The Evaluation of an Individualised Language Programme in Two Multicultural Standard 9 Classes:

A Pilot Study

THESIS

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Abstract

Two multicultural, mixed-ability Standard Nine classes (17 year olds) were selected for this pilot study. As they were half way through the Senior Secondary phase they had completed most of their English Language syllabus. There was a wide range of achievement in English in addition to which, fifteen of the thirty-nine pupils were English second language speakers. The teacher had to decide how to cope adequately with these differences in the subject English in general and in particular, in the Language component.

A Language programme was devised, based on the prescribed textbooks. The pupils could work through the programme at their own pace and order and could consult the researcher during or after class time. The programme only covered the prescribed Language Study component and only a quarter of the total English time during an eight-week period (one term) was given to its completion.

A Pre-test was set, the Senior Certificate Language examination paper of 1986, and the results analysed. The two classes were combined into one group and then randomly placed in the experimental and control groups apart from eight boys whose timetable requirements restricted them to being in the same group. The experimental and control groups were not matched. Aspects of Action Research were included in the design; pupils kept individual records; diaries were written by three pupils from each group and an independent observation was made of each group. A Post-test was administered (the 1989 Human Sciences Research Council examination) and this was followed by a questionnaire.

The hypothesis, stated in null form, was: Pupils taught by individualised methods will not achieve better results than those taught by traditional methods. This hypothesis proved to be true. The experimental group, who achieved a better result in the pre-test maintained their lead over the control group but did not increase it. Neither group fared well on the post-test but the experimental group achieved a result slightly higher than the provincial average.

The affective results were more positive, most pupils enjoying their autonomy and experiencing a sense of achievement despite their results in the post-test. A few preferred whole and small-group teaching, showing that the teacher needs to present the subject in more than one style.

This small-scale experiment dealt only with one aspect of English teaching, but there is potential for development particularly with regard to the use of individualised programmes both for remedial and enrichment purposes. The innovative teacher in the multicultural classroom could use individualised programmes profitably as part of his teaching repertoire.

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Within the constraints of this half-thesis, I have attempted to describe a single aspect of a term's work of one standard in an English classroom. It does not do justice to the thirty-nine wonderful young people who so willingly participated and who were so interested in the outcome. To them and to the school administration who gave me unstinting support throughout, I wish to record my grateful thanks.

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Introduction

The introduction of the 1986 syllabus was accompanied by various in-service meetings aimed at showing the teachers how the four components of the syllabus could be integrated. This meant for most, a period of experimentation where literature lessons also embraced language definitions, and oral presentations were linked to both written communication and literature. For many practitioners the term integration was simply a new label for what they had been doing to a greater or lesser extent throughout their classes. For others it meant a complete re-orientation of their approach and they struggled with the lessons no longer being designated for a particular day and time.

Together with the principle of integration came a much more definite Language component than had been the case in the 1973 syllabus but the integration of this material with the other aspects of English was not clearly spelled out with the result that language teaching in many instances became part of the written communication and literature lessons. This was acceptable in the sense that the teachers were integrating the language and demonstrating through editing and through the deconstruction of texts how language was used. This was in accordance with the guiding principle of the syllabus which clearly stated that Language work was not to be a series of 'dead exhibits' but that it was to be shown 'in action'.

What became noticeable after a year or two of the new syllabus, was that the Senior Certificate examination required far more precise knowledge of language than this largely incidental approach afforded and that the pupils were not able to transfer the knowledge that they had gained in one context to another. There was thus a need for each pupil to make his language knowledge precise for himself. The textbooks based on the new syllabus were not immediately available, so the teachers had to create their own resources or, as many did, they taught sentence and paragraph construction, vocabulary , parts of speech and figurative language from literature. This was an advantage as far as understanding the prescribed texts went but when faced with figurative language for instance, in a cartoon or a magazine article, it seemed that the pupils were unable to recognise familiar concepts. What was needed then was a method through which the pupils could retrace their steps and consolidate what they had learned.

The difficulty with this idea was that not all pupils needed help in the same areas which would mean that the able would be marking time while the less able caught up with them. Clearly that was not viable so an attempt was made in 1989 to create a Language programme. This initial programme was based on the earlier edition of *Comprehensive English Practice* which had been issued to each pupil. Various exercises were selected for practice and this was supplemented by photocopies of sections of *Senior Language* which could be borrowed from a central file. During the first two terms the pupils in two Std 9 and two Std 10 classes were given specific periods to select exercises and work through them. A completion date was set for each section and those who had selected and done those aspects marked them with the teacher. These marking sessions were somewhat time consuming although model

answers were displayed on transparencies, but the discussions that ensued clarified the thinking of many pupils. That this was so was shown in the increasingly successful handling of matriculation level examination papers, indicating that the pupils were making their knowledge more precise.

Encouraged by this, the decision was made to widen the programme considerably for the Std 9 classes of 1990. Like the classes before them, they consisted of a number of different nationalities with many of the pupils having English as a Second language yet learning it as a First language, most attempting it on the Higher Grade. It was thought that in widening the programme an opportunity could be given to all the pupils to review what they had learned in earlier standards or had never mastered at all. However, allowance had to be made for those who did not need remedial work but enrichment, so the programme eventually included sections on the Development of English from Middle English to Modern; South African English and language change in general. The two main sections were largely for remedial purposes, being Features of Style, and Back to Basics while practice was given in summarising and expanding texts and drawing all the skills together to cope with integrated comprehensions.

In order to quantify the results an experimental design was created incorporating an experimental group which would use the programme while a control group would be given whole group lessons on similar topics during the same period. They would both write a past Senior Certificate examination paper as a pre-test and another as a post-test. However, they would be encouraged to comment on their progress and would be asked to write diaries and complete a questionnaire once the post-test had been written and marked.

It can be seen that the intention was to improve the level of precise knowledge of language but this was not the only aim. For some time, it has been evident that the teacher has been expected to produce and provide for the pupil as learner-centred education gathered momentum. As the pressure has been exerted on the teacher, the expectations of the pupils have risen, with the result that in many classrooms around the country, there are pupils who think that their education will be provided and that they have very little to do with the process. Poor results are the teacher's responsibility, not the pupil's. This is a disturbing result of placing the pupil at the centre of the education system yet denying him responsibility for his learning. In a small way, the pupils in these two classes were given control over some of their learning.

The response to this freedom with responsibility was mixed. Some pupils thrived on it and did a considerable amount of work in a short time. Others openly acknowledged that they lacked self-motivation and that they needed the teacher to exert pressure on them before they would do any work. Some pupils recognised that they preferred to work independently while others realised that they needed the social interaction either of the whole class or small groups.

It was the first time in many years of teaching that the pupils had been asked to formalise their opinions of a method of teaching and it was a salutary experience. What was revealed was that these pupils could articulate their thoughts quite clearly; they were capable of introspection and self-criticism and they were

CHAPTER 1

The Case for Self-instruction in Language Study

Towards a Definition

In broad terms, language study is the learning of a language in all its forms:

- Oral and Written Communication.
- Reading.
- The objective study of the structure of the language itself.

In practice, the last-named has come to be labelled 'Language Study' and it is in this sense that it used in this pilot-study.

Each of the four aspects listed above informs the other and none can be effectively learned without reference to the other three. However, the teacher may, during a course of instruction, focus primarily on one. This may be in the form of a block of lessons devoted to the study of a novel or a play or a particular use of language to which he wants to draw his pupils' attention. In any of the above, the other three modes may play a part, but it will be of a peripheral nature.

In the literature on the subject, both 'self-instruction' and 'individualised instruction' have been used interchangeably but that used by Dickinson (1987) approximates most closely the programme that was tested.

> The label 'self-instruction' is used to refer to situations in which a learner, with others or alone, is working without the direct control of a teacher. This may be for short periods within a lesson, for whole lessons, or in the extreme case of learner autonomy, where he undertakes the whole of his learning without the help of a teacher. (P. 7.)

Self-instruction allows the pupil as an individual to concentrate on an aspect of Language Study which he may need for remedial purposes or for a topic which may catch his interest because it lies outside his experience. In using this method, the teacher has to define quite clearly for himself and for his pupil, just what he hopes to achieve, which thrusts him immediately into the debate on the purpose and depth of Language Study in the English curriculum.

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The Place of Formal Language Study

Frank Whitehead in *The Disappearing Dais* (1966) asks:

> Why do we in fact teach grammar? Are we motivated by anything more than an unthinking attachment to what has always been done in the past, together with a vague feeling that we would somehow be lowering the flag of learning, losing face educationally if we left it out? (P 220.)

In these questions Whitehead is reflecting the thought current at the time, and proven by research, that the teaching of Latinate grammar was not having the desired effect, that is, competence in both oral and written expression. Whitehead, together with Holbrook, strongly believed in the centrality of literature in the teaching of the subject English, and stated so at the Dartmouth Conference of 1966. In this they were following the tradition established by Arnold, Leavis and Thompson, but Allen (1980), in reviewing the Dartmouth Conference, comments that in an age of mass education and increasing exposure to mass media the literature centrists were not able to resist claims for a language centre advocated by Britton, Doughty and Dixon, who were supported by the Conference.

Both groups, however, agreed on the need for education to be child-centred and that there should be a developmental pattern, but their perceptions of these differed considerably. Allen quotes Holbrook as saying that 'inner order is the need of the child as of the man and literature and creativity are the means to that order.' Dixon (1975) in his report on the Conference, sees this as the 'heritage model' in which only one form of expression has validity whereas the growth model which he proposes would expose the child to language not only in the role of spectator as in imaginative literature, but also in the role of participant. He sees as the ideal, the leading of the child from the role of participant (his own experience) to the role of spectator where he can distance himself and observe. Allen (1980) is critical of this model as it does not clearly establish norms whereas the maturation model of Holbrook does, as, in recognising the value of good literature, the teacher has established values by which to judge. Allen points out too, that in placing the child in the position of deciding what he would read or write, the growth model makes the child the sole arbiter of the right use of literature and diminishes the teacher's expertise in this regard.

In practice, during the late sixties and early seventies Holbrook and Whitehead's stance was the more popular and was reflected in the South African Core Syllabus of 1972, from which the departmental variations developed. This syllabus was divided into three main areas:

- Spoken English
- Written English
- Literature

Language Study was relegated to a paragraph under the heading 'General Note.'

> A study of language in action should form an integral part of all the above aspects of English teaching to the end that pupils may speak and write more effectively and appreciate literature more fully.

The paragraph continues, 'Guidance and instruction in sound English usage and sentence structure, including punctuation, should be related to written and spoken activity in English.' It then lists the aspects of language which would be examined in the Third Paper of the matriculation examination. Clearly the syllabus reflected the thinking expressed by Whitehead.

In practice, Language Study was hardly taught at all or the grammarians ignored the instructions and continued in the same way as before. Allen (1980) notes that the confusion on the part of the teachers arose because the literature centrists neither developed the rationale of language teaching clearly enough nor showed how the various aspects of the subject were to be interrelated. Certainly what was achieved was a tremendous improvement in creativity; the pupils were encouraged to think for themselves and to write and speak freely but Shayer (1972) reports that inaccurate self-expression resulted from the teachers' abandoning of Language Study.

Since being so well received at Dartmouth, the linguists had not been idle. As part of the Nuffield Project and under the leadership of M.A.K. Halliday, Doughty and Thornton produced the 110 units of *Language in Use* which showed a different approach to the teaching of grammar. The idea that a new type of 'grammar' was required, already had been expressed by Mittins (1959) who explains its purpose:

> The new grammar differs by being descriptive rather than prescriptive; it offers to the student, not rules and embargoes, but a repertoire of the structural resources of his language. Through it, especially if his linguistic studies are reinforced by sensitive and meaningful contact with the rich verbal patterns of expert literature, he may well stand his best chance of developing that 'feel for' appropriateness in language which is the key to all effective communication. (P.123)

In their guide to using the units of *Language in Use,* Anne and Peter Doughty (1974) explain that it was designed as an additional resource to teach language effectively whatever the context. They regard editing as an essential feature of the volume and state that only if the need or interest in structural description arises through editing should it be used to explain errors. Through using the units, the teacher and the pupils can explore language together, rather than the teacher always being in the dominant role, but the point is stressed that the pupils' interest must be engaged. Although they see *Language in Use* as Linguistic Science being applied in the classroom, they make the following point:

> A major premise of this volume is that the distance between what the specialist in Linguistic Science has to say and what is proper to work in the English class is very great. The theme structure of *Language in Use,* however, enables the teacher to see how work in exploring language can be related back to the basic findings of Linguistic Science. (Introduction, p.11.)

Hitherto the debate had been about the value of traditional grammar in the English classroom, but the impact of the relatively new science of Linguistics was being felt and the question of the significance of Linguistics in the teaching of language was now being raised.

That the creativity period of the late sixties and early seventies had not promoted accuracy, was reported by the Bullock Committee in 1975:

> .....it had received examples of essays by college of education students, with comments by the Professor of English who had submitted them. These essays contained numerous errors of spelling, punctuation and construction and were a disturbing indication that the students who wrote them were ill-equipped to cope with the language demands they would meet in schools. (P.4.)

These students had emerged from the schools where the language policy was given too little direction and where the teachers were uncertain as to how far they should go in language teaching. With the emergence of this type of evidence, a new path had to be found and the Bullock Report recommended that while 'extensive reading and writing are of prime importance to language growth ..... they should be supported by explicit instruction' (P.172). Further recommendations included the abolition of prescriptive grammar and that class lessons in grammar should be given only as the need arose. These should be related to the pupils' writing activities as the Committee felt that language out of context was of little value. However, a checklist should be kept of all the aspects which the pupils could be expected to know so that guidance could be given or contexts created using a source such as *Language in Use*. In this way explicit instruction would be given but not out of context and not in the form of the weekly grammar lesson. The Report stresses the point that growth in language expertise is not linear.

In taking this stance, it can be seen that the Bullock Committee, while being influenced by the linguists to a certain extent, had not succumbed to the ideas put forward originally by the American delegation at the Dartmouth Seminar and gradually gaining ground in Britain, that formal linguistic notation and terminology should be taught at school level. Indeed it can be seen by the mildness of the proposals that the creative literature-centred group's ideas were still paramount.

Having traversed the same road, South African educationalists found themselves moving back to more 'explicit instruction.' Venter (1975) goes so far as to present a strong case for specific linguistic teaching. He argues that there are two aims in the teaching of language, one the 'liberal' aim (Language Study for its own sake) and secondly the 'pragmatic' aim, the teaching of language specifically for its transference to the pupils' expression. Hitherto, the emphasis had been on the lack of success of traditional grammar in achieving either aim, which was why grammar teaching had fallen into disrepute. Venter disputes many of the findings of research conducted into the efficacy of teaching grammar on the grounds that there were too many extraneous factors which were not taken into account. He raises the question of whether the new Transformational Generative Grammar may not be more successful in this regard because a grammar which is more operational in approach is more likely to lead to better writing (the basis on which most experiments were conducted).

Roulet (1975) is doubtful about combining linguistic and language teaching as he regards them as 'different disciplines with different goals, different methods and metalanguages' (P.67) and he points out that the science of Linguistics is in such a state of flux that the theories which the language teacher may

be trying to apply, may have been discarded already by the theorists. He quotes Noam Chomsky (1957), the originator of Transformational Generative Grammar as having similar reservations:

> I am frankly rather sceptical about the significance for the teaching of languages of such insights and understanding as have been obtained in linguistics and psychology. Surely the teacher of language would do well to keep informed of progress and discussion in these fields, and the efforts of linguists and psychologists to approach the problems of language teaching from a principled point of view are extremely worthwhile from an intellectual as well as a social point of view. Still it is difficult to believe that either linguistics or psychology has reached a level of theoretical understanding that might enable it to support a 'technology' of language teaching. *Linguistic Theory* P. 43.

The concept of teaching pupils 'about' language seems to suggest that it is something 'out there'; divorced from their actual experience. Venter (1975) argues that there is merit in the pupil knowing 'about' his language just as he learns 'about' his body or his environment, simply because it is interesting; this is the 'liberal' aim of Language Study. He is really presenting a case for the introduction of a separate subject 'Linguistics' because the depth of knowledge about language which he recommends would place a heavy burden of time on the subject 'English'.

Watson (1981), rejects as a fallacy, the notion that the 'building blocks' of language can be 'identified and taught' because 'real language cannot exist apart from meaning and function.' (P.72). Barnes (1986) agrees, saying that technical terminology should be introduced to the pupil at the teacher's discretion and that only insofar as a pupil can use the terminology in talking , thinking and writing will it perform a conceptual function for him.

The consensus of opinion appears to lie in the fact that the teacher should have the linguistic knowledge and in his professional judgement impart that knowledge to his pupils. The problem arises when Education Departments prescribe the content of Language Study, thus removing the professional responsibility from the teacher. Dixon (1975) regards the syllabus as a goal towards which the pupils should be led, whereas most teachers regard it as a body of knowledge which has to be taught to the pupil, thus showing themselves to be more subject than child-centred.

The Cape Education Department Syllabus of 1986 reveals its commitment to the movement back to explicit Language Study, as this component is reinstated on equal terms with Oral, Reading and Writing. It shows therefore, a reaction to the literature-centred curriculum but, as will be discussed more fully in Chapter 2, does not explain carefully enough how the teacher is to integrate Language Study into the rest of his work. It does not explain either, how the liberal aim of knowing 'about' language is related to the pragmatic aim of being able to use language effectively. By adding the veiled threat of the examination, it places pressure on the teacher to ensure that his pupils know the technical terminology. The teacher thus faces a dilemma: Does he teach for the the general language competence of his pupil and ignore the examination, hoping that general ability will prove adequate, or does he teach for the paper, training his pupils in the finicky grammatical points so that they will be able to trot these out on demand?

The answer depends on how the teacher views his pupil. Is his work complete when the child has passed his matric examination or does he see his task as preparing the pupil for life in which matriculation is but one milestone? The choice is important because it will determine how the teacher spends his time in class and time is the crux of the matter. If proficiency in language terminology is the goal, much time has to be spent teaching it even in context; however, if language competence is the aim the teacher will spend far more time reading widely, practising oral skills in large and small groups and as individuals and only deal with language issues when they arise naturally from writing or if there is a specific aspect that he feels his pupils need, in which case, the necessary metalanguage can be taught and shown to be relevant. It is the last-named which can be dealt with most profitably through the method of self-instruction as the pupil, with the guidance of his teacher, can identify his specific problem areas and work on them without delaying or being delayed by the rest of the class. It may well be that both Venter's liberal and pragmatic aims can only be realised if the pupil has to undertake the study of language for himself.

The search for the reconciliation of these two aims continues. In Britain, objections to the National Curriculum *English for Ages 5 to 16* led to the convening of the Kingman Committee which was commissioned to probe the following assumptions:

> Pressures on time and energy, together with inadequacies in the professional education and training of teachers and a misunderstanding of the nature of children's learning, are causing important areas of English language teaching to be neglected, to the detriment of children's facility with words. As in 1921, indifference is not the problem: teachers are anxious to develop children's capacity to use language effectively. The distraction today is in part the belief that this capacity can and should be fostered only by varieties of English language; that conscious knowledge of the structure and working of the language is unnecessary for effective use of it; that attempting to teach such knowledge induces boredom, damages creativity and may yet be unsuccessful; and that the enterprise entails imposing an authoritarian view of a standard language which will be unacceptable to many communities in our society. (P.1.)

The Committee was also directed to produce a working model of English which could be used as a basis for sound practice. This model is divided into four parts;

1. The forms of the English language;
2. (i) Communication; (ii) Comprehension - some processes of understanding;
3. Acquisition and development;
4. Historical and geographical variation.

In the model a number of linguistic terms are introduced which are more specific than the traditional terminology; for example 'adjunct', 'conjunct' and 'disjunct' which refer to different types of 'adverbials'. It is clear that the Committee wished to give teachers of English a more concrete basis for their subject and in describing language it could be useful. However, the Kingman Report has not been well received for a number of reasons.

The first major objection was raised by Professor Widdowson, a member of the Committee, who in his Note of Reservation, makes the following statement:

> The rationale for the model ought to carry conviction . But (it does not) because it does not come to grips with the central question of how knowledge about a language can be shown to be relevant to the educational aims of English as a school subject. (P.77.)

He feels that deciding this question should have been central to the whole enquiry, that only 'when the vague notion of 'mastery' is given more specific subject content, can a statement be logically made about the knowledge of language that is necessary to achieve the objectives of English as a subject.'(P.77.) He is critical of the lack of relationship between the proposed model and the requirements of the adult world into which the child must eventually move and sees that a definition of English as a school subject, taking into account the views of people both within and outside education, is essential; that the logical progression ought to have been: 'purposes - objectives - model'.

Other critics of the report also realised that the relevance of knowledge 'about' language, to proficiency in its use had not been demonstrated. David Holbrook (1988) states that this is the fallacy at the heart of the Kingman Report:

> The fallacy is in the belief that explicit knowledge improves language use, and that one cannot use the language unless one knows the rules. (P.114.)

Holbrook concedes that in editing pupils' writing and in explaining why one expression is more clear than another, some rules are useful, but this is not the main way in which people develop their language powers. His contention is that both teachers and their pupils need to 'gain a love of language by responding to literature and by becoming excited themselves about using words' (P.114) In this stance, he is supported by David Knight, who in his editorial article in the *Use of English* (Autumn, 1988) says:

> The best English teaching has always proceeded through encounter and demonstration: encounter with the best examples of expression and demonstration of what is it is about them that warrants study. (P. 10) (and) 'Conscious knowledge of the structure and workings of the language' (certainly as defined by Kingman) never did and never could produce the standards of literacy, that civilized power and grace with words that we know can arise from the continuous movement of the mind within our best prose and poetry.' (P.12.)

Knight illustrates the points he makes by referring to the language in which the Report is couched, using it as an example of the type of language one could expect if rules and models were the source from which English teachers should draw.

Preen and Saunders (1988) are equally concerned about the usefulness of teaching about language and think that this should have been the central concern of the Report. They also voice their anxiety about the influence of the report on altering the attitudes of the teachers,'weakening their opposition, first through training, and then through pupil attainment targets.' (P.38). The lack of justification for the recommendation that language knowledge should be explicit is also noted by Preen and Saunders, who think that reference to research should have been given.

The Kingman Report thus provoked important discussion and the views of the critics were expected to be reflected in the Cox Report *English for Ages 5 to 16*. However, Peter Barry (1990) argues that the Working Group has not resolved the disagreement on what children ought to know about language. He states that there are five related questions which teachers of English would expect to be informed about and convinced of, by the Group:

1. What is the purpose of 'knowing about language' teaching?
2. What evidence is there that such teaching is effective in achieving this purpose?
3. Should knowledge about language be taught separately or should it be integrated into work on literature and the other topics of English lessons?
4. How much linguistic terminology should be used in the process of teaching children about language?
5. Is knowledge about language an appropriate topic for the curriculum at school level? (P.13.)

In his discussion of each of these, Barry points out why the Group has not met the expectation of practitioners. With regard to the first two questions, there is no demonstration of the relationship between implicit and explicit knowledge of language and there has been no evidence given of the positive effect of teaching 'about' language. He states that the very children who need help to express themselves more clearly are those to whom linguistic terminology would make the least sense and that if it were used extensively it would have the damaging effect of stifling expression altogether as such children would think that 'those who *can* write do so by manipulating formulae about such things as the need for contrasting temporal adverbs' (P17). In considering questions three and five, Barry comes to the conclusion that both knowledge about language and its consideration as a separate subject should be left to tertiary education.

It is clear that the debate on language study is far from over. What is needed are practical demonstrations of a variety of different methods and their results which can clearly show those that are effective in achieving the stated aims both of implicit and explicit knowledge of language. Theories will forever remain theories unless the practitioners in the field devise new strategies and refine these in the light of what the pupil achieves in terms of knowledge and perhaps more importantly his perception of whether that method has relevance for him personally.

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Individualised Learning

The concept of 'self-instruction' or individualised learning is not new, having been suggested in one guise or another since the 1880s. It has its philosophical base in a humanistic approach to education where the child is seen as the centre and where his learning is seen as paramount. Disick (1975), in her discussion of the rationale of individualised instruction cites the demands of the 'new student', who is more aware and more prepared to question what his educators offer him, as one of the major reasons for changing to more learner-centred methods. In addition, the modern technological developments have changed perceptions of what is required of education:

> Education for our twentieth century and beyond requires training in creative thinking and wise use of material and human resources...Training in research skills and techniques of inquiry should take precedence over rote repetition of the contents of a textbook chapter or a teacher's lecture. (P.11.)

The theory thus has as its ideal, the needs of the learner and many designers of programmes claim that the learner is at the centre of what they have planned. On close examination, however, very few plans of independent learning are as liberal as they may seem. Gibbons (1971) , in his descriptive analysis of individualised instruction says that the central question that should be asked is 'To what degree has separate instruction been accomplished?'(P17). He argues that there is a scale along which most programmes claiming to be individualised could be placed and that unless the learner has complete autonomy over the content, pace, style and evaluation of his learning it cannot truly be said to be individualised. He is concerned about the plethora of programmes that are all called 'individualised instruction' and suggests a classification of these so that each programme can be shown in profile and thus indicate to what extent it can be said to differ from mass 'lock-step' instruction.

Gibbons (1971), Disick (1975) and Davies (1978) all place particular emphasis on the goals of the proposed instruction and the reasons for its introduction. In identifying the goals, the teacher actually determines whether he is aiming at teaching or learning. Davies (1978) notes that it is the 'extent of the teacher's influence that really determines whether the result is teaching, learning or a mixture of the two' (P.36), but the delineation of the goals is the first step in ensuring that the programme is not an abdication of the teacher's responsibility towards his pupils. He, like Gibbons, suggests a framework by which the teacher can assess whether he is creating a teaching or an independent learning situation. Under the general headings: Goals, Content, Methods of Learning, Methods of Assessing, and Outside Constraints, he lists the type of choices a teacher faces when designing a programme. In assessing his design against the given criteria, the teacher can easily see to what extent the learner will be taking responsibility for achieving the desired goals.

Once the teacher has established his goals, Gibbons suggests that in order to diminish the chance of failure, he should create and refine his model through which he hopes to achieve his aims, developing it from the purely theoretical to the operative. In taking these decisions unilaterally the teacher is likely to increase the efficiency of his programme but narrow the range of experience for his pupils. Waterhouse

(1988) sees this as the best starting-point for what he calls 'Supported Self-Study' which has developed from the earlier models of individualised instruction, as in starting with a small group in a tightly structured programme, the teacher has more chance of retaining control, learning from the experience and gradually transferring responsibility to the pupils.

There is consensus of opinion, among the writers cited above, on this point: the pupil needs to be led gradually into the mode of self-instruction. Programmes where the group has simply been given worksheets and left to its own devices are doomed to failure. This is not because the initial motivation is absent, but because the pupils are unused to the method, they are initially insecure and need a fair amount of support from the teacher. This is particularly true of the weaker pupil who may feel abandoned. Rainbow (1987), in commenting on the failures of earlier attempts at individualised learning, states that frequently this type of learning was seen as a replacement of class instruction and not as simply an extension; that paper technology only was used; and that tutorial support could not be provided easily. The last-named is the central feature of modern individualised instruction as it has been found that the student soon loses motivation when working in isolation.

The teacher should state his goals in general terms taking the cognitive, affective and social aspects into account. He thus starts with a fairly good idea of what he hopes his pupils will be able to do once they have completed the course of self-instruction. Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives serves as a useful measure of the cognitive demands being made on the pupil. At the simplest level, these may be the mastery of content in terms of basic understanding and committing to memory. However, any of the other levels of the taxonomy can be built into the programme of self-instruction. These include translation into another form, such as the pupil stating the content in his own words or making a point form summary of the facts learned. At the level of interpretation, he may have to use the information gained to answer questions and so 'discover relationships among facts, generalisations, definitions, values and skills.' (Bloom:1956). In doing so , he has to formulate his own opinion which, leaving room for more than one answer, gives the learner the opportunity of realising that there is more than one angle of looking at something.

A.N. Whitehead, in *The Aims of Education and Other Essays* (1917) instructs his readers: 'Get your knowledge quickly and then use it. If you can use it, you will retain it.' (P.57.) This principle was stated a long time ago but still holds good. If the design of the programme can allow the pupil to apply his knowledge, he is likely to retain it. However, it is important that the application is sufficiently demanding that it requires application of general principles rather than the use of the facts just learned. If he understands the principles of his learning, he will be in a better position to analyse the steps which he has taken and be more objective in his appraisal of them.

The educational objectives discussed above, all deal with convergent thinking but the two final categories of Bloom's taxonomy require divergent thinking and are therefore, essentially creative. They require the pupil's knowledge of the subject and his ability to analyse the basic principle upon which that knowledge

operates but in synthesising, he needs to use what he has learned to create something of his own. Finally, in evaluating his efforts, he needs to be aware of as many sources of information as possible so that he can have a valid standard by which to judge the effectiveness of his work.

If a programme of self-instruction could embody all these objectives, there is a strong possibility that the pupil would master his subject without further ado. However, teachers and pupils live in the real world where they are fortunate if even some of the objectives are realised. Dickinson (1987) suggests that the learner may not undertake the whole of his learning as an individual but certainly parts of it, in which case the teacher can decide which objectives he wishes the individual to master alone and for which he feels that whole-class or small-group work would be more effective. The main point to stress here is the flexibility of individualised instruction and that it is not to be seen as being in competition with traditional class teaching but as a valuable adjunct to it. As Waterhouse (1983) states:

> A better way forward is to graft limited applications of supported self-study on to the existing systems. This would have the advantage of increasing the repertoire of the teachers' methods and styles. It would give pupils a wider experience of ways of working and learning. (P.17.)

The affective goals of individualised learning are arguably more important than the cognitive in that the aim is to prepare the pupil for the future, not only in terms of the knowledge he acquires, but the skills and attitudes he develops which enable him to cope with the changing world that he enters. Disick (1975) quotes the psychologist Carl Rogers on this point:

> The only man who is educated is the man who has learned how to learn; the man who has learned how to adapt and change; the man who has realized that no knowledge is secure, that only the process of *seeking* knowledge gives a basis for security. (P.12)

If pupils are to seek knowledge they must be motivated to do so. Disick (1975) quotes Maslow's five basic needs of humanistic education, as follows:

- Physiological
- Safety
- The need to belong
- Esteem
- Self-actualisation

She discusses how these can be met in an individualised programme in order to promote motivation. The basic physiological needs are largely outside the teacher's control, but in a teaching situation he can see to it that the physical arrangement of the classroom is comfortable as far as space and equipment permits. He can also allow for movement within the classroom or resource centre in his programme so that the learner is not always expected to be in the same place in that particular classroom. Safety needs are met when the pupil knows exactly what is required of him during a particular course of study, thus reducing his anxiety especially if it is a method with which he is not familiar. The cognitive goals have

already been discussed; whether the teacher and pupil negotiate these or whether they are imposed by a syllabus is immaterial to the need for safety; the pupil must have a clear idea of where he is going and what is expected of him.

