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ABSTRACT

Workplace English skills for Grade 9 languages in C21 argues that a most valuable contribution of any educational programme in a developing country is the imparting of (English) workplace skills to school-leavers. The Introduction ascribes, in part, the current lack of these skills in school-leavers to (British) colonial education policy which was perpetuated and aggravated by the National Party during the apartheid era and which distinguished, on racial grounds, between mental and manual labour. During South Africa's international isolation – imposed because of its policy of apartheid and leaving it unprepared for major global economic changes – globalisation became a significant force in international commerce, creating an increased demand for workplace skills (in English) that could attract foreign capital and direct investment. The newly elected ruling party's answer to both the socio-political and educational legacy of apartheid education was Curriculum 2005. In contrast to the National Party's content-based curriculum, the newer outcomes-based approach to education, revised as C21, initially failed because of poor management and not because of any inherent conceptual flaws.

The research methodology that Chapter One outlines is essentially traditional in its use of the scientific method although it reflects the changing face of contemporary research that is often transdisciplinary, heterogeneous, heterarchical, organisationally transient, socially accountable and reflexive. This approach enlists input from many fields and subject experts in the hope of addressing a problem in the community in which the research is conducted. The literature survey shows that this thesis contributes to the corpus of research by exploring the need and relevance of workplace skills in the context

of Curriculum 2005 – an approach hitherto not explored in the context of secondary education. Chapter One also outlines the theoretical base of this study.

Chapter Two focuses on resolving conceptual obstacles to integrating workplace skills into the outcomes-based language teaching context. Work is described as a phenomenon that comprises both process and product, thus bridging the conceptual chasm that traditionally separates the classroom from the workplace.

A brief overview of the structure of Curriculum 2005/C21 shows that this curriculum does not conflict, conceptually, with the teaching of workplace skills. The focus then shifts to the identification of those workplace and workplace literacy skills that are currently in demand and that are in harmony with the fundamental principles of this curriculum design.

Chapter Three illustrates the fact that workplace skills do not conflict with generally accepted communicative principles of language teaching. A tentative theory of workplace skills that comprises the principles of the newest curriculum, Curriculum 2005, workplace skills and communicative and task-based English language teaching is proposed.

Chapter Four offers a model that can be used to design workplace literacy activities for the language classroom. Two tasks are designed according to this model, then tested in the classroom and, finally, subjected to analysis. The data analysis reveals certain

weaknesses in the model. Changes to the model are proposed. The study closes with a synopsis of the argument in each chapter. Finally, the evaluation also briefly describes alternative research avenues.

(500 words)

Key words:

C21	Language teaching
Critical literacy	Communicative Language Teaching
English	Literacy
Globalisation	Multiliteracies
Grade 9	Outcomes-based education
Languages	Work and workplace English skills

INTRODUCTION

Throughout South African colonial and apartheid history, educational planners have not taken sufficient cognizance of the demands of the workplace. As a result, South African learners have been denied an opportunity to develop relevant and transferable workplace English skills during their schooling. The essential argument is that learners need to be prepared for the workplace and that this goal can be achieved by introducing workplace English skills into the language curriculum. Historical events have precipitated the need to teach workplace English skills in English and this chapter refers to historical phenomena that have led to the need to revisit English language teaching approaches. These are: the distinction between mental and manual labour, the rise of globalisation, the implementation of outcomes-based education in South Africa, the dominance of the English language in the world, the rise of English as a field of study and the distinction between workplace English skills and literary English. These phenomena are interrelated and are discussed at some length to provide the framework for the propositions put forward in this research project. For the sake of clarity, the variables are addressed under separate (and purely functional rather than structural) headings.

1. The distinction between mental and manual labour – an historical overview

State education in South Africa has always been politicised. In the context of this study, two historical periods are relevant: pre-apartheid (and British imperial) education as represented in the period 1815 to 1948 and apartheid education in the period 1948 to 1994. The periods are comparable in that a distinction, (founded upon race) between manual labour and non-manual labour, characterises conceptions of what education ought

to do or to provide.

English became the official language of the Cape Colony in the period 1815-1872, and British (imperial) education sought to '[u]se education... as a means of social control...' in order to consolidate British rule.¹ In Natal Colony too, legislators sought to control the social fabric and the Natal Native Commission heard evidence in 1881 that

[i]f the natives [*sic*] are to be taught at all, they should be taught industry. [For there is little use] in teaching the natives to read or write without teaching them to make use of their hands as well.... Industrial instruction should form the most important part of native schooling.²

Industry, as it is used here, clearly refers to work done with the hands or, in short, manual labour. The above-cited submission to the Natal Native Commission indicates not only a racist attitude towards black people but also, of note, in the context of this study, a prejudiced view of the notion of skill (as opposed to mere manual labour) and, by extension, of workplace English skills. By associating practical skills with a then marginalized segment of the South African nation, the value of such skills was obviously relativized. Although the four provinces of South Africa were united under the Union of South Africa in 1910, this radical change to the political administration of the country did not alter prevailing colonial and racist attitudes to education. In 1948, the National Party took over control of the government from the pro-British South African Party and in 1961

¹ Christie, 1989:33-34. The Cape colony was the territory first occupied by Dutch settlers in 1652. The British took control of this territory in 1815. By 1872, the Cape colony had become a self-governing British colony. Natal was another colony under British rule. Two independent Boer Republics in the North, Transvaal and the Orange Free State would also become provinces in the Union of South Africa in 1910, comprising four provinces: the Cape, Natal, the Orange Free State and Transvaal. After 1994, there were nine provinces in South Africa. A modified Harvard method of citing texts is adopted in this study.

