

CHAPTER 4

FACTORS INFLUENCING SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

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CHAPTER 4 FACTORS INFLUENCING SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The discussion of Psychological emphases in Chapter 3 (section 3.5.3) highlighted the humanistic direction in CLT. In this chapter this view is taken further by examining the influence of the individual learners' interests, needs, styles, and goals on the learning process. There are a multiplicity of environmental and personal factors in the learning situation that can to some degree affect both the learning event and the speed of learning. It follows then that these different factors have significance for our understanding of language learning, and that they may influence decisions made on the development of materials, as well as on the methods and techniques utilised during the intervention undertaken as part of this study.

This chapter has two overlapping aims. The first is to explore a number of environmental factors influencing additional language teaching and learning, and to review the influence of certain affective variables that are central to the emotional processes of humans. The importance of attitude and motivation, for example, will be addressed.

An exploration of conditions necessary for successful learning will allow a better understanding of the influence of emotional aspects in second or additional language teaching and learning. The often-problematic introduction of communicative language teaching into an instructional culture that is strongly traditional is another issue that will receive attention in this chapter.

The second aim is to reflect upon the manifestation of these different factors which have influenced additional language teaching and learning in this study. Consideration will be given especially to the learners' attitudes and motivation to learn Afrikaans, and the influence thereof on the learning process.

Furthermore, the discussion of the various influencing factors will provide insight into what kind of teaching, which techniques, and what materials might be appropriate for enhancing proficiency in second or additional language teaching and learning.

Let us now consider some of the factors influencing conditions for second language learning.

4.2 FACTORS INFLUENCING THE LEARNING SITUATION

Various researchers have developed taxonomies of factors influencing second language learning. These include biographic background, social factors, affective factors, personality factors, learning styles, learning strategies, learning aptitude and interaction between learner and environment (cf. Schuman, 1978: 163; Van Els, Bongaerts, Extra, Van Os & Janssen-van Dieten, 1984: 115-124; Spolsky, 1989: 25-29; McDonough & Shaw, 1993: 7-8; Ehrman, 1996: 192). Conteh-Morgan (2002: 192-193) supports the belief of some applied linguists that factors such as social context, learner characteristics, learning conditions, learning process, and learning outcomes influence the way language is learned. On the other hand, Bax (2003: 278-287) holds a diametrically opposed viewpoint and argues in a recent article that although CLT is currently the central paradigm in language teaching, the main focus should rather be on learner variables and the context in which learning takes place. Bax's argument takes the debate on eclecticism to an extreme and should be treated critically and carefully, since much of the literature seems to suggest otherwise (cf. Carr & Kemmis, 1986; Davidoff & Van den Berg, 1990; Weideman, 2001; Weideman, 2002a).

Gathering information about different factors affecting learning contributes to a coherent picture of a learner (Ehrman, 1996: 191). Moreover, Wilkins (1974: 43) states that judgement on the effectiveness of a particular method used in a classroom situation is not possible if the characteristics of the learners, the teacher's qualities, as well as the physical and other conditions in which it is used, are not considered. Conteh-Morgan (2002: 193) indicates that when all the factors influencing the learning process are combined, these factors allow the teacher to assess the outcomes of the learning experience and the "post-instruction proficiency level" of the learners.

A framework of factors influencing the teaching and learning of Afrikaans as an additional language was developed. This was inspired by a similar kind of outline by Spolsky (1989: 215) that proposes a causal model for Hebrew learning in a case study. The framework, as set out below in Figure 4.1, was however, developed from a slightly different angle and with a few adaptations to reflect the particular teaching and learning environment in this study.

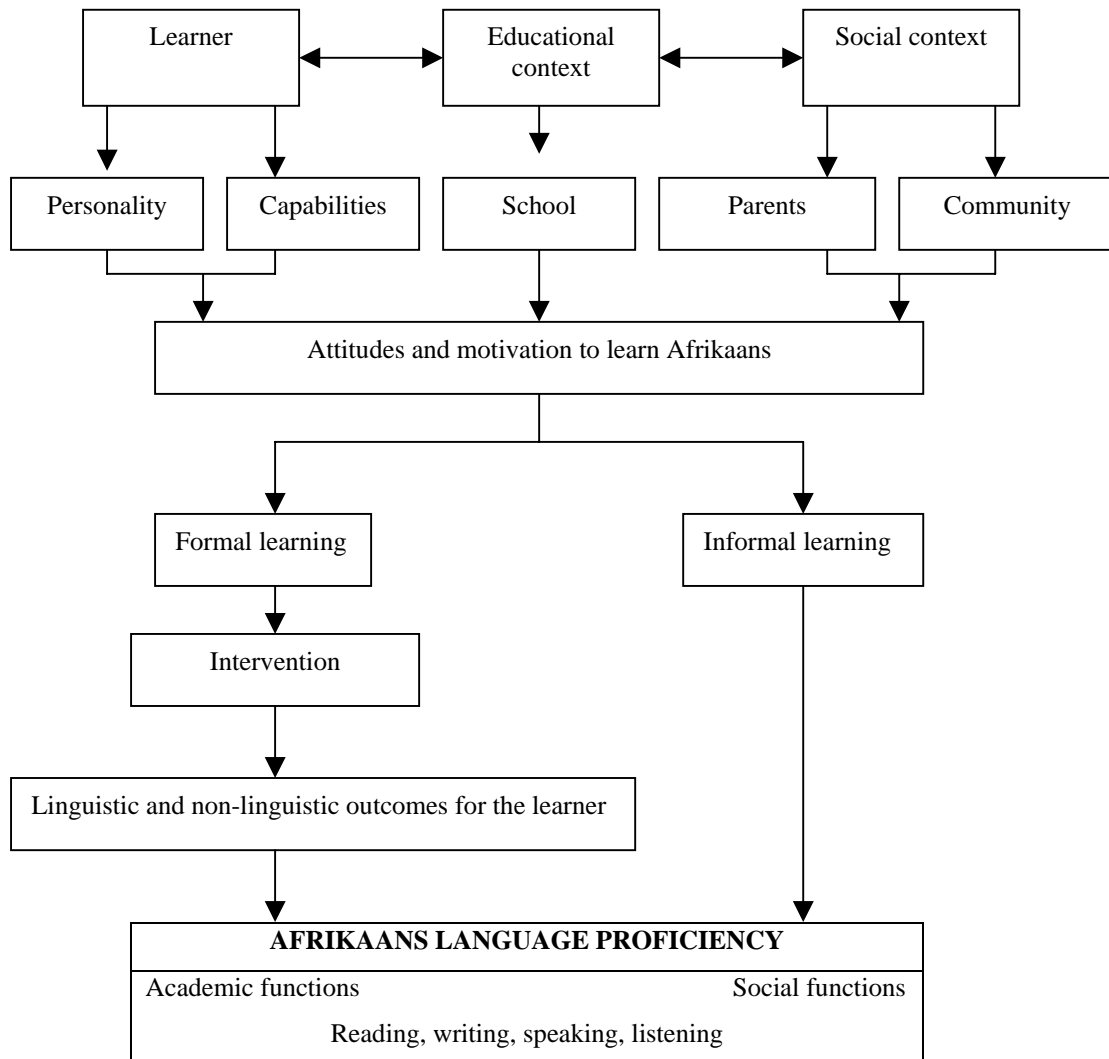


Figure 4.1 Framework of factors influencing teaching and learning of Afrikaans as an additional language

The framework encapsulates the theoretical views on the overall relationship between educational and social contextual factors, individual learner differences, learning opportunities, and learning outcomes. The framework will be used as a general guide in the pursuit of a better understanding of additional language learning and teaching.