The need to belong is more difficult to meet when the pupils are being treated as individuals as by its very nature the individualisation separates the learners. Rainbow (1987) criticizes earlier programmes on these grounds which is one reason why his programme at Holyrood School places heavy emphasis on the tutoring system. This enables the pupils to work as individuals but to come together in groups for tutorials. These may have a variety of objectives such as assessing the work covered, planning the next section or working together as a group to apply the content that has been mastered.

Esteem needs are met when the pupil feels that he has proved himself worthwhile in the eyes of his peers and his teacher. Good teaching practice has encouraged the pupil's esteem in a number of ways, but individualisation lends itself particularly to this. Loss of esteem occurs when the pupil fails to grasp a principle or is shy to ask about something which he does not understand. Being treated as an individual can help to eliminate these difficulties. Assessment can take place either in a group or individual setting but whichever form it takes, the pupil who has ironed out his problems is more likely to succeed. Re-testing is also a part of this type of programme and is advocated for two reasons: The standard must be kept high so that it is worthwhile achieving but the student does not have only one opportunity to reach the required level which gives him a chance to ascertain where his weaknesses are and to overcome them. The more successful he is the more he wants to succeed.

Self-actualisation is probably the most difficult need to meet, but this is one of the prime aims of individual programmes – to allow for differences among learners so that each one can progress according to his capabilities. The difficulty arises in the resources designed to meet these needs because they cannot be as flexible as a teacher can be in the cut-and-thrust of interaction in the classroom. However, the available technology allows for a considerable range of applications and as the Holyrood experiment has shown, study packs can be put together at fairly short notice and can provide for a variety of levels of competence.

In his discussion of the subject of the effectiveness of individual instruction, Eshel (1990), states that:

> On the whole, researchers tend to agree that more open educational methods are somewhat more effective than traditional instruction for non-academic outcomes. Traditional education is somewhat more effective in promoting academic achievement. (P.1.)

He reports that a number of studies conducted between 1975 and 1984, which used a more narrow definition of individualised instruction, reported similar results but Eshel contends that differences of interpretation of individualised programmes and in their management could be responsible for these results. In his study of 386 pupils in seven schools, he concentrated on the authority structures. Where the formal authority, (i.e. the school management and the advocates of individualised instruction) agreed

in principle, the academic results were higher and the non-academic results showed little change. Eshel therefore contends that:

> Although individualised instruction may serve as a vehicle for improved learning, it does not consist of a sufficient condition for attaining this end. Its effectiveness seems to depend on the extent to which it conveys an unambiguous message delineating the role of students. (P.7.)

This suggests that the lone teacher, trying a different approach is not likely to be as successful as a teacher in a more supportive environment. This managerial support was provided in the study discussed, as Eshel explains that individualised instruction had been developed and implemented throughout Israel by the Centre for Educational Technology; three of the seven schools which had taken part in the study had ranked highest on a rating of achievement in this type of learning, while the other four schools were run on traditional lines. Waterhouse,(1988) in his support of the Holyrood school experiment, is patently thinking in the same direction but the inconclusive results of research make teachers wary of change and unless a more positive climate is created for a change from traditional instruction, it is likely to dominate the education scene for a long time to come. Eshel maintains that 'a better understanding of individualised instruction and its relationship to student outcomes requires a more crisp definition of the intervention involved.' (P.2.) Only if teachers are prepared to try a variety of approaches to individualised learning and report on their results, will the desired clarity emerge. It is imperative that the issue be debated in professional journals not only for individualisation to be validated, but for it to be included in the best practice of teachers.

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Summary

There is disagreement on Language Study, as a component of the subject English. Its supporters advocate its inclusion on the grounds that speakers need to have a body of knowledge about their language; they need to know how it is structured and they need to know a metalanguage which can be used to describe it. They have not, however, been able to argue convincingly that the pupils will benefit from this knowledge; nor have they shown how it enhances the learner's use of English.

Their opponents have seized on this failure and refuse to be persuaded that knowledge 'about' a language is of any value. They concede the usefulness of a metalanguage to discuss language errors, but are wary of using teaching time on technicalities when it could be used more profitably in exposing the learners to examples of the best use of English. These literature-centrists, for their part, have not developed their rationale clearly enough for practising teachers, with the result that the issue remains unresolved and the practitioners need to decide for themselves how much to teach and the method they need to use.

Individualised instruction is not a new concept and has as its base the humanistic approach to education. Writers on the subject define individualised learning differently, with the result that the term can include highly-structured programmes for individuals to follow at their own pace and order, on one end of a continuum, to completely unstructured learning negotiated between the student and the teacher on the other. All are part of self-instruction.

Various methods of individualising instruction have been tried, the efforts during the sixties and seventies being abandoned because they were seen as a replacement of the traditional whole-class method. Recent research has shown work undertaken on an individual basis should be supported by small-group tutorials and whole-class teaching where they are appropriate. In addition, the pupil should perceive no ambiguity between what the teacher is attempting in the classroom and the authority structure of the school as this undermines his confidence in self-instruction and affects the cognitive outcomes of programmes he undertakes.

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CHAPTER 2

The Syllabus and the Recommended Textbooks

The Syllabus

The Cape Education Department Senior Secondary Course Syllabus (1986) for English First Language, Higher Grade, was implemented from that date and the first matriculation examination on this syllabus was set in 1988. It replaced the 1973 syllabus which had reflected the movement towards greater creativity and which had stressed Oral, Reading and Writing with Language Study in a relatively minor role. The 1973 syllabus showed the reaction against the formal teaching of Latinate grammar but the 1986 syllabus reintroduces Language Study as one of the four equal components of the subject English. This in turn reflects the principle that language requires explicit instruction.

The Global Aims are essentially teaching rather than learning aims. Pupils are to be 'encouraged through their active participation'; to have their ideas 'enriched'; to have 'developed' their ability to express their ideas and to communicate; to be 'assisted' to develop language skills and to use English across the curriculum. The responsibility for the pupils' language development is thus placed squarely on the shoulders of the teachers and can be seen as prescriptive to a large degree. Four of the six aims briefly show how they are to be achieved; through 'meaningful language activities' or through 'language' as a whole or through 'material from other subjects' but the other two are not quite as specific. The second aim reads as follows:

> To enrich pupils' ideas, to stimulate their thoughts and feelings and to develop their *understanding* of themselves and their own emotional and moral responses to life and to the world around them, so that they may live more fully, consciously and responsibly. (P.1.)

In this rather long sentence there is no mention of from where the enrichment is supposed to come. One assumes that it should come from literature or other varieties of language but it is strange that the compilers have not suggested any possible sources of enrichment. The emphasis placed on the word 'understanding' suggests that this affective aim is more important than the cognitive aims of 'enriching' and 'stimulating' their thinking, yet one would suppose that all three would be equally important in living 'more fully, consciously and responsibly.'

Considering that the third and fourth aims are to develop the pupils' ability to express their ideas and to communicate through language, the fifth aim appears redundant:

> To help pupils develop the *language skills* which contribute to effective expression and communication.

The expression 'through language' can be taken to mean language in a variety of forms which the pupils can be led to experience. If the compilers are not repeating themselves, 'language skills' must then refer to an explicit knowledge of the language itself. Without any qualifying statement as to *how* this happens they assert that these language skills 'contribute to effective expression and communication.' While one does not expect this to be spelled out in detail in the aims, the compilers could have made a more definite statement. It is interesting to note how the authors of the two South African recommended textbooks have interpreted this aim, the one urging very explicit grammar teaching, the other, thematically arranged, showing a more incidental approach. The syllabus, in different sections of the document seems, uneasily, to support both.

While the Global Aims stress the role of the teacher, each of the four divisions of the syllabus place the pupil at the centre and the goals of each show what he is expected to know or be able to do by the end of the Senior Secondary Course. Broadly speaking he needs to master both Receptive and Expressive skills through the four divisions:(i) Oral Communication, (ii) Written Communication, (iii) Reading and Literature Study, and (iv) Language Study. It can be seen therefore, that the syllabus is holistic in intent. This is reinforced by the emphasis on integration:

> For convenience and clarity this syllabus is presented in four sections..... but it must be stressed that in practice the work should, wherever possible, be integrated. Language competence grows through experience of listening, reading, talking and writing and through direct study of the language itself in both literary and non-literary contexts. The outcome of such a study should form an organic whole. How integration is implemented will depend upon the teacher's methods, approaches and emphases. (P.14.)

There can be no quarrel with the principle of integration but the difficulty arises with its implementation. It can be seen from the above quotation that the teacher is at liberty to decide how he is going to tackle this – a welcome freedom. As discussed in Chapter 1, he can do this in two ways: either through a thematic approach or through separate lessons each with its particular objective, but with reference to any of the other three aspects, thus linking them together. The major problem is that the drawing in of other aspects can have the effect of fragmenting the lesson so that it loses focus and the subject can deteriorate, in W.H. Mittins' words (1959), into 'a thing of shreds and patches.' He was referring to A. N. Whitehead's theory that the pupil should begin with a period of romance and move from there to a period of precision during which there should be 'concentration' and a 'mass attack' on language, but he thought that many secondary school courses were too disjointed to allow for this concentration. It appears that there needs to be a central unifying idea around which a series, rather than a single lesson, should be structured so that fragmentation is avoided. This does not mean that the thematic approach is the only solution, as there, both the explicit study of language and the study of literature can become 'a thing of shreds and patches.'

Ken Watson (1981) suggests that a possible solution of this problem is the use of a 'core text' as the basis of a unit or series of lessons. This text can be a play, a novel, an anthology of short stories or poetry around a theme. From this base the teacher can structure listening and talking, reading, language and related writing activities thus maintaining the principle of integration, and dealing with all four aspects of the language. Again, this need not be the only way of setting up a scheme of work from the syllabus; the 'core text' units can be based on those works of literature set for detailed study, but other units can include project work or theme work where the main focus is not on, in Allen's (1980) term, 'art-speech' but on language in another context. This can be the language of persuasion or language for different audiences or purposes and the oral, reading and writing activities can be incorporated into the unit. A combination of the two approaches would be more likely to achieve the all-round language development of the pupil. However, there is still a need for him to keep track of what has been covered in the various lessons, for example the terminology he has learned or any other relevant facts to which he may need to refer and these should be systematically noted. This 'Ready Reference' can help to unify the four aspects as he can use it during any lesson thus proving to him its wider application and it can serve as a revision aid.

Keeping track of the concepts that have been taught is only one way of unifying the learning that has occurred in the classroom. In the Elucidation of the syllabus, practical suggestions are made with regard to integrating the different aspects. Each skill is to be developed by the pupil with a view to its use elsewhere. Stress is placed particularly on oral work in literature lessons and as preparatory work for writing. Barnes (1986) in a description of lessons he has seen makes the following observation:

> A one-way presentation (by the teacher) is not enough. Both for the mastery of the style and mastery of the concepts, active participation in discussion and in writing is essential: we discover the possibilities of what we can say and write by talking and writing. Here lies the importance of pupil participation. It is when the pupil is required to use language to grapple with new experience or to order old experience in a new way that he is most likely to find it necessary to use language differently. (P.58.)

Integration through discussion is only one form; another is the use of appropriate register. In assessing the oral ability of the pupils, the teacher is to consider 'the speaker's sense of audience, situation and purpose as reflected in the style of language used' (P.3). This is the practical application of the study of register in the Language Study section and thus the two may be seen to be complementary.

A close study of the syllabus shows that much of the Language Study syllabus (Appendix A) can be taught through the Written Communication and Reading and Literature Study components. Sentence and paragraph structure, logical connectors, vocabulary and the use of vivid imagery as well as editing skills can be taught with direct reference to the pupil's writing. Examining writers' use of the above and more in the prescribed work is simply looking at the process in reverse and in this way, the pupil is reinforcing what he has learned through his writing.

In the Elucidation of Language Study, particular emphasis is placed on its integration: Language Study is 'a study of language in action'; 'it is not a series of dead exhibits'; 'it should be closely linked to the pupils' writing'; 'it should be seen as a means to an end and not as an end in itself'. All these statements are acceptable because the transference of explicit knowledge of language can only be effected through its use. When the teacher comes to section 5.1.8. however, the compilers show him that despite their opening paragraph of the section, they are anxious about the the pupils' knowledge of a metalanguage and its use:

> Detached formal language exercises can be counter-productive: the emphasis must be on *language in action,* which implies an incidental approach whenever possible based on the error analysis of the pupils' written work. Nevertheless, pupils need to be shown that the ability to identify, name and use concepts such as the following will be an aid to their understanding of language and style, and may lead to the improvement of their own usage. (P.28.)

In this paragraph, it is noticeable that the incidental approach is limited to the pupils' written work; no mention is made of Oral or Literature Study. In the second part of the paragraph the compilers do not show how the naming will be an aid to the pupil and the tentative 'may' shows that they are unconvinced that the grammatical concepts that they are about to list will improve the pupils' usage of their language.

Their uncertainty is shown by their not immediately listing concepts referred to in this paragraph, but inserting three rather apologetic paragraphs before the list. In these paragraphs, the following statements are made:

> '.....the knowledge of certain basic terminology will facilitate both the learning and the teaching processes.'
>
> '.....many of the components outlined in the Junior Secondary Phase syllabus are.....repeated here. .....The terminology listed below is by no means exclusive of alternate terminology for the same concepts'
>
> 'The following concepts should be taught in appropriate contexts, with due emphasis on their functions'
>
> 'It must be noted that no one terminology is universally acceptable. What follows covers most areas suggested in the Goals but is *not* prescriptive.'

All these appear placatory as if the teachers would, to a man, object to the use of a metalanguage in English. The usefulness of terminology is self-evident and needs no apology although as Barnes (1986) points out, the teacher needs to decide when this would be effective:

> As their grasp of a concept develops, the technical term becomes a useful centre about which can cluster relevant experiences and understanding; presented too soon the term may actually inhibit the process of clustering and abstraction. It is a delicate pedagogical choice when the use of a technical term becomes helpful rather than the reverse. (P.49.)

Having sugar-coated the pill they are so reluctant to give, the compilers finally tell the teachers that they had better see to it that the concepts are taught: 'Many of the following may well be used by the examiner in the final examination paper.' (P.28.)

'The following' continually referred to are:

- Parts of speech
- Function, Mood and Voice of the verb
- Case of pronouns and nouns
- Structure of sentences.

When faced with this list, many teachers simply revert to the deductive teaching of these concepts and all the excellent ideas given on integration are lost in the scramble to find the textbooks with the clearest definitions and the most examples. It is in 5.1.8. that the compilers should have taken particular care to show how each of the concepts they listed should be integrated. Perhaps they took it as read, that since integration had been discussed in the other sections, that would be sufficient. However, explicit study of terminology – its extent and its transferability – has long been a contentious issue and certainly the reiteration of the methods of integration would not have been amiss here. Instead, a single paragraph is thought to be sufficient. It is worth quoting in full:

> The teacher should exercise great discretion in deciding on the amount of time to devote to these concepts. Difficult items should be stressed according to the needs and abilities of the pupils. There should be a definite commitment on the part of the teacher to teach *concepts* which relate to how language works, but when grammatical terminology, latinate or other, is employed, it should be for convenience only, e.g. to assist pupils in proof-reading, editing and polishing their writing. (P.30.)

It is clear that explicit teaching of these concepts as well as incidental reference to them in the other components are required by the syllabus. The questions that then arise are: What resources should be used? What is the best way for the pupil to use the resources available to him? The recommended textbooks provide an obvious starting-point.

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Recommended Textbooks

The coursebooks recommended for the Senior Secondary phase include *Comprehensive English Practice 9* by Rumboll *et al* (1988) , *Insights 9* by Gosher *et al* (1989) and *Senior Language* by Sadler *et al* (1986). The first two are South African textbooks, written in direct response to the 1986 syllabus, while the third is an Australian text. *Comprehensive English Practice 9* and *Insights 9* are each part of a series and therefore cannot be expected to cover all the ground necessary for this phase; *Senior Language* , although the sequel to a series by the same authors, is a single volume recommended for the three-year course.

The Head of the English department has therefore to choose which books he is going to use, as few schools can afford the luxury of three sets of textbooks all covering the same ground. His choice will

depend on his philosophy of English teaching and he may, of course, choose not to select a textbook at all, but he will need to take into account his time in creating new resources and the willingness of the school to make its reprographic facilities available to him and his English staff. Ken Watson (1981) quoting Elaine Furniss on how textbooks can be evaluated, gives the following checklist:

1. Is it impressively whole / comprehensive / well-integrated?
2. Will the content usefully extend the child's world?
3. Will it communicate to and make sense to the children?
4. Does the material include useful teaching / learning aids? (i.e. does this material offer aids such as questions, pictures, diagrams, definitions, glossary and a book list which will foster independent exploration?)
5. How willing will I be to spend time with this material?
6. Does it really provide more than any other source?

(P.113-114.)

As can be seen from the quote, Elaine Furniss was thinking in terms of younger pupils and textbooks in general, but her questions are valid for English coursebooks too.

Comprehensive English Practice 9

This series has appeared in two earlier editions, but the 1988 version represents a considerable change from those which were published in the 1970s. All the editions are divided into sections dealing with; comprehension, listening skills, written communication and language study, but where the earlier editions focused on literary texts for close reading, in the opening section, this edition shows a far wider application of reading and comprehension skills. For the rest, there is a basic similarity in approach but again the texts used to illustrate the points made are from a variety of sources. The volume, designed for use in Std 9, was used in the Language programme created for independent study so it is to be discussed and evaluated in detail.

Attractively bound, with a modern graphic by Norman Catherine on the front and back covers, the book makes a good first impression. This is reinforced by the layout which shows an enormous amount of material. At first, this appears daunting as the sheer volume seems unmanageable. Closer reading, however, reveals that the teacher needs to select the skill he wishes to teach and then decide which of the texts to use. The resources are more than sufficient so he need not look for supplementary material if he needs to repeat a lesson, but he does have to guide his pupils quite carefully if they are not to be overwhelmed by the fairly small print which conveys a certain intensity.

The greatest strength of this textbook is the variety of texts. They are not only used in the Reading and Comprehension section but also as stimuli for Oral work and and for Written Communication. There are literary extracts but many articles from the press have been included as have diagrams, lists,

photographs, technical texts and a few cartoons. Certainly, the pupil will be exposed to language in action in this textbook as the syllabus requires. The authors state in their introduction:

> Because our pupils are expected to make sense of and engage creatively with a complex and multi-cultural society, the emphasis throughout *Comprehensive English Practice* on pupil-productivity is clearly essential.

This principle has been followed in all sections of the text; the pupil is expected to respond to the texts in many different ways. However, each section begins with reference to the one that has gone before, so the authors expect that the section will be dealt with in sequence to a large extent. This brings the teacher face to face with the underlying philosophy which is that the pupil will be taught in incremental steps. This philosophy is even more evident within the sections, particularly the reading and the section marked 'Language in Action'. The authors clearly state their intention in the introduction:

> The 'Language in Action' section is a detailed and coherent presentation of formal grammar designed to operate as an inductive 'teaching text'. The pupils are encouraged to explore and discover (and, if necessary, invent) grammatical concepts step by step, the rationale being that they should fully understand the concepts and learn to reason grammatically before they apply them. In this way the tendency for pupils to acquire an incomplete understanding of how grammar works is counteracted.

Thornton (1986) doubts that this is effective as the pupil does not learn language in stages, each clearly definable from the other and dependent on what has gone before. Thornton makes the point that 'it is a phenomenon not clearly susceptible of being cut up into assessable segments, or delivered in teachable instalments' (P.20). Perhaps, what Rumboll and his co-authors intend is the 'mass attack' in the stage of precision advocated by A. N. Whitehead (1917) but Mittins (1959) who is largely supportive of Whitehead's cyclic theory adds the proviso that the method should be inductive 'from samples of real utterances to patterns and principles rather than the other way round.' (P.125.)

While there are sections where the approach is inductive, for the most part the approach is decidedly deductive. The principles are given and examples follow to show their application. This is particularly evident in the Language in Action section where the pupil is shown exactly what to look for; despite the authors' claims, he is not encouraged to explore texts for himself and led to infer grammatical rules. Ken Watson (1981) criticises the skills approach on exactly these grounds; the pupil is taught that there is an ideal 'correct' language to which he must aspire. However, this criticism cannot be levelled at the authors of *Comprehensive English Practice* without reservation, because, while they do give very definite grammatical rules, they deal extensively with both dialect and register. Rather than being a strength, however, there appears to be a dichotomy in the rationale underlying the book; on the one hand a very strict teaching and application of grammatical rules and on the other a tolerance of difference which can be confusing for the pupil. Through the use of entirely inductive methods, he can be brought to the same conclusion; that the Standard variety of the language is most used for wide communication but that geographical areas frequently develop their own dialect and that the language as a whole would be the poorer if an attempt were made to eliminate them.

The authors claim that their method counteracts the tendency for the pupil to acquire an incomplete understanding of how grammar works. They have perhaps not taken into account the fact that pupils forget very quickly unless their knowledge is reinforced by constant reference to what has been taught. Unless the knowledge gained in these skills lessons is used in other areas of their work, it will be lost, yet the authors make no provision for this type of repetition.

The syllabus makes a definite statement on integration but in *Comprehensive English Practice 9* there is relatively little reference to this principle. It does appear in part of the Reading section where a variety of activities on related texts are suggested and in the Oral and Writing sections where texts, pictures or diagrams are given as stimuli for discussion, and from which many different types of writing activities can develop, but these are the exception rather than the rule.

This textbook, however, fulfils most of the criteria advanced by Furniss (1980): It is impressively whole, but not particularly well integrated; it will extend the child's world; it will make sense to the pupils but only with the teacher's assistance in the form of careful selection; and it does include useful teaching and learning aids. The two final questions can only be decided by the individual teacher; to use this book as the authors intend will take an enormous amount of the time allocated for English in which Literature Study must be given equality with the other components. This leads directly to the last question: Does it provide more than any other source? The answer to this must be no. Impressively whole as it is, many of the concepts can be taught equally well through the literature or writing lessons, but *Comprehensive English Practice 9* would be an excellent resource book to help the pupil make precise for himself that which he has learned incidentally.

Insights 9

Gosher *et al* in the *Insights* series approach the syllabus requirements from a very different basic philosophy. Theirs is an all-inclusive policy, of which the rationale appears to be total integration of all four components. In order to achieve this they have used themes which have been structured around the following framework:

- Reading with Perception
- Exploring Language
- Working with Words
- Perspectives
- 'Conference Maketh a Ready Man'
- 'Writing Maketh an Exact Man'
- Considering Pictures
- Extensions.

The headings of the sections are self-explanatory but what is interesting is the variety of activities offered within each one.

Twelve of the thirteen chapters follow the same format: a passage taken either from a literary source or a piece of expository writing, followed by questions which encourage close reading. These are set at different levels to allow for both Higher and Standard grade pupils being in the same classroom. In most cases the extracts are of some length, many complete in themselves. James Moffet (1982) explains why this is important:

> *.....the larger the unit, the more meaning there is to it - the larger the possibility of there being meaning and therefore, motivation and purpose.* About the only thing that really has meaning and motivation and purpose is *a whole discourse;- that is, — some communication complete for its purpose.* (P. 96.)

The passage sets the theme and here the authors have attempted to deal with issues important to pupils of this age. These include the experiences of the handicapped, relationships with the opposite sex, sport and popular concepts of heroes. This type of work has been criticised on the grounds that literature is plundered to fit the theme but it is noticeable that Gosher and his colleagues through using complete texts or sizeable extracts have tried to avoid this. They have also avoided the temptation, in most chapters, to use just the one extract as the basis of all the work set. Instead, they have included material from a variety of sources, not as wide perhaps, as that of *Comprehensive English Practice* , but including writing by the pupils' peers, with the intention of catching and holding the pupils' attention, and encouraging their own efforts.

The approach is inductive with the text being used to show stylistic devices in use. There is particular emphasis on punctuation, not only alerting the pupils' attention to why the writer has used those marks but also inviting discussion on the effects created. For example, the chapter entitled *The Poet Speaks* begins with an article on the writing of poetry by Douglas Livingstone. Based on this article, the section 'Exploring Language' includes the following questions:

> You can learn a great deal about punctuation from Livingstone. Note how he uses it to vary his sentence structure.
>
> 1. Explain the use of the colon in:
>
>   'First a warning: it is a deadly Muse..... (paragraph 3)
>
>   'A few random directions:' (paragraph 4)
>
> 2. Brackets are used extensively in this passage. Quote two examples from the extract of the use of brackets and explain why the poet has used them.
>
> 3. What attitude does Livingstone display by his use of exclamation marks in paragraph 2?(P.58.)

A different approach is taken in the tenth chapter *Tradition* where rules are given for the use of the semi-colon and the pupils are asked to identify an example of each use in the given passage. They are also asked to comment on the way V. S. Naipaul uses the semi-colon. Having done this, they are required to work out a definition of the use of the dash from the extract.

This incidental learning has the advantage of the pupils' being able to see how the author has constructed his meaning, and in this instance to learn how punctuation is used in general, but there is the possibility of the pupils' knowledge being incomplete because the texts selected may not lend themselves to certain aspects of Language Study that are required by the syllabus. There is, throughout the book, a reluctance on the part of the authors to over-emphasise the content of Language Study in particular. As they state in their Introduction: 'the focus of this book is .....primarily on skills not content.'

That the authors realise that this may be a problem is shown by the way in which language is treated in *Insights 10.* There an entire chapter is devoted to parts of speech with particular emphasis on the verb (tense, mood, finite and non-finite), syntax and sentence construction. This frankly deductive chapter illustrates the authors' lack of faith in the method that they have employed up to Std 9 and the chapter referred to looks very much like a cram course for the examiner. This sorely undermines the rationale that integrated teaching about language in action makes the pupils both knowledgeable about their language and able to apply it correctly.

If the authors think that the detailed knowledge about language is essential to the pupil, more particular references to the parts of speech (for example) in the various Exploring Language sections should be included on a regular basis, so that the knowledge the pupils acquire about their language is continually reinforced and renewed. If this had been done in the earlier volumes, by Std 10 there would be no need for a chapter like *The Language Game*, but rather an extensive editing chapter, which, following the principles of using pupils' writing, could include some of the poorer examples. Through discussion and application of their knowledge, the pupils could confirm the grammatical principles which they have been taught. There is a Glossary at the end of each book in the series which could be used as a ready reference should the need arise.

In *Insights 9*, although the format of twelve of the chapters is the same, there is a sudden shift away from inductive methods to deductive from Chapters 9 to 12. In these chapters, there are long explanations on topics such as 'Realism in the theatre' (Ch. 9) ; on sentence structure (Ch.10); and on signs and symbols (Ch. 11). Both Realism and signs and symbols could have been dealt with as projects so that the pupils learned this information for themselves. The reason for the notes on sentence structure is more difficult to understand as this topic has been dealt with inductively in an earlier chapter. Surely that work could simply have been extended, again guiding the pupils to make their own discoveries?

Despite this, *Insights* is a series with which most teachers would be willing to spend time; it is comprehensive and the pupils are stimulated in a variety of ways. However, where the requirements of the syllabus have not been met, the teacher would have to seek out supplementary material or create such resources himself.

Senior Language

The third of the recommended texts is rather different from the other two. It is deductive in approach, partly thematic and each chapter is organised under the following headings:

- Comprehension
- Working with Words
- Language in Action
- The Language of Literature
- Thinking and Reasoning (included in Chapters 1-10) or Writers' Workshop (Chapters 11-18)
- Language Basics.

It can be seen to be between *Insights 9* and *Comprehensive English Practice 9* in that the authors make some attempt to link the sections thematically but they approach the language study in terms of content that must be learned and applied, rather than the incidental discovery method advocated by the syllabus. There is considerable emphasis on vocabulary extension through the Working with Words section but it is more a case of word manipulation than showing the use of the words in a meaningful discourse.

Whitehead (1966) does not see this type of text as adequate:

> It is only those aspects of meaning which are conveyed by recurrent word-forms and by the structural relationships between words in sentences that can properly be the object of linguistic study on the grammatical levels, and grammatical categories can be established only by reference to features which can be described in these terms. (P. 231.)

Dixon (1975), Watson (1981), Boomer (1982), Moffett (1982) and Holbrook (1988) all support this point of view and it is the guiding principle of the *Insights* series. This can, however, be related to A. N. Whitehead's rhythm of education. He states that there must be a period of 'romance' where the pupil is guided by his interest and enjoyment. What the above writers are referring to is the teaching of grammatical concepts in context, not as unrelated facts, in order that the pupil becomes more able to transfer the knowledge gained to his own use of language. This is the incidental method advocated by the syllabus, and can be seen as Whitehead's period of 'romance'.

However, the pupil is also required to have a precise knowledge of a metalanguage which he can use to describe his language. This can be regarded as part of the period of precision in Whitehead's terms. It is only part, because in his use of language appropriately and correctly according to the accepted conventions, the pupil is already in a stage of precision What he needs then is to link the terminology to what he already knows and it is here that the deductive text can be most profitably used even if this is not what the authors originally intended.

Senior Language is suited to being used in this way. The structure of each section shows plainly the concepts that are discussed and the pupil has little difficulty in locating what he needs. The greatest strength of this text is the accessibility of the language used to explain the various concepts and the humour in the examples given, although some of the Australian terms need explanation. The pupil immediately feels in control as it is on his level. The more able pupil, however, needs to discard this text once he is sure of the concepts and should look for more challenging applications.

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The Language Programme

John Holt (1969) in his book *How Children Fail* asks 'Where are you trying to get, and are you getting there?' These are simple questions but they force a teacher to reconsider both his philosophy of teaching and the methods he is applying. With regard to Language Study, the answers to the first question are: to know and be able to demonstrate a sound grammatical knowledge of English, in both speaking and writing; and to be able to explain language usage in grammatical terms if required to do so. To be able to answer the second question the teacher needs to assess his pupils' achievement as a whole. It is not enough to measure his ability by testing one aspect at random; his whole grasp of the language in all its forms needs to be considered. Once that has been done, the teacher, having identified the weak areas, needs to work out a strategy by which these can be strengthened.