² Adapted from *Documents in South African Education* by B. Rose and R. Tunmer, 1975:213-214.

the National Party led the new Republic of South Africa out of the Commonwealth.³ As one Nationalist member of the Volksraad (parliament) observed in 1945, three years before the National Party came to power in South Africa,

[w]e should not give the native an academic education, as some people are too prone to do. If we do this, we shall later be burdened with a number of academically trained Europeans and non Europeans; and who is going to do the manual labour in the country? I am in thorough agreement with the view that we should so conduct our schools that the native who attends these schools will know to a great extent that he must be a labourer in this country.⁴

Once in power, the National Party began the process of entrenching a policy of apartheid, a political system that included an approach to education – Christian National Education and Bantu Education, perpetuating the distinction between mental and manual labour.⁵ Christian National Education for South Africans of European descent offered classrooms, textbooks and recreational facilities. Learners of colour were often offered only classrooms.⁶ For example, the National Party government spent R 120.00 per learner of European descent and only R 17.00 per learner of colour in 1953 and 1954; by 1982, the National Party government spent R 1211.00 per white learner and only R 146.00 per black learner, effectively preparing South Africans of European descent to rule and South Africans of colour to serve.⁷ Dr Hendrik Verwoerd, Prime Minister of South Africa from 1958 until his assassination in 1966, declared that

[t]he native must not be subject to a school system which draws him away from his own community, and misleads him by showing him the [greener] pastures of

3 O'Meara, 1996:22-23. The National Party would lead South Africa to independence from Britain in 1961.

4 Mazibuko, 1979:52.

5 The word "Bantu" was used to refer to South Africans of colour. The word designates a racial and language grouping. Apartheid is an Afrikaans word meaning "separateness". Apartheid was a system of racial segregation. On a "petty" scale, there were, for example, separate amenities such as toilets and on a large scale, for example, separate of ethnically-based homelands or "Bantustans" were constructed. Cf. O'Meara, 1996:25-27, 30-31, 64-74, 186, 197

6 Christie, 1989:52-54.

7 *Op. cit.*, 89.

European society in which he is not allowed to graze.⁸

Through various apartheid laws, South Africans of colour under apartheid were never allowed to ‘graze’ on European ‘pastures’. The Group Areas Act (1950), for instance, stipulated where South Africans of colour could live; the Bantu Education Act (1953) stipulated where and how they could be educated; and the Mixed Marriages Act (1949) stipulated whom they could love and marry. Most important, in the context of this study, was the fact that South Africans of colour were to be trained as labourers.

Thus, from its origins as a Dutch and then British colony, South African authorities have conceived of education as a process that distinguishes between mental skills and manual skills.⁹ As Doxey (1971) observes,

[t]he South African economy [was then] highly developed and becoming increasingly diversified. It [was] ranked by the World Bank within the middle-income powers and its inhabitants enjoy[ed] the highest *per capita* incomes on the African continent. Nevertheless the labour market remain[ed] rigidly defined along racial lines, giving substance to both the narrow and wider interpretations of the doctrine of Apartheid. In the narrow economic sense Apartheid preserve[ed] and reinforce[ed] the economic *status quo* which divide[ed] the labour market into racial compartments and which, while permitting interracial economic co-operation, limit[ed] as strongly as possible any permanent spill-over from one racial labour compartment to another. The role of each race group in the economy [was] rigidly defined. The traditional prejudice of White South Africans [was] against undertaking that which [was] regarded as “Kaffir” [*sic*] work below the dignity of the white man. This was reserved for non-whites; while the latter for their part [were] only occasionally permitted to undertake jobs considered to be the preserve of Whites. This racial compartmentalization of the labour market [was] accomplished through custom and an ever-widening range of laws and administrative regulations.¹⁰

8 Christie, 1989:93. Adapted from Documents in South African Education by B. Rose and R. Tunmer, 1975:266.

9 Christie, 1989:183,184,186,188. This distinction produced a white collar/blue collar dichotomy in addition to the mental/manual labour dichotomy. Not all white learners become white collar workers and not all black learners became blue collar workers.

10 Doxey, 1971:268.

The tension that resulted from the need to offer some kind of education while preserving the political hegemony of the ruling élite was educationally disruptive.

In a society of this kind, the education of the subordinate segments is likely to be torn between the need to equip them with the knowledge, skills, and attitudes they must have to play their part in the common economic and political institutions, and the need to preserve and even reinforce the cultural diversity and social segmentation on which the society rests.... Owing to this contradiction, not only is the education of subordinate strata in plural societies seriously impaired, but ... it serves to intensify the tensions and conflict already engendered by the plural character of the society as a whole.¹¹

The tensions in education were thus exacerbated by multiculturalism:

[t]he South African labour market also include[ed] people of mixed racial origin (Coloured people), East Indians, and some other non-white groups such as the Chinese. Even if, therefore, the dream of a South Africa divided between white and African could [have] be[en] realised, the problem would still remain of finding homelands for the other non-white races. The interdependency of all groups determine[ed] the continued economic progress of the country and it [would] never [have] be[en] possible to devise a set of completely independent racially defined economies. South African industrialization began with racial co-operation, and without it the development of the diamond and gold-mining industry in the nineteenth century would not have been possible.¹²

From the above two citations, an anomalous picture of apartheid education is sketched.

On the one hand, the National Party government provided South Africans of colour with some form of education and incurred the expense of doing so. On the other hand, the kind of education the National Party were prepared to offer was inferior, in the sense that it did not equip learners of colour with any sophisticated cognitive skills or training.¹³

¹¹ Dickie-Clark, 1971:216.

¹² Doxey, 1971:269.