It must be noted that the framework is integrated and interactive and assumes close interaction among its various parts. The rectangular boxes indicate the different variables (or factors) of importance to learning, and the arrows connecting the various boxes show the directions of influence.

The learner as variable, reflected by the first rectangular box in the model, will be discussed first.

4.3 LEARNER

Probably the most prominent variable in the instructional situation is the learner. Through the years researchers and teachers alike have been interested in the role of affective factors in second language learning. The characteristics of learners “cover a whole range of personal, social, and attitudinal aspects” (Conteh-Morgan, 2002: 193). Attitudinal factors relating to language acquisition will be among those that contribute to a low Affective Filter, since classroom atmosphere created and sustained by the teacher and not by the learners’ attitudes is equally important in lowering the affective filter (cf. Richards & Rodgers, 1986: 133; Krashen, 1987: 30-31; Ehrman, 1996:137).

Brown (1994: 220) states that if the teacher takes affective principles into consideration in lesson planning, this will not only lower the affective filter, but the techniques and materials employed will also challenge the learners cognitively.

What is the difference between a good language learner and a bad language learner? A good language learner is described as a learner who acquires adequate intake in the second language, and has a low affective filter to allow input for language acquisition (Krashen, 1988: 37-39). The bad language learner has “neither acquisition nor learning going for him” and this might be the result of attitudinal factors (lacking interest in the target language and its speakers, lacking self-confidence, a high anxiety level) as well as low aptitude, or interest in grammar (Krashen, 1988: 38). The relevance here is that a low anxiety level in the classroom will assist the learners’ intake, as noted earlier in Chapter 3, section 3.5.4.1.

Brown (1994: 22) describes affective principles as the “foundation stones ... on which techniques and learning material can be based”. Besides the learner’s attitude and motivation, aspects such as personality (especially relevant are self-confidence, risk taking, and anxiety), capabilities such as the learner’s aptitude for languages, his or her learning strategies and learning style, his or her previous knowledge, and experience of the target language are of significance in the language learning process.

4.3.1 Personality

People vary widely in their personality, and personality factors are interrelated with attitudinal and motivational factors. Keuning (1998: 366-367) defines personality as the “combination of psychological characteristics to classify individuals”.

4.3.1.1 Self-confidence

Self-confidence, also defined by Brown (1994: 23) as the “I can do it” principle, is about the learner’s belief in his/her own ability to accomplish the task. Krashen (1988: 23) indicates that self-confidence encourages the learner’s intake, and will also result in having a low filter. The use of simpler techniques at the start of classroom activities will boost learners’ self-confidence, since a sense of accomplishment assists learners in the next, more difficult activity (Brown, 1994: 23).

Self-efficacy, self-esteem, risk taking, and lack of anxiety are traits of self-confidence that also relate to second language learning. Ehrman (1996: 137) mentions self-efficacy as an element in learning, because it reflects the degree to which the learner thinks he/she can cope and succeed in the learning situation. Conversely, enhanced self-efficacy, that is when the learner expects good results, tends to increase motivation and also increases willingness to take learning risks (cf. Skehan, 1989: 106; Ehrman, 1996: 144).

Language learning difficulties may particularly influence self-esteem negatively. Self-esteem is often built on a sense of self-efficacy (Ehrman, 1996: 146). Learners may believe that the target language is difficult to learn, or even that there is a right way to learn the target language. Thus, these beliefs and assumptions, as well as the learner’s

expectation of him/herself, affect the learner's sense of his/her ability to learn (Ehrman, 1996: 145).

In the beginning of the intervention being investigated in this study, it was obvious that the learners struggled with self-confidence, self-efficacy and self-esteem. They were very reluctant to speak Afrikaans, indicating to me, the teacher, that Afrikaans is difficult to learn. But, with time, as they felt more at ease in the class, they became more self-confident and were more willing to speak and ask questions in Afrikaans. Some learners even attempted to make conversation with me in Afrikaans after class (see Appendix D). This brings us to the notion of risk taking.

4.3.1.2 Risk taking

A number of researchers (cf. Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982; Skehan, 1989; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Brown, 1994; Ehrman, 1996; Weideman, 2002a) acknowledge the tendency to take risks and its connection with achieving greater success in language learning. If learners have a firm belief that they can accomplish a task, they then may be willing to become “gamblers in the game of language, to attempt to produce and to interpret language that is a bit beyond their absolute certainty” (Brown, 1994: 24).

In their discussion of risk taking, Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991:188) indicate that the direct opposite of risk-taking behaviour is manifested in ‘sensitivity to rejection’. Learners who are sensitive to rejection may avoid participation in the classroom, because they fear disapproval from classmates or the teacher. Therefore the self-confident learners will fear rejection less (Dulay *et al.*, 1982: 75).

In this study, learners' ages ranged from 16-22, with 18 the average age, thus reflecting an age category associated with adolescence. In this respect, researchers (Richards & Rodgers, 1986: 133; Lightbown & Spada, 1993; Ehrman, 1996: 150) suggest that fear, embarrassment, inhibition about performing in front of others, and judgment by others, all increase in early adolescence, and probably discourage risk-taking. Consequently, these traits may result in a high affective filter and may hamper progress in additional language learning.

However, during the intervention period under investigation, there was an increase in the learners' willingness to take risks. It was found that, to the extent that learners viewed the communicative activities done in class interesting, meaningful, and reflecting the real world outside the classroom, more of them deliberately attempted to use Afrikaans. Evidence of this was when two male learners volunteered to demonstrate their telephone conversation in front of the class (Chapter 6, Lesson 7). The class listened attentively and the two learners' endeavour resulted in a flow of participation by other eager classmates, despite the fact that I was recording their efforts, which could have been expected to inhibit them.

4.3.1.3 Anxiety

There appears to be a consistent relationship between personality, anxiety, the learning situation, and language proficiency. Ehrman (1996: 137-138) indicates that a variety of feelings accompany learning, and range from positive to less pleasant feelings. Negative feelings include frustration, anger, anxiety and lack of self-confidence, and these affective factors may influence the learning event, as well as how much language a learner can learn in a given time.

Some of the learners in this study indicated in the first questionnaire that they felt embarrassed by their poor performance in Afrikaans, while others indicated that they were anxious because they needed to pass Afrikaans, and found it a difficult language to learn. All these factors are indicative of these learners possessing a high affective filter.

According to Spolsky (1989: 114), anxiety in foreign language classes is most often related to listening and speaking, with 'difficulty in speaking in class' the main reason for high anxiety levels. Thus, teachers are challenged to create a favourable condition in the classroom by employing techniques to reduce anxiety and stress. Furthermore, a teacher should also consider the use of appropriate learning material in the learning situation. Weideman (2002a: 97) suggests that to become a professional, the language teacher should eventually be able to design appropriate teaching and learning materials to provide a less threatening and more supportive environment for learners. Therefore, the stress index for language methods proposed by Weideman (2002a:

102-103), provides teachers with valuable information on how to reduce anxiety in the second language classroom, and offers the teacher a reason for deliberately choosing a certain technique from the wide range available.