The weak areas of the classes which took part in the experiment which is to be described in Chapter 3, lay mainly in their inability to describe, in grammatical terms why they chose one form in preference to another. This emerged particularly from the editing work that they undertook on a regular basis as each piece of writing was written in rough first and submitted to a peer for editing before the final draft was written. These editing exercises frequently resulted in an issue being hotly debated on the strength of the expression not 'sounding right' and the teacher being appealed to for arbitration and to give a valid explanation to support the judgement given. Only the most able pupils were in a position to substantiate their own arguments, despite having had regular formal language lessons, having created their own Ready Reference and having had Language Study integrated in all the other components of their English syllabus. It seemed that there was a need for the pupils themselves to come to terms with a metalanguage but this had to be done on an individual basis as clearly there were substantial ability differences in the classes. A possible approach then, was to devise some sort of individual programme through which each pupil could work at his own pace, selecting what he thought was most appropriate to him and with the teacher on hand as a consultant, answer his personal queries to make good the deficiencies in his grammatical knowledge.

The textbooks offered the neatest solution to the problem of resources. In the first place they were readily available (in these particular classes, each child had had a copy of *Insights 9* issued to him); secondly

they covered the essential ground, and thirdly they were designed for use by pupils of that age. The question of copyright was circumvented by a suggestion given by Dickinson (1987) that the texts be dismantled and placed in separate plastic sleeves so that many pupils could work on one book simultaneously. It then became a question of selecting the subsections of the programme.

In the Bullock Report (1975), the suggestion is made of a checklist:

> Though in every instance the need should create the opportunity, the teacher ought to ensure that in a given period of time the pupils cover certain features of language and for this purpose he might find a check list useful. (P.172.)

The syllabus provides such a checklist and it was from this source that the list was drawn up. In the list itself, certain sections were grouped as there were definite links between them that the pupils needed to understand. From the three recommended textbooks, sections were extracted, so that at least one resource, or preferably more, was available for each item on the list.

Factors which needed to be taken into account in the selection of material included the clarity of instructions, the arrangement of the text and the manageability of the source text. Both *Insights 9* and *Comprehensive English Practice 9* in their integrated exercises based a number of applications on one source text and this had to be included with the exercises. The problem that arose was that the pages were then out of sequence which could have been confusing for the pupil unless very clear directions were included. *Senior Language,* on the other hand, was ideally suited to the fragmentation required because each aspect is dealt with more or less separately, the low level of integration being fairly easily overcome. Ironically, these are the very grounds on which the series to which it belongs is criticised, by Watson (1981) and Boomer (1982), who say it is part of the 'back to basics 'movement, and that it teaches language issues out of context making their transferability unlikely. That theirs is a valid criticism will be discussed in the next chapter, but if the intention is to isolate an aspect with which the pupil has some difficulty, a fragmented text serves very well.

Once these sections had been selected from the textbooks, they were packaged as suggested in transparent plastic folders, each with a borrower's card enclosed and placed in files marked with the textbook's title. The procedure followed was to take a folder, remove the card and complete it with name and date and file the card in the place of the folder. In this way, a section could be traced to a pupil so that he could be encouraged to complete his work on it if another pupil had requested it. Having a copy of *Insights 9* in his possession was a distinct advantage as it meant a reduction of pressure on the other two books.

Using textbooks only for this type of programme is certainly not the ideal but using them in this way revealed a number of interesting facts about the language used in the texts, the pupils' perceptions of what was required of them and to what extent the textbooks actually meet the demands of the syllabus. Once again, it seems that there is not one solution to a problem, that the teacher who sees the textbook

as the panacea of all ills is making a grave mistake; the textbook is very useful but it is only one of the many resources that the teacher could use.

Those who consider individualised study as a viable option, regard the textbook as a good starting-point and this is how it is seen in the experiment described in Chapter 3. The discussion will show that there are both advantages and disadvantages in using the textbook for this purpose, but it must be remembered that the authors did not compile the texts with self-instruction in mind.

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Summary

The 1986 Syllabus stresses the importance of integration of all four components. The teacher is at liberty to do this in his own way though some suggestions have been made in the elucidation of each section. Language study is not to be seen as a series of 'dead exhibits' but the syllabus compilers have not explained how the teaching of a metalanguage is to be integrated into the other components.

This lack of clarity has led to different interpretations by textbook writers. Rumboll *et al* in *Comprehensive English Practice 9*, have emphasised structure far more formally than Gosher *et al* in *Insights 9*. The former clearly believe that the content of Language Study must be taught as a body of knowledge which is then applied in a variety of contexts, whereas the latter are more inductive in approach, using texts to illustrate usage. A compromise between the two is found in *Senior Language* by Sadler and his co-authors, where there is both explicit and implicit study of language.

All three texts were used for the Language Programme. Selections were made from *Comprehensive English Practice 9* and *Senior Language*; the relevant pages were taken from the books and packaged. Each unit could be borrowed from the central file in a library system. As each pupil had a copy of *Insights 9* issued to him, there was no need to place the exercises from this text in packages. Textbooks were selected for this pilot-study as they were accessible, inexpensive and specifically designed for use by Standard 9 pupils.

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CHAPTER 3

The Experimental Language Programme

Introduction

As mentioned in Chapter 2, the original idea of devising an individualised Language Programme came from the realisation that while the pupils had gained an implicit knowledge of language, their explicit knowledge was not what it should be. The work that had been done in Std 8 with both these classes, involved using their literature as a core text and creating Language Study exercises from the literature being studied. In this way, vocabulary, paragraph and sentence structure, imagery and other features of style, as required by the syllabus, had been taught mainly in a literary context, although other themes had also been studied. From this, they had developed an innate 'feel' for language and for the most part wrote correctly, although, in some cases unimaginatively. They therefore needed to continue to read as widely as possible and they needed more explicit Language Study based on a variety of texts.

At the beginning of Std 9, owing to the late delivery of *Insights 9*, the two classes did not have a Language Study textbook so a single issue of the *Daily Dispatch* was used for study. The pupils used the newspaper over a period of about three weeks during which time they were exposed to a selection of texts including front-page, general and sports reports, editorial articles, letters to the press, tables, graphs, reviews and cartoons. Each was analysed in terms of the peculiarities of its style and the pupils responded by writing an example of each form taught, thus virtually creating their own newspaper. In the course of this work, they explored the concepts of bias, tone and register each being used according to the audience at which the article was directed. They also studied G.B.Shaw's *Arms and the Man* as their literature component.

During the second term, the classes undertook a detailed study of the film *Chariots of Fire* in addition to which they were required to read a library book of their choice per month and present either a written or oral book review or, as a group, a forum discussion of an author or genre. Poetry study was related to the themes explored in the film and to other minor themes dealt with in the course of the term. Pupils wrote their own poetry and answered contextual questions on the poems taught. They also wrote their own imaginative pieces on related themes.

Each piece of written work was planned, written as a rough draft and edited in the classroom. This generally took the form of checking vocabulary, punctuation, spelling, paragraphing and register according to the intended audience. The editing was done by pupils in pairs for their peers and augmented their implicit knowledge of language. However, as previously stated, they were seldom able

to give good grammatical reasons for their corrections which gave rise to the idea that in some way, each pupil needed to master his metalanguage himself as obviously there was little progress being made in this specific direction. The questions that arose were: What method should be used? Should the class be given formal language instruction as a whole or should a programme of individualised instruction be devised?

The following hypothesis, stated in null form, was thus formulated:

Pupils who use an individualised language programme will not be significantly better at explicit language than those who are taught as a class.

It must be noted that, during the third term while the experimental group was using the individualised programme, the control group received formal training in an equal number of periods and that the Language Study of neither group was integrated with their other work during the eight-week period. As can be appreciated, this approach differed considerably from the method to which the pupils were accustomed.

During the term in question, apart from the Language Study, the pupils undertook the following with a substitute teacher: The first was a Business Project, in which the classes divided into groups of four and compiled a dossier of business correspondence for a club or small company. Included in this correspondence were agendas, minutes, reports, memoranda, an advertisement, business letters and a financial statement. This last was controlled and marked by the Accountancy teacher, while the Typing teacher marked the work of the Typing pupils, thus making the project inter-curricular.

On completion of the Business Project, the pupils began the study of George Orwell's *1984,* related poetry and original writing. This was followed by a reading project in which they were to select an author or a topic, read at least four books and write a ten to fifteen page report. The reading was begun during the latter part of the third term but the report was written during the fourth term.

From the above account, it can be seen that these pupils were very busy and that their Language Study was not emphasised at the expense of their other work in English.

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Research Methodology

Broadly the method used was action research in a quasi-experimental design. Kemmis (1988) defines action research as follows:

> Action research is a form of self-reflective enquiry undertaken by participants in social (including educational) situations in order to improve the rationality and justice of (a) their own social or educational practices (b) their understanding of these practices, and (c) the situations in which the practices are carried out. It is most rationally empowering when undertaken by participants collaboratively, though it is often undertaken by individuals, and sometimes in co-operation with 'outsiders.' (P.42).

That the experiment undertaken was largely action research can be seen by the characteristics it shares with the definition given above. Its aim was to improve practice; it arose as a result of self-reflective enquiry; it took place in the classroom situation as part of the term's work. Kemmis refers to action research being 'most rationally empowering when undertaken by participants collaboratively' which would certainly be more democratic and could have been applied in this pilot study by involving the pupils more in the planning. The researcher, however, took responsibility for the identification and correction of the problem and the pupils simply participated.

Cohen and Manion (1983) in commenting on a school-based action research group in 1980, reported by King, state:

> A three-way observation exchange was set up where teachers record their own detailed interpretation of classroom experience, pupils keep their own diaries or comment on tape and outside observers record their own impressions. (P.225).

This form of triangulation was included in the experiment to obtain other points of view on the Language Programme. Cohen and Manion (1983) also describe action research as 'a small-scale intervention in the functioning of the real world and a close examination of the effects of such intervention' (P.208) and in order to closely examine the cognitive aspects of the 'planned intervention' the researcher decided to incorporate a quasi-experiment into the overall design. It was not a true experiment as the sample used was a convenience sample and intact, therefore randomisation could not be said to have been properly applied. However, the selection of the groups was done on a random basis apart from eight boys who had to be in the same group so as to fit in with their Woodwork timetable. In order to do this a representative of the Woodwork pupils simply selected a blue or yellow card to show which group they would be in. The rest of the pupils then took their blue or yellow cards. Once these two groups had been determined, a representative of each group drew either a blue or a yellow card; the yellow was the experimental group and the blue the control group. Since this type of random selection had been chosen, it was not feasible to match the groups but on analysis, they showed a reasonable degree of correlation.

The IQ range of the experimental group was 93 -135, the mean being 110; the range of the control group was 89 -140 with a mean of 107. However, in the experimental group there were seven pupils of above average ability compared with three in the control group. This imbalance was somewhat redressed by

the ability of the top pupil who was in the control group and whose marks on average were 10 - 15% above the pupil who came second and who was in the experimental group. Average and low achievers in the experimental group as compared to the control group were in the following ratios; Average 10:12; low 3:4. It was to be expected therefore that the experimental group would achieve marginally better results than the control group and that this fact had to be taken into account when analysing the results of both the pre- and the post-tests.

The randomisation also resulted in the groups being unevenly split between the sexes and races as shown in Table 1.

BOYS:	EXPERIMENTAL	CONTROL
BLACK	2	5
COLOURED	2	2
WHITE	3	6
TOTAL	7	13

GIRLS:	EXPERIMENTAL	CONTROL
BLACK	4	0
COLOURED	2	2
INDIAN	1	1
WHITE	6	3
TOTAL	13	6

Table 1

It must be noted at the outset, that race in these classes was not a determinant of achievement: the four top pupils were Coloured, Black, Indian and White respectively, while the four bottom students, also in descending order were Coloured, Coloured, White and Black and there was little to choose among them. As will be discussed in Chapter 4, home language, environment, as well as a change of school and Education Department influenced the pupils and only insofar as they were personally affected by the application of the Group Areas Act could race be seen as a factor in their results. In this particular group only three pupils were disadvantaged in this way, two in the experimental group and one in the control group. Sex may have had some influence as the experimental group contained more girls than boys and the girls in these classes showed more ability in English than the boys. This 'ability' is, however, more attributable to conscientiousness than innate skill in language.

The structure of the experiment included a pre-test, the Language Programme for the experimental group, formal language lessons for the control group and a post-test. The design can be represented in the following form:

Experimental	0 1	X	0 2
Control	0 3		0 4

Cohen and Manion (1980) describe this this as the '*non-equivalent control group design* .....in which the parallel rows separated by the dashed line represent groups that have not been equated by random assignment.' (P.201.) In this diagram, the experimental group is represented by 01 and 02; the experimental treatment is represented by X and the control group by 03 and 04.

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The Pre-test

Two Senior Certificate Examinations (Third Paper) set for the Cape Education Department were selected for the pre- and post-tests. The researcher thought that these papers would be objective and that the pupils' performance could be more widely compared if necessary. Since many of the pupils involved in the experiment had had older siblings in the school in 1988 and 1989, they were likely to have access to one of these papers so the 1986 November examination paper (Appendix B) was selected for the pre-test and the paper set by the H.S.R.C. (Appendix C) as part of a nation-wide experiment in September 1989 was used for the post-test. No pupils had access to this paper as all copies had been collected and accounted for.

The 1986 paper was checked against the 1986 syllabus in order to determine whether, although it had not been specifically set on the new syllabus, it covered the same content. When compared to paragraph 5.1.8., in which the specific content of the Language Study syllabus is listed, the 1986 paper required explicit knowledge of 21/49 items mentioned in the syllabus. Some of these were repeated, and have thus not been counted separately. There were only four questions which dealt directly with word classes and none relating to recognition of types of sentence or clause structure. These, however, were implicitly examined in the questions in which style was taken into consideration. This paper therefore covered the syllabus but more implicit knowledge or 'language in use' was examined than explicit or 'knowledge about language'.

This raises the question of the relationship between the syllabus and the examination and the influence which each exerts on the other. It is reasonable to expect that the examiner will question the candidates on any aspect that is mentioned, listed or discussed in the syllabus. It follows therefore that the teacher will strive to cover the syllabus in expectation of this but he will stress the sections which are a recurrent feature of the examination, and gloss over those which do not seem to have so much importance attached to them. In this way, the examinations can be said to have an effect on the teaching especially where the results are important to the school's reputation. However, it is difficult to quantify the effect that the curriculum has on the examination and vice versa.

Mathews (1985), in discussing the basis for design of examinations, describes what can be expected of examiners:

> Conventional wisdom proclaims that the curriculum must come first; the curriculum, therefore, must be the basis for design. To put it another way, the designer of an examination should have as a starting-point a knowledge of all the main elements which have gone to make up the learning experiences of the candidates, which implies a knowledge not only of the subject-matter, but also the intended outcomes and methods of teaching. (P. 67.)

As he shows in his discussion, this is the ideal and 'it would be naive to expect the design of an examination to reflect completely the actual curriculum'. In the English Language Study examination it would be

unrealistic to expect all the items listed to be examined directly; indeed, if they were the pupils would be demonstrating their knowledge 'about ' language but not their knowledge of it 'in use'.

It follows therefore, that in discussing pupils' success or failure in a Language Study examination, it is important to identify which questions are testing explicit knowledge 'about' language and which require the demonstration of implicit knowledge. Thus the sub-sections, which require specific syllabus knowledge that is demonstrated by the choice of a word or phrase or through multiple choice items, have been separated from those which depend on the pupils' expository style. To a certain extent, this is an arbitrary decision as both types of question require specific knowledge. However, the questions testing style as well as explicit knowledge are not marked in the same way; in these questions, either a specific style mark is awarded or it is implied as, for instance, in the prose summary. In awarding the separate style mark, the sub-examiner is instructed to consider the way in which the answer has been constructed regardless of the correctness of the content. In practice, the pupil is unlikely to receive the full style mark if his answer is incorrect because style and content are so inextricably mixed. Even if his answer is correct, the examiner is unlikely to award the full mark for style unless the answer is almost perfect. A good mark for a question of this nature is 3 out of 4.

In separating these sub-sections for analysis, the following procedure has been used: in those items where style has not been considered, the number of pupils who have achieved the full mark has been given (as a percentage) and in the style questions the total mark achieved by the group has been recorded, again, as a percentage. In this way the achievements of both the experimental and the control groups can be compared.

The first question, Comprehension, is allocated 40 of the total of 130 marks. (This allocation has been 30 since 1988). While all the questions require the pupils' understanding of the content of the passage set for comprehension, the questions reflect the examiner's emphasis on style rather than content. Thirteen of the eighteen items deal with the pupils' explicit knowledge of language and include the following: recognition of a proverbial expression; identification of a cliché and its appropriate use; recognition of a phrase and its selection with reference to the writer's intended meaning; knowledge of appropriate register; recognition and application of a phonic device; understanding of the term 'connotation'; the analysis of a sketch using visual literacy techniques; vocabulary. The thirteen items referred to above account for 19/40 marks; 21/40 are awarded to the remaining five items in which the pupil is required to explain the writer's intention or her argument or to explain an expression in context. These items require far more complex skills and half the mark awarded goes to the pupil's style of expressing himself.

A comparison of the experimental and control groups' results in the thirteen items described above reveals the following:

BEST SCORES 75% and above (Of pupils in group achieving full marks)			WORST SCORES 50% and below (Of pupils in group achieving full marks)		
	EXPERIMENTAL	CONTROL		EXPERIMENTAL	CONTROL
Identifying keyword	95	89	Multiple choice: Use of clichés	20	11
Proverbial expression	75	89	Vocabulary	0	0
Quoting cliché	75	(63)	Phrase in explanation (1)	45	37
Recognition of phonic device	85	(63)	Phrase in explanation (2)	5	21
Quoting phrase using device	85	79	Connotation	35	26
			Visual literacy	35	32

Table 2

From this table certain facts can be deduced. Most importantly, the experimental group appeared to be, on the whole, the stronger of the two despite the relatively small (three point) difference in mean IQ scores. Secondly neither group really understood the concept 'phrase'. They could only identify it if there were an additional aspect – in this case alliteration. While they had no difficulty identifying a cliché, they were hard put to it to find a positive reason for its use, possibly because in their own writing they had been cautioned against using clichés. Here though, the examiner could be taken to task in his construction of the multiple-choice item:

3.2 The use of clichés can be justified in journalistic writing. Which one of the following reasons would you select in order to justify the use of a cliché in this context? (Simply write down the number of your choice for your answer.)

3.2.1. The familiarity of a cliché makes it easier to understand.

3.2.2. The familiarity of a cliché creates a sociable tone and communicates economically.

3.2.3. The use of a cliché makes the passage more contemporary.

3.2.4. The use of a cliché makes the passage more descriptive.

Scannell and Tracy (1974) in their examination of multiple-choice items for class testing state that 'Distractors should not overlap each other or the keyed response either semantically or numerically' (P.135) but in the question given above it can be seen that there is an overlap between 3.2.1. and 3.2.2. which would account for many of the pupils giving 3.2.1. as their response.

The term 'connotation' was generally understood but many pupils could only think of 'anger' as a connotation of red; few considered the political overtones. Similarly, the question requiring an analysis of visual clues was understood but only partially answered, while no pupils could manage the vocabulary question completely. In the experimental group, the average on this item was 1,4 and the control group 1,6; neither group achieving 50% From the Comprehension question therefore, it was clear that identification of phrases, vocabulary, visual literacy and the wider application of terms, such as cliché and connotation, needed attention.

Question 2 is based on headlines, graffiti and an advertisement. A knowledge of literary devices in a variety of contexts is required in order to cope successfully. Of the eleven items in the question, four call for explanation or detailed analysis while the remaining seven require a more limited response. Table 3 shows the results:

BEST SCORES 75% and above (Of pupils in group achieving full marks)			WORST SCORES 50% and below (Of pupils in group achieving full marks)		
	EXPERIMENTAL	CONTROL		EXPERIMENTAL	CONTROL
1.1. Tense	100	100	1.3. Description of style	5	11
1.2. Understanding of reason for tense	(70)	79	2.1.3. Identification of irony	35	37
2.1.4. Identification of allusion	85	(58)	2.2.1. Reason for visual impact	20	5
2.2.2. Intention of advertisement	75	(68)			

Table 3

The relative ease with which the section set on newspaper headlines was handled, reflected the detailed study of the newspaper that both groups had done earlier in the year. However, this did not extend to their remembering that headlines are written in telegraphic style. Both groups also had difficulty identifying irony, but this is not an easy concept to grasp and pupils need considerable practice in order to identify it in a variety of contexts. With regard to the visual impact created by the graphics of the advertisement, a familiar problem arose. The pupils could state what effect had been created but could not analyse how it had been done.

The major part of the third question uses reference books as its source. This assumes that the pupils have had access to a variety of English reference books in the classroom which is often not the case as they are usually limited to a dictionary and a thesaurus. The pupils' familiarity with other forms of reference would most likely be through project work, but there is little likelihood that they would have more than a nodding acquaintance with these and would therefore have to depend as much on their powers of comprehension as on their explicit knowledge.

The testing of figurative language is extended to cartoons in the second part of Question 3; the pupils are asked to explain the humour created and to make their own puns.

This question is worth 20,75% of the total for the paper, yet the syllabus restricts itself to two short utterances on the use of reference works:

> Pupils should be proficient in the use and conventions of the dictionary .....and.....Suitable dictionaries (for spelling) should be used as a matter of course. (P.30.)

BEST SCORES 75% and above (Of pupils in group achieving full marks)			
		EXPERIMENTAL	CONTROL
1.7.1.	Phonetic spelling	95	89
1.7.2.	Abbreviation	85	89
1.7.3.	Suffix (feminine gender)	85	89
1.7.7.	Use of capitals and italics in entries	65	(37)
2.	Two cartoons: literal and figurative language	85	(74)

WORST SCORES 50% and below (Of pupils in group achieving full marks)			
		EXPERIMENTAL	CONTROL
1.1.	Selection of reference books	30	26
1.2.	Etymology (understanding term)	25	37
1.3.	Synonym/antonym (recognition)	0	5
1.4.	Understanding difference between encyclopaedia and dictionary	15	21
1.7.4.	Prefix and root word (form verb)	25	11
1.7.5.	Prefixes and root word	20	5
1.7.6.	Vt or Vi	5	37
1.7.7.	Create own puns	45	21

Table 4

It seems a small point to quibble about, but if the pupils are required to know how to use more than just their dictionaries, the syllabus should list these and give suggestions for their integration into language work.

From the scores shown above, it is clear that the pupils in both groups needed far more exposure to a variety of reference works and that their use of dictionaries chiefly for vocabulary did not fulfil the syllabus requirement.

The final question to demand explicit language knowledge is the latter section of Question 5. Four errors of style and grammar have to be identified and corrected: slang; incorrect case after the verb 'to be'; a double negative; the incorrect case after a preposition. The first and third (stylistic errors) presented less difficulty than the second and fourth (grammatical errors). The experimental group's scores were: 70; 0; 70; 5 and the control group's 63; 0; 31; 16. Clearly no one had much idea of the case of the pronoun in Standard English.

The questions in which style marks were awarded either overtly or covertly, were analysed in terms of the total mark (expressed as a percentage) achieved by each group. All told, there were thirteen items and they accounted for 71 of the 130 marks. The examiners show through this that style should be taken into account even in a paper set to test Language Study. The experimental group scored a mean of 49,8% while the control group scored a mean of 40,2, the range of each being 15% to 68 % and 21% to 61% respectively.

In the Comprehension section, the two items invoking the weakest response were those where the pupils had to explain the author's point of view. Most failed to place the terms 'outrage' and 'basic human right' in context and simply discussed their own perceptions of the given terms. The same type of error occurred in the discussion of the slogan of the advertisement. Instead of analysing how the copywriter had made his message effective, the pupils gave their interpretation of what the slogan meant. This weakness in both groups can be seen as not analysing what the question requires and not really knowing how to discuss features of a particular style.

The summary question was divided into two sections: sifting and reducing the passage to keywords and using those keywords to create a continuous prose paragraph. The scores for each section were as shown in Table 5.

	EXPERIMENTAL	CONTROL
Keywords	61	59
Prose summary	50	40

Table 5

The control group showed here as they did in other questions requiring style, that their expository writing was inadequate.

The first part of Question 5 is the final question in which style is taken into consideration. It required almost a page of writing which, being at the end of the examination paper, meant that time became a factor. Five pupils did not attempt the question while others hurried through it, misreading the instructions and only giving half the dialogue. The mean of the experimental group was 54% while that of the control group was 46%.

The results of each group in this examination used as the pre-test showed that there were certain deficiencies that needed redressing. Both groups needed explicit language teaching but the control group also needed to practise brief expository writing. Accordingly, while the experimental group undertook their own exploration of language concepts, the control group were led through a series of lessons aimed at correcting the faults that had manifested themselves in this pre-test.

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The Language Programme Experiment

The eight weeks set aside for the Language programme co-incided with the third term, from the beginning until the commencement of the September examinations. It was long enough for the pupils to come to grips with much of the explicit Language Study envisaged, yet short enough for it not to become tedious. In answering their questionnaire (Appendix G), all but two of the pupils stated that they would have liked the programme to have extended over two terms. The two who disagreed said:

> Only if in one term we did one method and the next term the other method. (The methods referred to are the traditional and the individualised.)
>
> No, because I would prefer to do it at home and do the normal cycles instead.

These two answers indicate that these pupils missed the normal interaction in the classroom, whereas the rest of the responses showed that the pupils felt that they had had too little time to complete what was asked of them. These findings corroborate Waterhouse'(1988) ideas about a trial scheme. He notes that the trial should be limited to one unit of work and that the individualisation should be part of a broad repertoire of strategies. This pilot study complies with these requirements except that, with hindsight, there was either too much work to be covered or, if the pupils were to be offered such a wide choice structures needed to be built into the programme dividing it into more manageable sections.

However, a tighter structure could have defeated one of the major aims of introducing the programme; that of making the pupil responsible not only for the pace of his work but also the topics he chose and the order in which he did the units. As the Instructions for Using the Language Programme show (Appendix D), the pupil was given a certain amount of flexibility in its use. Although he was essentially working alone, he could select partners with whom to discuss the work or engage in friendly competition. The arrangement of desks in the classroom encouraged this as they were placed in groups of four. A suggestion was given as to the amount of work that should be done (three of five sections) but he was free to work at his own pace, just as he could choose how many examples to do within each unit. Two aspects were stressed: the Ready Reference and the Comments. Both were important, the first to the pupil for his revision and the second to the researcher, as these comments gave important feedback on the materials. The researcher was available for help particularly with regard to using the answers which were given for each example of each exercise.

Once these instructions had been given and explained, the pupils could begin their programme. As one of the diarists noted, the division into the yellow and blue groups was confusing but she rather enjoyed the usually separate A and B classes being mixed for the duration of the experiment.

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The Language Programme

Acting on the suggestion of a check-list in the Bullock report, the researcher used the 1986 Language Study syllabus (Appendix A) and the recommended coursebooks to compile such a list (Appendix E). The list shown in the Appendix does not itemise all the features listed in paragraph 5.1.8., but many units encompassed the syllabus requirements. For instance, C16 and C17, both from *Comprehensive English Practice 9* included concepts such as Active and Passive Voice; Transitive and Intransitive Verbs; Sentence, Clause and Phrase structure; and Word Classes, none of which were shown separately.

The checklist was divided into five sections:

- Language in General
- Features of Style
- Back to Basics
- Understanding Texts
- Comprehension of Related Texts.

These five sections were divided into forty-five units of varying length and where possible references to two of the three texts were given in order to increase the availability of material on a given topic. Seventeen units were taken from *Insights 9* which was the text each pupil had in his possession, twelve came from *Comprehensive English Practice 9* and twenty-five from *Senior Language*. The last provided the bulk of the material because it was more easily divisible into separate units and each unit was fairly short. The instructions were contained in the exercises so it was unnecessary to enclose separate guides as suggested by Rainbow (1987). Where the particular exercise began halfway down the page of the coursebook, the starting-point was marked.

Since index cards were included with each unit and the pupils entered their names on the cards, it was easy to see which exercises were the most popular and how much of the work was covered. The figures were not available in the same way for *Insights 9* as borrowing was not necessary. However, the figures in marks out of a possible 20, for *Comprehensive English Practice 9* and *Senior Language* have been tabulated for comparison in Table 6.

On the whole, *Senior Language* was the more popular choice. A selection of the pupils' comments taken from alongside the index of the units that they did reveals why. Many have used the words 'easy', 'enjoyable' and 'humorous' as well as 'Difficult until I got used to what was expected' to describe the material, showing that they found it approachable and on their level. However, it is noticeable that the comments change with regard to *Insights 9* and *Comprehensive English Practice 9* where 'challenging', 'the questions were quite difficult', 'I found that in these exercises, I had to concentrate,'are found and

Senior Language

Language Basics		
C 1	Punctuation	13
C 2	Conjunctions and Verbs	14
C 3	Adjectives and Adverbs	8
C 14 C 6	Concord and Unrelated Words and Phrases	12
C 4	Pronouns and More on Pronouns	12 15
C 8	Prepositions	17
C 9	Mixed Metaphors	10

Language in Action		
B 2	Context	8
B 3	Register	11
B 4	Tone	12
B 5	Bias	10
B 6	Slang and Colloquial Language	9 11
B7	Jargon	10
B9	Irony and Sarcasm	10
B 10	Pun	18
B 12	Denotation and Connotation	10
B 13	Euphemism	12
B 14	Satire	10
C 10	Cliches	14
C 11	Ambiguity	11
C 12	Circumlocution and Verbosity	14
C 13	Tautology and Redundancy	15
D 4	Propaganda	8
D 5	Advertising	10

Comprehensive English Practice		
A 1	Development of English	4
A 3	South African English	7
B 11	Persuasive Devices	8
C 16	Common Problems	8
D 1	Summarising Texts	8
D 2	Expanding Texts	8
D 6	Newspaper Study	6
E 2	Comprehensions (2)	6
E 3	Integrated Comprehension	8
E 4	Advertising	7

Table 6

none were thought 'easy'. On the other hand, few *Senior Language* units were considered boring while this adjective was used more frequently with reference to the other two texts.