¹³ Cf. Kamsteeg, 1990:89 who writes, regarding the wrong emphasis placed on academic qualifications rather than career-oriented skills, that '[b]oth Black and White education [was] mainly concerned with academic qualifications instead of career-oriented skills. This alpha approach with its "soft options", such as languages, Biblical Science, history, etc., neglected Beta subjects, such as mathematics, science, etc. The shortage of Black teachers in the latter subjects and an oversupply of teachers in alpha subjects aggravated the situation. Furthermore, a resistance among Black as well as White pupils to so-called blue-collar jobs resulted in an oversupply of students at universities and a worryingly small number of new entrants at technical colleges and technikons [sic]. South Africa [needed and] needs a larger number of technicians and engineers as opposed to civil servants to promote wealth creation instead of

As the above extract indicates, the lack of career-oriented skills training is evident even within syllabi for learners of European descent for English. In 1986, the year in which a new syllabus for the teaching of English was introduced in the Transvaal (now called Gauteng) province. In the then Transvaal Education Department's (TED) syllabi for English, the distinction between mental and manual labour is evident once again, with the result that workplace literacy skills are addressed in the Lower Grade and Standard Grade syllabi but not to the same extent in the Higher Grade syllabus of 1986.¹⁴ Although mental skills were not exclusively associated with a particular grade, the prevalence of certain skills in, for example, a Standard Grade syllabus suggests that manual skills were seen as the proper focus Standard and Lower Grade learners. In fact, in the Higher Grade syllabus, workplace literacy skills are merely alluded to in the descriptors for Standards 8-10 Oral Communication.¹⁵ Both the Standard and Higher Grade syllabi contain examples of transactional tasks,¹⁶ that is, tasks associated with day-to-day living, yet they do not offer a comprehensive workplace English skills programme.

At that time (1986), practical skill-based subjects, such as woodwork or typing, also enjoyed a lower status – these subjects being taken by learners who were deemed

forming part of a wealth-absorbing society. Technikons (or technicons) are South Africa's former equivalent of the British polytechnic.

14 TED, 1986a:s.p. Higher, Standard and Lower Grade in the nomenclature of the pre-outcomes-based education system designate levels of performance, complexity and expectation in achievement. For example, both Higher and Standard Grade learners could be expected to read a play such as Macbeth. Higher Grade learners, however, could be asked to make deductions based on the evidence in the text whereas Standard Grade learners would be asked questions that require less interpretation and more straightforward comprehension. Tertiary education institutions accept learners onto certain courses based on the number of subjects they have on Higher Grade. This is especially the case with English and the sciences.

15 *Op. cit.*, 15. A standard is a level. For example, Standard Ten is now Grade 12 and Standard 4 is now Grade 6.

16 Transactional tasks are tasks that require the learner to apply language to a real-life situation. Examples include writing letters of complaint, drawing up itineraries and role-playing.

academically incapable of coping with subjects such as Mathematics and Science.¹⁷ Although South Africa was the powerhouse of Africa, marred as the continent was by post-independence wars and social strife, the application of apartheid constraints to the realm of economics hampered the development of the South African economy.¹⁸ In 1981, however, it became evident that a new approach to apartheid and apartheid education was needed.

In 1980, the National Party government appointed the De Lange Commission, under the auspices of the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC), to look into the state of education in South Africa.¹⁹ The recommendations of the commission proved radical and unacceptable to the ruling party that was, as has already been stated, largely dominated by conservatives. The De Lange Commission called for a single system of education for all South African, with two streams (academic and vocational), free and compulsory up to the age of six and funded by parents (for the academic stream) and the business community (for the vocational stream), after completion of the free and compulsory segment of education.²⁰

Conservatives rejected the call; moderates regarded it as a breakthrough and radicals, of

¹⁷ Christie, 1989:187.

¹⁸ Doxey, 1971:268.

¹⁹ Christie, 1989:268.

²⁰ HSRC, 1981:172. The 'Report of the Work Committee' in Curriculum development 1981, chaired by Professor J. P. De Lange. recommends '... that a South African service for curricular [sic] and research be established under central control of education [my emphasis].... The recognition of the need for a unified and equal system is also evident in the call for funds to be made available for a "central curriculum unit"'.

course, pointed out that it was simply ‘... a modernization of apartheid’.²¹ It took another twelve years before this call was repeated in another form. This call was repeated in 1992 by the (then National Party dominated) Department of National Education, two years before the elections that swept the African National Congress (ANC) into power, bringing the era of apartheid to an end. In 1992, the Department of National Education’s Education Renewal Strategy took the National Policy for General Education Affairs Act 1984 (Act 76 of 1984) further by identifying eleven principles for a new education system, three of which deserve mention and discussion.

- Equal education opportunities, including equal education standards, should be available to all learners.
- The curriculum should be relevant and take cognizance of the personpower [sic] needs of the country.
- There must be a positive linkage between formal and non-formal education.²²

As early as 1981, a call for a unified and equal education system had gone out. The second point listed above addresses the distinction between mental and manual labour in that education is linked to the economic needs of the country and not the ideological needs of the ruling party that inevitably meant that there was a distinction between mental labour for South Africans of European descent and manual labour for South Africans of colour. Finally, as this study indicates in Chapter Two, the current educational dispensation recognizes the educational value of experience not formally certified. This experience can be converted into some kind of certification through a process known as Recognition of Prior Learning (RPL). In this way, the current dispensation bridges the gap between formal and non-formal education.

21 O’Meara, 1996:270.

22 Department of National Education, 1992:15.

2. The Rise of globalisation

This study argues that globalisation has changed the workplace and for this reason learners need to be prepared for the workplace.²³ The advent of globalisation and the effect that it has had on economies the world over and not just the South African economy, is not, however, the first force of its kind to make itself felt in the South African context. The advent of diamond mining forced South Africa into the international arena much earlier.²⁴ Globalisation thus merely perpetuates an historical trend in South Africa and can be described as

[the]mercantilist premise that opening domestic markets is a concession to be traded for access to foreign markets, [and that] multilateral liberalisation is often the most effective for free trade.²⁵

Globalisation has also been described by T&G Tutors' Training Course: Globalisation & International Development of February 2000 as

[t]he world-centred transaction of business for maximum profit globally, using the mobility and primacy of capital and technological excellence to maximise the international exploitation of labour, regardless of national frontiers and interests and all other non-profit related concerns.²⁶

In contrast to the definitions that support globalisation, quoted above, the following definitions are an indictment of this phenomenon but they deserve inclusion in the argument because they emphasize the impact of this phenomenon on global economies; they also underscore the need to prepare learners to survive in an environment, such as the global economy. A more cautionary view of globalisation is that it is also

23 E-commuting, for example, allows workers to work from home by working on computer networks. However, regardless of where work takes place, certain skills are necessary in order to perform that work.