4.3.2 Capabilities

As illustrated in Figure 4.1, capabilities appear in the cluster comprising conditions relating to the learner, and involve the learners' capabilities in language learning such as aptitude, learning style and strategies. The combination of these learner factors explains the use the learner makes, deliberately or subconsciously, of the socially provided formal or informal learning opportunities (Spolsky, 1989: 27).

For the purpose of this study these variables will not be discussed in depth. They do, however, merit some brief individual discussion, as they may be related to affective variables. Therefore their influence in second language learning needs to be considered briefly.

4.3.2.1 Aptitude

Researchers comment that aptitude is not a single factor, but a cluster of specific abilities (cf. Skehan, 1989; Spolsky, 1989). In this respect, McLaughlin (1990: 172) asserts that “attitude, like intelligence, manner of presentation, and motivation, is a moderator variable that interacts with aptitude to predict performance in a second language”.

4.3.2.2 Learning strategies and learning styles

Learning strategies and styles of language learning, that at present command much attention in the research literature, are aspects constantly being researched (Cohen, 1998). Researchers suggest that learners differ in learning styles, and thus approach tasks with different sets of skills and strategies (cf. Spolsky, 1989: 108-109; Lightbown & Spada, 1993: 40-41; for a survey, see Lepota & Weideman, 2002: 206-219). It is therefore advisable that the teacher should take this into consideration, and give learners some freedom to choose and practise their preferred way of learning.

Skehan (1989: 31-34) points out the strong connection between second language learning in a school situation, and situational aspects relating to family background, parental education, and parental literacy. McLaughlin (1990: 172) agrees that family variables influence the learner's "general language-processing capacity", and the learner's development of learning strategies. These strategies are manifested in

learners from some homes who learn how to ask questions and keep a conversation going, how to practice and develop routines, how to use memory aids, and how to plan and set goals (McLaughlin, 1990: 172).

Interestingly, when the learners in this study realised that the intervention involved communicative activities, a few brought dictionaries to class to assist them with their vocabulary. These actions clearly suggest the employment of a learning strategy.

4.3.2.3 Previous knowledge

Previous knowledge and experience of the target language is another variable, which in combination with other factors explains the use the learner makes of the learning situation. Without entering into a lengthy discussion of this specific variable, it is sufficient to notice here that the learner's previous knowledge of the target language, and in particular the knowledge of his/her first language, sets conditions for second language learning. McLaughlin (1990: 173) stresses the interdependence between first and second languages in the "cognitive/academic domain, because experience with one language gives the learner strategies and metacognitive skills that generalize to subsequent languages". This implies that as knowledge or proficiency develops in one language, it also develops in an additional language (for a survey of Cummins' interdependence hypothesis, see Cummins, Harley, Swain & Allen, 1990).

Furthermore, language learners are today no longer regarded as passive recipients of instruction, but rather as agents responsible for their own learning. They should therefore be aware of strategies and tactics to improve their learning of, and proficiency in, the target language.

This brings us to the educational context referred to in Figure 4.1, as a second set of factors influencing additional language teaching and learning.

4.4 EDUCATIONAL CONTEXT

Learner variables are not the only factors influencing additional language teaching and learning. The teacher also needs to consider how variables like physical, social and cultural factors influence the formal learning situation, or, as Wilkins (1974: 43) comments,

[I]t would be a bad teacher who did not take into account his own qualities as a teacher, the characteristics of his pupils and the physical and other conditions in which he had to work.

Educational context comprises the formal learning situation, and includes various factors such as the school, the learning situation, teachers, the classroom situation, the teacher and teaching materials.

4.4.1 School

Apart from informal situations where the learner may have the opportunity to learn and speak the target language in the community, school offers formal learning of the target language to the learner. Conteh-Morgan (2002: 193) indicates that the factors influencing the learning situation in this respect may also refer to the

general atmosphere of the learning environment, the classroom dynamics, opportunities for student-student and student-instructor interaction, and the student's perception of the instructor's commitment to their learning.

4.4.1.1 Learning situation

Research suggests that learners' attitude towards the learning situation has an effect on learning the target language. In learning situations where learning the target language is compulsory, issues such as anxiety or anger may influence attitudes and motivation (Ehrman, 1996: 142). English and Afrikaans are the two compulsory language subjects at the particular school in this study, and in addition the learners choose between Zulu and Sotho as the third compulsory language subject. In this study it was found that in the group of 86 learners, 43 learners chose Zulu, and 43 learners Sotho as their third language subject.

Another significant dimension in the learning situation is the often-problematic introduction of communicative language teaching into an instructional culture that is

strongly traditional. Cook (1996: 187) states that the emphasis on spontaneous communication in CLT might alienate those from cultures who value silence and respect, and can be seen as a “jump in cultural terms”. The move from the traditional teacher-led class to an emphasis on communication and interaction in the classrooms may upset teachers, parents and learners. In this respect, Littlewood (2001: 21) suggests that there is a link between learners’ attitudes towards the teacher’s authority and learners’ willingness to speak out in class, and to ask questions. His research revealed that the apparent passivity of learners (especially Asian learners) was attributable to a learning situation where teachers play the “traditionally dominant authority role” (Littlewood, 2001: 21). However, he concludes that most of the learners in all the countries in his survey question the traditional role of the teacher, and express the desire to “break out of these constraints”, in order to become more active participants in the learning situation.

While Littlewood’s research refers mainly to the Asian context of much of his work, studies done on the African continent (cf. Shaalukeni, 2000: 85; Tesfamariam, 2000: 122; Weideman, 2001; Weideman, 2002b), confirm the belief of teachers and parents that there should be silence in the classroom and that strict discipline must exist. Teachers still believe they must “control the class”, hence their aversion towards pair and group communicative activities (Tesfamariam, 2000: 122). In addition, the learners are not familiar with communication and interaction arrangements in the classroom, and have the preconception that they need to listen to the teacher, who is expected to do the talking.

Similar conditions were found in this study. In my discussions with the teacher of the Grade 12 learners at the particular school in the study, she repeatedly stated that she wanted to be in charge in the classroom, and that when she taught the learners needed to be quiet and listen. She often reacted negatively towards the communication activities the learners engaged in during the interventions, and categorically stated that she disliked the ‘noise’ (see Chapter 6 and Appendix D).

Another important feature of the learning situation is that of time. The number of hours available for teaching the target language will obviously influence the level of attainment. In this study the initial expected intervention time was limited by

numerous factors such as school holidays, Ascension Day, riots in the vicinity of the school, an excursion, finalising of portfolios, and a photo shoot (Chapter 6 and Appendix D). Moreover, the allocated hour every week for the intervention seldom materialised. Assembly of the entire school preceded the intervention classes and resulted in numerous unexpected delays. Most of the time I was left with only 40 minutes of teaching time. Furthermore, it became apparent that quite a number of learners have the habit to arrive late for class. This tendency of arriving late is tolerated by the teachers. Yet another aspect is that of poor class attendance; only on the second day of the intervention were all of the 86 learners present. Attendance varied, and according to the teacher poor attendance is normal. Even she herself was absent a few times during the intervention period.

