drills (Vide supra, 6.16.3.2). On average the pre-programme score for the experimental sample was 38,45% and the post-programme score averaged at 63,35%. This represents a gain of approximately 25.

The difference between the Arithmetic Means of the pre- and post-test scores gives a t-value of 3,94 which is significant at 1% level. This means that the achievement of the programme can be repeated with the same degree of effectiveness on similar study groups and under similar circumstances. This is perhaps the strongest claim for the effectiveness and usefulness of the programme designed for this study.

On individual sounds it was possible to achieve between 22% and 36% remedial effect in the sounds /ʌ/, /ɪ/, /ɛ/, /ə/, /æ/ and /ɔ/; and complete success was achieved with the sounds /i/, /a/ and /ɑ:/.

In the case of the diphthongal sounds, however, minimal success was achieved. The same applied for the /ʌ/ and the /əɪ/ sounds.

Given the overall success of the programme, however, there is reason to believe that longer exposure to the remedial drills would have achieved better results.

On the whole, there was a high correlation of 0,68 between the pre-programme scores and the post-programme scores ($Pr < ,05$)

The above scores reveal a positive response to the remedial effect of the programme administered to the experimental group. Since the experimental group was typical (Vide supra 6.3) there is reason to assume that any typical group exposed to a similar programme and under similar conditions will benefit to a more or less similar degree. The logical extension of this assumption is that remedial programmes should form part and parcel of English language teaching if oral communicativity is to be improved in Black schools.

Finally, it is clear that aberrant oral English that is caused by either mother-tongue interference or ineffective instruction can be controlled by remedial programmes.

7.1.7.2 Discrepancies

The first result that was not anticipated was in connection with the correlation between performance in the Aptitude in English Language Use sub-test and the oral test. Contrary to expectation there was a low positive correlation of 0,33 ($Pr < ,05$) for the larger sample of 40 and of 0,25 ($Pr > ,05$) for the experimental group¹⁾.

There was, however, a high correlation of ,70 ($Pr < ,01$) between the General Aptitude scores and the oral tests' scores for the sample group of 40 and of 0,86 ($Pr < ,01$) for the experimental group of 10. This

¹⁾ Cf. 6.3.3 for suggested reasons for the discrepancy.

means that the oral tests used in this experiment co-varied more with the samples' General Aptitude than with their Aptitude in English Language Use.

The high correlation between General Aptitude and the oral tests' scores is quite understandable since general intelligence and aptitude enable the subject to cope with various types of problems and problem situations.

The second result that was not anticipated relates to age. Whereas the researcher had identified with the view that age and ability to gain control over the target language phonology were closely related (Vide supra, 6.2.3.5) research results in Chapter 6 did not support this view. There was a negative correlation of $-0,34$ ($Pr > ,05$) between age and oral tests' scores for the experimental group. The correlation between age and the gain in points after exposure to the remedial programme was also negative at $-,10$ ($Pr > ,01$).

7.2 Recommendations

7.2.1 More research in first language acquisition needed

It is quite clear from the discussion in Chapter 2 that future research projects should be directed towards the area of first language acquisition among the different Black population groups in South Africa as a whole.

Future projects could cover the following areas:

- a. phonology and syntax of child language among any one of the Black language groups in the country;
- b. comparative studies based on these two areas;
- c. the extent to which proficiency in any one of the Black languages promotes or inhibits proficiency in English as a second language.

Projects such as these will be very useful in that heretofore very little or nothing at all has been attempt in them at empirical level.

7.2.2 Shortage of teachers

Chapter 4 of this study revealed that there was room for more and better

qualified teachers in Black schools to teach English as a second language.

There are two possible ways in which this shortage could be met. First, the existing teacher-training programmes could be made to include as part and parcel of the training of all teachers, a carefully graded English course that would enable trainees to teach English effectively even without any academic courses in English.

This recommendation should not be unduly difficult to implement, since the existing teacher-training courses make provision for either an English Language Proficiency Course or a Practical English Course. These courses could be upgraded to meet the needs of the secondary school syllabus.

Second, a systematic in-service training course for teachers of English as a second language could be instituted at the different Black universities or at specially established in-service centres to be erected in the different homelands and at strategic points in the urban areas.

The purpose of such centres would be to improve the level of performance of teachers currently engaged in the teaching of English as a second language. If the level of teacher-competency could be raised, the level of pupil-performance may also rise.