24 Christie, 1989:31-51.

25 Anonymous, 1999a:23.

26 www.t&g.com. Accessed 20/10/2002.

[t]he coming together of international business, political influence and social control to promote extreme capitalistic policies on a world-wide basis. The motives of globalisation are:

- to maximise profits,
- to minimise costs [and]
- to marginalise the workforce.

These policies can lead to a reduction in individual freedom, ability to organize and cause a fragmentation of society. Globalisation is an attempt to maximise profits by trawling the world for the conditions which are most favourable to achieving this objective. These conditions include:

- cheap sources of labour
- cheap sources of raw materials [and]
- low-cost transport and communications.

They are promoted by the weakening or removal of barriers to them such as effective trade unions, community organisations and government regulations on equal rights, environmental standards and basic human rights. In its worst form, globalisation threatens the social, political, democratic and economic structures of the countries and communities affected by it.²⁷

Following this largely pessimistic view of the capitalist thrust globalisation, it appears that

[d]eskillling is... inherent in labour functions that are intended to achieve maximum possible speed, cheapness, replaceability [*sic*], standardisation and calculability for the needs of capital... the replacement of skilled workers by machines or machine operatives; the division and sub-division of jobs, with any remaining skill allocated to a few specialised workers; and the fragmentation of the remaining semi- or unskilled tasks.²⁸

Globalisation affects not only on commerce but also on human culture. Notably, ordinary men and women drive the process forward. To reiterate, this study is not overtly concerned with the intrinsic merits or demerits of globalisation. It seeks rather to show that this new trend, as a corollary to its influence on world economies, implicitly

²⁷ www.t&g.com. Accessed 20/10/2002.

²⁸ Thompson, 1983:89.

demanding and continues to demand a new approach to education in South Africa and in the rest of the world.

Far more important in the context of this research project are the words of the former South African Minister of Education, Kader Asmal, who not only highlights the positive aspects of globalisation but also adds a caveat pointing to the need for a system of education that matches the demands that the new (global) economy makes on individual nations.

There is evidence that globalisation can generate very high returns, even within the poorest countries. But there is also evidence that, in the absence of widespread opportunities for basic education, the returns tend to accrue to a small, highly skilled stratum of society.²⁹

In his online article, John Evans echoes this view when he states that

[i]n the knowledge-based economy, competitive advantage will lie with those countries that have strong social cohesion built on investment in education and training as well as solid industrial relations that give workers an effective voice and the tools to influence change.... A key priority for governments must be to invest in *education and training* and to adapt them both to the needs of a changing (and volatile) economy and society and to the objective of raising the level and quality of employment. That means widening access to education and creating a general entitlement to lifelong learning, rather in the same way as entitlement to retirement pensions was established in the past [my emphasis].³⁰

Opponents of globalisation charge that, ultimately, free trade and cultural imperialism are synonymous with each other. The result of globalisation appears to be, to coin a phrase, cultural homogenisation – world cultures that are pasteurised so to speak – by the globe's most powerful economy: that of the United States of America. Yet,

²⁹ [www.oecd.com/education/education thekey](http://www.oecd.com/education/education%20thekey). Accessed 20/10/2002.

³⁰ [www.oecd.com/globalisation/Workers in the new economy: What will be the role of unions in the new global economy?](http://www.oecd.com/globalisation/Workers%20in%20the%20new%20economy) Accessed 20/10/2002.

[if] global markets are not seen simply as places where profits are made, but places where society advances for the common good, and if businesses and governments adopt a policy of corporate social responsibility rather than a “what’s in it for me?” ethos, then surely a liberal market economy must civilize the quest for profits and become one of the engines driving social progress.³¹

The primary concern of this study is, likewise, the potential of globalisation to demand changes in the economy and educational policy and practice. If nations cannot plan their future without considering the rest of the world (at least as a variable of some sort), then it follows that educational policies need to be formulated according to what is going on in the world as a whole.

South Africa is still struggling with the effects of imposed and self-imposed cultural and economic sanctions.³² On the one hand, the needs of its economically vulnerable majority (of persons of colour) must be met and, on the other hand, the country must remain competitive in the global economy.³³ In addition, the National Party’s racially motivated policies and the long-term isolation of South Africa have resulted in local companies and, by extension, local workers, not possessing the skills to compete internationally. As a result, South Africa, at the time of writing, ranks 113 out of 140 countries in attracting

31 Gray, 2001:38.

32 Sapa, 2003:3.

33 *Op. cit.*, 3 reports that 40% of the South African population is unemployed. Sapa states that COSATU (Congress of South African Trade Unions) ascribes this high rate of unemployment to ‘... an unstructured economy...’, ‘[g]lobal pressure to produce and be competitive...’ and ‘[t]he over-valued rand...’. Of note here is the role of globalisation. Costatu perceives globalisation as a force that pressurises the country to be competitive. Cf. Democratic Alliance, 2004:4. South Africa ranked 39 on the World Competitiveness Scoreboard behind other developing countries. In this regard, see Dawes, 2004:14 who notes that South Africa lacks entrepreneurial skills to the extent that South Africa scored 4,1 on an index that rates the proportion of the population involved in entrepreneurial activity. Cf. Anonymous, 2004b:4 who notes that there were 2,5 million unemployed in 1997 and 4,8 million in 2002. The author notes, in addition, that ‘[t]he glaring gap between the shortage of skills in key economic sectors and the large number of unemployed South Africans is a primary feature of the debates that have been taking place in this country since 1994’.