4.4.1.2 Teachers, teacher talk and code switching

Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991: 179) state that teachers' attitudes towards learners are an important variable that can affect the quality and quantity of the learning which takes place, as well as the linguistic outcomes for the learner.

In this study, it soon became apparent that that the Grade 12 teacher was not fluent in Afrikaans and herself had feelings of anxiety and helplessness (see Chapter 6 and Appendix D). She complained about the learners' poor attitude and lack of motivation. Furthermore, she indicated that learners neglect their homework, and that learners have an aversion to compiling their portfolios. She criticised the learning situation, because she felt unsure about the Afrikaans syllabus, and stated that she structured her lessons merely on the content of the final National examination papers of previous years. She even used those examination papers as tests without any adjustments, with detrimental results (the learner with the highest mark obtained 15%). Moreover, she indicated that she had lost her motivation, since she felt teaching the Grade 12 learners Afrikaans was a hopeless endeavour. In our discussions, she often indicated that the current Grade 9 learners were in a better situation to learn Afrikaans, because more of them had received Afrikaans lessons previously than the learners in this study. Thus, she enthusiastically collected material used during the intervention, in order to use it in the Grade 9 classes.

Central to classroom practice and teacher-learner interaction is teacher talk (cf. Nunan, 1991b: 190-191; Brown, 1994: 105; Cook, 1996: 129; Dernoshek, 2001: 71). The input of a teacher is crucial, and in second language teaching “everything that flows from the teacher’s mouth is important” (Dernoshek, 2001: 71). Thus, teacher talk comprises anything a teacher says instinctively without using a script, viz. explaining, clarifying, asking questions, providing feedback, reprimanding or praising.

Nunan (1991b: 189) views teacher talk as important for the effective organisation of the classroom, as well as for the process of acquisition. Through the use of language a teacher may either succeed or fail to implement his/her teaching plans. Regarding acquisition, Nunan (1991b: 189) argues that teacher talk is “probably the major source of comprehensible target language input the learner is likely to receive”.

Ellis (1985: 304) compares teacher talk with foreigner talk and defines it as the “adjustments to both language form and language function in order to facilitate communication”. Similarly, other researchers comment on the notion of speech modification by teachers, in order to make the target language more comprehensible and thereby enhancing acquisition (cf. Spolsky, 1989: 178; Nunan, 1991b: 190-191; Brown, 1994: 105; Conteh-Morgan, 2002: 194). Efforts to improve comprehensibility may include clear articulation, shorter utterances, slower speech, simple vocabulary, short phrases, less complex syntax, and frequent self-repeat. Additionally, to aid comprehension, teachers may opt to rephrase rather than to repeat the sentence (Conteh-Morgan, 2002: 194). However, Brown (1994: 105) warns that the target language should not lose its naturalness due to slower speech, and advises that a teacher needs to use basic vocabulary, and simple and short phrases that are at, or just slightly beyond the learners’ level. Thus, teacher talk in line with a CLT approach should mirror authentic, real life communication.

Another issue of concern that we should briefly consider is that of code switching. This refers especially to the issue when and how much the target language should be used in second language teaching. This is an ongoing debate (cf. Nunan, 1991b; Brown, 1994; Turnbull, 2001). There are those (cf. Brown, 1994; Turnbull: 2001: 531) who support the view that the ideal would be to restrict classroom language to

the target language unless some distinct advantage is gained by not doing so, and then this should only happen for a very brief time. Turnbull (2001: 534) correctly points out that although a quick switch to enhance learners' understanding can save time, it is crucial to use the target language as much as possible in contexts where learners have little contact with the target language outside the classroom.

I am in agreement with the view to maximise the use of the target language, but believe that in the additional language classroom, principled decisions about the judicious use of English are justified. In this study, where the learners' Afrikaans proficiency levels are very low, I realised that without the occasional code switching into English (their second language) the learners would have comprehension difficulties and this might influence them negatively towards Afrikaans. Evidence of this was a remark by one of the learners after I gave them an instruction in Afrikaans (I thought a very simple one): "Ma'm, I enjoy listening to you speaking Afrikaans, but I have no clue what to do now!" Thus, in order to increase comprehension, especially at the beginning of the intervention, and to reduce anxiety, I used English to explain activities, give brief descriptions of how to carry out a technique, or even to clarify the meaning of certain words. After a few sessions I recorded in my diary (Appendix D) that less switching into English occurred. I also noted that with increased use of Afrikaans in class by me (and less English), the learners' use of Afrikaans rose commensurately.

4.4.1.3 Classroom situation and teacher

The learners' attitude toward the classroom situation and teacher may increase acquisition and learning of the target language, because learners who feel at ease in the classroom, and who like the teacher, may accept the teacher as a "source of intake". Furthermore, positive attitudes toward the classroom situation and the teacher may result in self-confidence and/or integrative motivation, thereby enhancing acquisition (Krashen, 1988: 23).

During the intervention, especially at the beginning, I found that the learners were anxious not to make mistakes on the handouts, and would rather start all over than to erase a word, even in the case of rough copies. I also noticed that the learners felt the

need to enquire constantly about the correctness of their actions, even before attempting any writing. All of this is a clear indication of the prevalence of strict discipline, and an emphasis on following ‘correct’ procedures that the learners are used to in the Afrikaans learning situation.

Conteh-Morgan (2002: 193) indicates that the learning conditions also have an impact on the learning experience. These conditions could range from the

physical conditions of the classroom (e.g. big or small, hot or cold, and adequate and functioning equipment) to what an individual instructor does to enhance learning – clear teaching objectives, well-designed materials, clear transmission of new information, or the point of entry into new material.

In respect of this study, the physical arrangements and the number of learners in the classroom may have influenced the learning situation. As mentioned in Chapter 1, section 1.8.2, the fact that 86 learners were taught in a small classroom reflects a less than an ideal learning situation. In this regard, Wilkins (1974: 45) argues that the issue with large classes is whether “desirable methods and objectives can be maintained in the face of classes of more than forty pupils”. Although four to six learners shared a desk, quite a number of learners were not seated at a desk and some did not even have chairs. Moving between the learners to assist and give individual attention was restricted in this crowded classroom. Having to ask learners to sit back to back in information gap activities resulted in almost impossible rearrangement dilemmas. Furthermore, crowding all the Grade 12 learners into one classroom was unusual, and as a result the learners may have viewed the intervention as less important than other classes.

4.4.1.4 Materials

The last educational factor of teaching and learning an additional language to be considered here is the stock of resources which the teacher is able to exploit. According to Wilkins (1974: 47), “resources are not an adjunct, but an integral part of the learning situation” and therefore limited resources impede achievement. The presence or absence of resources like textbooks, workbooks, writing paper, pens/pencils, chalk, a blackboard, wall-pictures, tapes, tape recorder, television, radio, reading material and a library, all influence the learning situation. Most of these

resources were lacking in the learning situation in this study. It became evident that the Grade 12 learners were not used to communicative activities and that most of the teaching was of the ‘chalk and talk’ variety, with only limited opportunities for reading. A special edition of the Afrikaans newspaper *Beeld*, with a supplementary issue on revision of all Grade 12 subjects, was issued to every learner in the class on Day 5. The distribution of the newspaper was met with great enthusiasm by the principal, teacher and the learners. However, a number of the male learners were more interested in the alcohol advertisements than in the rest of the newspaper.