What emerges from this, is that in making their Language Study precise for themselves, this group chose to work at a lower level, comparatively few consistently choosing challenging units. It would have been appropriate to build in checks on achievement as Davies (1978) suggests; whether they were formal or informal was not important, but leaving the choice entirely to the pupils was clearly counter-productive as they were not motivated to make progress in the quality of their work, merely in the number of exercises they completed. Quantity of work was less of a problem. In the eight week period, the most conscientious pupil completed 43 of the 45 units while the least productive only managed 9. The average number of completed units was 22 or approximately 50% of the total programme, with 13 pupils completing more than this and 7 pupils well below the average.

It is interesting to note that each exercise in *Senior Language* and *Comprehensive English Practice 9* was attempted. The irony of the lowest score for the CEP exercise 'Language Basics' is that that particular unit would have helped far more in the post-test than the rather diffused Language basics of *Senior Language*. The three who attempted it were among the better scorers in the question requiring this knowledge.

From the pupils' records of work, it is evident that they used *Insights 9* chiefly when the other units were not available. This was an unexpected and unfortunate side-effect of the pupils having the text in their possession as many left it until last, thus missing some excellent applications of grammatical knowledge. It becomes clear that the less able in this group needed to be steered towards *Senior Language* while the more able needed to work from *Comprehensive English Practice 9* and *Insights 9*. How this could be achieved without infringing on the pupils' autonomy, which they valued, is not entirely clear. Waterhouse (1988) recommends a system of tutorials in which the pupils could be directed, but he does not advocate ability grouping the tutorials on the grounds that the weaker groups would not be stimulated. However, this is perhaps what should be done to ensure that brighter pupils are not wasting their time or talent.

As has been stated, for each exercise in each unit, answers were given. Where the question required a free response, a suggested answer was given with a note added that the pupil should discuss his answer if it differed. Disappointingly few made use of this offer and the reason only became clear when the questionnaires were returned. Because most pupils felt that it was more important to complete as much of the programme as they could, they did not take time to mark every exercise that they did. This was a vital part of the programme and was not stressed enough. Gibbons (1971) quotes the psychologist Carl Rogers on this point: 'a student's estimate of his own achievement is a fundamental part of the learning process' (P.37). They cannot really know how well they have performed unless they measure their work against a standard and for many of these pupils this measurement only came in the form of the post-test.

In the questionnaire, when asked to analyse their performance in the post-test examination, most pupils expressed dissatisfaction with their mark. It appears that there was a need for interim evaluation and that this needed to be built into the programme so that pupils could identify both strengths and weaknesses on a continuous basis. Dickinson stresses this:

> Regular evaluation is a key part of the process, encouraging pupils to think about what they have been doing, what the successes were, what problems they came up against and how they might solve them. (P.65.)

Without this regular evaluation, pupils may be lulled into a false sense of security equating quantity of work with progress in learning. The fault in this pilot study, however, did not lie with the pupils but in the researcher's failure to monitor their progress and to direct them to more challenging levels. These weaknesses in the programme were revealed by the demands made by the post-test examination.

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The Control Group

In selecting the eight lessons to be given to this group, the researcher had to ensure that as much work as possible was done so that this group would not feel at any disadvantage. This of course placed pressure on the pupils as the diarists (Appendix F) noted when they complained about the amount of homework they were given.

The aspects chosen were the following:

1. Advertising techniques and a comparison between language used in advertising and Standard English.
2. (i) The intentions of advertisers and how these are achieved visually in both videos and still pictures.
   (ii) Scanning short texts for the main ideas; précis writing.
3. Common Errors: Their recognition and the grammatical reasons given.
4. Correction of own original writing, giving grammatical explanations.
5. Analysing Style: Newspaper and magazine articles analysed.
6. Analysis of cartoons: cartoonists' techniques studied.
7. The Dictionary: Terminology and layout.
8. Comprehension: Class marking with discussion of answers and analysis of questions.

A comparison with the Language Programme checklist shows that in these lessons listed above, an attempt was made to cover all five sections. The concern with style was tackled from two angles: the analysis of styles from the popular press and the pupils' own style. Each pupil wrote a précis of an article, an original piece of his own choice as well as an expository article discussing the techniques used by three cartoonists. These were marked by the researcher and linked to the lessons on Common Errors; their correction and explanation in grammatical terms. The grammatical terminology was again extended into the dictionary lesson which focused on both dictionary terminology and the grammatical features of words. The term's work was brought together in the comprehension which required an analysis of the writer's style and comment on grammatical features.

From the diaries, the worst lesson was on Common Errors, all three describing the double period as boring, but one showing more perception:

> It is much more fun marking something where each opinion may be right. It has no fun when your answer must be a certain one. The long discussions and 'lecture' were boring too.

Surprisingly, this same pupil, after the lesson discussing errors made in the class' original writing , writes:

> This was another interesting lesson. I think it's because it involved us and concerned us personally. Discovering your errors and why they were wrong, as well as the correction, affects you, so we were all interested. Also, everyone else had errors and a relaxed atmosphere made it easy to admit yours.

The best lesson, judging from the same sources, was – predictably – the analysis of video advertisements. Here, each group of four had to present a critique of the advertisement that the group considered the most successful. Video work is usually popular, but interestingly this was not the reason for the lesson's appeal. All three diarists commented on the freedom to express their opinions, contradict each other and agree to differ. That this was seen to be different was somewhat disconcerting to the researcher, who as their class teacher had thought that the class had always enjoyed this freedom. In reviewing the content of the eight lessons, it can be seen that it was somewhat ambitious and lacked opportunities for reinforcement. Had the content of the Language Programme not been as extensive, the work of the control group could have been more focused, perhaps resulting in a better grasp of grammatical terminology and its application, particularly by the less able pupils.

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The Post-test

This paper, set by the Human Sciences Research Council in September 1989 (Appendix C), was selected for the post-test for two reasons. Firstly, the paper made particular demands on the pupil with regard to explicit knowledge of language. Style was far less of a factor, as the analysis will show, and what was revealed was how much actual grammatical knowledge the pupils had at the time of writing. This in turn reflected on the effectiveness of the teaching methods employed, both the experimental and the traditional. The examination paper itself comes under scrutiny in order to establish whether the demands it made on the pupils were realistic. Secondly, the results obtained by the two Std 9 classes could be compared with the provincial result obtained by the matriculants in 1989, bearing in mind that the pupils examined then, were a year older than the groups who wrote the paper as part of the experiment.

This examination paper has a distinctly utilitarian approach, both in the choice of texts and in the phrasing of the questions. While this is desirable in an objective test, what is lost is the view of the pupil as respondent. If he is not interested in the content of the paper, if it strikes no chords within him as a person, his performance is unlikely to be his best. In choosing this paper, the researcher overlooked this fact; from an adult point of view, the paper as a whole is interesting, but the adolescent view is not necessarily the same. Quite apart from the difficulty level of the paper, the pupils' responses showed that they were not at ease with the texts and that in some way they felt constrained. This was particularly evident in the summary question.

The following method has been followed in the analysis of the post-test: The Language Programme checklist has been compared with the examination paper in order to ascertain how much of the syllabus has been examined directly. The relevant question numbers have been inserted in Table 7 giving this information, as well as the number of pupils in the experimental group who selected that particular aspect as part of their programme. The results of both the groups have been shown as for the pre-test: the

Language Programme Checklist Matched With Post-test Examination			
	Items On List Examined Directly	Question Numbers	No. of Pupils Who Completed Section. /20
Language in General	A.2 Standard English	(See B3)	1
Features of Style	B.3 Register	4.2.1.(a&b); 4.1.5.(a&b)	9
	B.4 Tone	1.7.2; 4.1.1.(a&b)	14
	B.8 Analysis of arguments	4.1.5.(a&b)	1
	B.10 Pun	6.3;6.4.	16
	B.12 Denotation & Connotation	1.7.1	11
	B.15 Visual Literacy	1.8	4
Back to Basics	C.1 Punctuation	3.1; 3.6-3.10; 5.2.6	16
	C.3 Adjectives and Adverbs	5.2.1; 5.2.2	6
	C.8 Prepositions	5.3.1;-.5.3.3	16
	C.9 Mixed Metaphors	1.5.2;6.5;.6.6	14
	C.13 Tautology and Redundancy	5.2.5.	14
	C.15 Vocabulary	1.2.4;1.2.5;1.6;1.7.2;3.1.3	7
	C.15 (a) Dictionary	5.1.1;5.1.3;5.1.4;5.2.3;5.3.4.	
	C.16 Common Problems	4.1.3.b	6
	C.17 Language Basics: General Revision	3.1.4;4.1.3;	2
Understanding Texts	D.1 Summary and Précis	Question 2	8
	D.5 Advertising	6.8;6.9.	14
Comprehension	E.1-4 Comprehensions	1.1;1.2.1;1.2.2;1.2.3;1.4.1.	16

Table 7

sub-sections requiring explicit knowledge have been separated from those including style; the results of the former have been given as the number of pupils in the group who obtained full marks while the latter has been shown as the total mark obtained for that question. Both have been given as percentages.

Before analysing the sections that were covered by the Language Programme, it is worthwhile looking at those that were not. They included questions on innuendo, literal and figurative meanings of an expression, idioms, an abbreviation and its Latin equivalent, prefixes and suffixes, the reason for the use of the subjunctive and a homophone. Apart from literal and figurative meanings, none of these was specifically dealt with in any of the textbooks. Prefixes and suffixes are usually handled as part of vocabulary extension or as they arise in texts; similarly, figurative language and idiomatic expressions are explained in context. There seems little point in learning lists of these out of context, although idioms and proverbs may merit more intensive attention since their use is not as widespread as it once was and neither the teacher nor the examiner can assume that an expression is 'well-known.' Question 6.2 is a

case in point: the pupils were asked to 'Give the well-known idiom to which the diner (in the cartoon) alludes. The caption reads: 'Oysters followed by the pork. Pearls before swine'. Just 30% of the experimental group and only 15% of the control group knew the idiom. In total, the scores on these questions, which tested either general language knowledge or work done in previous years, were 38,4% and 31,8% (of pupils scoring full marks) for the experimental and the control groups respectively. The total mark for these sections is 26/130 or 20%, thus 80% of the post-test correlated with the Language Programme.

Table 7 reflects how many units of the Language Programme formed the 80%.

In order to provide a broad base for a discussion of the Language Programme, the scores for all the questions listed in Table 7 will be given, not just the best and the worst. They will be shown and discussed according to the section of the programme with which they correlate.

¤ ¤ ¤ ¤ ¤

Features of Style

The results in Table 8 show that register presented little difficulty although only half the pupils had chosen to do the relevant exercises. Similarly, the control group who had also worked on this concept, managed easily. It should be noted, though, that the written communication of both groups could have had as much influence on this result as the language work which they had done.

A: Pupils' style not considered (percentages reflect number of pupils achieving full mark.)			
Feature	**Required by Question**	**Experimental**	**Control**
Register	describe register	90	89,4
	avoid in formal register	95	94,7
Tone	multiple choice	20	15,7
	multiple choice	35	26.3
	quote phrase	5	5,2
Analysis of arguments	review expressing approval	35	52,6
	quote in support	5	5,2
Denotation and connotation	connotation	40	31,5
Visual Literacy	appropriate sketch	80	94,7
B : Style taken into account. Percentages reflect total marks scored.			
Pun	explain play on words (1)	90	68,4
	explain play on words (2) (2egs)	40	50

Table 8

The pupils could not cope with the next concept, tone. In question 1.7.2., where an adjective describing tone was required, only 20% of pupils in the experimental group and 15,7% of the control group achieved full marks. This result is disappointing, considering that 14/20 pupils had elected to do the exercises on tone and the control group had discussed it quite thoroughly when analysing their articles. The question asked was:

> Which of the two following words would best describe the tone of the last two sentences (of the comprehension passage)
>
> sarcastic / flippant / cynical / serious / provocative

Eighteen pupils, nine from each group, selected 'sarcastic' while ten, five from each group, selected 'cynical' the closest distractor from 'flippant' which only five selected (three and two respectively). This shows that 33/39 pupils had realised that the writer's attitude towards his subject was negative, indicating that they understood the concept but were not familiar enough with the term 'flippant' as it was seldom used in the classroom. Multiple choice questions may place too fine a vocabulary distinction and may restrict the pupil if an explanation is not required.

Question 4.1.1 again asked the pupils to decide on the tone of a passage. Both groups were marginally more successful (experimental: 35%; control:26,3%). They were asked to justify their choice but were restricted to choosing a three-word phrase. Although ostensibly tone was being tested, success depended heavily on vocabulary and picking out exactly the right phrase. That the two groups could not do this with any degree of precision shows in the section 'analysis of arguments' where again they had to quote a particular phrase in support, as for the full mark only one possibility was given in the memorandum. Only one pupil in each group managed to be as accurate as the answer demanded. The question arises whether this inability is the direct responsibility of the teacher and the methods used or whether the examiner expected too much, even of a matriculant.

While the fairly straightforward question on visual literacy was handled easily, the failure to perceive the difference in connotation between 'dreams' and 'nightmares' is puzzling. More than half the experimental group had done the exercises on denotation and connotation and had enjoyed them. In addition the question tied in with Orwell's vision in *1984* but only 40% of the experimental group and 31,5% of the control group could answer the question correctly.

The discrepancy between the results of the two questions about puns is also interesting. Practically the whole experimental group (80%) had worked through the worksheet on puns; most managed the first question easily yet the second produced only half as good a mark as the first. It may come back to vocabulary as most did not know what a musician's score was. It is noticeable that there is very little difference between the two groups and that what the one found difficult so did the other despite the difference in teaching methods.

¤ ¤ ¤ ¤ ¤

Back to Basics

Table 9 shows the pupils' results in questions where style is excluded. The questions on punctuation were given as multiple choice items and the experimental group averaged 53,5% (of pupils scoring the full mark) while the control group scored 50,3%. The use of italics has been included in this section as this is usually taught in conjunction with underlining or using inverted commas for titles. Because the latter has become an ingrained habit, 9/39 selected this as the reason for using inverted commas. 13/39 showed that they could apply what they had learned and chose the nearest distractor 'a special use of the word' while only 7/39 recognised the irony. These choices were virtually evenly distributed between the two groups.

A: Pupils' style not considered (percentages reflect number of pupils achieving full mark.)			
Feature	**Required by Question**	**Experimental**	**Control**
Punctuation	use of italics	55	57,8
	use of hyphen	35	31,5
	function of hyphen	60	68,4
	inverted commas	25	15,7
	brackets	60	63
	commas	70	47,3
	use of italics	70	68,4
Adjectives and Adverbs	difference between two adverbs	50	52,6
	reason for incorrect adverb	10	21
Prepositions	use of phrasal verbs (3 examples)	10	15,7
	non-standard use of phrasal verbs	25	36,8
	figurative use of phrasal verbs	15	15,7
Mixed metaphors	mixed metaphors	5	5,2
Tautology and Redundancy	reason for pleonasm	35	21
Vocabulary	multiple choice	50	47,3
	multiple choice	15	5,2
	multiple choice	5	0
	multiple choice	60	57,8
Dictionary	syllable stressed	50	47,3
	derivatives	30	15,7
	use of numbers in dictionary	30	15,7
	capitals in dictionary	35	36,8
Language basics	Participial phrase to subordinate clause	15	10,5

Table 9

The use of the hyphen in 'equal-rights' to form a compound adjective describing 'movement', was correctly answered by 13/39, again evenly distributed between the two groups, being 7 and 6 respectively. The nearest distractor 'compound noun' was chosen by 14/39, 10 and 4 respectively. It appears that most of both groups knew that a hyphen formed a compound word but that the precision was lacking.

This lack of exactness showed in the answers to the question:

> Say whether the word 'regretfully' has been used correctly or not in the following sentence, giving a reason for your answer:
>
> Regretfully, the rain fell too late.

There is less excuse for a lack of precision here as the answer was clearly in the extract given, but, as so often happens under examination conditions, the pupils try to answer from general knowledge which is woefully inadequate.

The idiomatic use of prepositions was asked in a section from *A Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs*. The terminology in the question, (see below) if not in the extract on which it was based, would have confused most pupils. Only when it was pointed out to them that the idiomatic use of prepositions were being tested, did they realise that they had overlooked the obvious:

> 5.3.*Refer to extract C*
>
> 5.3.1. Complete the *phrasal verbs* in the following sentences, using the extract as a guideline. (Write down the missing word only.)
>
> (a) He swam on and on until his strength gave .....
>
> (b) The rotting vegetables gave ..... a powerful odour.
>
> (c) The last week at school was given ..... to revision. (3)
>
> 5.3.2. Give a non-standard meaning (taken from the extract) of the phrasal verb 'give over'. (1)
>
> 5.3.3. Explain why 'I give in; I can't solve this riddle' is cited as a figurative usage of 'give in'. (2)
>
> 5.3.4. What do the words 'usually sep' indicate about the use of the phrasal verb 'give over'1? Give an example of your own using this phrasal verb to substantiate your answer. (2)

The scores are dismal. On average, the experimental group scored 15%; the control group managed fractionally better at 22,7.%

As was pointed out earlier, the knowledge of idioms is not good so there is little likelihood that a mixed metaphor will be successfully disentangled, even though 70% of the experimental group had worked through mixed metaphors and understood the principle. An interesting factor emerged here, which was that those whose home language was mixed could not even cope with the exercises in the classroom simply because they had never heard the expressions before; the 5% and 5,2% accurately reflects the trouble that both mother-tongue and EL2 speakers had with this question.

The syllabus recommends that a definite policy of vocabulary enrichment should be followed at all levels, and the results shown in this test indicate that it is necessary for the pupils to be able to differentiate

between nuances of meaning. Kotze (1989) suggests that classroom practice should include multiple choice items which force the pupil to make finer distinctions between words. Whether this would be more viable than encouraging wider reading is debatable, but it certainly can be added to the teacher's repertoire in teaching vocabulary.

From the control group's point of view, the section on the dictionary was very disappointing. (28,8% on average of pupils attaining full marks) All the concepts that were tested had been taught just a few lessons before the examination. Apparently this was not transferable to an examination situation, possibly because while it had been taught in principle, there had not been an opportunity to reinforce it in ordinary dictionary work in, for instance, the literature lesson. The experimental group managed better, despite having only one page of dictionary work which only 7/20 had done. Their 'success' (36,25%) cannot therefore be attributed to the programme itself.

The results of the questions including style can be seen in Table 10.

Feature	Required by Question	Experimental	Control
Metaphor	explanation of metaphor	32	40
	apt metaphor in headline	71,6	33,3
Dictionary	explanation of 'usually sep.'	32,5	42,1
Understanding Texts			
Summary and Précis	Précis	41,7	32,6
Advertising	aptness of slogan	72,5	47,3
	explanation of misleading homophone	75	34,2
Comprehension	writer's intention	27,5	28,9
	understanding content (Average of 3 questions)	49	47,8

Table 10

The average mark for these sections is 49,98% for the experimental group and 40,2% for the control group. As can be seen from the table, their scores fluctuate considerably even within a particular feature. The précis was badly done, not because the groups did not know the method of summarising, but because they could not sift out the main points given in the memorandum. It is customary for the main ideas to be listed in the memorandum but in this case a complete paragraph was given leaving it to the discretion of the sub-examiner to decide how many marks would be awarded for the sifting process. In this question the marks awarded by the researcher and those given by the sub-examiner differed substantially, because the memorandum appeared to require a more global mark which apparently was not the case and the marks were reduced. Interestingly, the pre-test papers that were moderated showed the opposite with the marks being moderated upwards.

Since the experimental group's average on the paper as a whole, taking all marks into account, was 46,8% (with a range of 26% to 60%) and the control group's average was 40,2% (with a range of 20% to 70,7%) neither can be said to have coped with the post-test successfully, particularly in comparison with the pre-test results of 52,6% (experimental group) and 46,1% (control group), both groups dropping by virtually the same margin (5,8% and 5,9%). The result is that the null hypothesis has been proved; there is no significant difference between using the individualised method and the traditional method. It would appear that the researcher has failed in both methods and one would be justified in coming to this conclusion were it not for the fact that the provincial average for this paper was 45,3%. This fact, unfortunately, was only available to the researcher after the experiment had been completed; the post-test was of too exacting a standard for both groups to be a fair test of their language competence.

One may ask, why go to all the trouble of setting up an individualised programme if it does not show considerably better results? The short answer to this question is that this programme, a pilot study, has shortcomings and as such can be improved upon which is what action research is about. Kemmis (1988) states that a 'self-reflective spiral of cycles of planning, acting, observing, and reflecting is central to the action research approach'. What is needed is reflection on why this study was not academically successful and consideration of the affective elements which make practitioners willing to try individualised work. The next step is to improve the practice until the pupil as an individual, can use and explain his language with precision.

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Summary

The Language Study Programme was undertaken by the two classes as part of their English studies but was not specifically integrated. The hypothesis to be proved by the study was that the individualised programme would not produce results significantly different from the traditional method of teaching English Language.

The research method used was action research in a quasi-experimental design. The Std 9s were divided into two groups as randomly as timetabling constraints permitted and were not matched. One group undertook to complete the Language Programme while the other was taught traditionally. Both wrote the 1986 Senior Certificate Examination (Third Paper) as the pre-test and the pupils' answer papers were analysed with regard to weaknesses in grammatical knowledge according to the specifications of the 1986 Syllabus. The results of this paper showed that the experimental group was marginally stronger than the control group, achieving 52,6% compared to 46,1% on average. Specific problem areas were revealed and used as the basis for teaching the control group in a series of eight double-period lessons. The members of the experimental group were not directed to topics but they were encouraged to do as

much of the programme as possible. The pre-test showed that vocabulary and the wider application of language terms needed attention.

Pupils from both groups kept diaries of the lessons; these reflect their response to the work undertaken Some of the experimental group missed the normal classroom interaction while others enjoyed working on their own. These diarists also show that *Senior Language* was the most popular choice of the three textbooks but this text was not of a high enough standard for the pupils to be adequately prepared for the post-test examination. Some pupils found the *Comprehensive English Practice* and *Insights* texts tedious while others described them as challenging. Since the researcher had emphasised quantity of work to be covered, pupils did not take time to mark enough of their work thus not evaluating their progress and not realising that they needed to work on more challenging material. The diaries of the control group showed that they enjoyed working in small groups discussing errors and features of style, but that whole group work on common errors unrelated to their own work was boring. They also found that the quantity of work they were expected to do was more than they could manage.

Neither group coped easily with the post-test, the experimental group average being 46,8% and the control group 40,2%. These results show that the pupils were not adequately prepared for their examination paper and that the post-test was of too exacting a standard. Much use was made of multiple choice questions thus forcing the pupils to be precise and not giving any leeway for explanation which most pupils seemed to need in order to clarify their statements. The terminology used in some questions was unfamiliar and the pupils did not respond well to the utilitarian approach of the examiners.

From this pilot study, the use of an individualised Language Programme may be questioned as it appears unsuccessful. However, the programme itself was flawed and with improvements such as the extension of resources and the use of tutorial groups, it may achieve more satisfactory academic results.

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Chapter 4

The Pupils

Multicultural Classes

In South Africa, prior to the introduction of the various models, the norm was that a school under the control of the House of Assembly, would have as its pupils white South Africans, either English or Afrikaans speaking. Owing to the policy of encouraging European immigrants, there may also have been children from the United Kingdom or from the mainland of Europe, while the independence of countries to the north of South Africa led to many citizens of Zimbabwe and Mocambique making their home here. Classrooms in South African schools have reflected these policies and movements of people, but by and large there would be at the most only four or five different nationalities represented.

The school at which the experiment took place was unusual in this respect. It had been a Model B type school for the past fourteen years, which means that it had not followed a 'whites only' policy although it was a government school. It was not an open school in the sense that, while other race groups were admitted, this was through selection, rather than on the grounds of their residence in the feeder area. Selection was somewhat arbitrary, as no entrance test was set, and on the whole pupils were the offspring of local white English-speaking families, seconded officials and professionals who were involved in developmental programmes. The staff of the school was appointed according to South African norms, ie all the teachers were white as it was a 'House of Assembly' school.

In 1990, there were thirty-five different nationalities in the school, with pupils coming from as far afield as Nepal, Taiwan and Canada. In the two Std 9 classes, there were pupils from these countries:

U S A:	2	Sri Lanka:	1	U K:	3
Uganda:	2	Ghana:	4	South Africa:	19
Portugal: (or Mocambique)	3	Lesotho :	1	Transkei:	4

Among the nine nationalities listed, there were seven different languages spoken as the mother tongue. These included: English, Afrikaans, Portuguese, Xhosa, Sesotho, Tamil and Twi. Two Ugandan and two Ghanain pupils gave English as their mother-tongue as this was the language of communication between the parents; in each case the mother and father came from different tribes and could not speak the spouse's language. The parents in each family were professionals and spoke English fluently.

While the classes were multicultural, the education at this school was not. The philosophy followed by the school administrators was decidedly assimilationist with the pupils having to adapt to the South African education system. While there was total acceptance of difference, there was no specific allowance made for pupils of different cultures apart from an Annual International Evening, where each group dressed in national costume and served national dishes. There was however, complete integration, in that the children mixed socially as did the parents and the parental support for the school functions came from all. The rules governing the election of the Management Council, however, precluded any but South African Whites from holding office which meant exclusion of other groups from this body, but the Parent Teachers' Association reflected the mix of the school population.

Cohen and Manion (1983), Nixon (1985) and McCarthy (1990) amongst others criticise the assimilationist policy in a multicultural school. It is criticised on the grounds that only the prevailing culture of the majority in the school is taken into account. In this case it is South African, based on Eurocentrism. Referring to white South Africans as the 'majority' is like looking through the wrong end of a telescope as the whites in the country are very much in the minority, but in the situation that pertains here at present, with the white schools now admitting children of other races, the racial mix in the schools still shows a white majority and will do so until there is a new education dispensation. Our schools therefore, for the foreseeable future, face challenges similar to those described in the USA and Britain.

Cohen and Manion (1983) declare that the result of treating all children alike, of being 'colour blind' has been that the very real differences and difficulties facing pupils from other backgrounds have been ignored. In effect, their diverse cultures have been devalued and the majority culture has been set up as the model to which all should aspire. This has been justified in the United States on the grounds of a common citizenship and in Britain on the grounds that 'a national system cannot be expected to perpetuate the different values of immigrant groups' (Commonwealth Advisory Council, 1964, para. 10 quoted by Nixon (1985). The specific problems that arose from the assimilationist philosophy, according to Nixon (1985) were that the black community was defined as a problem which promoted negative views; the blacks were placed at a serious disadvantage because they were required to ignore their own cultural identity and background; it miseducated both black and white children and it was racist insofar as it reflected and communicated the notion of white cultural superiority.

These problems were not immediately apparent in the school under discussion. In the first place, the Black and Asian pupils were not seen as a language 'problem' because competence in English was a prerequisite for admission. This overcame a major hurdle and right from the first year that the school was opened to other races, the black pupils were by and large, able to cope. However, the other criticisms listed by Nixon hold true because, in order to attend this school the black children had to suppress their own cultures. They were, they felt, privileged to be at this school with the noticeable result that criticism of the system in general, or the school administration in particular was seldom voiced, that in itself being a false representation of the true state of affairs. The same constraints did not operate on the white children who were far more secure in their position and therefore, within the limits of the South African

authoritarian system, could state their opinions. It must not be thought that the school body was obviously discontented; only after a while did it become apparent that the black children were unusually compliant.

Since the policy of assimilation has been found to be neglectful of the minority cultures in the total school population multicultural education has been advocated by, amongst others, Tiedt and Tiedt (1979), Twitchin and Delmuth (1981) and Cohen and Manion (1983). The concept 'multicultural' has escaped exact definition but broadly its aim is to recognise the diversity of society and to ensure that other cultures are valued and respected as much as the majority culture. The Rampton Report (DES 1981) stated that 'the intention of multicultural education is simply to provide all children with a balanced education which reflects the nature of our (British) society' (quoted by Modgil et al 1986, P.12). In order to achieve this, the liberal educators advocated compensatory programmes where there were deficiencies and curriculum changes to allow for the study of other cultures.

Critics of this approach maintain that it is largely tokenism and that where compensatory programmes have been implemented they have not been successful in eliminating the deficits experienced by the pupils of the minority cultures. To a large extent this has been attributed to decreases in government spending on these programmes, but there is also the school of thought that the real problems were not being addressed. Criticism came from two sources. Within the mainstream of education it came from what McCarthy (1990) calls the Neo-Conservatives. These are both black and white educationists who criticise the pluralist approach to multicultural education on the grounds that it is divisive and that there is no necessity to include other cultures in the national curriculum as supplementary schools or centres can fulfil this need, much on the same lines as the Sunday School movement did in the last century. Black Neo-Conservatives see the liberal approach as encouraging of a 'victim' mentality, where excuses are easily made for lack of achievement, while they would like to see schools become centres of excellence where merit is the only criterion. In this last sentiment, they are supported by the white Neo-Conservatives who are concerned that the Americans are losing economic ground to the Japanese because the curriculum in the USA is becoming so diluted by the attention being given to what they think are peripheral issues, that the basics are being neglected.

McCarthy (1990) points out that the black Neo-Conservatives are usually members of the middle class rather than the working class. This conservatism was evident in the school in which the experiment was conducted, and affected the English class mainly in terms of the parents' aspirations for their children. In some of the Xhosa homes, the pupils were discouraged from speaking their mother tongue unless there were people present who could not understand English. Some pupils too, had never learned to read or write Xhosa as the parents' perception was that in the wider community this would be of little use to them. The Ghanain and Ugandan homes mentioned earlier shared this opinion and were untroubled by the fact that the children would have difficulty communicating with their grandparents or other relatives on visits to their home countries. These pupils were also determined to stay on Higher Grade, although they struggled, and low marks were unacceptable both to them and to their parents. The pupils

themselves were determined to master English sufficiently well to be able to attend university and it was seldom the black pupils who had to be corrected on matters of register.

Their determination to succeed had to be accommodated and it can be appreciated that the needs of these pupils were different in many instances from those of the mother-tongue English speakers. There were no compensatory programmes available and the individualised programme was seen to be a way through the problem. The pilot study has shown that the resources need to be expanded not wholly dependent on textbook or worksheet resources and they should take cognizance of cultural difference if possible. Watson (1981) describes three phases of English speakers among those who do not have it as their mother tongue. The first two phases include those who have the most basic understanding to those 'whose understanding and production of spoken and written English in social and educational situations are enough to begin participating in and meeting the language demands of some class activities' while third phase learners are:

> Those who function at levels similar to comparable native speakers but who unexpectedly cannot meet the language demands of some specific situations. (P.94.)