At the University of the North, where the present researcher is based, there are plans afoot to institute such in-service training for teachers, including teachers of English. If all works out according to plan, the first group of teachers will start in-service work in 1977 or 1978.

The English Academy of Southern Africa has set up a good example of how an independent body could help with in-service work among teachers. The Academy maintains a Centre in Braamfontein called ELTIC which makes available all manner of support material in English language teaching in Black schools and also provides expertise to English teachers throughout South Africa. If this Centre could be extended and re-organised its potential would be almost limitless.

A long-term project would be to mount a systematic recruitment campaign to encourage those matriculation pupils who intend proceeding to university not only to consider taking up teaching as a profession, but

also to consider qualifying as teachers of English as a second language. This would be a massive campaign drawing on the co-operation of the departments of education in the different homelands, the Central Department of Bantu Education, teachers' associations, individual schools and teachers as well as whatever parent associations may be interested in joining the venture.

7.2.3 Oral English

Chapter 5 of this study revealed that there was ample room for improvement in oral English in Black schools. To meet this problem it will be necessary to train teachers to produce English sounds correctly so that they in turn could train their pupils to do likewise.

At the Language Bureau of the University of the North the present researcher has already compiled a remedial programme for teacher-trainees and he is in the process of improving it.

Although in this study a language laboratory was used to administer the programme, it is quite possible to have the programme administered from an ordinary open-spool tape recorder or cassette recorder. These recommendations can be implemented with minimal effort since the secondary school syllabus already makes provision for both oral and remedial work and many schools either have recorders or are in a position to acquire them.

7.2.4 Suggestions for improving the programme used in this study

In Chapter 6 of this study it was demonstrated that a remedial programme can be used to control certain problems of pronunciation in ESL. Although the results of the experiment were positive, there is still room for improvement in the form and administration of such a remedial programme to render it even more effective.

Ideally, a remedial programme should not be designed to fit into any pre-planned time-limit such as was the case in this study. On the contrary, the programme should be administered for as long as the learners need its remedial assistance. It was not possible to have an open-ended programme administration in this project, since this would have prolonged the study to beyond reasonable limits for such a project.

A remedial programme should take cognizance of the individual needs of the learner. A programme should be administered in such a way that those learners who require longer exposure to the drills should be catered for and those who need shorter exposure should also be accommodated. In the case of this study, however, it was necessary to treat all case-studies as a group for purposes of exposure to the programme, since the aim of the experiment was to establish the extent to which pronunciations problems in general could be controlled by such a programme. This in turn would give an idea of the overall usefulness of remedial drills in second language learning.

In a typical school situation, however, the teacher would do well to administer remedial drills with due consideration to individual differences and individual needs of the pupils.

A remedial programme should focus only on those areas in which individual learners experience problems. In our programme, however, all problem sounds were catered for: all case-studies were exposed equally to remedial drills based on these sounds. Even those pupils who did not require any remedial work in certain specific sounds had to go through the entire programme, since all case-studies were treated as a group.

In a typical classroom situation, however, the teacher should plan his oral and remedial work in such a way that only those pupils who experience difficulties in certain specific sounds are drilled in such sounds.

7.2.5 Suggestions for improving tests and scoring techniques

One of the problems experienced in this project was the selection of reading passages to serve as reading tests that could reveal the testee's pronunciations problems. It was not possible to find reading portions containing an even number of problem-sounds that the writer wished to research.

To meet this problem future researchers could try to compose their own reading portions that would give a fair distribution of all the sounds they wish to research. This will facilitate whatever calculations may be needed in the pre- and post-tests performances. Care should, however, be taken not to compose passages that may be above the standard of

the research sample, since this may complicate the study by introducing side-variables not anticipated in the aim and procedure of the study.

If good passages can either be found or composed, they will greatly improve the scoring procedure, since the researcher would be having a definite number of sound-occurrences to deal with. The researcher's pre- and post-tests calculations will be more balanced and thus more scientifically acceptable.

The criterion of scoring, however, should still be intelligibility, since this is a critical factor in any speech act.

7.3 Summary

The aim of a research project is to generate further research in related fields. This project dealt with a small yet important area of English language teaching in Black schools. The wish of the present researcher is that more and more empirical projects should be undertaken among the different Black language groups in South Africa to establish the nature of problems found there, and to recommend remedial measures.