The use of a tape recorder and video camera during some of the intervention lessons caused quite a stir and resulted in positive and enthusiastic participation from the learners (see Chapter 6 and Appendix D).

Tomlinson (1998b: 18) states that materials should take learners’ different affective attitudes into account, and suggests that positive feelings towards the target language, teachers, and the learning materials would enhance the learning situation. Alongside this recognition of the importance of affective factors and the use of authentic texts in learning, Guariento and Morley (2001: 347) argue that there has been a growing awareness that simplicity of tasks to maintain or increase learners’ motivation does not sacrifice authenticity. Thus, the use of very simple tasks with low-level learners can be planned to “exhibit a high degree of authenticity, not only in terms of task, but also in terms of learner response” (Guariento & Morley, 2001: 352).

Another affective strategy that the materials writer should consider is the use of materials that tap into or stimulate learners’ interest, in order to increase motivation. By embedding learners’ interest in materials, learners are exposed to activities that will naturally elicit their curiosity and desire for understanding (Wlodkowski, 1993: 158). Motivated learners are more cooperative, and psychologically open to learning materials, which may enhance information processing (Wlodkowski, 1993: 5). According to Wilkins (1974: 84), developing materials in a second language with learners’ interest in mind may trigger learners’ intrinsic interest in the communicative activity so that “in their desire for successful communication they become largely unaware of the linguistic forms that are being used”.

During the intervention the learners appeared to find the materials interesting and user-friendly. It was obvious that the learners were not accustomed to receive any learning material specifically developed by their teacher. A folder to keep all their Afrikaans learning material was issued to learners at the beginning of class on Day 4. This concept astonished the learners, because they thought the folder would contain clean writing paper. I had to remind them constantly to use the folders for the handouts and to bring the folders to the next class. The development of appropriate materials and the influence these materials had in this additional language learning situation will be discussed in Chapter 5.

4.5 SOCIAL CONTEXT

Spolsky (1989: 131) views language as “primarily a social mechanism”, since languages are learned in social contexts. Spolsky further indicates that while language learning is individual, it takes place in society, and though social factors may not have a direct influence, they have “strong and traceable indirect effects” (Spolsky, 1989: 14). Similarly, Van Lier (1996: 35-36) argues that language use and language learning are “part of the world in which learners live”, and therefore any activities undertaken in the classroom must be understood in context.

The social context comprises the family or home, the community, city and province, as well as components such as the “sociolinguistic situation, the learners’ general exposure to other languages, the roles of the target language in the outside community and in the home, and the general perception of values of the target language and of bilingualism” (Spolsky, 1989: 25-26).

4.5.1 Parents

Another dimension of social context to be taken into consideration is the various parent factors, such as their education, religion, culture, socio-economic status, place of birth, and knowledge of target language (Spolsky, 1989: 26). These factors determine the parents’ rationales, goals, and priorities. Thus, the social context establishes the “actual nature of possibilities for social intercourse and other communicative transactions” (Spolsky, 1989: 16).

Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991: 178) state that in several studies investigating the parental role and the development of attitudes towards speakers of the target language, it was found that learners' attitudes reflected their parents' attitudes towards the target language. Furthermore, it became evident that learners adopt their parents' attitude towards the target language and this affects the learners' achievement in learning the language.

4.5.2 Community

According to Spolsky (1989:26), the social context influences second language learning in two indirect but important ways. Firstly, it plays a vital role in the development of the learner's attitude towards the target language, its speakers, and the language learning situation, which includes the learner's expectations and perceptions of the learning and its probable outcomes. These expectations and perceptions lead to the development of the learner's attitude and motivation. In this respect, Wilkins (1974: 47-48) indicates that in communities where the target language is observed with "indifference or even hostility", social and cultural attitudes have a considerable influence on individual learners' attitudes and motivation. Generally historical and political reasons are the cause for the given language to be regarded favourably or with great hostility (Wilkins, 1974: 48). In this regard, Plüddeman (2003: 285) comments on the high negative rating for Afrikaans found in his research, an indication of either the perceived low instrumental value of Afrikaans, or the historical association of Afrikaans with apartheid and its association with racism. He comments that the "possibility of latent racism is never very far from the surface". In a recent newspaper article, *The rediscovery of Afrikaans* (Schmidt, 2003: 13), the issue of teaching Afrikaans as a language subject at black schools in Soweto came under the spotlight. The article highlights the fact that in 1976 Soweto learners rebelled against the "enforced use of Afrikaans in their schools", and that Afrikaans still "carries the baggage" of the "language of apartheid". However, now that Afrikaans is being phased out at many Soweto schools, in line with the new language policy of the Education Department, there is a "resurgence of love for the language and its colourful idioms", and there are those who enthusiastically advocate that Afrikaans may be "used as a bridge to reconcile people who apartheid divided".

Secondly, the context establishes the social condition of the language learning situation (formal and informal) and the various opportunities for language learning. Formal situations are the provision of different educational institutions in society for language learning, whereas informal situations reflect the potential opportunities in society for exposure to the target language (interaction with speakers and writers of the target language). Studies suggest that there is high correlation between the kind of exposure to the target language and the proficiency attained. In situations where learners have more, rather than limited, opportunities to communicate with target language speakers, the learning outcome is more favourable (cf. Van Els *et al.*, 1984: 120; Spolsky, 1989: 166).

Another dimension of the influence of social context mentioned by Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991: 178) is that research shows that the attitudes of peers can also influence the learners' learning of the target language, especially when older users of the language in the community make fun of the learners' attempts to use the target language.

It is necessary to consider the community in the area where the particular school in the study is situated and also the parents, as social factors influencing the learning situation. Although Afrikaans is being taught as one of three compulsory language subjects at the school in the study, Afrikaans is not widely spoken in the community. As indicated in Chapter 1, section 1.2.1, the fact that Afrikaans is taught as an additional language may be attributed to the principal's commitment to promote Afrikaans, as well as to parents' demands. However, the latter reason may be arguable, given the historical background of the particular school, where Afrikaans was taught as a compulsory language subject during the apartheid years. Information gathered from the questionnaire on attitudinal factors (Appendix A), indicates that 44% of the parents do not speak Afrikaans. Therefore some 56% of the parents are able to speak Afrikaans, or 'know' the target language. Yet only 23% of learners sometimes speak Afrikaans at home to one or more of the family members, or to friends: father (20%); mother (20%); grandfather (13%); grandmother (13%); brother (13%); sister (13%); friends (8%).

Whenever a second language is taught, the learner inevitably learns about the culture, the values and beliefs of that particular language group. Researchers argue that, because language is an integral part of culture, the learner's attitude toward the target language and the willingness to identify with the culture play an important role in the success of learning of a second language (cf. Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Brown 1994).

Brown (1994) focuses on the interconnection of language and culture in his language-culture connection principle. The success of second language learning may be affected by the learners' awareness and understanding of cross-cultural differences, as well as the use of teaching activities and materials that illustrate the connection between the target language and culture. People often perceive the "cultural environment through the filters of their own worldview and then act upon that perception" (Zhonggangao, 2001: 329). The link between language and culture has relevance also to the teaching and learning of languages in South Africa. Indeed, the linguistic and cultural diversity of South Africa are acknowledged within the new National Curriculum Statement, which will be examined more closely in Chapter 8.