The area where this was most evident was in the knowledge of idiomatic English and in allusions to nursery rhymes and tales. In an expansion of the individualised programme, headlines and magazine articles which presumed such knowledge could be collected over a period of time and the pupils given the opportunity to see whether they understood the allusions. They could then be directed into reading the appropriate tales. This may sound somewhat juvenile for this age group, but it could have been allied to a project already undertaken by these pupils; the writing of original tales suitable for small children. The reading considered necessary for the appropriate language and style of the project was undertaken with good humour, not to mention a fair amount of interest. This reading was for a specific purpose, but it goes without saying that a wide reading programme would be the ideal solution to the problem of exposure to the English language in all its complexity.

In the USA and Britain, the radical educators have also attacked the pluralist approach to multicultural education. The Marxists ally the racial problem to the class struggle in society and see education as part of the wider struggle for an egalitarian society. Both Banks (1986) and McCarthy (1990) discuss the radicals' criticism, and observe that while they attack the theory on a number of issues, they have not developed strategies to deal with the problem. This is probably as a result of thinking that the organisation of the school has its power base in the capitalistic system and that the schools cannot be agents of change because they are part of the problem. Both Banks and McCarthy concede that these Neo-Marxists have a valid point to make, but in concentrating on class structure they are not taking all factors into account, even race is not the pivotal part of their argument against multicultural education.

Although McCarthy considers himself part of the radical movement, he takes the issues involved considerably further. He advocates a 'Non-synchronous' approach to the problem of race in education.

He maintains, along with the Neo-Marxists, that race and class are interwoven in society, but he considers gender too:

> These dynamics of race, class and gender are interwoven, in an uneven manner, into the social fabric of the institutions and structures of American society – in the educational system, the economy and the state. This uneven interaction of race with other variables, namely class and gender – a process that I have called nonsynchrony – is a practical matter that defines the daily encounter of minority and majority actors in institutional and social settings. (P.117.)

He reports that the dynamics of sex and class can be dominant over race, which is evident in the discussion above of the parents opting for a Eurocentric education for their children, and the subjugation of their own culture in the bid for upward mobility in a society that pays scant attention to the different cultures that constitute that society. He also quotes research by Grant (1984) that the teachers observed in her study unconsciously adopted stereotyped attitudes to black girls, and assigned 'caring' roles to them or placed them in the non-academic stream. This report is somewhat surprising when compared with the school in which the experiment took place. Because many of the black pupils showed a high degree of motivation and ability, they were actively encouraged in their studies by the teaching staff. At present, the first three places in the two classes, are held by coloured and black pupils, two of them girls. There are of course, those who do not achieve as highly, but at no stage in the researcher's experience were the expectations for black girls lower or different from those for their white counterparts. However, the staff were particularly pleased when black pupils achieved, as their teachers were aware of the difficulties many had had to overcome. In this group two pupils came in the top hundred of the 1990 English Olympiad – neither of them white, and both are expected to achieve A symbols in their English matriculation examination.

McCarthy is, however, right to draw our attention to the pressures inherent in a mixed society and there is no doubt that we in South Africa are going to be increasingly exposed to them. It is unlikely that the Eurocentric education system as we know it now will continue to dominate the educational scene as it has too narrow a base and serves too small a section of the population. Whether the dynamics of class will be dominant over race and whether the class to dominate will be the middle class remains to be seen. As far as English teaching is concerned, there will be the need of the Standard language for the academically orientated pupils but it is unlikely that their needs will prevail over those of the rest of the population. Interviewed in 1989, the poet Mfika Gwala had this to say about using English and writing as 'a cultural weapon':

> Partly it implies national literature as opposed to 'art' literature, popular language as opposed to 'purist' language. The objective is to place imagination and suavity before purity and precision. Therefore, it means what the black imagination can do with the English language through the metaphorical language of ghetto and rural blacks. Also, it means exploring the potentialities of the English language within the Third World context. Is the small 'freedom' conceded to writers not, at times, a proof of our cultural failure? The workers need freedom as well. How literate are they? Why should I write for the already convinced, converting the converted? Literature should not be the refrigerated food of bourgeois culture. (P.74.)

Clearly Gwala is speaking from a Marxist perspective, but his attitude to English in this country is likely to be shared by others. The English teacher will have to be a master of a wide repertoire of teaching styles and resources if the variety of learning needs is going to be met.

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The Pupils' Response to the Language Programme

Whatever the teacher decides to include in his repertoire, he needs to be very clear as to why he is introducing a particular method into his teaching. Davies (1987), in his discussion of individualised learning, shows that it can be selected for two major reasons. Either the teacher wants to concentrate on the product or he is more interested in the process. In other words, he hopes that the pupils will either be able to do something better as a result of their learning or that they will have learnt how to work on their own. In the light of this thinking, the programme undertaken by these Std 9 classes was primarily for the improved knowledge of the product, making allowances for different capabilities within a mixed group. What they learned about themselves and their learning style was more incidental although it was hoped at the outset that they would enjoy a certain amount of autonomy and working at their own pace.

In order to determine the pupils' response to the programme a method of triangulation was used. This, as has been stated, included all pupils responding to the various exercises as they did them, diaries of three volunteers in each group, the observation of a teaching colleague during one lesson of each group and questionnaires administered after the post-test to the experimental group. The discussion that follows will be based on the questionnaires, with reference being made to the diaries and the class observation where these are relevant.

The questionnaire (Appendix G) contained twenty-four items, twenty-two of which were open-ended so that the pupils were free to answer as they pleased. Honesty was stressed and the pupils were requested to express negative views, as any limit on their self-expression would adversely affect the reporting of the programme. The anonymous nature of the questionnaire assisted in this regard but it cannot be ruled out that, because the researcher was so well-known to them, that some may have censored their answers. Even making allowances for that, the response to the programme was overwhelmingly positive as the discussion will show.

When the experiment was introduced to them, they were asked what they thought Language Study was. The answers were largely that it was 'Nouns and verbs and all that', with a few more knowledgeable souls venturing punctuation and figures of speech. Some of the answers to the same question after the programme were far more sophisticated:

> I would define Language Study as the study of all the important aspects in language.
> It is the learning of principles and rules of a particular language.

Language Study is learning all aspects of language and understanding it all.

It is the study of the use of language, how it is derived and the numerous parts of speech and the role they play.

Each of these answers demonstrates a breadth that was not apparent prior to the programme. However, some were far more limited and one had not budged from the earlier position:

"Language Study" is the studying of the English Language using worksheets and exercises to help us understand the way in which the language works.

A study of the different parts of speech and the rules that go with them.

These answers showed the extent to which the pupils had grasped the purpose of the programme and whether they felt it had changed anything for them. The pupil whose answer showed the least response had other fairly interesting comments to make, showing that he was an independent thinker, (albeit a somewhat flippant one) and incidentally suggesting a valid route for further individualised work. He said that he had decided not to do the exercises applying the principles, that he had made notes and had done the work 'in his head'. This may be quite valid for pupils of above average ability.

The rest of the questionnaire, although it was not divided into sections, dealt with different aspects of the programme and these can be grouped as follows: Enjoyment; Selection of items; Answers; Learning; Time; Integration; Traditional teaching.

The term 'enjoy' is relative as one wag showed in his answer to the question of whether he had enjoyed the programme: 'Not really. Well just like any other school work. I'd rather be surfing or even sick in bed.' Unlike him, the rest of the pupils took the question seriously. Of these, fourteen of the nineteen respondents (one was absent) reacted positively, most stressing the autonomy of the programme while others reacted to the content:

The question was: Did you enjoy doing the programme? Why?

Yes I did. I thought that it was fulfilling and also I gained some satisfaction from it because I was left on my own to do my own thing.

The programme was enjoyable as it was easy doing it myself. I could use my own examples and methods rather than a teacher's which at times are confusing or tedious.

Yes, I did because I found that choosing worksheets on things I did not know about, made them easier to understand.

Yes, it taught me alot. The examples on each exercise were clear and understandable.

Those who reacted negatively, were able to give valid reasons for their answers too:

Not particularly. I find that I learn more easily when the class at first does the work together, rather than each on her own. It is much more interesting when the work is dealt with orally and in writing.

Most of the time I did because the exercises were interesting. The times I did not enjoy it were when I was not in the mood for English but I knew I had to do some.

> Not really. I suppose if it had been given to us at a different time of the year and there was more time, it would have been more enjoyable.

Berry (1986) describes learners as being Field Independent and Field Dependent and gives the characteristics of each. The first group prefers working in social situations and is usually more language and humanities orientated, while the Field Independent group inclines more towards the sciences, prefers analytical work and enjoys learning on its own. It is clear from the statements given above that there are those who find taking responsibility for their own learning enjoyable, but to many of the others the programme was something of a novelty and once that had worn off, they were quite happy to return to whole and small-group lessons. This was demonstrated by the offer to leave the programme in the classroom for another term so that those who had not had an opportunity to complete it, could do so in a more relaxed manner. However, few availed themselves of the offer and interest dwindled as the time passed.

Davies (1987) states that this is a common phenomenon; while the person who has advocated the new method is actively involved in it, enthusiasm waxes, but as soon as that person moves on, even if others ('disciples' as Davies calls them) have expressed interest, the method becomes diluted until it fades into oblivion. He further suggests that the reason for this may well be lack of interest, but it can also be that teachers actively oppose the new method because their expertise in other methods has produced good results. Any method introduced needs to show that it is really worthwhile before it is wholeheartedly accepted, but this can only be shown over a longer period of time, not from a pilot study only.

The response to the question 'Which section did you do first?' would have pleased most conservative educators as more than half the group selected Section C: Back to Basics. The popularity of this choice suggests that there is a realisation that concepts have been imperfectly learned in the past and that there is a need for revision. One pupil stated in answer to the question, 'From which section did you learn the most?' that he had learnt most from this section, saying: 'There are some important features that I had forgotten which teachers no longer review,' while another reported: 'There were many things in this section that I thought I knew, but didn't really know, and that is why I learned the most from this one.'

Similar comments were made by those who felt they had learned the most from Section B : Features of Style. A common emphasis was that the features listed were known vaguely and that having worked through the exercises, the pupils felt that they had a better grasp of the concepts. These responses were satisfying in that this had been one of the main aims of the programme. However, transferability is a problem as, if the pupils had consolidated their knowledge of the concepts sufficiently, they ought to have been able to recognise them in other contexts. As discussed in Chapter 3, the pupils needed to be guided to more challenging levels in the programme in order to be able to do this. In addition, a wider range of resources needed to be offered so that the pupil could see, for example, irony, in an article, a cartoon, a bumper sticker or a newspaper headline and come to realise that it is not only evident in Mark Antony's oration or in *Gulliver's Travels*.

There are conflicting claims in the literature about individualised programmes and time. While Dickinson (1987) and Waterhouse (1988) state that pupils working as individuals actually save time, Davies (1987) states that this is not so and that each pupil takes longer to cover the required ground. There are elements of truth in both arguments. Setting up and administering a programme is time consuming for both the teacher and the pupil while the evaluative checks and consultations make further demands. On the other hand, the able pupil does not have to wait for the slower one and can cover more ground in less time. His queries can be answered quickly and he can continue without further ado. The slower pupil is not expected to do as much and need not feel that he is wasting the time of the class when he needs extra explanation. In order to ascertain how the pupils felt about time and the programme, they were asked the following questions:

- ◊ How much time do you think you spent on the programme on average per week?
- ◊ Could you have done more?
- ◊ Did you feel under pressure to complete the work?
- ◊ Did you find the double lesson (70 min) too long?
- ◊ Would you have preferred two single lessons on separate days? Explain your answer.
- ◊ Would you have preferred the programme to have extended over two terms? Explain your answer.

These questions represent a quarter of the questionnaire, showing the researcher's preoccupation with time and completion of the work. A question which ought to have been included was the obvious one: Do you feel that you have saved time by working in this way? Unfortunately that was omitted, but the researcher's own perception together with the diaries and the observation can shed some light.

While working through the stylistic features of various newspaper and magazine articles with the control group, the researcher was aware of a feeling of helplessness, noticing how the faster readers had to wait some time for the slower ones and knowing that the experimental group, over the same time period, was working through a far wider range of features than was possible with the control group. The observer noted the ability differences: 'Pupil stretches and is obviously finished – gazes out of window' and 'Another pupil impatiently waiting for the rest of his article.' These two had to wait almost fifteen minutes for the rest of the class to complete the reading that was required. However, in thinking about the able pupils, one is inclined to overlook the weaker ones. One of the diarists had this to say about the same lesson:

> This was an embarising period. Each person was handed a newspaper cliping. We had to read all the newspaper clipings in our group and then enalise one of the newspaper clipings. I must admit, I am not the best reader, and when we had to read our clippings, the other people had read all the clippings while I was still reading.

Time was required with each small group within the control class to discuss, particularly, the use of figures of speech in what the pupils considered to be 'ordinary writing', as they associated figurative language with literature only. The observer noted that the groups needed considerable help, the researcher having to circulate from group to group throughout the remainder of the lesson, although some queries just needed arbitration if there was a dispute. The teachers's help was not needed by all; another of the diarists showed her group's independence:

> Having read our own article we had to read the other 3 articles, then we had to work in groups and boy was that fun it's funny how two people can disagree on one silly thing, but that was quietly overcome, we used a dictionary and found the correct answer. It was fun, today.

Just this one lesson showed clearly that different pupils require varying amounts of time. The answers to the question asking how much time per week was spent on the Language Programme substantiate this statement. Six estimated that they spent between one and two hours a week, while seven thought their average was three to four hours. Two gave '10 minutes' and 'twice a week' as their answer while three spent five to nine hours , one deciding on a different rate – a packet a day. Only one respondent felt that she could not have done more than she did. It is apparent that time was not the only consideration here; interest and motivation to complete the programme played their part too.

How the group perceived their time, showed in the answers to the question 'Did you feel under pressure to complete the work? Explain your answer.' Not surprisingly the two who had put in the most time felt the least pressure:

> No, not really. I completed it for my own benefit.
>
> Not really because I managed to do something per day and at weekends I would do more if I had time.

Most of the other answers showed the realisation that the freedom to work at one's own pace entails a certain amount of responsibility:

> Yes, I had not spent much time on the programme and realised that only later.
>
> Yes. Not from the teacher but more out of self-satisfaction.
>
> Yes, because I waited until the last minute.
>
> Yes. I was under my own pressure. I had to work for myself.

The observer's notes on the experimental group showed why most of them were quite happy with the double period being used for the Programme rather than two singles. She recorded that within five minutes the pupils were working on the packets they had selected and that for the first twenty minutes they worked steadily, although they apparently felt free to discuss the packets they had selected. There was a certain amount of movement during the lesson, twenty changes of worksheet and four moving to consult either a dictionary or a thesaurus. Halfway through the period there was a general lapse of attention with most of the groups taking a 'chat break' but settling down to work for the next twenty minutes after which concentration and interest diminished. The answers to the question asking whether

a double or two single lessons were preferred showed that the majority felt they achieved more in the double period as they could work without interruption.

This seems to presuppose that all the pupils were interested and self-motivated but this was not necessarily so. In answer to the question, 'Did you work from interest, duty or both?' no pupils selected the option 'worked out of interest', while seventeen selected 'interest and duty' and two 'duty' only. Rainbow (1987) and Waterhouse (1988) both comment on maintaining interest and motivation because they are aware that the adolescent has interests which appeal to him far more than his schoolwork. They therefore suggest working in small groups to satisfy the social needs of the pupils and tutorials to monitor progress and make sure that the initial interest is continually renewed. One of the diarists realised that this was something of a problem:

> These past periods have actually been quite different than the periods and lessons we have had before. Before, everyone worked together on the same exercise and were thus motivated to do some work. I don't think that this method of teaching motivates or is effective for some students. They think that since there is nobody pushing them, they work at their own pace, a slow pace, and they don't get anywhere.

A valid point is raised here. While an individualised programme may appear to cater for the needs of the individuals, it does not take into account those who prefer to be taught as part of a whole group. Dunn and Griggs (1988) describe a movement that appears to be gaining ground in the USA, that of ascertaining a pupil's 'learning style'. While this may be dismissed as idealistic, pandering to the whims of the pupils, they report that in the schools where this has been taken seriously, the drop-out rate, the absentee rate and the academic results have improved dramatically. They do not give a description of the testing that is done to deduce which learning style is appropriate, but in their introduction give an outline of what learning style is:

> Learning style is a biologically and developmentally imposed set of characteristics that make the same teaching method wonderful for some and terrible for others. It describes the way a classroom would be organised to respond to individual needs for quiet or noise, bright or soft illumination, temperature differences, seating arrangements, mobility needs or grouping preferences....Learning style also considers motivation, on-task persistence, or the need for multiple assignments simultaneously, the kind and amount of structure required, and conformity versus non-conformity levels. (P.3.)

This appears to be the educational equivalent of Versailles but in the case histories given, Dunn and Griggs mainly describe schools in small towns where neither funding nor amenities were adequate. What is required is the enthusiasm of the staff, preferably including the school or district administration and teachers who are prepared to innovate in order to reach the desired goals. Individualisation is just one of the learning styles, but in introducing it the teacher is beginning to make allowances for differences among his pupils.

Since 1986, the principle of integration has been followed in the English syllabus, with the result that language issues would be discussed in predominantly Literature periods and vice versa. There was a mixed reaction by the pupils to the question: 'Do you prefer having periods set aside for Language or would you prefer to have Language taught as it arises in Literature or Oral or Original Writing periods?

Please explain your answer.' The class was divided into three roughly equal groups on this question and an example of the standpoint of each is given:

> I would prefer it as it arises in literature or oral, because that way, we can apply it to our work. We can associate language with the other parts of English Study and this makes it much easier to understand.
>
> Both, because during periods set aside for language you learn the theory behind it but to have language taught as it arises would show us how it is used in practice.
>
> Yes. If we were taught language as it arose I would become at least a little confused because I would need to concentrate on both the language and the literature. I think it would be best if we were taught the language first and then apply what we know to the literature in a short time so we can still concentrate on the literature.

Despite their seemingly different viewpoints there is a common thread – that of application. Only one person tried to isolate language from the rest of his English classes: 'It would be better to have a language period and language books. I find it easier to learn out of a book than having to look for the language in poems etc.' What is apparent is that the pupils came to realise themselves that the purpose of Language Study was its application to the understanding and use of English but they also seem to understand that there is a body of knowledge that they do have to master and remember.

When questioned about working on the individualised programme compared to being taught by traditional methods, there was complete consensus of opinion. This was that some of the work should be taught traditionally, particularly those aspects which required discussion, while other areas could be set aside for individual work. Many assigned the individual work to revision, feeling that it would give them a chance to consolidate what had been explained in class but that different pupils would have different needs in this regard. However, others suggested that some new work could be done on an individual basis as it was interesting to work alone and explore new ideas.

It is not often that we ask the pupils whom we teach, just what they think of the way they are being taught, but certainly we could do it more often. These young people have shown themselves to be fairly mature in their appraisal and there is much that has been expressed that the teacher would be wise to note. What about the teacher? Where does he stand in all this? The main focus in education today is on the learner but the teacher plays a vital role in creating the circumstances in which the pupil can learn.

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The Teacher

McArthur (1983) writes:

> Whatever facilitates the mysterious process of learning is what we are always after: to fit the course to the students and their real needs, rather than to fit the student to an unyielding procrustean bed of a course. (P.105.)

This statement places the student right in the centre of the learning process; the very use of the word 'student' in place of pupil, emphasises the changed relationship between teacher and taught. Dixon (1975) reports that learner-centred education was the single most important principle to emerge from the Dartmouth Conference in 1966. However, in maintaining this centrality, the teacher has to achieve a very delicate balance between himself and his pupil. Rosen (1982), Thornton (1986) and Barnes (1986) all refer to the barriers which can exist between teacher and pupil in language, style and in the presentation of literature. Barnes particularly, is concerned at the language level used by the teacher in the classroom, which may be very different from that understood and used by the pupil in other circumstances. Thornton takes this thought further and refers to the experiences and values which the child brings to school, while Rosen draws attention to the unspoken as well as the spoken language. Referring to Chris Searle's *Stepney Words*, where the attempt to break down the barriers 'made the sparks fly' he asks the provoking question:

> To broaden that attempt to include all the minority children in our schools must mean that there will be sparks galore. Are we prepared for that? (P. 23.)

These writers show that placing the pupil in the centre makes demands on the teacher which he may not be fully prepared to meet, but in making the attempt, he is breaking down traditional barriers and creating more favourable circumstances for learning. This is one of the basic principles on which individualised learning rests; the pupil can begin from where he is; he does not need to make a quantum leap to where the teacher is before he makes any progress, but the teacher has to make the effort to determine what the pupil actually knows.

If the teacher knows his pupils and bears in mind the structure of what he wants to impart, he will be in a good position to judge when certain ideas are likely to be effective and well received. Dixon (1975) maintains that the effective teacher operates on these two levels and that his skill is shown when he chooses the right moment to teach a concept as it will then have meaning for the pupil. Knowledge of his subject has always been of paramount importance to the teacher and much of his recognition comes from the social perception of the knowledge that he has. Barnes (1986) differentiates between the Transmission and the Interpretive teachers: Transmission teachers, in his view, attach importance to a 'body of authoritative knowledge with its associated values and criteria' and the pupils written work tests this, while the Interpretive teacher sees written work as giving the learner the opportunity of making sense of what he has been taught. There is no question that both types of teacher should know their subject but the approach to the learner is different. The Transmission teacher can be seen to be subject or teacher-centred whereas the Interpretative teacher is learner-centred. Percival (1988) is critical of the teacher-centred approach:

> It is generally true that teacher-centred strategies at most levels of education encourage neither intellectual curiosity nor an individual student's responsibility for organizing and planning his or her learning. (P.38.)

This view is corroborated by Britton (1986) who writes that being 'an authority on Jane Austen does not make us an authority over Tom, Dick or Jane.' (P126.)

If one takes the subject knowledge as a *sine qua non,* one needs to look at what the teacher does with this knowledge. Whether he holds that the knowledge he has and to which he is constantly adding, is the ideal to which the pupils must aspire, or whether he allows the pupils to experiment and explore until they have gained the knowledge he has guided them towards, one fact is vitally important. This is, as Allen (1980) and Holbrook (1988) state, that the teacher must demonstrate his knowledge. Allen says that he must show 'a lively curiosity and awareness of English as a force in his life' (P.106) while Holbrook maintains that 'teachers need to gain a love of language by responding to literature and becoming excited themselves about using words.' (P.114.)

The training that a student receives in preparation for the teaching styles described above, would need to be both intensive and extensive. Adams (1986) describes a course at Cambridge in which the students are prepared both for the subject and for their pupils. He records that the students are asked to examine their reasons for wanting to teach English and they are shown that their prospective pupils are likely to be very different from themselves in their perception of the subject English. This is valuable as too few commentators on the teaching of English, focus on the calibre of learner that the teacher is likely to face. The ideal of learner-centred education is laudable, but often the lack of motivation of many students is overlooked. English in South Africa is a compulsory subject to matriculation level, with the result that the teacher is faced not only with a wide ability range but a wide range of motivation too. The teacher has to be prepared for those who do not share his interest in reading or poetry or drama or writing but he may not allow himself to become cynical and despondent because even in the least responsive class there is so often a sudden flare of interest.

It is important for the prospective teacher to develop a philosophy of teaching which embraces his own attitude to the subject but which places at the centre those with whom he will explore a common language. He will appear to be teaching them but he will come to realise that in the classroom the teacher learns the most. This continual learning process is the basis for innovation not for its own sake, but in order to explore methods through which the pupils' interest and expertise are improved. The English teacher in South Africa has to be prepared to create new learning opportunities for the student body he will be helping to meet the challenge of the future. These challenges include the appreciation of other cultures, a more flexible approach to the content of the subject English and the creation of optimum learning conditions for a wide range of pupils.

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Summary

Multicultural education is in the process of being explored in a number of countries. While the assimilationist policy has been largely discredited, the critics cannot agree on the best method to deal with the diverse cultures found in many classrooms. The liberal educators advocate a pluralist approach in which each culture is given equal value and time is taken to explore cultural and language differences. The Neo-Conservatives consider this to be divisive and think that attention should be given to basic skills rather than cultural diversity. Both the above schools of thought are scorned by the Neo-Marxists who maintain that an egalitarian society has to be created before any reform of curricula can take place. McCarthy (1990) advocates a non-synchronous approach where the forces of class, race and gender are taken into account as they arise in each community. In South Africa, the teacher will be faced with pressure from people of all shades of opinion, but it will be some time before multicultural education takes a decisive course.

Increasingly, the pupils in South Africa will want a say in their education. The questionnaire showed that this small group was capable of articulating its opinion and of reasonably mature judgements. The students' voices need to be heard and considered but the teacher's role cannot be overlooked. He will have to adapt his style to the changing circumstances without compromising his rationale of education. The English teacher in particular, has to be trained to cope with a wide range of language needs which places responsibility on the training institutions. They need to ensure that the prospective teacher is neither inflexible nor dogmatic in the face of a very different student population.

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Chapter 5

Conclusions and Recommendations

The teacher in South Africa faces a number of challenges and the teacher of English will possibly have the most demanding task. Hitherto, he has dealt largely with a fairly homogeneous group sharing the same culture and language. He now has to deal with pupils who come from very different backgrounds and whose needs in the English class may vary from communication on a basic level to preparation for university English. The teacher's problem arises in that there is unlikely to be funding for differentiation of classes initially and he may well have to cope with many levels of learning within one classroom. Financial constraints may operate on the supply of resources too, placing a further burden upon him.

The English First Language Syllabus for the Senior Secondary phase allows for English to be taught on the Higher, Standard and Lower Grades, but it has been compiled with the English mother-tongue speaker in mind and makes no reference to pupils for whom English is a second language That is not to say that English as a second language has not been developed in this country, as it is the second language of speakers of the other official language, Afrikaans, but the division of schools into English and Afrikaans medium has meant that English as a second language has not been offered in the English medium schools. The three grades do offer some differentiation, but by and large the Standard and Lower Grades are watered-down versions of the Higher Grade syllabus, calling only for language accuracy and requiring less insight. There is very little scope for the active development and progression of pupils initially placed on these grades.

These syllabuses are all divided into these four components:

- ◊ Oral Communication
- ◊ Reading and Literature Study
- ◊ Written Communication
- ◊ Language Study

but the principle of integration is stressed. As discussed in Chapter 3, the integration of the knowledge of language terminology is not sufficiently well delineated, leaving the individual teachers or English departmental heads to decide on the policy which they will adopt. The decision that must be taken is whether to undertake the study of language only with its application to the three other components in mind , or to teach Language Study as a body of knowledge for its own sake. The teacher, or English department head, taking this decision, has to choose very carefully as it will affect the time the teacher devotes to the Language Study component, and the emphasis in his teaching on the whole.

David Holbrook (1988) maintains that learning the language for its own sake is 'peddling the fallacy' that one can know the facts of the language and thus become a master of its expression. He uses the analogy of the bicycle: one learns to ride the bicycle by 'dwelling in' the bicycle not by learning about its parts and their functions and he scorns the Kingman Report's statement that it is 'as important to teach about the structure of English as about the structure of the atom'. His objection to the analogy stems from his belief that explicit knowledge about the language does not improve its use, but Venter (1975), the syllabus compilers and the 'back to basics' movement for economic expedience challenge this view.

In the middle is the teacher. Unless he develops a very clear rationale for himself, he is going to find that he is constantly pushed from one point of view to the other and that his teaching simply reflects the pressures exerted from outside the classroom. This does not mean that he has to be dogmatic about his point of view, but what he teaches must be defensible, both from the learner's perspective and from his belief in the subject as a whole. In order to develop this, Teachers' Centres need to promote discussion groups and debates so that the teacher is exposed to the thinking of others and this may help to clarify his own thoughts. In addition, there needs to be far more debate in the professional journals by the leaders in the field, particularly the academics involved in research and training. It is important that the journals that are widely circulated are used as channels of information; academics writing for other academics are short-changing the practitioners.

The major premise of this thesis is that individualised instruction is a method which can profitably be used in the English classroom. The experiment conducted showed a number of flaws in the pilot study and challenged the initial assumption that the pupils would perform better academically if they undertook part of their own learning. The post-test did not show the expected result, but a number of conclusions can be drawn from the experiment itself. The first and possibly most important, is that although the experimental group did not pull ahead of the control group in the post-test examination, they held their ground, showing that while the individualised programme does not produce substantially better results than the traditional method, it is nonetheless a viable alternative. This raises exciting possibilities for the teacher facing a class whose members have very different needs. It means that he can devise programmes for small groups of pupils who have similar requirements and as Rainbow (1987) and Waterhouse (1988) recommend in their Supported Self-Study programmes treat these as tutorial groups whom he can help to realise their objectives, which may be very different from those of another group. This again opens more possibilities as the content of the programmes can be negotiated with these tutorial groups thus increasing the the autonomy of the pupils.

There is no need for all, or even a major part of the English programme to be handled in this way. The teacher can decide whether a section of literature or an oral presentation or the bulk of the Language Study could be handled competently by the pupils on their own. It depends largely on the class he has to teach. He may find that there are those who need to be guided solely by the teacher, in which case the others could be directed to autonomous learning while he teaches the group needing his particular attention. The possibilities would be endless if the teacher's time and resources were not finite.

As shown by Eshel (1990) in his study of Israeli schools, individualised instruction is most effective where the school administration supports it. This is shown in the consideration of different learning styles by Dunn and Griggs (1987) who also show that the authority structure of the school influences the success rate of a particular method. In South African schools there is a policy of in-service training conducted by the head teachers on a regular basis. This time may be devoted to any aspect that the principal thinks the staff should give attention; in the most recent past this has been the challenge that the schools will face on admitting pupils from other race groups, during the period that the models are more widely accepted as an interim measure until the new educational dispensation comes into force. Part of this social challenge could be a renewed look at different methods of teaching where the staff are actively encouraged to make allowance for difference and the resource centre developed to become the pivotal point of the school. Large-scale innovation overnight is not the objective. Waterhouse operates on the principle that 'small is beautiful' and this could well be adopted by our schools. The major point is that in a changing environment, the tried and tested methods may not be appropriate or even effective and there should be active encouragement of teachers to make their practice more flexible and accommodating. There will be mistakes, as this pilot study shows, but as long as the pupils are not actively harmed by the errors, they can be shown that in order to learn one has to be prepared to make mistakes; that often they show the way to new possibilities.