If many such projects could be undertaken, it may be possible in the future to compile graded learning material geared specifically towards problems of learning and using English in Black schools.

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REMEDIAL DRILLS

BOOK 1

LESSON 1

The English /ə/ soundSTEP 1

The following words contain the English /ə/ sound. Listen carefully.
Do not repeat; just listen.

father	seller
mother	buyer
brother	teacher
better	preacher
bother	rector

STEP 2

Now repeat after me paying special attention to the /ə/ sound at the end of the words.

Master tape	:	father
Pupil	:	father
Master tape	:	father
Master tape	:	mother
Pupil	:	mother
Master tape	:	mother
Master tape	:	brother
Pupil	:	brother
Master tape	:	brother
Master tape	:	bother
Pupil	:	bother
Master tape	:	bother
Master tape	:	better
Pupil	:	better
Master tape	:	better
Master tape	:	seller
Pupil	:	seller
Master tape	:	seller
Master tape	:	buyer
Pupil	:	buyer
Master tape	:	buyer

Master tape : teacherer
 Pupil : teacherer
 Master tape : teacherer

Master tape : preacherer
 Pupil : preacherer
 Master tape : preacherer

Master tape : rectoror
 Pupil : rectoror
 Master tape : rectoror

STEP 3

Now listen carefully to the playback and compare your own pronunciation with that of the master tape.

Are you satisfied that your pronunciation is the same as that of the master tape?

Let's go through the lesson again.

(Lesson 1 repeated)

LESSON 2

The English /əɹ/ sound

STEP 1

The following words contain the English /əɹ/ sound. Listen carefully. Do not repeat; just listen.

girl
bird
surf

burn
turn
worm

pearl
flirt
turps
Bert

Now repeat after me paying special attention to the /əɹ/ sound in the middle of the words.

Master tape : girl
 Pupil : girl
 Master tape : girl

Master tape : bird
 Pupil : bird
 Master tape : bird

Master tape : surf
 Pupil : surf
 Master tape : surf

Master tape : pearl
 Pupil : pearl
 Master tape : pearl

Master tape : flirt
 Pupil : flirt
 Master tape : flirt

Master tape : burn
 Pupil : burn
 Master tape : burn

Master tape : turn
 Pupil : turn
 Master tape : turn

Master tape : worm
 Pupil : worm
 Master tape : worm

Master tape : turps
 Pupil : turps
 Master tape : turps

Master tape : Bert
 Pupil : Bert
 Master tape : Bert

STEP 3

Now listen carefully to the playback and compare your pronunciation with that of the master tape.

Are you satisfied that your pronunciation is the same as that of the master tape?

Let's go through the lesson again.

(Lesson 2 is repeated)

LESSON 3

The English /ʊ/ soundSTEP 1

The following words contain the English /ʊ/ sound. Listen carefully. Do not repeat; just listen.

full
look
pull

soot
wood
book

hood
put
hook
bull

STEP 2

Now repeat after me paying special attention to the /ʊ/ sound in the middle of the words.

Master tape : full
Pupil : full
Master tape : full

Master tape : look
Pupil : look
Master tape : look

Master tape : pull
Pupil : pull
Master tape : pull

Master tape : soot
Pupil : soot
Master tape : soot

Master tape : wood
Pupil : wood
Master tape : wood

Master tape : book
Pupil : book
Master tape : book

Master tape : hood
Pupil : hood
Master tape : hood

Master tape : put
Pupil : put
Master tape : put

Master tape : hook
Pupil : hook
Master tape : hook

Master tape : bull
Pupil : bull
Master tape : bull

STEP 3

Now listen carefully to the playback and compare your pronunciation with that of the master tape.

Are you satisfied that your pronunciation is the same as that of the master tape?

Let's go through the lesson again.

(Lesson 3 is repeated)

LESSON 4

The English /ɪ/ sound

STEP 1

The following words contain the English /ɪ/ sound. Listen carefully. Do not repeat; just listen.

kill
lick
is

it
hit
sick

hid
itch
pitch
hill

STEP 2

Now repeat after me paying special attention to the /ɪ/ sound at the beginning and in the middle of the words.