Thus far the discussion of factors influencing additional language teaching and learning has dealt with the overall relationship between contextual factors and the individual learner's personality traits. Although attitude and motivation are more part of the individual's personality, these affective variables are equally influenced by the social context, which again highlights the close interaction between the various factors influencing additional language teaching and learning (Figure 4.1).

We now turn to the concept of attitude.

4.6 ATTITUDES AND MOTIVATION

Gardner and Lambert's (1972: 132) perspective on the success of learning a foreign language entails that the learning process should "not only depend on intellectual capacity and language aptitude", but also take notice of learners' attitudes which determine their motivation for learning a foreign language.

4.6.1 Attitudes

Robbins and Coulter (2003: 371) say that attitudes are “evaluative statements – either favourable or unfavourable – concerning objects, people, or events. They reflect how an individual feels about something.” According to Ellis (1985: 293), the concept of attitudes refers to a set of beliefs which influence language learning in a number of ways. Learners hold beliefs about aspects such as the “target language culture, their own culture and, in the case of classroom learning, of their teacher and the learning tasks they are given” (Ellis, 1985: 293).

Lightbown and Spada (1993: 40) indicate that learning a second language may be a “source of enrichment or a source of resentment”. It all depends on a learner’s attitude. Thus, if the learner’s only reason for learning the target language is external pressure, the learner may have minimal internal motivation and his/her general attitude towards learning the language may be negative.

An important factor to keep in mind is that people vary in attitude to the language and to the people who speak the language (Klein, 1986: 37). When learners hold negative attitudes towards the target language, it affects their degree of success in learning the language (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991: 178-179). According to Klein (1986: 38), the learner who regards the target language “as gibberish” and dislikes target language speakers will be less successful in learning the language.

Attitude and motivation of second language learners usually play an important role in the learning process (cf. Littlewood, 2001: 13; Zhongganggao 2001: 329). For instance, learners with a negative attitude toward a language, the cultural group speaking that language, or even the target language environment, may not be willing to learn the target language, as they are not motivated (Zhongganggao, 2001: 329). Thus, the attitude of second language learners may result in social distance, which influences the degree to which the target language is acquired (cf. Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991: 181; Zhongganggao, 2001: 329).

Regarding the learners in this study, it soon became apparent that their attitudes towards Afrikaans were less than positive. The first questionnaire given to the learners to determine their attitudes towards Afrikaans (Appendix A), reflected that 41% of the learners liked Afrikaans, 13 % specified that they liked Afrikaans only a little bit, whereas 46% of the learners indicated that they disliked Afrikaans. These results are reflected in Figure 4.2.

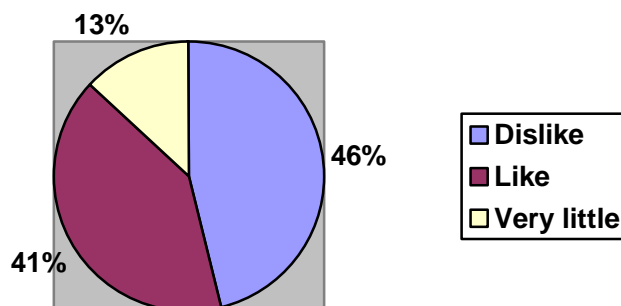


Figure 4.2 Learners' attitudes towards Afrikaans

The main reason given why the learners did not like Afrikaans was that they do not understand the language (40%), while 18% of the learners indicated that it is difficult to learn. On the other hand, 18% of learners suggested that it would be to their benefit to understand or speak Afrikaans, and 7% of learners mentioned that they want to learn Afrikaans.

We again turn our attention now to the individual learner and how motivation is carried into language learning. Three questions arise: Where does motivation come from? Are there different kinds of motivation? How does motivation influence second language learning?

4.6.2 Motivation

Motivation is a complex phenomenon, and plays a major role in second language learning. Motivation is defined by Keuning (1998: 367) as the "will to do something, and is influenced by the degree in which certain behaviour can satisfy the needs of an individual". A need is seen as an "observed physiological or psychological lack due to which a certain something is appealing" (Keuning, 1998: 367). According to Van Lier (1996: 108) motivation in general is seen as a response to a certain need, and intrinsic

motivation “arises out of certain basic psychological needs, which are innate in the human being”. These needs are then transformed into goals and are of crucial importance in education, since this transformation process is at the core of all pedagogical action (Van Lier, 1996: 108).

4.6.2.1 Motivation and language learning

Motivation theories influence teaching methodologies and are especially evident, for example, in Audio-lingual methodology with its emphasis on memorisation, drilling and repeating, since here we find a theory of learning and motivation that “relied on the concept of behavioural reinforcement as both a mechanism and a motivator” (Ehrman, 1996: 140).

In Communicative Language Teaching, in comparison, with its emphasis on activities that involve a meaningful exchange of information, a “richer and more dynamic view of motivation would be inevitable” (Van Lier, 1996: 106). Arguing that motivation is one of the key learner factors that affect second language achievement, Kalaja and Leppanen (1998: 169) view motivation a “learner-internal state or trait, or alternatively, choices or stages in a decision process in the learner’s mind”. Lightbown and Spada (1993: 40) define motivation in terms of two factors: “the learners’ communicative needs, and their attitudes towards the second language community”.

Ellis’s (1985) statement is even more relevant for the topic at hand: he describes motivation in language learning in terms of the “learner’s overall goal or orientation”. In the same vein, Ehrman (1996: 137) asserts that motivation is the “perceived payoff for the student’s investment of time, energy, and effort”, and observes that it has to do with the reason why the learner is there, as well as what keeps him/her working. Spolsky (1989: 154) goes further, by stating that motivation consists of three components: attitudes towards learning the second language, a desire to learn the target language, and the effort made to learn the language. If all three components are involved, the learner then is “truly motivated” (Spolsky, 1989: 154).

The relevance of these statements for this study is that it was found that the learners' attitude towards Afrikaans was less than positive, as illustrated in Figure 4.2 above, and that their desire to learn Afrikaans was tied up with instrumental motivation (see discussion below). It also became clear, especially at the beginning of the intervention, that a number of learners were clearly not motivated enough to make an effort to learn Afrikaans, because the intervention class was viewed as an ideal opportunity to complete their homework for other subjects, or even to learn for a test in another subject. The teacher commented that this was common practice, and that she constantly needed to reprimand learners (see Appendix D). Obviously, her reprimands did not have the desired effect, because the notion of learners learning for other subjects in the Afrikaans class was still a frustrating occurrence during the initial intervention lessons (see Chapter 6).

4.6.2.2 Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

It is important to recognise that people are motivated in different ways and to different degrees of intensity. Van Lier (1996: 99) regards motivation as “interplay between intrinsic (innate) and extrinsic (environmental) factors” and correctly points out that motivation for language learning lies in the “realization of this interplay between intrinsic and extrinsic factors”.

4.6.2.3 Sources of motivation

Determining which sources of motivation are most conducive to learning is of crucial importance in second language learning. Skehan (1989: 49) states that motivation has several sources, such as the learning activity itself ('Intrinsic hypothesis'); alternatively, one finds that motivation is influenced by the success learners experience ('Resultative hypothesis'), or the notion that learners bring some motivation to the learning situation ('Internal Cause hypothesis'), and finally external influences and incentives influencing the learners' performance ('Carrot and Stick hypothesis').