Davies (1987) refers disparagingly to individualised learning based on 'interminable worksheets' and far more approvingly of a variety of resources. The experimental group diarists hinted that working entirely alone with the worksheets could become monotonous. Fortunately, the experimental programme was relatively short and only encompassed part of the class' total work for the term. If this had not been the case, the pupils themselves would have referred to the 'interminable worksheeets'. Since individualised work is largely dependent on resources, the teacher who undertakes this method has to be critically aware of the resources he employs. In the pilot study undertaken, textbooks were the only resource used. That they had some value was illustrated by the comments made about them by the pupils. They also had their limitations particularly as their original design did not envisage autonomous learning. The discussion of the textbooks in Chapter 2 shows that the teacher needs to evaluate the level of difficulty of each text and to judge which section of the textbook would lend itself to individualised use. The texts most often criticised for their fragmentation are those which can be most profitably used, especially for remedial exercises. For unfamiliar work, the teacher has to be more careful as the units compiled need to be stimulating, yet not too unwieldy. Textbooks certainly provide the most convenient starting-point and as funding is likely to be stretched to its limits over the next few years at least, dividing texts into learning packets would seem to be economical. The creative teacher need not stop there. Using the existing learning packets as a base, he can add to them articles of interest and directions to other media available on the school premises. This is where it is essential to have the head teachers' support for autonomous learning so that the Media Teacher 's help can be actively enlisted. However, the classroom teacher cannot expect media to be available to him at short notice; neither can he expect that what he requires will be in stock. He needs to make a very careful survey of the Media Centre noting what he

can use to usefully enhance the learning packets that he plans to construct. From the foregoing comments, it can be appreciated that the teacher cannot embark on any form of individualised work unless he has prepared it thoroughly.

The actual operation of the programme also requires careful planning. Resources need to be packaged properly, they need to be freely available and their housing needs to be accessible. All this is the direct responsibility of the teacher but he can enlist the help of his pupils as their constructive criticism can help to improve the operation of the system. Apart from the physical planning, the teacher needs to plan for consultation and for evaluation. In the pilot study, the pupils were invited to consult the researcher after hours if necessary and of course they were actively encouraged to discuss difficulties during the class itself. The last presented no problem; they did ask for help in the classroom when they needed it but no one telephoned for help at any other time. In restricting their appeals for help to the double lesson once a week, the pupils did not really have enough help which is why the practice of tutorial groups has merit. In small groups the pupils can be guided with regard to the level of work they should be doing, their interest level can be monitored and their achievement thus far can be evaluated. It is possible that through this, the brighter pupils can be accelerated through the basic work required and directed to other areas for enrichment. It is however, vital that their progress is carefully evaluated and that the skills that they have learned on their own are evident in their other work. If what they have covered on their own is not transferable in other contexts, it is of little value.

The evaluation needs to be broken into sections, but should not be conducted after each small unit of work has been completed. The reason for this is, as earlier practitioners of individualised work found, that the pupils achieved highly on subsections, but when these were put together, they floundered. The same principle applied in the pilot study. The pupils were able to answer the questions set in each unit, but when these were presented in a different context and all together in the post-test, the pupils showed that their grasp of the concepts was superficial. A possible solution to the problem is to test sizeable units and provide opportunities for a re-test using similar material. In this way the pupil and the teacher can be reasonably sure that the principles have been grasped and that they can be applied in a variety of contexts.

If one takes seriously McCarthy's (1990) non-synchronous multicultural education, individualised programmes can be created to cater for the variables of race, gender and class, as there is then scope to build into the materials and the grouping, elements which will cater for different needs, rather than imposing one set of cultural values only. As far as English language in particular is concerned, the value of dialect and register can be inculcated, thus moving from the position that the only language worth knowing is the Standard variety. However, from this attitude of tolerance the value of Standard English for wider communication can be taught, possibly with less resistance than it might meet if it is taught in an atmosphere of intolerance for any other varieties of the language.

Writers on individualised learning stress that any programme is individual only to the extent that it allows the pupils autonomy. This can be seen on a continuum from complete freedom to choose the curriculum and the way in which it is studied, to a far more structured programme where the teacher sets definite limits and the only autonomy is pace or order of work. If one bears in mind this continuum, one can understand the value of beginning with highly structured work in which the pupil feels he has a certain amount of decision-making to do and leading on to more autonomous programmes as soon as the pupil feels confident enough to do so. Again the teacher is going to meet with developmental differences in this regard and he may have to learn to work with a number of learning styles simultaneously. These need not be formalised as Dunn and Griggs (1988) suggest but can be used as the need arises. The main aim of such teaching is to realise the potential of each pupil in his care and not assume that what the teacher decides the pupil will enjoy or benefit from is necessarily what the pupil would agree with. The pupil is after all why the teacher is in the classroom and his needs are paramount, but the teacher is the arbiter between needs and wants so there may be times that he decides on a course of action against the pupil's wishes but in his best interest.

The individualised method may have the learner at its centre but the teacher is vital to the whole process. It is he who will be responsible for creating the atmosphere of learning; it is he who will need to show flexibility and tolerance and it is he who needs to be constantly aware of changing circumstances to which his pupils will have to adapt. No teacher can hope to be all things to all his pupils but as a professional, he can, through his efforts to meet his pupils' needs show that they are important to him. He does, however, have to balance the demands made by his pupils with the demands made by his subject as he cannot allow his subject knowledge to fall behind because he devotes too much time to the pupils' requirements.

The teacher has his limits. He can achieve an enormous amount as long as he has the support, not only from his immediate school but also from the wider academic community. The education system in South Africa needs all the creative teachers it can muster; they are the vanguard of a new dispensation but they cannot shoulder the entire responsibility. The creative English teacher has a special role to play; it is he who is responsible for teaching the new generation how to communicate in a language all can understand. Each English teacher who meets the challenge and learns to cater for the individuals within his classroom will be helping to achieve the objective of education stated in a Reith Lecture by Ralf Dahrendorf and quoted by Geoffrey Thornton (1986):

> The central task of education is not simply to produce spare parts for our economic process, but to develop human abilities by opening them up for varied choices rather than streamlining towards alleged requirements. (P.68.)

The pupils need to learn how to cope with choice; the place that they can begin to learn this is in the English classroom.

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Appendix A

Language Study Syllabus

5. LANGUAGE STUDY

INTRODUCTION

A study of language in action should form an integral part of all aspects of English teaching - listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Language activities must meet the needs of pupils and promote their language development effectively. The formal teaching of language concepts and skills introduced and developed in Standards 5, 6 and 7 should be positively extended, bearing in mind the goals and principles outlined in this section. In focusing on the skills that promote language competence, the teacher must not lose sight of the need for pupils' enjoyment of language activities as language is essentially creative and expressive.

Pupils' experience of language should be extended and developed to allow growth to a mature level of competence. Increasingly pupils should be led to discover that language is a means of abstraction, and that some understanding of how it works will help them to adapt it to circumstances and situation, and to develop the ability to formulate ideas and judge with insight the messages of others.

At Higher Grade level, the acquisition of some linguistic or grammatical terminology should be seen as part of the extension of communicative skills, as well as of the ability to learn more effectively how language works and to participate intellectually in responding to language in action.

5.1 GOALS

5.1.2 to 5.1.6 The ability to use language appropriately is a complex process depending on the acquisition of many skills which should be developed through practice. Pupils may also benefit from the explicit study of rhetorical devices employed across a variety of styles of language at different levels of complexity.

5.1.2 - 5.1.6 The ability to read with a high level of comprehension is fundamental to school achievement. Language and thought are inseparable, and different disciplines, contexts and purposes make different demands on the language. This intimate connection should be explored in the close study of texts taken from a wide range of sources, e.g.

- in informal discussions, talks, newspaper reports, business reports, legal contracts, literature;
- the victim of an accident, in turning his personal account of the event into a police statement, would have to select an appropriate register from: Standard English, dialect, formal language, colloquialisms, jargon and slang, and
- the language of persuasion as encountered in propaganda and advertising.

5.1.7 Much of what is said under the section on Reading and Writing is relevant here, but pupils should also be shown that the ability to follow main arguments, select relevant materials, evaluate bias, identify assumptions, etc., depends on the recognition of language cues. The writing of a summary must presuppose a specific purpose, which in turn demands a specific register of language.

5.1.8 Detached formal language exercises can be counter-productive: the emphasis must be on language in action, which implies an incidental approach whenever possible based on the error analysis of pupils' written work. Nevertheless, pupils need to be shown that the ability to identify, name and use concepts such as the following will be an aid to their understanding of language and style, and may lead to the improvement of their own usage. Nevertheless, pupils need to be shown that the ability to identify, name and use concepts such as those listed below will be an aid to their understanding and appreciation of language and style, and could lead to an improvement of their own language usage.

It is essential that pupils view the above as a means to an end and not an end in itself, and that they come to realise that the knowledge of certain basic terminology will facilitate both the teaching and learning processes.

It must be pointed out that the Senior Secondary Phase implies a natural continuation and consolidation of the Junior Secondary Phase; many of the components outlined in the Junior Secondary Phase syllabus are therefore repeated here. It is expected, however, that these components, together with additional, more complex concepts, be studied in greater depth. The terminology listed below is by no means exclusive of alternative terminology for the same concepts.

The following concepts should be taught in appropriate contexts, with due emphasis being placed on their functions.

It must be noted that no one terminology is universally acceptable. What follows covers most areas suggested in the Goals but is not prescriptive. Nevertheless, the following should asist those who feel that they do not have a wide background in linguistics. The spirit of the Syllabus implies that what follows is not to place an extra burden upon teachers and pupils. Many of the following may well be used by the Examiner in the final examination paper. It must be stressed again that language must be taught in action and not as a series of dead exhibits.

- parts of speech (word classes): nouns, pronouns, adjectives (including articles), verbs (including infinitives, participles, gerunds, auxiliary verbs and the concept of finite and non-finite verbs, reported speech), adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections;

- the function of the verb in respect of: tense (sequence of tenses, use of historic present, etc.
  mood (paying particular attention to imperative mood used in commands, and subjunctive mood used in hypothetical sentences and wishes)
  voice (paying attention to function and effect)
  concord
  transitive and intransitive use

- subjective, objective and possessive cases of nouns and pronouns

- sentence structure: simple, complex and compound; main and subordinate clauses; adjectival and adverbial phrases, loose periodic and balanced; inversion (foregrounding); parallelism

NOTE:

(i) the relationship of sentence structure to intention and style should be stressed;

(ii) detailed, mindless clausal analysis is definitely not recommended.

- loxical terms, e.g. synonym, antonym, homonym, homophone, compound words, denotation, connotation, ambiguity, diction;

- various stylistic devices such as: irony, pun, innuendo, satire, ambiguity, pathos, climax, rhetorical question, repetition, ellipsis, antithesis, hyperbole, foregrounding;

- phonic devices such as: alliteration, assonance, onomatopoeia;
- functional concepts such as: subject, predicate, object, complement, modifiers, connectives, determiners
- appropriate usage, including Standard South African English, slang, colloquialism, cliché, jargon, dialect
- literal and figurative use of language
- factual and emotive language, referring to neutral and emotionally 'loaded' words
- register and tone.

NOTE:

The teacher should exercise great discretion in deciding on the amount of time to devote to these concepts. Difficult items should be stressed according to the needs and abilities of pupils. There should be a definite commitment on the part of the teacher to teach concepts which relate to how language works, but when grammatical terminology, latinate or other, is employed, it should be for convenience only: e.g. to assist pupils in proof-reading, editing and polishing their own writing.

5.1.9 Vocabulary should be enriched as part of a deliberate teaching policy. Pupils should acquire a vocabulary that enables them to cope with the demands made by their own writing, literature, other subjects in the curriculum, the media, and social situations.

Words should be explored in configurations or in context, e.g. in relation to literature or in 'word families'. Denotation, connotation, and the compatibility of vocabulary with register and context need attention. Knowledge of roots, prefixes and suffixes can provide clues and help pupils extend their vocabulary.

Pupils should be proficient in the use and conventions of the dictionary.

5.1.10 A meticulous approach to the learning of spelling should be fostered. The teacher must identify and meet the needs of the individual pupils. The incidental learning of spelling must be complemented, where appropriate, by attention to spelling rules. Suitable dictionaries should be used as a matter of course.

5.1.11 Accurate punctuation clarifies meaning and promotes effective communication; pupils should be aware that negligent or faulty punctuation interferes with communication. They should become completely proficient in the effective use of punctuation, e.g. full-stop, comma, colon, semi-colon, apostrophe; question, exclamation, and quotation marks; parentheses (brackets, dashes); hyphens, correct punctuation and functions of direct speech.

5.1.12 Although the acquisition of syntax is a natural process, practice and functional analysis can help to produce insight into the nature of language and improvement in performance. Pupils should realize that a writer's choice of syntax is part of his intention and reflects decisions about audience and occasion.

5.1.13 Language development for both the individual and society is organic and continuous. Changes in use and meaning take place over time and (particularly in the case of English) in different parts of the world because of different demands, different cultural context, and the proximity or interference of other languages. Pupils should:

- be able to identify some of the essential differences in usage and idiom between South African, British and American English;
- have some understanding of the influences at work on the language they and others use;
- have some knowledge of the historical development of English, particularly with reference to its vocabulary and its descent from an inflected language, and
- be able to distinguish between slang, jargon, colloquialism, dialect and Standard English as they function in context.

Appendix B

Cape Education Department

Senior Certificate Examination

1986

ENGLISH FIRST LANGUAGE HG
(THIRD PAPER)

1986

CAPE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

SENIOR CERTIFICATE EXAMINATION

Write on the front cover of your answer book, after the word "Subject" -

ENGLISH FIRST LANGUAGE HIGHER GRADE
(THIRD PAPER)

This examination paper consists of 14 pages, plus an Addendum consisting of 2 pages

PLEASE TURN OVER

Time: Two and a half hours
Marks: 130

QUESTION ONE

The passage set for comprehension is printed on a separate enclosure. Read the passage carefully and answer the questions based on it. Use the mark allocation for each question as a guide to the amount of detail required for each answer. USE YOUR OWN WORDS WHEREVER POSSIBLE.

PLEASE NOTE:

* Marks awarded for style are built into certain questions. The style mark is indicated as follows:

  2 (content) + 2 (style) = 4 (total)

* Candidates who do not heed the instruction 'USE YOUR OWN WORDS' will be penalised.

1. Quote the word from the first paragraph which describes the topic of the article. (1)

2. With reference to paragraph one:

   The writer uses a well-known proverbial expression to define her approach to the topic.

   2.1 Quote the expression. (1)

   2.2 Using your own words, explain its meaning in the context of the sentence in which it appears. (2 + 2 = 4)

   2.3 State which of the following definitions is closest in meaning to the phrase 'an outrage' (line 7):

   2.3.1 a misapplication of feeling
   2.3.2 a disservice to one's morals
   2.3.3 an injury to one's judgement (1)

   2.4 In the context of the whole paragraph, explain in your own words what the author considers to be an 'outrage'. (2 + 2 = 4)

3. With reference to paragraph two:

   3.1 The writer uses a cliché to define the full range of reading. Quote this cliché. (1)

PLEASE TURN TO PAGE 3

3.2 The use of clichés can be justified in journalistic writing. Which one of the following reasons would you select in order to justify the use of a cliché in this context? (Simply write down the number of your choice for your answer.)

3.2.1 The familiarity of a cliché makes it easier to understand.

3.2.2 The familiarity of a cliché creates a sociable tone and communicates economically.

3.2.3 The use of a cliché makes the passage more contemporary.

3.2.4 The use of a cliché makes the passage more descriptive. (2)

3.3 Quote the phrase which describes what the writer considers to be 'a basic human right'. (1)

3.4 Explain in your own words as far as possible what, according to the writer, the serious consequence is, when this basic human right is removed. (2 + 2 = 4)

4. The writer interrupts her discussion with a reference to the late Professor D.J. Opperman. By quoting his words, the writer illustrates a point she wishes to make. Explain in your own words what this point is. (3 + 2 = 5)

5. Choose the word which is nearest in meaning in the context of the article to each of the following:

5.1 pernicious (line 15) : mischievous / intolerant / harmful / destructive

5.2 naivety (line 16) : foolishness / artlessness/ naturalness / unsophistication

5.3 criterion (line 29) : control / speculation/ yardstick / sampling

5.4 credo (line 45) : religion / principle / faith / ideology (4)

6. With reference to the writer's argument in the final four paragraphs:

6.1 According to the writer, what force influences children's values more than anything else? For your answer merely quote the appropriate phrase. (1)

6.2 Quote the phrase the writer uses to express her confidence in children's natural powers of discrimination. (1)

6.3 The writer argues that in the act of censoring reading and visual material, we offend the basic standard of being fair to children.

Explain, in your own words, one of the areas raised by the writer, in which this lack of fairness displays itself. (2 + 2 = 4)

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7. In the opening sentence of this article the writer, a journalist, uses a phonic device to attract immediate attention to her topic.

7.1 Name the device (1)

7.2 Quote the relevant phrase which illustrates the device. (1)

7.3 What is the connotation of the adjective 'red' in the context of this article? (2)

8. Explain the appropriateness of the accompanying sketch to the theme of this article. (2)

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PLEASE TURN TO PAGE 5

QUESTION TWO

1. Read carefully the following headlines from the sports page of a newspaper, and then answer the questions printed below them:

A

Natalians hold aces in big Cape race

C

Curry sees Jones as stepping stone on road to glory

B

WP move out of bottom gear thanks to new batting hero

1.1 What tense is used in all of the above headlines? (1)

1.2 Give a reason why this tense is usually used in headlines. (1)

1.3 What single word would describe the structure of all three headlines? (1)

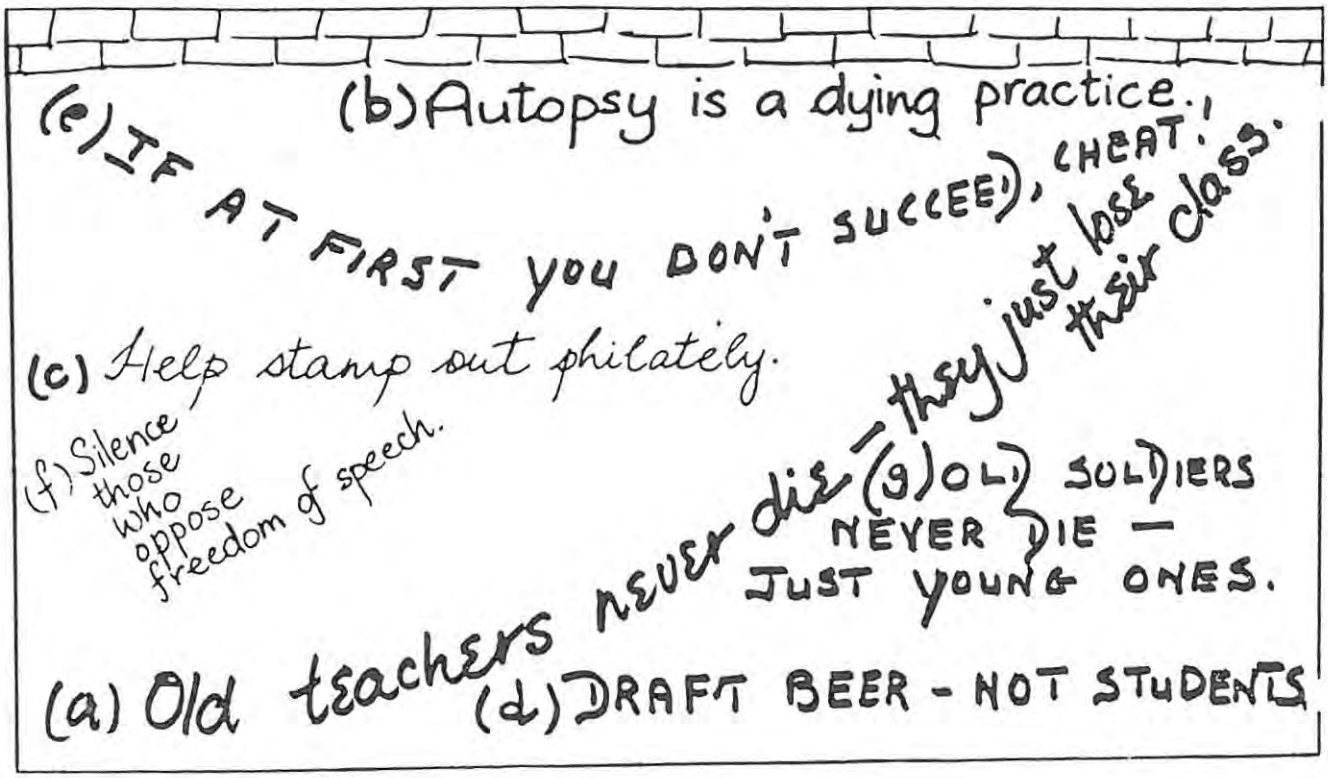
1.4 Identify and write down the metaphor used in any ONE of these headlines, and then explain its figurative meaning in its context. Label your answer correctly (e.g. A, B or C). (3)

PLEASE TURN TO PAGE 6

2.1 Printed below are some examples of graffiti (i.e. scribblings or drawings on walls.)

Often the <u>way</u> in which the graffito message is written (its style and tone) rather than the <u>message</u> itself makes the graffito effective and memorable. The effectiveness is usually the result of certain literary devices such as irony, climax, anti-climax, rhyme, parallelism (i.e. the similarity of construction or meaning of phrases placed side by side), allusions, word-play (puns) and tone.
(Note: 'graffito' is the singular form of graffiti'.)

Read the examples given below and then answer the questions which follow:



2.1.1 Quote an example of word-play from the above examples, and explain why it is an example of this device. (3)

2.1.2 Choose any one of the above examples of graffiti, write it down and then state which one of the following tones it conveys:

irreverent; bitter; mocking; sarcastic; flippant.

Give a reason for your choice. (3)

2.1.3 Which one of the examples of graffiti above contains irony? Write down the <u>number only</u> of your choice. (1)

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2.1.4 Which one of the examples contains an allusion with an unexpected ending? Write down the number only of your choice. (1)

2.2 Broadly speaking, an advertisement may be defined as a public notice. Study the advertisement printed below, and answer the questions that appear next to it.

2.2.1 Paying particular attention to the two pictures, give one possible reason for the visual impact of this advertisement. (2)

2.2.2 What is the intention of this advertisement (i.e. what message does the advertisement convey)? (2)

2.2.3 Paying particular attention now to the words used, and to their arrangement in each sentence, give one good reason why the message referred to in 2.2.2 is conveyed with such great impact. Do not discuss meaning in your answer. (2)

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QUESTION THREE

1. The extracts printed below are taken from the following English reference books:

Chambers Students' Dictionary
Chambers Twentieth Century Dictionary
The International Thesaurus of Quotations (compiled by R.T. Tripp)
The Nuttall Dictionary of English Synonyms and Antonyms
The New Standard Encyclopaedia (Odhams Press Ltd)

Study them and then answer the questions that follow.

A

Act Division of a play. For long plays, Shakespeare's being an example, were always divided into five acts, but there is now no fixed number. An act is divided into scenes.

In Great Britain an Act of Parliament is the proper name for a law. The Acts of each session are arranged in chapters and are quoted according to the year of the reign in which they were passed. For instance, the National Health Insurance Act, passed in 1928, is 18 and 19 Geo. Ch. 14, because it was passed in the eighteenth and nineteenth years of that king's reign. The Parliaments of Canada, Australia and other parts of the Empire, have their own Acts.

An Act of God is something due to the violence of the elements, such as a storm at sea or something else for which no human being is responsible. The phrase is much used in insurance policies.

B

Act, *v.a.*, Do, perform, carry out, execute.
v.n., Work, function, operate, behave.
Play, pretend, simulate, represent, personate, mimic, counterfeit.
n., Action, deed, feat, achievement, exploit, performance.
Law, bill, statute, ordinance, decree, enactment, edict.
Action, Act, deed, feat,† operation, movement, agency, exercise. ***Rest***

C

act, *akt*, *v.i.* to exert force or influence: to produce an effect: to behave oneself: to perform, as on the stage: to feign: to be suitable for performance.—*v.t.* to perform: to imitate or play the part of.—*n.* something done or doing: an exploit: the very process (of doing something): a decree: a legislative enactment: a written instrument in verification: (*theol.*) something done once for all: (*R.C. church*) a short prayer: a distinct main section of a play: in universities, a public disputation or lecture maintained by a candidate for a degree.—*ns.* **actabil'ity**; **act'ing**, action: act or art of performing an assumed or a dramatic part: feigning.—*adj.* performing some duty temporarily, or for another.—*n.* **act'or**, one who acts: a stage-player:—*fem.* **act'ress**; **act'ure** (*Shak., Lover's Compl.*) action, performance.—**act of God**, a result of natural forces, unexpected and not preventable by human foresight; **act of grace**, a favour, esp. a pardon granted by a sovereign; **act on**, to exert an influence on: to act in accordance with; **act up to**, to come in practice up to the standard of: to fulfil. [L. *ăctus*, *-ūs*, an action, doing, *ăctum*, a thing done, *ăctor*, a doer, actor; *agĕre*, *ăctum*, to do, drive.]

D

1. Effective action is always unjust. JEAN ANOUILH, *Catch As Catch Can* (1960), tr. Lucienne Hill.

2. In the arena of human life the honours and rewards fall to those who show their good qualities in action. ARISTOTLE, *Nicomachean Ethics* (4th c. B.C.), 1.8, tr. J. A. K. Thomson.

3. A thought which does not result in an action is nothing much, and an action which does not proceed from a thought is nothing at all. GEORGES BERNANOS, "France Before the World of Tomorrow," *The Last Essays of Georges Bernanos* (1955), tr. Joan and Barry Ulanov.

E

act, *akt*, *v.i.* to exert force or influence: to produce an effect: to conduct oneself: to perform, as on the stage: to feign.—*v.t.* to perform: to imitate or play the part of.—*n.* something done, a deed: an exploit: the very process of doing something: a law or decision of a legislative body: a distinct section of a play.—*n.* **act'ing**, action: act of performing an assumed or a dramatic part.—*adj.* performing some duty temporarily, or for another.—*n.* **act'or**, one who acts: a stage-player:—*fem.* **act'ress**.—**act of God**, a result of forces beyond the control of human foresight. [L. *agĕre*, *actum*; Gr. *agein*, to put in motion; Sans. *aj*, to drive.]

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1.1 Write down the letter of each extract (A,B,C,D & E), and then write next to each letter the title of the relevant reference book, selected from the list given, from which you think each extract has been taken. (5)

1.2 If you wished to ascertain the etymology of the word 'act', which extracts would provide this information? Write down only the relevant letters. (1)

1.3 Account for the inclusion of the word 'Rest' in extract B. (2)

1.4 Explain in general terms (i.e. Do not quote specific examples from the extracts.) the main difference between an entry in a dictionary of words and one in an encyclopaedia. (4)

1.5 If you were looking for a suitable opening to a speech that you were preparing, which of the reference books in the list given previously would you consult? Give a reason for your choice. (2)

1.6 If you were doing a crossword puzzle and were given the clue printed below, which of the reference books in the list given previously would you consult in order to find the answer most quickly?

presenter (anagram) meaning 'to act'

(Note: An anagram is a word formed by writing the letters of another word in a different order.) (2)

1.7 The following questions refer to specific extracts:

Extract C

1.7.1 Write down the phonetic spelling of 'act'. (1)

1.7.2 Of what word is 'theol.' an abbreviation? (line 8) (1)

1.7.3 Write down the suffix that indicates the feminine gender of the noun agent formed from 'act'. (1)

1.7.4 By adding a prefix to 'act', write down the missing word in the following sentence:

Elizabeth Taylor was asked to ... the role of Cleopatra. (1)

1.7.5 By adding another prefix to the word you have supplied in 1.7.4, write down the missing word in the following sentence:

Elizabeth Taylor was asked to ... the scene with Enobarbus, as the director was not satisfied with the first 'shot'. (1)

1.7.6 State whether the word 'act' has been used transitively or intransitively in the following:

The late Richard Burton acted in the film 'Antony and Cleopatra'. (1)

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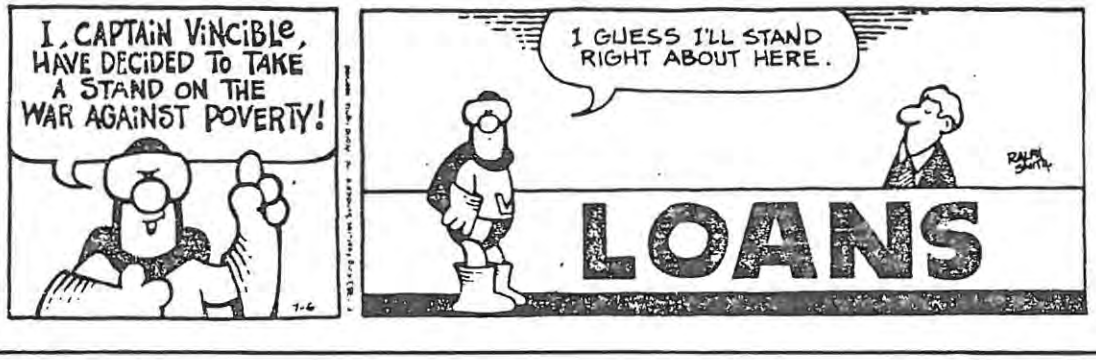
Extract D

1.7.7 Why are certain words written in capital letters, and others in italics? (1)

2. Cartoonists often create their humour by playing on both the literal and figurative meanings of idiomatic expressions. Explain how humour has been created in this way in ONE of the following cartoons: (Label your answer correctly.)