foreign direct investment (FDI) and has ‘... dropped 11 places in the... AT Kearney Foreign Policy globalisation index...’.³⁴ Post-apartheid South Africa thus has

... limited options available to [its] resource-based economy in an epoch of globalisation, of structural adjustment and of the marginalization of Africa by the three emerging regional trade blocs [NAFTA, EU and ASEAN]....³⁵

Globalisation produces two contradictory trends in all fields of production, both commercial and academic.³⁶ The first is towards collaboration in research aimed at constant innovation in a bid to maintain competitiveness.³⁷ The second trend is one towards relocating actual production sites to countries where labour is cheaper and where these relocated production sites threaten existing local industries.³⁸ Thus, the need for constant innovation is a significant force in the creation of a demand for new skills or the adaptation of existing skills to new situations.³⁹

Furthermore, investment in the global context seeks the highest level of skill for the lowest price.⁴⁰ On the one hand, traditionally underdeveloped or developing countries are

34 See Democratic Alliance, 2004:4 and Kruger, 2004:13. Cf. de Villiers and Lemmer, 2003:95-96.

35 O'Meara, 1996:8. NAFTA (North American Free Trade Association, EU (European Union) and ASEAN (Association of South-East Asian Nations).

36 Gibbons *et al.*, 1994:111-136.

37 *Op. cit.*, 120-121.

38 *Ibid.*

39 Jappie, 1992:18 notes that '[e]verywhere the illiterate [are] more likely to be unemployed than the literate; as technology grows increasingly more complex, this rule can become more applicable. When employed, the illiterate usually [earn] lower wages than other skilled workers. That literacy in itself automatically ensures employment or higher wages, however, does not always follow... [however] a study ... shows that literate workers perform day-to-day factory duties more efficiently than illiterates and demonstrate more understanding of the production process and a more developed sense of responsibility to their work...'.

40 Dowling and Seepe, 2004:189-190 note that '[a] further factor facing us today is that of globalisation [where] new technologies and world economic forces are influencing all aspects of our lives. Employers are seeking graduates who can appreciate and understand this global context and who are able to think critically and creatively within it.... We need to produce graduates... who have well-developed critical thinking skills and other skills that are needed for the development of South Africa so that we can successfully compete in the global market'. Cf. de Villiers and Lemmer, 2003:95-96.

now in a position to offer highly specialised research. On the other hand, their own traditional industries are in danger of being eradicated by the establishment of international and multinational production sites using the very research these countries have helped to produce.⁴¹ If a developing country, such as South Africa, is to remain attractive to foreign investment, then it must offer a high level of skill at a competitive price.

Although it may appear that these two trends, namely collaboration in research and the relocation of production sites to Third World countries where labour is cheaper, will result in a simple divide between rich nations and poor nations, it is not true that globalisation produces such absolute economic conditions. That is, current economic trends do not seem to be leading to an international economy in which certain territories will be entirely excluded from the new global economy. Instead, globalisation appears to be producing a

... a new “industrial divide” between those countries with a *skilled* population and *an educational system providing the competencies* needed to handle modern equipment and services and others constituting a world of consumers who learn only how to press buttons, and producers of standardised low quality goods, whose livelihoods are continuously threatened by the advance of automation [my emphasis].⁴²

The countries that stand to benefit most from globalisation appear to be those that are or have been prepared to adapt their current education methods to the conditions produced by globalisation.

⁴¹ Gibbons *et al.*, 1994:130.

⁴² *Op. cit.*, 32.

Indeed, the spectre of rampant unemployment haunts the traditional powerhouse of Africa.⁴³ It appears that South Africa's high rate of unemployment and the lack of sufficient foreign investment are two components of a 'vicious' circle.⁴⁴ Undoubtedly, the National Party government's policy of distinguishing between mental labour for citizens of European descent and manual labour for South Africans of colour has contributed to the high rate of unemployment in this country.⁴⁵ Owing to the distinction between mental and manual labour and job reservation, the product of National Party ideology, South Africa has been afflicted since 1948 by '... permanent and severe shortages of skilled and technical labour in all sectors of the economy...'.⁴⁶ In turn, the lack of training in relevant skills saw to it that unemployment increased from four million people in 2001 to about five million people in 2003; another definition of unemployment points to an even higher figure of about eight million people so that unemployment has increased by 54 per cent in the period 1996-2003.⁴⁷

43 Elsewhere in Statistics South Africa's 1998 report Unemployment and Employment in South Africa, Orkin, 1998a notes that the rate of unemployment increased steadily from 16,9% in 1994, the year that brought the ANC to power in South Africa, to 22,9% in 1997, the year in which South Africa implemented a new curriculum. See also Sapa, 2003:3 which reports that in 2003, nine years after the ANC took control of government in this country, 40% of the South African population is unemployed. Sapa states that COSATU (Congress of South African Trade Unions) ascribes this high rate of unemployment to '... an unstructured economy...', '[g]lobal pressure to produce and be competitive...' and '[t]he over-valued rand...'. Of note here is the role of globalisation. Costatu perceives globalisation as a force that pressurises the country to be competitive. In the context of this study, the argument contends that workplace English skills could make the country more competitive.

44 Orkin, 1998b:8. The unemployed, as defined by Statistics South Africa are those '... people within the economically active population who did not work during the seven days prior to the interview [conducted by Statistics South Africa] want to work and are available to start work within a week of the interview; and have taken active steps to look for work or to start some form of self-employment. Cf. de Villiers and Lemmer, 2003:95-96.

45 O'Meara, 1996:172.

46 *Op. cit.*, 172. Cf. Democratic Alliance, 2003:4.

47 Democratic Alliance, 2003:4. See also footnote 60 for the expanded definition of unemployment. Cf. Moya, 2004:2. who writes that '[e]ven when jobs are available, there is a dearth of skills'.