Master tape : kill
Pupil : kill
Master tape : kill

Master tape : lick
Pupil : lick
Master tape : lick

Master tape : is
Pupil : is
Master tape : is

Master tape : it
Pupil : it
Master tape : it

Master tape : hit
Pupil : hit
Master tape : hit

Master tape : sick
Pupil : sick
Master tape : sick

Master tape : hid
 Pupil : hid
 Master tape : hid

Master tape : itch
 Pupil : itch
 Master tape : itch

Master tape : pitch
 Pupil : pitch
 Master tape : pitch

Master tape : hill
 Pupil : hill
 Master tape : hill

STEP 3

Now listen carefully at the playback and compare your pronunciation with that of the master tape.

Are you satisfied that your pronunciation is the same as that of the master tape?

Let's go through the lesson again.

(Lesson 4 is repeated)

LESSON 5

The English /ɛ/ soundSTEP 1

The following words contain the English /ɛ/ sound. Listen carefully. Do not repeat; just listen.

pet
 lens
 head

bet
 ten
 debt

Ben
 belly
 sped
 pen

STEP 2

Now repeat after me paying special attention to the /ɛ/ sound in the middle of the words.

Master tape : pet
 Pupil : pet
 Master tape : pet

Master tape : lens
 Pupil : lens
 Master tape : lens

Master tape : head
 Pupil : head
 Master tape : head

Master tape : bet
 Pupil : bet
 Master tape : bet

Master tape : ten
 Pupil : ten
 Master tape : ten

Master tape : debt
 Pupil : debt
 Master tape : debt

Master tape : Ben
 Pupil : Ben
 Master tape : Ben

Master tape : belly
 Pupil : belly
 Master tape : belly

Master tape : sped
 Pupil : sped
 Master tape : sped

Master tape : pen
 Pupil : pen
 Master tape : pen

STEP 3

Now listen carefully to the playback and compare your pronunciation with that of the master tape.

Are you satisfied that your pronunciation is the same as that of the master tape?

Let's go through the lesson again.

(Lesson 5 is repeated)

LESSON 6

The English /ɔ:/ sound

STEP 1

The following words contain the English /ɔ:/ sound. Listen carefully.
Do not repeat; just listen.

short
naught
stalk
poured

taught
sport
roared
porter

STEP 2

Now repeat after me paying special attention to the /ɔ:/ sound in the middle of the words:

Master tape : taught
Pupil : taught
Master tape : taught

Master tape : naught
Pupil : naught
Master tape : naught

Master tape : stalk
Pupil : stalk
Master tape : stalk

Master tape : poured
Pupil : poured
Master tape : poured

Master tape : taught
Pupil : taught
Master tape : taught

Master tape : sport
Pupil : sport
Master tape : sport

Master tape : roared
Pupil : roared
Master tape : roared

Master tape : porter
Pupil : porter
Master tape : porter

STEP 3

Now listen carefully to the playback and compare your pronunciation with that of the master tape.

Are you satisfied that your pronunciation is the same as that of the master tape?

Let's go through the lesson again.

(Lesson 6 is repeated)

LESSON 7

The English /æ/ sound

STEP 1

The following words contain the English /æ/ sound. Listen carefully. Do not repeat; just listen.

bad
sat
had

lad
pat
land

pan
bat
tan
sad

STEP 2

Now repeat after me paying special attention to the /æ/ sound in the middle of the words.

Master tape	:	ba <u>d</u>
Pupil	:	ba <u>d</u>
Master tape	:	ba <u>d</u>
Master tape	:	sa <u>t</u>
Pupil	:	sa <u>t</u>
Master tape	:	sa <u>t</u>
Master tape	:	ha <u>d</u>
Pupil	:	ha <u>d</u>
Master tape	:	ha <u>d</u>
Master tape	:	la <u>d</u>
Pupil	:	la <u>d</u>
Master tape	:	la <u>d</u>
Master tape	:	pa <u>t</u>
Pupil	:	pa <u>t</u>
Master tape	:	pa <u>t</u>
Master tape	:	la <u>nd</u>
Pupil	:	la <u>nd</u>
Master tape	:	la <u>nd</u>
Master tape	:	sa <u>d</u>
Pupil	:	sa <u>d</u>
Master tape	:	sa <u>d</u>
Master tape	:	pa <u>n</u>
Pupil	:	pa <u>n</u>
Master tape	:	pa <u>n</u>