A



B

(2)

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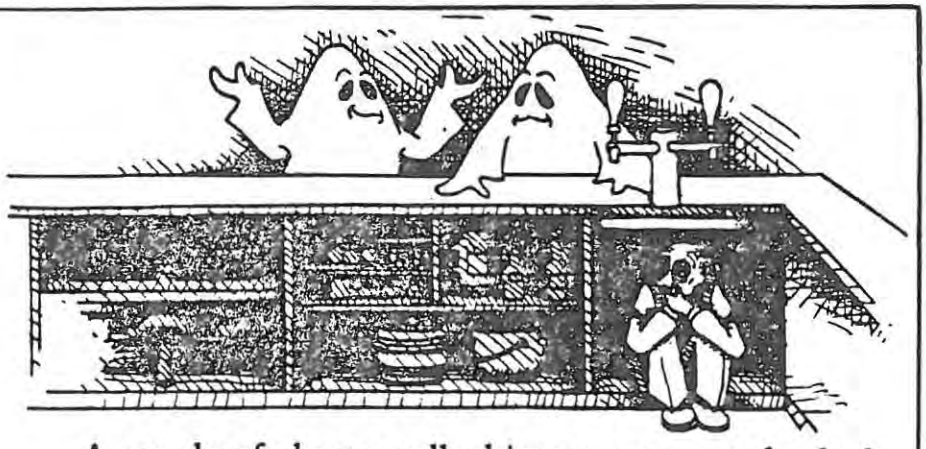
3. Supply the missing word in EACH of the following captions, so that a pun is created: (Label your answers correctly)

A

A pickpocket eventually got caught stealing pocket watches because he took too much _____. (1)

B



A couple of ghosts walked into a tavern and asked the bartender if _____ were served in his establishment. (1)

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QUESTION FOUR

1. Read the following extract from an article entitled 'Winston Churchill: A Study in Oratory' and then carry out the following instructions:

1.1 Imagine that you are preparing a short talk, based on this extract, for the debating society at your school. Prepare your very brief guide as follows:

For each paragraph, numbering them 1 - 5, write down the KEY WORD (i.e. the word that best summarises the content). (10)

1.2 Using the five key words you have identified in 1.1 as a guide, write a brief prose summary of the article for inclusion in the debating column of your school newspaper. Your answer should consist of one paragraph of not more than 60 words. Write down the number of words you have used. Note: No marks will be awarded for an answer where the incorrect number of words is given. (10)

An important feature of the Churchillian style of delivery was the dramatic pause. He was a master at this. He said once, "I ... made a pause to allow the House to take it in ... As this soaked in, there was something like a gasp." He relied on timing to assure heightened effect because it made silence even more eloquent than words and allowed his listeners to digest what they heard and get ready for what would be said next. His timing - his use of the dramatic pause - forced any restless members of his audience to look at him and listen. Even his "gar-rumphs" and throat clearings came at the right moments.

Those who saw him say that his facial expressions as he worked through and up to his main points were something to see. He snarled and scowled as he spoke of "strangling the U-boats" or of "the deadly, drilled, docile, brutish masses of the Hun soldiery plodding on like a swarm of crawling locusts" and of "Mussolini, this whipped jackal ... frisking up by the side of the German tiger with yelps..." His manner was stern yet stimulating as he growled, "I have nothing to offer but blood, toil, tears and sweat."

Even in his most serious speeches he sprinkled jokes, quips and other humour. While German bombers were devastating London he quipped, "At the present rate it would take them about ten years to burn down one-half of London's buildings. After that, of course, progress would be much slower." In one speech he said, "We are expecting the coming invasion; so are the fishes." In another, "We have a higher standard of living than ever before. We are eating more." Then, gazing at his ample round belly, and with his eyes twinkling, he added, "And that is very important."

Although his voice wasn't especially appealing, it carried conviction, and his delivery gave the impression of power and sincerity. He combined flashy oratory with sudden shifts into intimate, conversational speaking. Each change of pace, each dramatic pause, each rhetorical flourish - all were carefully orchestrated. He roared like a lion and cooed like a dove with hand and facial gestures to suit.

Effective delivery, however, is more than voice and gestures. It is the impact of personality on the listeners. Although Churchill was always carefully prepared, his delivery never lacked spontaneity. He put feeling into his words. He made them breathe with life through his exhilarating and forceful personality. This uniqueness as a person made the difference in his speech delivery, and in his effect on the audience.

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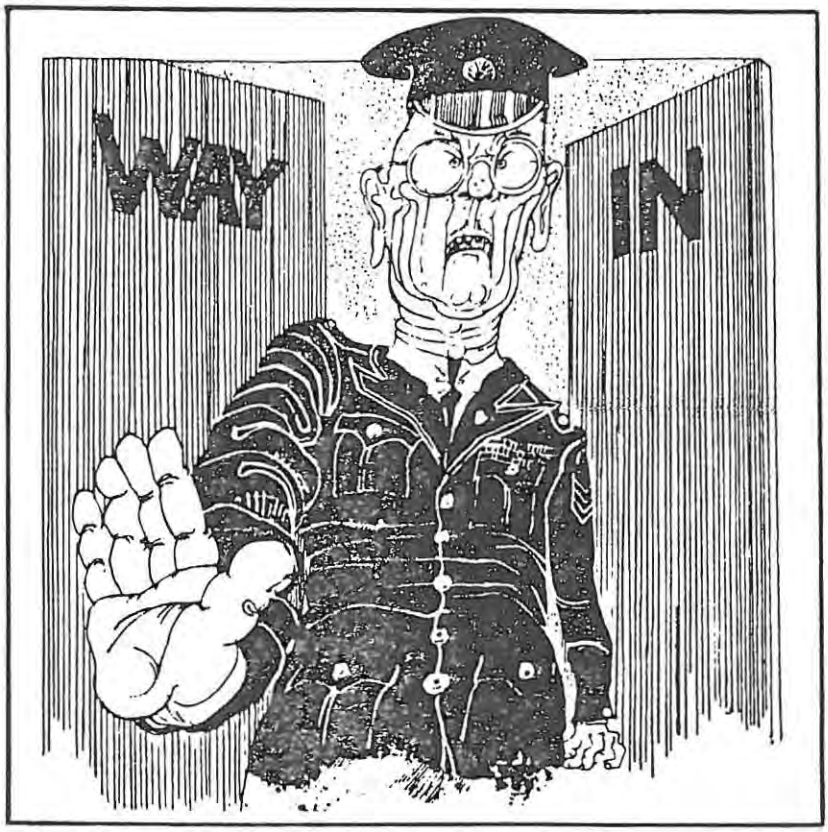
QUESTION FIVE

The passage printed below is an amended extract from a book entitled 'Book of Bores' by Private Eye Productions. Read it carefully and then carry out the instructions that follow:



"Now look squire, why don't you push off home and forget about it? I've told you before - if it was up to me it would be a different story".

.....

"And that kind of language won't get you anywhere: Look, it's not me that makes the rules, I just work here."

.....

"You can write letters to who you want. I'm not stopping you. I understand your point of view. You've come a long way, but if I was to let anyone in I felt sorry for, it would be more than my jobs worth. So why don't you run along."

.....

"Look I don't care who you are, you could be Aristotle Onassis and it wouldn't make no difference." "I'm just doing my job. We've all got a job to do."

.....

"Now don't you threaten violence on me. I'm not responsible for the rules. I'm just doing my job.

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1. Rewrite the given passage correctly punctuated in dialogue form, correcting any punctuation errors that you find. Do not alter or omit any words. Supply, wherever the dots appear, suitable words the other person might have spoken to evoke the responses in the passage, paying particular attention to punctuation. Do not supply the names of the two speakers or any introductory verbs, but indicate the change of speaker each time by leaving a line free and beginning a new paragraph. (15)

2. The passage printed above contains the following errors of grammar or style:

   2.1 slang

   2.2 the incorrect case after the verb 'to be'

   2.3 a double negative

   2.4 the incorrect case after a preposition

   For each of the above, find and write down the relevant error, and then rewrite the phrase or sentence in acceptable English.
   Note: Use the same numbering system as given above. (8)

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'DDENDUM : PASSAGE FOR COMPREHENSION

An extract from *Last Words* by Jane Mullins (1974, Tafelberg) entitled, 'Censors and Sensibilities'

Those of us who feel that censorship is an insult to our intelligence are not raving, red, sexually rampant rebels. We prefer to look before we leap into criticism ___ a simple precaution which few critics of banned books bother to apply. I believe that one lady who registered a formal complaint against one particular book had the "relevant" passages read out to her over the 'phone by an acquaintance who was organising a protest because his sensibilities were outraged. I think *that* is an outrage.

I wouldn't employ such methods - or enlist such dubious support - even if my senses were being assailed by the most violent propaganda. It is only by reading the good, the bad and the ugly that one can hope to discriminate among them. No adult will develop judgement without practising it. If one takes away the freedom of choice one impairs the ability to reject and select. Any organisation which takes over this basic human right is impoverishing the society it so desperately wants to protect. The intention may be benevolent, but the practice is pernicious. One cannot corrupt an informed, well-furnished mind. It is ignorance, naivety and lack of knowledge which are dangerous.

Which brings me to the most-quoted, most-used *raison d'être* for censorship. At a formal luncheon one of the few women on the Publications Control Board

tried to conclude a discussion on this subject by saying: "It is the minds of the children we must protect."

"Do you mean," I said, "that you are judging the suitability of reading matter for me on the basis of what a child of thirteen should read?"

"Yes," she said, and the whole table fell silent.

Professor D.J. Opperman, the greatest living Afrikaans poet, has now provided the answer I lacked the wit and self-possession to produce. Commenting in *Die Burger* on Mr. Jannie Kruger's* criterion for art criticism, "Will you show your child this work of art or not?", he asks: "Can a nation ever become adult if the child is its criterion?" I wish I had said it first, but no doubt this thought will have a more profound effect coming from Professor Opperman.

I can only add that all parents struggle with the problem of protecting and informing the minds of their children. No one needs to tell us of the dangers of giving too much - or too little - to minds that can still be deformed. But I believe each family has the right to decide what sort of information is right or wrong for its children. The home and the parents still, thank God, exercise the most profound influence on the growing child. Those who are excessively afraid of "outside" influence are uncertain about their own relationships with their children.

I have great respect and admiration for the generation of children I've watched growing up. They really do come "trailing clouds of glory". There seems to be an innate ability to reason, a genuine kindliness towards grown-ups, animals, the sick, the halt and the lame which we cannot take credit for. Their sophistication is far greater than most adults around them realise, perhaps because so few of us actually listen to children. That constant phrase "It isn't fair" is the credo they live by, and our basic duty towards them is to *be* fair.

By hiding and suppressing all that is considered (by some) to be harmful or dangerous, we are being very unfair. We are under-estimating their ability to learn and discriminate; we are undermining their parents' ability to direct and control and we are over-estimating the power of the written word and visual image.

Besides, the truth will out, whether we like it or not. Suppression has a way of spreading the word more quickly than any publicity campaign. The advocates of censorship will probably discover that, inadvertently, they have created more interest in the fruit by forbidding it.

Glossary:

raison d'être : purpose of existence (line 18)

* Then Chairman of the Publications Control Board.

Appendix C

Cape Education Department

Senior Certificate Examination

September 1989

ENGLISH FIRST LANGUAGE HG (THIRD PAPER)

SEPTEMBER 1989

Time: 2½ hours

CAPE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

SENIOR CERTIFICATE EXAMINATION

Write on the cover of your answer book, after the word "Subject" -

ENGLISH FIRST LANGUAGE HIGHER GRADE
(THIRD PAPER)

This examination paper consists of 14 pages, Addendum A and Addendum B.

PLEASE TURN OVER

INSTRUCTIONS

1. Answer ALL questions, and in the order in which they appear on the question paper.

2. START EACH QUESTION AT THE TOP OF A NEW PAGE.

3. Above each answer write the number of the question as it appears on the question paper.

4. Correct use of language and neatness of presentation will be to your advantage.

----- oOo -----

QUESTION 1

The passage set for comprehension is printed on a separate enclosure, marked Addendum A. Read the passage carefully and answer the following questions. Use the mark allocation for each question as a guide to the amount of detail required for each answer. USE YOUR OWN WORDS WHEREVER POSSIBLE.

PLEASE NOTE:

+ Marks awarded for style are built into certain questions. This is indicated by (S) inserted at the end of each relevant question. Pay particular attention to correct, clear and effective use of language in these answers, remembering that it is very important to use your own words as far as possible.

+ Where you answer multiple choice questions, write down only the letter or number of the best answer.

+ Candidates who do not heed the instruction 'USE YOUR OWN WORDS' will be penalised.

1.1 What is the writer's point in referring, in the first paragraph, to "God's first act after saying, 'Let there be light'"? [2]

1.2 Refer to paragraph 2.

1.2.1 How do parents assert their power by deciding on a baby's name? (2)

1.2.2 Using your own words as far as possible, explain why the French courts forbade the name of Cerise. (line 16) (S) (5)

1.2.3 Suggest the name of one of the brothers of Measles Jones and Pneumonia Jones. (1)

1.2.4 Which of the following words would best describe France's attitude to the naming of babies:

laissez-faire; religious; tolerant; restrictive; proper; blasé? (1)

1.2.5 Which of the following words would best describe America's attitude to the naming of babies:

traditional; ridiculous; humorous; conservative; indulgent; selective? (1) [10]

1.3 Quote the two consecutive words from paragraph 3 that explain why "a name that would have seemed weird a generation ago, like Kimberly, becomes a cliché." [1]

1.4 Refer to paragraph 4.

1.4.1 Explain carefully, and in your own words as far as possible, why Miss Hogg "had good reason to grow up scowling" (line 28). (2)

1.4.2 What does the writer imply about James Oliver Buswell IV's parents' view of his place in the world? (lines 30 - 31). (1) [3]

1.5 Refer to paragraph 6.

1.5.1 What is implied by the writer's use of the word "theoretically" in line 43? (2)

1.5.2 Explain the metaphorical description "the face-lifting change in spelling" (lines 47 - 48) and suggest why this might be considered an unusual metaphor to use in the context of teenagers. (S) (5) [7]

1.6 Choose the word or phrase nearest in meaning to each of the following, as used in context:

1.6.1 eccentricities (line 13): exceptions/ oddities / extravagances/ abnormalities

1.6.2 protégé (line 15) : ward / child / dependant / foster-child

1.6.3 Anglophile (line 53) : loving the English / fearing the English / religious / fish-loving [3]

1.7 Refer to the last paragraph.

1.7.1 Why do you think the writer uses the word "nightmares" and not "dreams"? (2)

1.7.2 Which of the following words would best describe the tone of the last two sentences:

sarcastic / flippant / cynical / serious / provocative? (1) [3]

PLEASE TURN OVER

1.8 Which of the following suggested answers best explains the relevance of the accompanying sketch to the essay?

(Write down the letter only.)

(a) It emphasises the dehumanisation of man.
(b) It ridicules the US Navy.
(c) It indicates the incongruities of name-giving.
(d) It draws attention to the name O'Hara. [1]

/30/

QUESTION 2 (Summary question)

Your class is due to discuss the ways in which South African English is changing in response to the world-wide movement towards non-sexist language. As the leader of the discussion you must give a brief introduction outlining the general situation.

Extract the necessary information from the passage (printed on a separate enclosure and marked Addendum B), to form a continuous prose passage of not more than 80 words.

Before you compose your answer, please note the following:

+ Do not supply a title.
+ Cross out your rough draft.
+ Write, in pen, at the end of your summary, the number of words used. (Note: marks will be deducted for an answer where an incorrect number of words is given.)

/20/

QUESTION 3

Answer all the following questions, which refer to the passage entitled 'The English language moves towards non-sexism', printed on a separate enclosure and marked Addendum B.
Please note that in the multiple choice questions you need to write down only the appropriate letter for the answer.

3.1 Account for the use of italics in this extract. [1]

3.2 Give the meaning of 'vice versa' (line 26). [1]

3.3 Give the literal and figurative meanings of 'in the wake of' (lines 19 & 20). [2]

3.4 Give the well-known Latin equivalent of 'and so on' (line 39). Give first the full form and then the abbreviated form. [2]

3.5 By using a prefix, form the antonym of 'reputable' (line 41). [1]

3.6 The hyphen in 'equal-rights' (line 17) performs the following function:

(a) Keeps the word disyllabic.
(b) Forms a compound adjective.
(c) Prevents ambiguity.
(d) Forms a compound noun. [1]

3.7 The colon after 'slowly' in line 21 is used to

(a) preserve the unity of thought in a long sentence.
(b) introduce a list.
(c) illustrate or elaborate on the statement before it.
(d) introduce an enumeration of several words. [1]

3.8 The inverted commas used with 'Masculine' (line 49) indicate

(a) a quotation.
(b) allusion.
(c) irony.
(d) a special use of the word. [1]

3.9 The brackets used in '(the way French-speakers do)' (line 59) perform the following function:

(a) Elaborate by way of an example.
(b) Indicate an afterthought.
(c) Create an antithesis.
(d) Promote brevity. [1]

3.10 The comma after 'language' in line 60 is used

(a) to separate a noun from a pronoun.
(b) to separate a phrase from a clause.
(c) to indicate a parenthesis.
(d) to separate a subordinate clause from the main clause. [1]

3.11 The subjunctive 'would' is used in 'would ignore' (lines 60 & 61) because

(a) it expresses an uncertainty.
(b) it follows a conditional clause.
(c) it expresses a wish.
(d) it expresses determination. [1]

PLEASE TURN OVER

3.12 Refer to line 59.

3.12.1 Substitute either 'like' or 'as' for 'the way'.

3.12.2 Why would the word you rejected have been incorrectly used in this context? [2]

3.13 Choose the word that is nearest in meaning to 'largely' (line 61) as used in context:

(a) generously
(b) extensively
(c) generally
(d) copiously [1]

3.14 Rewrite the participial phrase 'Discussing the singles finals' (line 6) as a subordinate clause. [1]

3.15 Change the suffix in 'parliamentary' (line 48) to form a noun agent. [1]

3.16 Suggest how 'Ms' was formed (line 42). [2]

/20/

QUESTION 4

4.1 Read the accompanying four book reviews and answer the questions printed next to them.

(A)

EVERYTHING WE WANTED
by LINDSAY MARACOTTA
(Macdonald R22,45)

A post-feminist romance about three friends with talent and ambition, who must struggle against their own inhibitions and obstacles to success. The background is New York, the heroines are sexy and gorgeous and there is just enough understanding of the real problems of women in business to make the book ring true.

4.1.1 Refer to review A.

(a) The tone of this review could best be described as

humorous; patronising; admiring; indulgent.

(Write down the appropriate word.) (1)

(b) Quote a phrase of three words to justify your choice in (a). (1) [2]

MAJENDIE'S CAT by
(Frank Fowles (Methuen)

B

ERDMAN fans should enjoy this one.

Author Frank Fowles was formerly a New York banker who writes highly regarded articles on international finance in major American newspapers, so he has impeccable credentials when it comes to writing a highly ingenious thriller about a diabolical plan to ruin the world's economy by bringing about the collapse of the American dollar. Exciting reading for those who have nothing to lose.

C

ALWAYS A STRANGER
by MARGARET KIRK
(Macdonald R19,95)

A war-time romance about a gallant, brooding Polish airman who wins the heart of a Yorkshire lass and marries her. But not even the birth of their son can assuage his longing for his homeland, and the ill fortunes of war separate the lovers. Will they be reunited? Can our heroine withstand the seductive ways of a childhood sweetheart? Stock up on some tissues and find out for yourself.

D

SUNRISE WITH SEA MONSTERS
by Paul Theroux (Penguin)

A LOUSY title for a good collection of short travel pieces by this popular, many-faceted writer.

One quibble — surely he had sufficient material to avoid the indulgence of including a couple of embarrassing peeves of juvenilia? For the rest, entertaining, educational stuff, from Malawi to Chittagong.

4.1.2 Refer to review B.

(a) Write down the word from the following list that best describes the style of the review:
verbose; simple; figurative; forceful. (1)

(b) Justify your choice in (a) by quoting two different examples of diction (choice of words) from the review. (2) [3]

4.1.3 Refer to review C.

(a) Name a figure of speech or literary device which assists the writer in expressing the melodramatic tone of this review. (Do NOT quote the example.) (1)

(b) The first 'sentence' of this review is incomplete, as are those of reviews A and D. Suggest why the use of incomplete sentences could be justified in this context. (1) [2]

4.1.4 Refer to review D.

(a) Quote two entirely separate words from this review that come from a different register from that used in the rest of the review. (2)

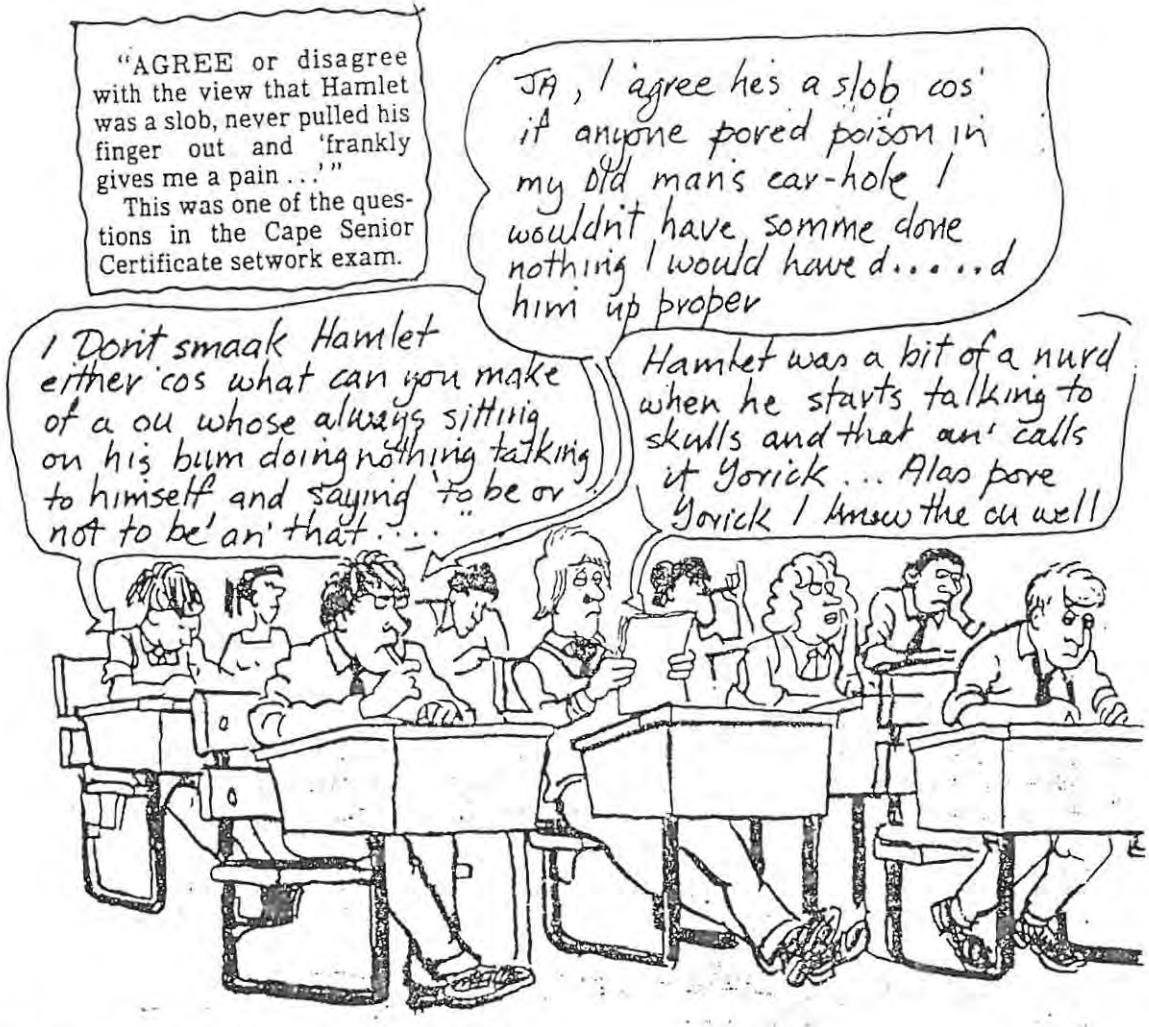
(b) Justify your answer to (a) by referring to the rest of the review. (2)[4]

4.1.5 Refer to all four reviews.

(a) Which review expresses the greatest approval of the book under review? (Write down merely A,B,C or D. (1)

(b) Quote the two consecutive words (taken from the review named in (a)) that indicate this approval. (2)[3]

4.2 Study the cartoon printed below and then answer the questions based on it.



By TONY GROGAN of the Cape Times.

4.2.1 The candidates depicted in this cartoon are obviously using an inappropriate register for their answers.

(a) The appropriate register for answering examination questions would be in ... English. (Supply the appropriate adjective.) (1)

(b) In the register referred to in (a), you should avoid using ... (Supply a suitable noun.) (1)

(c) Cite two examples (one for each type) of two different types of inappropriacy. (2)

(d) What is the connection between the insert in the top left-hand corner and the rest of the cartoon? (2) [6]

/20/

PLEASE TURN OVER

QUESTION 5

Study the 3 extracts (printed opposite) from 3 different types of dictionaries, and then answer the questions based upon them.

5.1 Refer to extract A.

5.1.1 Which syllable of 'regret' is stressed? (1)

5.1.2 Compose a sentence using the past participle of 'regret' together with an auxiliary verb. (1)

5.1.3 How many derivatives of 'regret' are given in this entry? (1)

5.1.4 Explain what the figure '2' means after the word 'greet' in the etymology. (1) [4]

5.2 Refer to extract B.

5.2.1 Explain why 'regretfully' and 'regrettably' have been cited as 'troublesome words'. (1)

5.2.2 Say whether the word 'regretfully' has been used correctly or not, in the following sentence, giving a reason for your answer:

Regretfully, the rain fell too late. (2)

5.2.3 Account for the use of capitals for 'REGRETFULLY, REGRETTABLY' after the entry 'regrettably'. (1)

5.2.4 'Re-repeat' means to 'repeat ...'. (Supply the missing word.) (1)

5.2.5 According to the compiler of this reference book, is the phrase 'reiterated again' an example of pleonasm (redundancy)? Account for your answer. (2)

5.2.6 Account for the use of italics in '(The Times)'. (1) [8]

5.3 Refer to extract C.

5.3.1 Complete the phrasal verbs in the following sentences, using the extract as a guideline. (Write down the missing word only.)

(a) He swam on and on until his strength gave ...
(b) The rotting vegetables gave ... a powerful odour.
(c) The last week at school was given ... to revision. (3)

5.3.2 Give a non-standard meaning (taken from the extract) of the phrasal verb 'give over'. (1)

5.3.3 Explain why 'I give in; I can't solve this riddle' is cited as a figurative usage of 'give in'. (2)

5.3.4 What do the words 'usually sep' indicate about the use of the phrasal verb 'give over' 1? Give an example of your own using this phrasal verb to substantiate your answer. (2) [8]

/20/

A

regret, *ri-gret'*, *v.t.* to remember with sense of loss or of having done amiss: to feel sorrow or dissatisfaction because (with *that*), or because of:—*pr.p.* regrett'ing; *pa.t.* and *pa.p.* regrett'ed.—*n.* sorrowful wish that something had been otherwise: compunction: an intimation of regret or refusal.—*adjs.* regret'ful, feeling regret; regrett'able, to be regretted.—*advs.* regret'fully, regrett'ably. [O.Fr. *regreter, regrater*; perh. conn. with greet (2).]

from:

Chambers Student's Dictionary

B

regretfully, regrettably. The first means with feelings of regret: 'Regretfully they said their farewells'. The second means unfortunately: 'Regrettably I didn't have enough money to buy it'.

regrettably. See REGRETFULLY, REGRETTABLY.

reiterate. Since *iterate* means repeat, *reiterate* ought to mean re-repeat, but it doesn't. It too just means repeat. That is perhaps fortunate; otherwise the following sentence would in effect be saying re-re-repeat: 'She hopes her message to the markets, reiterated again at the weekend, will be enough to prevent the pound sliding further' (*The Times*). 'Again' is always superfluous with *re-* words (reiterate, repeat, reaffirm) and should be deleted.

from:

A Dictionary of Troublesome Words

C

give back *vt sep* to give to someone (something that he or she gave to one earlier): *She gave me back the book that she borrowed last week. Girls who break their engagements usually give back their engagement rings.*

give in 1 *vi (often with* to*)* to stop fighting and admit that one has been defeated: *The only way to win a war is to keep fighting and never think about giving in (to the enemy). (fig) I give in; I can't solve this riddle.* 2 *vt sep* to hand, bring or present (something) to someone (often a person in authority): *Do we have to give in our books at the end of the lesson?*

give off *vt sep* to produce (something): *That fire is giving off a lot of smoke.*

give out 1 *vt sep* to give (something) usually to several people: *The mayor is giving out the school prizes this year.* 2 *vi (inf)* to come to an end or be used up: *My patience/money gave out.* 3 *vt sep* to send out or produce (something): *The fire burned fiercely, giving out a lot of heat.* 4 *vi (inf) (often with* on*)* to break down, stop working *etc*: *My car engine gave out (on me).* 5 *vt sep* to make (something) known: *It was given out that there would be another wage freeze.*

give over 1 *vt usually sep* to give (a person, thing *etc*) to someone: *He gave his prisoners/the jewels over to the police.* 2 *vi, vt fus (sl)* to stop (doing something): *Give over whistling! Do give over!* 3 *vt usually sep* to be devoted to or used for (some purpose): *This evening will be given over to discussion of this paper.*

from:

A Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs

PLEASE TURN OVER

QUESTION 6

6.1 Explain how humour is created in the following cartoon, by referring to the use of innuendo.

[2]

6.2 Refer to the cartoon below.

6.2.1 Give the well-known idiom to which the diner alludes. (1)

6.2.2 Explain how the cartoonist has used the allusion to this idiom to create a witty caption. (2) [3]

6.3 Refer to the cartoon below

and explain why the appearance of the word 'scratch' in the second frame makes the first frame funny.

[1]

6.4 Explain the use of pun (word-play) in ONE of the following statements, by identifying the pun and then giving both possible meanings of it.

6.4.1 Any mother can tell you a teenager's hangups don't include his clothes.

6.4.2 Musician: "I have got a score to settle!"

[2]

6.5 The following caption to a press photograph is an unintentional mixture of two idiomatic expressions, both with the same meaning. Rewrite the caption twice in order to illustrate the two different idiomatic expressions. Then give the one meaning that fits both of these expressions.

MIKE VOSLOO puts his shoulder to the grindstone.

[3]

PLEASE TURN OVER

6.6 Explain why the following newspaper headline contains a particularly apt metaphorical expression. In your answer first quote the relevant expression, then say what it means, and finally explain its appropriateness.

Horse flu epidemic has run its course

[3]

6.7 Why would it be difficult to carry out the following instruction?

BE MORE OR LESS SPECIFIC IN YOUR ANSWER.

[2]

6.8 Say why the following slogan is particularly clever, apt, amusing or eye-catching:

EVERYTHING WE TOUCH TURNS TO SOLD.
(a slogan for an estate agency)

[2]

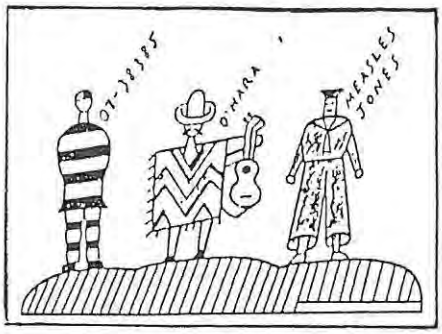
6.9 Why would this advertisement probably not attract many buyers?