The discussion above raises the question as to what it is that makes South African workers unattractive to investors. This study adopts the view that a lack of skills makes the workforce of any nation unattractive to foreign investors. The National Party's policy produced a strong anti-apartheid movement that successfully isolated South Africa from international bodies and imposed sanctions in the realms of finance, sport, arms trade, culture and even trade from the 1970s to the early 1990s.⁴⁸ The result was the isolation of South Africa from the rest of the world, a gradual process as already noted, but one with far-reaching implications for the country.

In contrast, stands the example of Taiwan. Taiwan has a history similar to South Africa's. In 1949, Chinese Nationalists fled mainland China and settled in Taiwan. There was virtually no infrastructure and inflation stood at 1000%.⁴⁹ Through a policy of education that promoted the acquisition of skills, Taiwan has emerged as a 'Tiger' economy. That is, during the secondary phase of education (high school), Taiwanese learners study English. They have thus an advantage over learners in other countries that do not speak English. During the senior high school phase, the options exist to attend vocational schools that offer courses in '... auto repair, gardening, cooking and clerking'.⁵⁰ The result of pursuing a policy of education that integrates mental and manual skills is that Taiwan has a GDP (Gross Domestic Product) of over US\$ 200 billion and a *per capita* income of US\$ 10,000. South Africa's GDP in 1993, a year before the election of the ANC to the government of South Africa, was 326 billion South African Rands – less than

48 O'Meara, 1996:170,182.

49 Sono, 1994:34.

50 *Op. cit.*, 60-61.

the annual sales of General Motors in that year.⁵¹ Clearly, the (South African) National Party curriculum and the race-based approach to education in the past has cost South Africa dearly. The rapid economic development of Asia has also been ascribed to the Confucian world view and work ethic that pervades Asian societies such as Japan, China and Taiwan.

Other characteristic Asian values were transmuted into state-led economic models, playing significant roles in the economic development of Asian countries. Familism [*sic*] promoted strong cooperation among blood relatives... Community spirit is also a key value of Asian values... Fervor for education, the most outstanding of Asian value, also stems from Confucianism, which teaches that it is better to educate one's children than to give them wealth The traditional attitude of "no work, no food" has led to diligence, which, in turn, has been a key factor behind the economic miracle of East Asia.⁵²

This thesis proposes that learners in South Africa ought to be *prepared* for the workplace rather than moulded *for* globalisation. Thus, this study moves that workplace English skills, as a set of skills, is relevant to the education of learners in any contemporary society and that workplace English skills are thus not dependent on either a particular curriculum or a prevailing trend in commerce, such as globalisation. In other words, wherever there is work and any kind of commerce, a need for workplace English skills arises. Globalisation has merely highlighted the need – urgently so as the newly elected and ANC-led government saw it in 1994 – to adopt a system of education that prepares learners for the workplace.

51 Sono, 1994:33-34. Cf. chinadaily.com.cn/Wang Honjun Accessed 14/3/05 that notes that the People's Republic of China's GDP in 2003 was US\$ 1.414 trillion.

52 Lee, 2003:32.

3. The implementation of outcomes-based education

In 1994, faced with the legacy of apartheid and apartheid education, the influence of globalisation and the problem of unemployment, the newly elected African National Congress (ANC) -led government was faced with the task of reforming education. Yet, one critic, Jonathan Jansen, currently Dean of Education at the University of Pretoria, argued that the growth of the national economy of any country, particularly a Third World country, has nothing to do with ‘... curriculum changes...’ and ‘... much more to do with the economics and politics of the Third World State’.⁵³ Former Education Minister Kader Asmal’s claims regarding workplace English skills, education and technology, cited earlier in the context of the discussion on globalisation, seem to run counter to this claim, as does the example set by Taiwan described in the preceding section. Although it may be true that many skilled workers find employment difficult to find owing to a lack of investment, it is equally true that workers may not possess the skills that make them attractive to employers.⁵⁴

Shortly after 1994, the National Education Transformation Forum (NETF) was appointed to look into the state of education in the country. The NETF revised apartheid core syllabi but did not alter the general approach to education.⁵⁵ This was an omission that was

⁵³ Jansen, 1997b:3.

⁵⁴ Elsewhere in Paper Qualification Syndrome (PQS) and Unemployment of School Leavers: a comparative sub-regional study, Oxenham (1982) notes that ‘[t]here is empirical evidence that higher investment is associated with higher employment levels.... As the South African economy suffers from a chronic shortage of skilled labour, this has negative consequences in terms of economic growth as it may both have hindered the development of labour-intensive sectors and also be hampering the ability of the labour market to adapt to the instability often associated with globalisation’.

⁵⁵ Carelse, 1997:4.

corrected soon afterwards when the then relatively unknown phrase *outcomes-based education* appeared in the media.⁵⁶

Although outcomes-based education eventually came to represent one of the most contentious issues of post-apartheid politics, parents, educators and educational planners unanimously agreed that a new approach to education was essential. Thus in 1997, three years after the ANC came to power and after a two-year planning process starting in August 1995, the Department of National Education presented Curriculum 2005, a South African version of outcomes-based education, to the South African public; Curriculum 2005/C21 was due for implementation in 1998.⁵⁷

Although the structure of Curriculum 2005/C21 is explored in greater depth in Chapter Two of this study, it is appropriate at this juncture to offer the view of a former Minister of Education (Sibusiso Bengu) on Curriculum 2005/C21.

Essentially, Curriculum 2005 will effect a shift from one which has been content-based to one which is based on outcomes. This aims at equipping all learners with the knowledge, competencies and orientations needed for success after they leave school or have completed their training. Its guiding vision is that of a thinking, competent future citizen.

The curriculum will begin to integrate education and training – incorporating a view of learning which rejects a rigid division between academic and applied knowledge, theory and practice, and knowledge and skills. It will also foster learning which encompasses a culture of human rights, multi-lingualism and multi-culturalism and a sensitivity to the values of reconciliation and nation-building.