The four sources of motivation mentioned above are arranged by Skehan (1989:50) in the form of a 2 x 2 matrix to highlight the “wider framework within which motivational forces operate”, and these interrelationships are illustrated in Figure 4.3.

	Within the learning content	The results of learning
Outside the individual	Materials Teaching	Constraints Rewards
Inside the individual	Success	Goals

Figure 4.3 Dimensions of motivational sources (Skehan, 1989: 50)

The upper row involves the external factors that may influence the learners' motivation, and could, for example, be the use of interesting materials and activities, or the contribution of more inspiring and stimulating teachers. These influences could also entail the use of frequent tests and examinations, or rewarding the learner. In contrast, the bottom row involves the individual learner within the learning context, and relates to the success of achievement and its effects on the motivational level. Outside the learning context, the focus is on the goals required for learning that the learner needs to maintain.

A number of researchers indicate that there are two kinds of motivation, that is, integrative and instrumental, concepts which probably originate in the research of Gardner and Lambert (cf. Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Skehan, 1989; Spolsky, 1989; Van Lier, 1996; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). For the sake of this study, the two kinds of motivation will not be discussed in depth. They do, however merit some brief individual discussion.

4.6.2.4 Integrative motivation

Skehan (1989: 53) views integrative motivation as an important source of motivation, because it is “firmly based in the personality of the learner”. According to Gardner and Lambert (1972: 14) integrative motivation occurs when the learner wishes to identify with the culture of the second language group. Van Lier (1996: 104) agrees

with this definition, but extends the definition by adding the desire to integrate with the target group.

Gardner and Lambert (1972: 128) state that learners' positive attitudes toward the target language speakers and their culture result in more successful learning of the target language. Furthermore, consistency of findings across cultures has supplied evidence that integrative motivation primarily affects oral skills. Abu-Rabia (1996: 590) confirms that learners whose "attitudes were negative or ambivalent" are less successful in learning the target language. Similarly, Roos (1990: 27) comments that learners interested in the target language community (i.e. that are integratively motivated) tend to become more proficient in the target language than learners who have to learn the language for some functional purpose, for example to pass an examination (instrumentally motivated). Certainly, in this study, where the learning of Afrikaans was compulsory, this is an important point.

4.6.2.5 Instrumental motivation

Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991: 208) suggest that instrumental motivation is just as powerful as integrative motivation. Instrumental motivation differs from integrative motivation in that the focus is on the "more utilitarian value of linguistic achievement" (Abu-Rabia, 1996: 590). Instrumental motivation is seen as the learner's desire to "gain social recognition or economic advantages through knowledge of the foreign language" (Gardner & Lambert, 1972: 14). Thus instrumental motivation occurs when the learner is motivated to succeed in order to satisfy personal goals, for example to pass an examination, get a job, or to reach individual self-fulfilment (cf. Van Lier, 1996: 104; Littlewood, 2001: 6).

To give a more complete picture of the learners' motivation in this study, we turn our attention now to findings from the first questionnaire (Appendix A) regarding the learners' satisfaction with their performance in Afrikaans. It was found that 98% of the learners indicated that they wanted to improve their marks in Afrikaans, while 2% could not be bothered (Appendix A). The reasons given why they want to improve their Afrikaans are indicated in Table 4.1, and although there is a hint of integrative motivation (as described above), the results rather reflect instrumental motivation.

Table 4.1 Motivation for improving Afrikaans

Motivation	Percentage
Want to improve marks to pass exam	54
Want to improve speak, read, listen skills	16
Like Afrikaans	13
Need to (compulsory subject)	2
In order to get a job	1
No remark	14

4.6.2.6 The difficulty of motivating learners

There is agreement among teachers on the importance of motivation in language learning. However, Van Lier (1996: 120-121) cautions that instead of critically and analytically examining the concepts, teachers rather attempt to “capture the students’ attention by various gimmicks such as putting on a show, providing stickers and grades, and a multitude of other superficial devices”. He argues that “[m]any of the things done in the name of motivating the students, do nothing but sidestep the issue of true motivation. Education, in other words, is heavily polluted with surrogate motivation” (Van Lier, 1996: 121).

During the first intervention lesson, I complimented learners on their achievements with their traditional “Shine, shine, shine!” remark (see Chapter 6 and Appendix D). This was met with great pleasure by the class and resulted in the learners making an effort to be similarly rewarded. The following week I changed this encouragement to “*Goed, beter, beste!*” The learners subsequently used this Afrikaans slogan enthusiastically throughout the intervention. Admittedly, this action may be seen as a ‘gimmick’, exactly what Van Lier warns against. Nonetheless, the ‘pros’ in my opinion outweighed the ‘cons’: the use of the slogan resulted in establishing an enjoyable and relaxed atmosphere, ensured active participation by the learners as well as affirmation of their abilities, and increased self-confidence. Moreover, during the intervention the emphasis was on meaningful communicative activities, utilising

appropriate materials, in order to captivate the learners' attention and enhance their motivation.

4.7 OPPORTUNITIES FOR LEARNING

Whatever the language learner brings to the task, the outcome of additional language learning depends on the kind of exposure to the target language. Spolsky (1989: 27) indicates that the interaction between the language learner and the learning opportunity determines the learner's success in achieving the linguistic outcomes (linguistic and communicative competence) and non-linguistic outcomes (including attitude changes).

4.7.1 Informal learning

Van Els *et al.* (1984: 120) observe that research indicates that the correlation between attitude variables and attained proficiency tends to be stronger in contexts where learners have many opportunities to communicate with target language speakers, compared to where they have limited opportunities.

As indicated earlier, in this study the learners' opportunity to speak Afrikaans in the community was limited. Therefore the learners' informal learning chances were minimal. However, media like television, newspapers, magazines and books present another informal learning opportunity for the learners, and the use they made thereof was examined (see Appendix A). Sixty seven per cent of the learners watched Afrikaans television programmes, *Sewende laan* being the preferred programme (63%). The use of English subtitles in *Sewende laan* probably enhances some of the learners' comprehension, and this might explain their preference. Other Afrikaans television programmes mentioned by the learners included: *Noot vir noot* (15%); *50/50* (5%); *Maak 'n las* (5%); *Vetkoekpaleis*; *Pasella*; *Geraas*; and *Egoli* (all 3%). The main reason given for not watching Afrikaans television programmes was that the learners do not understand Afrikaans (90%), or, as they put it, they experience problems to 'listen' to Afrikaans ("hoor"). Only one learner mentioned that they do not own a television. The learners' motivation for viewing Afrikaans television programmes as indicated in their responses is shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Motivation for viewing Afrikaans television programmes

Motivation	Percentage
Want to learn and understand Afrikaans	35
Interesting programme(s)	27
Want to improve marks	18
No reason	20

Thirty-five per cent of the learners indicated that they watched the Afrikaans programmes in order to improve their Afrikaans and to gain a better understanding of the language. Considering their low proficiency level in Afrikaans, the assumption was that they would use it as an opportunity to improve their marks. On the other hand, the use of subtitles in *Sewende laan* enhanced their understanding and in that way presented interesting viewing material.