FOR SALE: A rarely comfortable modern detached residence

[2]

/20/

What's in a Name?



(1) There is some deeply mystical power in the names we give things and in the process of naming. God's first act after saying "Let there be light" was to "call the light Day, and the darkness he called Night." One of his first acts after creating Adam was to bring every beast of the field so that Adam could give them names, "and whatsoever Adam called every living creature, that was the name thereof."

(2) One of the most pleasant avocations* of pregnancy — and one of the earliest assertions of parental power — is deciding on the baby's name. The discussions sometimes go on until after the baby is born, when it becomes clear, for example, that the little girl should not be called Howard. Occasionally, of course, the father's (or mother's) yearning for a son is so intense that the girl is called Howard anyway. Some nations feel obliged to intervene against such eccentricities. In France, it is illegal to give any child a name that is not already held by a saint (or a "well-known figure in ancient history"), who presumably would watch over the protégé. The courts specifically forbade one couple to name their child Cerise (Cherry). In the U.S., by contrast, the Navy once got applications from half a dozen brothers who all bore names like Measles Jones and Pneumonia Jones and whatever other ills had afflicted the family at the time of their births.

(3) We can only guess at the psychological effects of names. (What happens when that girl Howard reaches an age to be interested in other Howards?), but it seems reasonable to suggest that a boy named John will grow up differently from one named Cuthbert. He is less likely to be beaten up by his schoolmates, for one thing. Fashions change, though, as Gertrude gives way to Marilyn, and Marilyn to Debbie; a name that would have seemed weird a generation ago, like Kimberly, becomes a cliché.

(4) Some names have a special kind of imprint. The famous Miss Hogg, whose father cruelly named her Ima, had good reason to grow up scowling, but maybe she would have even if she had been named something sweet, like Charlotte. Anyone named James Oliver Buswell IV carries his parents' announcement of a certain view of the child's place in the world, but the effect of such a view probably differs considerably from one person to another. Someone with a name like Otto inevitably knows the burdens of an ethnic heritage, but so, presumably, do Madonna Ciccone and Fernando Valenzuela, and we all survive.

(5) Travel broadens the horizons. A glance at a Berlin telephone book reveals Ottos everywhere, but hardly any Kimberlys. Evelyn Waugh periodically had to reassure Americans that he was not a woman and that Evelyn was quite a common name for boys in England. Or as Peter Lorre whined in *Beat the Devil*, "In Chile the name of O'Hara is ... a tip-top name. Many Germans in Chile have come to be called O'Hara."

(6) Just as naming a child is one of the first assertions of parental power, so one of the first attempts at teenage rebellion is announcing that one is changing one's name (and thus, theoretically, one's identity). One now wishes to be addressed not as Bobby but as Hercules, or vice versa. Susan Weaver, for example, announced at 14 that she was henceforth Sigourney, a name that impressed her as "long and curvy, with a musical ring." For those apprehensive about anything so drastic, there is the face-lifting change in spelling: Debbie now wishes to be Debi, or Debbey.

(7) Even after we come to accept the names imposed on us, or acquire ones we like, we still have some difficulty in agreeing on what to call one another. In England it is considered very proper and Oxbridgian* to address a man simply by his last name. Most Americans call one another by their first names, even if they have just met. Except in Anglophile circles, many consider it standoffish, if not rude, to address a fellow worker as Mr. Jones. On the other hand, a fair number of people still dislike being patted on the shoulder and called Harry by someone who is trying to sell something. Women, in particular, object to being addressed as Susan by a doctor who would look startled at being called Jack. There are no doubt millions of people, notably in-laws, who have never succeeded in figuring out what to call one another at all.

(8) In most of our nightmares about the future, the dehumanized citizens will be given numbers instead of names, as traditionally happens in prison. Perhaps it would be more effective to persuade everyone to stop using names at all. Then everybody would have the same name: Hi.

— *By Otto Friedrich*

GLOSSARY:

+ avocations (line 7): diversions, minor occupations

+ Oxbridgian (line 51): pertaining to graduates of Oxford or Cambridge Universities in England.

NOTE:

The encircled numbers indicate paragraph numbers; the other numbers indicate line numbers.

TIME. August 18, 1986

ADDENDUM B (SEE QUESTIONS 2 & 3)

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE MOVES TOWARDS NON-SEXISM

Tennis commentators at Wimbledon — both male and female — speak of the *men's* championship and the *ladies'* championship. They compare the progress of the British *men* with that of the British *girls*. Discussing the singles finals, they refer typically to *McEnroe* and *Connors*, and to *Chrissie* and *Martina*. The scoreboard lists *McEnroe* and *Connors*, and *Mrs Evert-Lloyd* and *Miss Navratilova*. Whether these distinctions serve to demean women, or patronise them, or elevate them, is a matter of opinion. But they clearly do set women apart, treat them in a different way, where there is no apparent need (except that of convention) to do so.

Western society is changing a great deal in its view of the role of women; the equal-rights movement has brought about not just practical changes but changes in thinking as well. And in the wake of these, language has been changing too, though rather more slowly: English remains strongly coloured by beliefs of the past. (Language is like that. We continue to speak of *the four corners of the earth* and of the sun as *rising* and *setting*, even though we know that the earth is round, and that it goes round the sun and not vice versa.)

Language reflects current beliefs too, not just those of the past, and residual sexism within English can be an indication of sexism in people's actions and attitudes. Some feminists go further, and argue that sexist language is in some way a *cause*, rather than simply a *result*, of sexist thinking and behaviour. The inequalities fossilised within English, they insist, are responsible for perpetuating the attitudes underlying them. Accordingly, they urge the introduction of new neutral terms to replace the old sexist terms — *humankind* for *mankind, chairperson* or *chair* for *chairman*, and so on.

They have achieved some successes, certainly. Many reputable newspapers throughout the English-speaking world have adopted *Ms* as an addition to, if not a replacement of, the traditional forms *Miss* and *Mrs*. On a much larger scale, the federal government in Australia decided in 1984 to expunge all sexist references from the statute books. Over 50,000 words in hundreds of parliamentary Acts will apparently have to be altered. 'Masculine' words such as *seaman* and *chairman* will be replaced — by *mariner* and *convenor* or *president*, for instance. And sentences will be restructured in order to avoid having to use *he, him*, and *his* to refer to both men and women.

But these policies can go only so far. They cannot force changes in people's speaking and writing habits, though they can influence these habits slowly. Even if English-speakers had an official academy (the way French-speakers do) to monitor and advise on the use of language, they would largely ignore its recommendations (just as French-speakers do). English technical and scientific vocabularies are standardised from time to time, but no large-scale language-planning and standardisation (of the kind undertaken in Indonesia, Malaysia, or the Philippines, for instance) would be tolerated in most English-speaking countries.

From: "The Right Word at the Right Time" (A Guide to the English Language and how to use it), published by the Reader's Digest Association Limited.

Appendix D

Using the Language Programme

1. Partners

You may work in groups of 2 or 3 but remember to pursue your own interests as an individual as these may be different from those of your friends.

2. Volume of Work

The volume of work that you do is entirely up to you. I would suggest that you complete at least 3 sections by the September exams. Obviously it is in your best interest to complete all 5 sections. This is not impossible!

3. Order of Work

The sections and the items within the sections may be done in any order. The best way is to first select areas with which you have had difficulty in the past. Subsequently, be guided by your own interest.

4. Number of Examples

In each of the packets, you will find that a number of exercises have been given. There is no need to do them all. Only work through the examples until you are sure that you understand the principle that is being demonstrated.

5. Ready Reference

It is important to make notes from the discussions so that you have a reference from which to revise. Write these at the back of your exercise book.

6. Answer Sheets

These are in preparation and will be available shortly. There will be answers given for each example in each exercise.

7. Help

Periods 5 and 6 on Tuesdays have been set aside for the programme. I shall be at school during these periods. If you need help after hours, please phone me at 22476.

8. Comments

Please complete the record of work done and your comments as you work through the programme. This is very important

Appendix E

Language Programme

LANGUAGE PROGRAMME BASED ON SENIOR SECONDARY SYLLABUS 1986	INSIGHTS	COMPREHENSIVE ENGLISH PRACTICE	SENIOR LANGUAGE
A. LANGUAGE IN GENERAL			
A.1 Development of English	P.222-228	P.247-P.253:Ex 50-55	
A.2 Standard English	P.75-80		
A.3 South African English	P.96-101	P.255-257 Ex59-60;P.278-280	
B. FEATURES OF STYLE			
B. 1 Foregrounding and Apposition	P.194		
B. 2 Context			No. 18
B. 3 Register	P.154-156		No.6
B. 4 Tone	P.113		No.1
B. 5 Bias			No.2
B. 6 Colloqialism and Slang	P.152-		No.7&8
B. 7 Jargon	P.154		No.9
B. 8 Analysis of arguments	P.132		
B. 9 Irony and Sarcasm			No.16
B.10 Pun	P.26-28		No.17
B.11 Persuasive devices		P.24-37	
B12. Denot. & Connot.	P.43:A1&2;P.59:A1&2		
B.13 Euphemism	P.5		
B.14 Satire			No. 15
B.15 Visual Literacy	P.66-70		
C. BACK TO BASICS			
C.1 Punctuation	P.24;P.42;P.58;P.172		Lang Basics:1,2 &11-18
C.2 Verbs			Lang Basics 15 &16
C.3 Adjectives and Adverbs			Lang Basics 12
C.4 Pronouns			Lang Basics 9,10 &11
C.5 Direct and Indirect Speech			Lang Basics 8
C.6 Agreement (Concord)			Lang Basics 4,5,6 & 7
C.7 Conjunctions			Lang Basics 14
C.8 Prepositions			Lang Basics 17
C.9 Mixed Metaphors			Lang Basics 18
C.10 Cliches			No.12
C.11 Ambiguity			No.5
C.12 Verbosity			No.4
C.13 Tautology and Redundancy			No.3
C.14 Unrelated Words and Phrases			Lang Basics 3
C.15 Vocabulary	P.59:C;P.100;P.113		
C.16 Common Problems		P.242-246	
C.17 Language Basics: General Revision		P.235-240	
D. UNDERSTANDING TEXTS			
D.1 Summary and Precis	P.219-221	P.3-12	
D.2 Expanding Texts		P.17-18	
D.3 Persuasive Devices		P.24-38	
D.4 Propaganda			No.13
D.5 Advertising		P.40-42	No.14
D.6 The Newspaper		P.282-286	
E. COMPREHENSION OF RELATED TEXTS			
E.1 Comprehensions(2)		P.47-50	
E.2 Integrated Comprehension		P.68-70	
E.3 Integrated Comprehension		P.83-94	
E.4 Integrated Comprehension	P.38-43		

Appendix F

Diaries

The Experimental Group

The diary entries are shown as they were written by the diarists. The irony of the language mistakes made will not be lost on the reader, but I trust the diaries will be accepted in the spirit in which they were written.

Diary 1

24 July

Lesson 1

Mrs Hartman introduced us to her experiment. So, today is the start of us Std 9's being guineapigs. To tell you the truth, it is really exciting or should I add to that and say different!

We were divided into two groups: Blue and yellow. I'm actually glad to be in the yellow group as we can work at our own pace choosing what we want in any order.

I personally enjoy working at my own pace and knowing that Mrs Hartman is there if we need any questions answered! As we have the freedom to do our work in what ever order and in what ever quantity we like I plan to start on the topics that I'm not too sure off and also the topics which are not available for use in *Insights*.

I have a funny feeling that English grammar will be much more fun than it would be if I were taught step by step by a teacher. I learn more when I research the work myself. Although, I am kind of worried that I don't cover enough work or go about it in the wrong way. But, I suppose thats what I'll learn as time goes on!

25 July — 30 July

I have been trying to change my 'packets' as frequently as possible. My main aim is to complete the *Senior Language* ones first. I've been talking to some of the people in my group and some of them enjoy the way we are learning and others are worried that they'll do badly in exams because they are not too confident of not being taught. My personal opinion of what those feel who are not confident is that they are most probably going to be the one's who do well. My philosophy is, if you want to learn and are determined to do well then you will.

Lessons 2 & 3

31 July and 7 August

When Mrs Hartman told us that we should be practically halfway through our list I nearly died. I did not really realise how much work we should be putting in. I guess neither did the majority of the class. I am now trying to move alot faster but at the moment I find marking my work fairly difficult. Only because I can never get to the answers that I need. So it becomes hard to mark your completed work. I am also a little worried about not being able to finish the sheet on time. I guess that means dedicated work, more work done in a short period of time and I will try and enjoy what worksheets I choose to do. To tell you the truth, I do enjoy them and I really am learning alot about Grammar as a whole!

8 August to 14 August

I am beginning to feel worried as I am trying to work fast and thoroughly yet I don't seem to be getting anywhere. Well, maybe that is not entirely true, I just don't seem to be able to see any light.

Well, I suppose I should just work faster. I took home, over the weekend a couple of 'packets' and worked through them. I brought them back to school and replaced them with another 'packet'. I also marked most of my work.

The exercises I do, I get the majority of it correct so I am more confident with what I am doing.

Lesson 4

14 August

I did not realise that we have four more lessons left. Time flies! I am nearly finished *Senior Language* but I must start on *Insights* and CEP. I am now determined to do *Insights* exercises everynight so that I'll finish the programme - marked, before exams. I have looked at CEP and *Insights* and I enjoy the *Senior Language* the best. I find CEP far too serious - boring and dull. *Insights* is not too bad but *Senior Language* is fun to do.

Lesson 5

21 August

I cannot believe that we have only two more lessons left. It is utterly amazing how time flies. I spent 1 period of the double that we have, marking my exercises. I have been getting most of them correct. If there was one exercise that shocked me ... Verbs in Senior Language. I never knew my spelling was that bad. It was terrible!

I think that is the advantage of doing English grammar this way. You mark things yourself. The teacher is not watching over you or marking it and you realise how much you know and what you don't know.

When your marking your work in a big group you fill in answers and try to hide what you got wrong. Whereas when you mark it alone you are honest with yourself.

Well, I spent the second period trying to finish Senior Language packets but I could not get any. So I moved on to CEP and I managed to work steadily.

I still have alot of work to do, even though I've done a fair amount. I must work more during the week!

22 August

Here I am babysitting and I thought this the perfect opportunity to go through all the *Insights* exercises. I managed to go through five of them and I could not do any more. Maybe it was because I was tired but I find the *Insights* exercises rather tedious to do after you have done three.

I guess I'll have to sit down and work through *Insights* on and off for a week then I'll finish.

22 August - 28 August

I've been trying to do *Insights* exercises. I enjoy the comprehensions and the exercise on 'tone' and 'visual literacy' but I found the first section of our assigned work, terrible. I enjoyed reading the extracts but the actual exercise was tedious.

I have nearly completed *Senior Language* there are only two more to do but everytime I go to look in the files nothing is there!

Lesson 6

I have decided to leave *Insights* for a while and do some CEP. I have not done as much CEP as I should have.

I have found that the CEP exercises are either interesting or boring. But I always learn something new.

29 August — 3 September

I have done the majority of the CEP 'packets'. I enjoyed the comprehensions tremendously.

It is amazing how much I have learnt. I say thet because the exercises are becomming easier to do.

Lesson 7

One more lesson and then exam time. I can not believe how fast time has gone by.

I have nearly completed the programme, even the first section. Many people in my group have done a tremendous amount of work. Some say that they have really enjoyed it. I wish there was plenty more time though.

5 September — 10 September

I have been trying hard to finish the sections but everyday I go to the files and there is either no packets in the file or they are the ones I have completed. So I have only two more *Insights* exercises left as I have been doing exercises from there.

Personally I have enjoyed this experiment of working at my own pace. I have learnt how to manage my time and also discipline of doing work instead of something else.

Lesson 8

This is our last lesson of this 'experiment'. We did not even have a double period. I am glad that Mrs Hartman has asked if we would like to continue with the programme next term but I do think there will be problems with there being 'packets' left in the files. (As both classes will most probably be doing this)

I have practically completed the programme and I feel confident for my exam tomorrow. The only thing that worries me is 'time'. I always battle to finish.

12 September.

After the Exam.

The paper was extremely long. I did finish though. I battled. It was my precis that held me up. The comprehension was enjoyable.

All in all I enjoyed the paper up until I thought I was going to run out of time. I can not say how I think I have done because it was one of those papers that you could have done badly or well. I honestly do not know.

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Diary 2

24 July

Today was the first day of the new method in which we are going to be taught English. At first, all the students were excited. Later, some said it was boring. Others said they thought this new method was a challenge.

31 July

It is a week since the inception of the new method in which we are to be taught. Most of the students are beginning to settle in. They are getting used to doing exercises on their own. Most of the pupils are beginning to complain that getting up and looking for exercises is beginning to be a waste of time.

14 August

All the students have settled into this new method. They have realised that they must work steadily in order to complete all the exercises.

21 August

All the exercises have been taken from the files. I think that everyone has decided that exams are too soon to be playing around and that there was alot of work still to be completed. Some of us are still working slowly, but others have gone quite far and have almost completed the three sections required.

28 August

Today, we were all very noisy. Everyone seemed to forget to work and that exams were close.

11 September

Today was the last period before exams. The weeks just seem to have flown past. Most people have finished all three sections required to complete, some – a very few of us, have actually finished all five sections. You do get the lazy people, who have hardly done anything at all. These past periods have actually been quite different than the periods and lessons that we have had before. Before, everyone worked together on the same exercise and were thus motivated to do some work. I don't think that this method of teaching does not motivate or is effective to some students. Some students think that since there is nobody pushing them, they work at their own pace, a slow pace and thus they don't get anywhere.

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Diary 3

24 July

At the beginning of school today Mrs Hartman caused a general muddle by insisting that everyone had to be either in the Yellow Group or the Blue Group.

Once everyone realised that this was part of Mrs Hartman's experiment we (the Yellow group) settled down to hear what this was all about.

Basically we were told that we would be working alone with Mrs Hartman more as a consultant than a teacher. We were told we could do exercises on any kinds of Grammar we wanted to and as many exercises as we wanted to.

I feel this places a lot of the responsibility of doing the work on our shoulders. For some people this could be good, because they can work at their own pace, and they can pay more attention to what they feel is important. Personally, I think I will manage to do more work in less time when working on my own.

However, there are also people in the class who cannot work on their own, and need a teacher to check on them constantly. Whether they are just lazy, or whether they just can't take the responsibility for their own work , I don't know.

I feel this method of learning may be able to help some of us, and it is worth a try.

31 July

Today at the beginning of our weekly English period with Mrs Hartman. Everyone spent a lot of time swopping exercises with each other, in fact when we left one file was empty.

So far I've completed 8 or 9 exercises and because I'm working on my own I should be finished with the most important of them soon.

7 August

We're still going on alone but not everyone is as far in the work as it seems they should be. Also the periods are becoming monotonous - 'just passing the time' as someone said. And that is what it feels like sometimes.

14 August

By next week we're told we should be half way through the work. I think I'm just about there, but I know that some of the others haven't done as many exercises as I have. That is the disadvantage of this system. The advantage is that I'm learning about some things I've never really understood before and I've got the chance to make sure I know those things.

21 August

Many people will have to work hard to get up to where we should be in our work. Some of the exercises are quite interesting. Others, especially those from the Comprehensive English Practice are quite boring.

28 August

We have two more classes before this programme is over. I have learnt a lot that I didn't know, or that I only knew vaguely. What I haven't managed to do yet I can do in my own time from 'Insights' because I tried to do all the other exercises first. These regular English lessons are good revision for the exams.

4 September

Today we were told that everything should be finished by next week. I have just managed to finish except for my comprehensions. I intend to practice those from Insights. Many people have had to work very hard to catch up, I doubt whether some of them will manage that.

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Control Group

Diary 1

24 July

Today Mrs Hartmen gave us assignments to do. I must admit that the class was more fun to be in and Mrs Hartmen made English more interesting although she gave us homework it was sort of unexpected considering that we also have other English homework but I find that that Mrs Hartmen didn't give us enough time one week to do and look for advertise on television really isn't a long time.

29 July

Today I actually got around to do my English assignment no. 1 a-h. It was pretty basic, but actually looking for the adverts was difficult because the ads that our group wanted did not show on television. (when we actually had time to look and watch)

31 July

Today everyone enjoyed Mrs Hartmens class, we went to the video room to watch the different (video) television advertisements, they were enjoyable. The second period we went to class and discussed the magazine ads. The class was enjoyable everyone had fun.

We all feel at ease and feel that we can say anything even if it is wrong and the teacher won't even shout back and say why would you say such a thing etc.

These new English classes are sure fun, it actually makes English an enjoyable subject.

7 August

English! well, today was it my two longest periods, it looked like it would never end, it was boring and tireing, I don't really know, but I think that was because two periods of the same thing is boring.

We marked homework towards the end of the period and gave us new work as a group, that was fun, I prefer doing group work than individual work. I don't know why but I find that when I'm doing work in a group that I tend to know more work than on my own! I tend to become more lazy on my own and in a group I tend to life 'n up and speak more.

14 August

Boy! I must admit it was an improvement to last weeks periods. Although we were actually learning it was interesting. I learn things that I never knew had to be doen and why. For example when I wrote an essay all I used to see or still see is red pen marks and these two periods Mrs Hartmen explained what these red pen marks mean't. Now I know what I did wrong and learn't how to correct it.

I'm sure evryone enjoyed these two periods, well when we left the class for break everyone was smiling and not frowning as usual.

21 August

Today before English it was quiet a rush considering that Mrs Hartmen asked for our books 5 periods before English. Nearly have the class didn't have the homework doen but as usual Mrs Hartmen gave us 3 periods to give them in which gave us 1 1/2 hours to complete the precis. When we got to class there was the odd one or two that only handed their books in during English.

I enjoyed English although I do take long reading. (today we had to work in our groups and Mrs Hartmen gave us each an article to read and then answer some questions) Anyway when having read our own article we had to read the other 3 articles, then we had to work in groups of two and boy was that fun it's funny how two people can disagree on one silly thing, but that was quietly overcome, we used a dictionary and found the correct answer. It was fun, today.

I think what is more fun about English on a Tuesady is that Mrs Hartmen tends to make us feel comfortable, Mrs Hartmen doesn't seem like a teacher, she seems more like a friend willing to help us past our English. I'm enjoying it and so is the rest of the class.

28 August

Class today was ok, not boring but not thrilling either.

We went through the previous Tuesday's work and Mrs Hartmen shouted at some people. You can say that she was angry.

Mrs Hartmen then explained to us what cartoons are all about and then she explained to us how to write the essay and to have it doen by Tuesady next week and to be handed in by Tuesday the 4th September and before school started.

4 September

English, well it started off boring because Mrs Hartmen said that we were going to work with dictionaries and of course everyone said to themselves 'But we know how to use them!' But we were wrong.

We started talking about abbreviations and why cerytain letters eg upside down letters and brackets appeared in the dictionary. It actually turned out to be quiet fun considering we all started asking questions and we all learnt things we never knew. As they say 'you learn something new every day!'

There was just one big problem as the bell rang, Mrs hartmen smiled and gave us homework which we didn't expect considering we write exams in one week.

11 September

Today class was sort of unorganised, no not the teacher but the pupils.

Half of us didn't have our comprehensions completed considering that we start exams tomorrow we didn't think that we had to have our homework done! But we were wrong as we walked into the class Mrs Hartmen said books out and was ready to mark!

Some of the pupils complained so Mrs Hartmen gave us all 5 min. to complete the comprehension.

We marked the work and then Mrs Hartmen asked us to ask questions on the work we had to study for exams. She explained some of the pupils questions and told us that the paper was long and that we had to work fast but accurate.

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Diary 2

Day 1

Looking for adverts was fun, finding appeals also quite interesting. Didn't quite see the connection to English or Grammar. Picture didn't seem to play a part in English. Point of exercise should have been explained. Too much homework considering normal classes especially the group video project. Also seems pointless although interesting.

Day 2

Definitely the best lesson. Looking at the adverts and the videos was very interesting. The relaxed atmosphere made it easier to think and give your ideas. Very nice to throw around ideas and discover things for yourself. The homework was a fair amount and not too difficult.

Day 3

A rather boring day. It is much more fun marking something where each opinion may be right. It has no fun when your answer must be a certain one. The long discussions and 'lectures' were boring too. The homework seemed a lot but it was quite interesting.

Day 4

Marking the homework was okay but rather boring. Whatever else we did couldn't have been too great because I can't remember what it was.

Day 5

This was another interesting lesson. I think it's because it involved us and concerned us personally. Discovering your errors and why they were wrong as well as the correction affects you so we were interested. Also everyone else had errors and a relaxed atmosphere made it easy to admit yours. The exercise on scanning etc. was okay. The precis seemed fair for homework.

Day 6

The precis did not seem quite right and we were moaned at. The exercise with articles was fun. It is much nicer working in groups because a whole lot of ideas come up. It was interesting to discover things for yourself. The homework (Find 3 cartoons and write an essay)

Day 7

It had not been easy to find 3 cartoons on the same theme but it had been done. The exercise with the leopard pictures was boring but then it was fun to argue about what you saw. The dictionary exercise was okay. It was interesting to find out how to use it. Homework seemed okay, too.

Day 8

Marking the homework was okay. It was fun to see the different things people had seen and you hadn't. It was nice getting our essays back and seeing our mistakes and knowing what was wrong.

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Diary 3

24/07/90

Todays English period was different. It was different in the sence that there were students from the Std 9A class. This gave me a chance to see how they answered the questions. I must say it was of a higher standard. The fact that we worked in groups gave each of us in the group an oppertunity to see how your friends think. I enjoyed this very much. Another interesting thing was when we discussed the advertisement. This not only gave me a chance to see how the group thinks and answers but I got to see and hear just about the hole class. I enjoy it also when we have got an television advertisement. You can deduce a fair amount from the groups way of life if you had to see the advertisement and their comments about the add.

31/07/90

Today's English period was something different. We had a lenghty discution on Video's and how we put ourselves in one of the characters shoes while watching the movie.

Just before the end of the period we discussed the Mint Imperial picture. Five minutes before the end of the period we were asked to write an essay on the picture. This is a fairly difficult task and it spoiled the hole period. I find that writing is one of my weak points but I intend to give it my best shot.

07/08/90

The home work that we got today seemed to be of an extreme amount. It was alot of work but I did not expect it to be this easy.

We discussed several aspects in the advertising world. This was fairly interesting, especially the advertisement with Mercedes and BMW. The bends part of the advertisement was very interesting. This was an excellent eg of propaganda.

Hopefully we will have more periods like this one. Normaly I can't wait for the bell to ring for the end of the period but this period was different, it was sortoff special.

14/08/90

Mrs Hartman explained the usage of different words. She expalined why we should rather use this word instaed of that word in our essay. I found this period extremely boring because I did not know what was going on. Although I try hard in English, I think my main problem is the fact that I am scared to ask questions in class.

21/08/90

This was an embarising period. Mrs Hartman handed each person a newspaper cliping. We had to read all the newspaper clipings in our group and then enalise one of the newspaper clippings. I must admit, I am not the best reader, and when we had to read our clippings, the other people had read all the clippings while I was still reading.

The main aim of analising the newspaper clippings was to see how it was written and what language was used when writing a certain column for certain people.

We were told to make notes on precis.

28/08/90

The task for today was to analise at least three cartoons. I found this great fun. Only after you start to study a cartoon you realiize how much effort gets put into a cartoon.

After analizing the cartoons, Mrs Hartman gave my analization of the cartoons a good report. After I received the good comment, I felt better. This made my day. This encouraged me to continue to work hard at my English.

04/09/90

Today I gave a couple of good answers in connection with the dictionary work. I was proud of myself. After a long explanation, we got to do some tricky work in the dictionary. Although it was interesting to magnify the minor details in the dictionery, I would have preferred to do something else.

I am not sure what to expect in my English exam, but I am starting to get very nervious.

11/09/90

During this period we marked our comprehensions and Mrs Hartman explained to us how we should aproach and answer our exam the next day. She advised us that we must have a fresh and clear mind to understand or to be capable of doing well in the exam. After this message, I was just about sure that it was going to be a rough and tough exam.

I was right, it was very tough.

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Appendix G

Language Programme Questionnaire

Dear Std 9,

Please will you answer the questions given below as frankly as you can. Where reasons for your response are asked for, try to be as specific as possible. Thank you for your time.

1. From your work on the programme, how would you define the term 'Language Study'?

_____

_____

2. Did you enjoy doing the programme? Why?

_____

_____

3.Which sections of the programme did you select first?

_____

_____

4. Tick off the sections that you attempted:

Language in general

Features of Style

Back to basics

Understanding Texts

Comprehension of Related Texts

P.2

5. From which section did you learn the most? Explain your answer.

_____

_____

6. From which section did you learn the least? Explain why.

_____

_____

7. How much time do you think you spent on the programme on average, per week?

_____

_____

8.Could you have done more? _____

9. Did you work from

interest

duty

both

(Tick one.)

10. Did you feel under pressure to complete the work? Explain your answer.

_____

_____

11.Did you mark all the work that you did? _____

P.3

12. Did you find that this helped you at all? Why?

13. Would you have preferred class 'marking sessions' or just individual queries answered? Explain your choice.

14. If you did not consult the answer file, can you explain why?

15. Did you find the double lesson (70 mins) too long? _____

16. Would you have preferred two single lessons on separate days? _____
Explain your answer.

17. Would you have preferred the programme to have extended over two terms?
Explain your answer.

P.4

18. Are you satisfied with your result in the Language Paper? _____

19. Did the work done on the programme help you to answer the questions?
Look through your paper and specify which.

_____

_____

20. Were there questions for which the programme did not prepare you?
Specify which.

_____

_____

21. Would you like to continue the programme as part of your normal classwork until you have completed it? Please give a reason for your answer.

_____

_____

22. Do you prefer having periods set aside for language or would you prefer to have language taught as it arises in literature or oral or original writing periods? Please explain you answer.

_____

_____

_____

_____

P.5

23. Would you like to have some of your Language Study lessons taught in the traditional way and some as you have done on the programme?
Explain your answer, listing those which you would like to be taught.

_____

_____

_____

24. Have you any further comments on the programme?

_____

_____

Thank you for your co-operation.