I trust that Curriculum 2005 will be a major step forward to ensure quality

⁵⁶ Outcomes-based education (OBE) is an approach to education that does not focus on content that has to be learned and regurgitated but rather pre-determined outcomes that have to be achieved. OBE is addressed in greater detail in Chapter Two of this study.

⁵⁷ Bengu, 1997:1 and Pretorius, 2004:8. Curriculum 2005 in its revised form, C21, was to be introduced in 2004 in Grades 1-3.

education for all the people of this country and that it will be embraced by all those who have a part in the learning process [my emphasis].⁵⁸

As is evident from the above, Curriculum 2005 was built on the notion of pursuing, assessing and achieving certain pre-determined outcomes, as opposed to the National Party government's content-based approach to learning that often entailed the rote-learning and reproduction of facts in tests and examinations.⁵⁹

One of the then Minister's implied criticisms of the Nationalist curriculum was that it perpetuated '... a rigid division between academic [mental] and applied [manual] knowledge'.⁶⁰ For this reason, during the planning stage of Curriculum 2005/C21, consensus was that a new approach should produce '... a multi-skilled workforce that [could] demonstrate a substantial degree of responsibility, innovation and flexibility on the shop floor'.⁶¹ Thus, from its inception, Curriculum 2005/C21 was intended to address the distinction between mental and manual labour on the one hand, and pure applied knowledge, on the other. The desired changes have been slow in coming, as is evident from the following comment on the 2003 school-leaving examination:

... what has changed? Absolutely nothing. Every year the same multi-million rand pointless exercise, every year the increase in suicidal calls from teenagers to telephone help lines, every year the non-stories about a biology paper leaking in Bronkhorstpruit (or wherever) or mistakes in the Standard Grade maths paper (followed by ritual soothing noises from the Department of Education), and every year Asmal's gala performance. Meanwhile, the gap between matriculants' skills and those [that] the country's economy needs widens annually. A recent report by the South African Chamber of Business showed that only 5% of 2002's grade 12s found employment in the formal sector. That is unlikely to show any improve-

58 Bengu, 1997:1.

59 *Op. cit.*, 6.

60 *Op. cit.*, 1.

61 Rasool, 1997:14.

ment in 2004.⁶²

Although few could criticise the desire to bridge the gap between knowledge and skills, issues surrounding the actual implementation of Curriculum 2005/C21 were to prove most divisive and contentious.

It is doubtful whether the newly elected ANC-led government was motivated entirely by political considerations in its haste to implement Curriculum 2005/C21. It would take considerable sums of money to address the inequalities in South African education. Educational reform could not be used as a cheap electoral ploy.⁶³ It seems unreasonable, therefore, to impute a purely political motive to the new government's hasty introduction of Curriculum 2005. In fact, the haste that characterises the early stages of the implementation of Curriculum 2005/C21 could be ascribed equally to the urgent need for a system of education that sought to redress the inequalities of the past.

However, the prevalence of studies surveyed in Chapter One that address aspects of management in the early stages of the implementation of Curriculum 2005/C21 suggests that haste and poor management were largely responsible for the failure of the

62 Macfarlane, 2004:9. See footnote 14 in the present chapter for an explanation of the terms Standard and Higher Grade.

63 Christie, 1989:93-119. The author tabulates the differences in spending on white education as opposed to black education. Cf. Education foundation, USAID, Edusource, 1991 in K. Truscott and S. Milner, 1994:40 who notes that the National Party government had in mind the high standard of living enjoyed by the minority (of European descent) in South Africa. It was a standard of living that allowed the government to spend vast amounts of money on education for South Africans of European descent. This was a trend that was maintained from 1948 to beginning of the 1990s when, in 1991, for example, the government spent R 4716.00 per white learner per annum on education and only R 1137.00 per black learner per annum. In the period 1953-1991, the National Party government expenditure per learner of colour increased by R 1120.00 whereas for learners of European descent, government expenditure on education increased by R 4596.00. By 1991, the government was spending R 3476.00 more per learner of European descent than per learner of colour.

implementation of Curriculum 2005/C21 in the period 1998-2001. Thus, many proponents of Curriculum 2005/C21 felt that '[c]urriculum change normally occurs slowly but we [the government and the Department of Education] are driven by compelling humanitarian and political imperatives. Transformation must occur immediately'.⁶⁴ The impetus for change is ascribed to humanitarian considerations primarily and only thereafter, to political considerations. It could, however, be argued in this context that humanitarian considerations are political. By all accounts, it became clear that it was the accelerated pace of implementation that gave impetus to the growing movement opposing Curriculum 2005 and not ulterior political motives for implementing a new curriculum.

If Curriculum 2005/C21 was demonized by some, it was also held aloft with a kind of utopian fervour as a panacea for South Africa's ills. In a letter to *The Teacher* headed "Oh – What a beautiful OBE morning!" an enthusiastic supporter of Curriculum 2005/C21 draws the attention of the reader to

... a *hundred* years from now; everybody happily and creatively living on less; dynamic neighbourhoods where everyone leaves their doors unlocked; strong women and sensitive men; and everybody engaged as life-long learners. These are the kinds of dreams which get me out of bed in the morning [my emphasis].⁶⁵

Putter's envisioned timeframe (a hundred years from that time), the lack of resources plaguing rural schools and the fact that sophisticated activities could only be undertaken in more privileged schools all point to the fact that Curriculum 2005/C21 did not take

⁶⁴ Le Roux, 1996:6.

⁶⁵ Putter, 1998:11.

into consideration the realities of the South African educational landscape.⁶⁶ It was, at that time and, to a lesser extent at present, a rather desolate landscape (in the case of education for learners of colour), considering the policies of the National Party government during the apartheid years, as discussed earlier in the present chapter.