The learners' incentive to improve their Afrikaans marks, as reflected in Table 4.1, is higher in than that suggested by Table 4.2 above, where the learners were seemingly more interested to develop their Afrikaans proficiency to be able to understand Afrikaans television programmes. This notion possibly reflects the learners' beliefs that watching television is more a matter of relaxation and recreation, than an opportunity to 'pick up the language', or a method that could assist in any way to improve their marks. It may also be a reflection of their perception that learning a second language only takes place in a formal learning situation.

Regarding reading in Afrikaans, 44% of the learners indicated that they do not read any Afrikaans newspapers, magazines or books, while 43% said they do read, and 13% claimed they only read sometimes. The Afrikaans newspaper, *Beeld*, was the preferred Afrikaans reading material (48%), followed by the magazine, *Huisgenoot* (32%). The learners also mentioned *Kinders van die aarde*, their prescribed Afrikaans book (20%). It must be mentioned that Afrikaans newspapers frequently were distributed by the TSA researchers to the teachers at the school for use in the language classes, and thus may be the reason for these preferences. Twenty six per cent of the learners stated that they did not read Afrikaans reading material because they disliked

Afrikaans. Nonetheless, a number of learners indicated that they do try to read Afrikaans material, but found it very difficult, and struggled to understand the text.

4.7.2 Formal learning

In CLT, the emphasis is on meaningful communication, and active participation by the learners. The question arises: what is the role of the interactive teacher? According to Brown (1994: 162), an interactive teacher should be able to take up different roles ranging from directive to nondirective teaching, all depending on the proficiency level of the learners in the class. The different roles of a language teacher will be examined in more detail in Chapter 7, section 7.2.4. However, below we will consider the five roles of a teacher described by Brown (1994: 160-161), namely those of controller, director, manager, facilitator, and as a resource.

The role as a controller reflects the practice in traditional educational institutions where a teacher is the “master controller” and therefore always in charge, limiting the interaction that takes place (Brown, 1994: 160). However, as Brown correctly indicates, some control is in fact imperative when interactive techniques are to be employed. In other words, even in an interactive classroom, the teacher needs to maintain some control to plan, specify directions and to organise the time during the class activities.

The second role of a teacher, that of director, entails the responsibility to ensure that, whenever the learners engage in communicative activities, the process runs smoothly and efficiently. The ultimate goal of such direction is to “enable students eventually to engage in the real-life drama of improvisation as each communicative event brings its own uniqueness” (Brown, 1994: 161).

The role of manager metaphorically encapsulates a teacher’s classroom practice, and comprises planning of lessons and communicative activities, as well as the choice of learning materials to be used. However, a teacher’s managerial skills should also allow each learner the freedom to be creative within the communicative activities (Brown, 1994: 161).

The facilitating role is a less directive role, where a teacher takes advantage of intrinsic motivation by allowing learners to become active participants in the language classroom. Likewise, Versfeld (1995: 24) is of the opinion that a teacher's role is one of facilitator or guide rather than the "giver of new knowledge". Thus, through guidance and "gentle prodding here and there" a teacher empowers the learners to "find their own pathways to success" (Brown, 1994: 161).

The role of facilitator also necessitates more thought to error correction. According to Han (2001: 16), teacher corrective feedback is necessary to enhance learner output, especially in learner-learner interactive activities. The emphasis on fluency in CLT calls for a progressive improvement in accuracy and in this milieu, a teacher as facilitator should be tactful when correcting errors and concentrate only on relevant errors. Correction should be viewed as an "essential tool" to guide learners towards improvement (Nunan, 1991b: 226). Hence, a teacher should be sensitive to learners' needs, and allow them to practise the target language freely without the fear that "every minor flaw" will be corrected (Brown, 1994: 106). Agnihotri (1995: 7) captures the essence of the error correction issue in current teaching by stating that errors need to be seen as necessary stages in the process of learning and "not as pathologies to be eradicated through punishment". In addition to this, Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 220) indicate that teachers have the obligation to make learners aware that "some grammar errors do not interfere with communication but simply sound non-native or carry a social stigma". They argue that once these errors are pointed out, it is up to the learners to correct such errors, while the teacher will help and guide the process (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000: 220). A rather different view is put forward by Truscott (1996: 327-369) who views grammar correction as inefficient and argues strongly against grammar correction. This view is in congruence with the views of Lightbown (2000: 446) and Weideman (2002a: 2-3).

In addition to error correction, another commonly conceived classroom function of teachers is that of constructive feedback and praise of learners' performance. The functions of positive feedback are twofold: to inform learners on the correctness of their performance, and to increase motivation through effective praise (Nunan, 1991b: 195). There is compelling evidence that learners expect feedback, and research has found that positive feedback is the most effective tool for changing learners'

behaviour. However, Nunan (1991b: 197) recommends that teachers should be conscious of the ways in which they provide feedback, which in the first instance should not only be an automatic response, and, furthermore, that they should monitor who receives feedback since high-achieving, as well as low-achieving learners require feedback.

The fifth role of a teacher as a resource is also a less directive role, which allows the learners take the initiative to turn to the teacher for advice, or to seek help. However, this does not imply that the teacher renounces responsibility for teaching – some degree of controlling, planning and managing the classroom needs to be maintained.

With reference to this study, my role as teacher of the intervention classes indeed comprised all five roles as discussed above. Since the teaching and learning situation in the classroom was less than favourable, my roles as controller, director and manager were required to create an interactive classroom. In view of the learners' low proficiency levels in Afrikaans, and the fact that a CLT approach was relatively new to them, the learners were highly dependent on me, especially at the beginning of the intervention period. Therefore it was my responsibility to 'keep the ball rolling', but also to establish a classroom atmosphere that was conducive to learning. Adopting the role of facilitator, I tried from the beginning to get the learners into an interactive frame of mind to take part actively in class, and to participate in pair work and group work. Furthermore, once the learners felt more at ease in the class, they asked me to assist them with translation, answering questions, clarifying, explaining, and expanding on information in the texts under discussion.

This brings us back to the framework of factors influencing additional language teaching and learning (Figure 4.1), and the role of the intervention in this study. As the framework is integrative and interactive, some remedial actions and their influence were mentioned and reflected upon in the discussions of certain parts of the framework. However, Chapter 6 below will discuss in detail the intervention in this study *per se*.

4.8 CONCLUSION

As we noted in Chapter 3, Communicative Language Teaching suggests new roles for language teachers, language learners, and instructional materials. Hence, in pursuit of a better understanding of additional language learning, and guided by a framework developed for this study, Chapter 4 has focussed on the influence of aspects like social context, educational context, and individual learners' interests, needs, attitude and motivation.

In addition, reflection on the manifestation of these different factors which influence additional language teaching and learning has offered an opportunity to begin to build a profile of the Grade 12 learners, as well as of the learning situation at the school. Consideration was given especially to the learners' attitudes towards Afrikaans and their motivation to learn Afrikaans.

The discussion of the influence of the various factors and the conditions conducive to learning an additional language has provided some insight into the kind of teaching and instructional materials suitable for the intervention. Moreover, it is evident that instructional materials should ideally be designed to cater for the different roles of the teacher and the learner in the CLT classroom, and to enhance learners' proficiency in the second or additional language. The criteria for developing such materials will be the focus of Chapter 5.