Some groups of critics, such as the those calling themselves the Pestalozzi Trust, even questioned whether Curriculum 2005 could be regarded as a curriculum or, for that matter, even understood at all! A spokesperson for the Trust notes that

[t]he policy documents purporting to stipulate the requirements of Curriculum 2005 define “curriculum” as “all aspects of teaching and learning”.... It has now become clear that “Curriculum 2005” fails to meet this requirement and can, therefore, not reasonably be termed a “curriculum”. Rather, it appears to comprise a philosophy of education, founded in certain assumptions about knowledge, learning and teaching. Some of these assumptions seem to be supported by empirical evidence, while others are manifestly contradicted by empirical evidence and experience.⁶⁷

Although in the spokesperson’s statement above he or she does not supply examples of assumptions that are not appropriately supported in Curriculum 2005/C21, the above extract warrants some attention. Admittedly, neither teaching nor learning is defined in a systematic way in the relevant policy or curriculum documents. However, in *Curriculum 2005: lifelong learning for the 21st century*, published in February 1997, the authors in the new Department of National Education tabulate the differences between an outcomes-based approach to education and content-based approach.⁶⁸

66 Democratic Alliance, 2004:4. Putter’s vision takes cognizance of the effect of crime on the development of the country. Yet, according to the Democratic Alliance, the number of murders increased from 21,405 in 2001-2002 to 21,553 in 2002-2003. Furthermore, by 2000 only 44% of those surveyed felt safe.

67 www.pestalozzi.org/archives/revisionofcurriculum2005. Accessed 20/10/2002.

68 Department of National Education, 1997:10.

Implicit in the resulting comparison is a rough sketch of what outcomes-based learning and teaching entail. The Department of National Education clearly did not market Curriculum 2005/C21 wisely to the public. Although this is a grave managerial oversight, it does not offer conclusive evidence of a fundamental flaw in Curriculum 2005/C21. Further challenging the claims made on behalf of the Pestalozzi Trust's, the same departmental publication offers, among other things: a brief description of assessment, a description of the department's language policy in relation to Curriculum 2005/C21, an indication of what support material the department intends providing, a description of the ways the department intends managing the implementation of Curriculum 2005/C21 and, finally, a description of the role of the learner and the parent in the outcomes-based learning process.⁶⁹ As has already been noted, this issue will be given more extensive treatment in Chapter Two.

At worst, the policy documents do not explicitly define what is regarded as curriculum and assessment. The hesitance to do so, however, stems from the fact that Curriculum 2005/C21 is not prescriptive and grants considerable freedom to educators regarding materials and methods that can be used to achieve the relevant outcomes.⁷⁰ Some of the outcomes are not easily measurable because they pertain to attitudes and values.

The Department of National Education's non-prescriptive approach may not be the most effective stance to assume but this position in itself cannot be proffered in itself as a reason to strip Curriculum 2005 of its status as a curriculum. In this regard, the aim of the

⁶⁹ Department of National Education, 1997:10, 19, 21-29.

⁷⁰ *Op. cit.*, 11.

post-1994 Department of National Education, to

... develop a concept of education that is appropriate to life in the type of pluralist and developing society that is characteristic of much of the world today,⁷¹

foregrounds the desired paradigm shift, referred to earlier, to meet the needs of a new economic and political dispensation. This study attempts to fill a perceived gap in the corpus of research knowledge produced about Curriculum 2005/C21 by attempting to show how learners can be prepared for the demands of the workplace and especially so within the framework of this curriculum.

A perusal of the fundamental outcomes of Curriculum 2005/C21, known as the Critical Cross-field Outcomes, which are addressed in Chapter Two, reveals that Curriculum 2005/C21 is precisely what the preceding citation contends: an attempt to prepare learners for life in a manner the very subtitle of the Department of National Education's publication, *'Life-long learning for the 21st century'* intimates.⁷² It thus appears that the Petalozzi Trust's argument, that Curriculum 2005/C21 is not a curriculum, amounts to a semantic quibble – akin to an argument over whether a particular educational practice constitutes an upbringing or an education. One educationalist admits that

[he] can readily concede that other types of education may be more likely to prepare people for lives of nomadic pastoralism, Spartan militarism or Cuban collectivism to take three examples of forms of life significantly different

71 O'Hear, 1981:33.

72 Department of National Education, 2002:1-2. These outcomes are: '...identify and solve problems in which responses display that responsible decisions using critical and creative thinking have been made, work effectively with others as members of a team, group, organisation and community, organize and manage oneself and one's activities responsibly and effectively, collect, analyse, organize and critically evaluate information, communicate effectively using visual, mathematical and/or language skills in the modes of oral and/or written presentation, use science and technology effectively and critically, showing responsibility towards the environment and health of others and demonstrate an understanding of the world as a set of interrelated problems by recognising that problem-solving contexts do not exist in isolation'.

from that of the contemporary west. Nor [is he] concerned to argue whether a bush nomad, in the absence of any formal schooling, receives an *upbringing* rather than an *education*, for nothing of any importance hangs on verbal disputes of this sort. The important thing to decide is the type of upbringing appropriate for our children. Whether this counts as *education* or not according to anyone's concept of education is largely immaterial, if only because... people's concepts of education and its aims are never independent of their general social and ethical ideals [original emphasis].⁷³

In its publication, *Curriculum 2005: lifelong learning for the 21st century*, the current Department of National Education statement concurs with the view that it is the type of upbringing rather than a distinction between upbringing and education that is important.

It asserts that

[a] curriculum is everything planned by educators which will help develop the learner. This can be an extra-mural sporting activity, a debate, or even a visit to the library.... [Furthermore,] [a] good curriculum produces thinking and caring individuals.⁷⁴

This view affirms the point of view that '... people's concepts of education and its aims are never independent of their general social and ethical ideals [according to which educational goals or outcomes are formulated]'.⁷⁵ The argument of the present study reiterates this view by aligning itself with the contention that

[t]he sort of learning of skills and subjects [that ought to be] advocated ... naturally implies more than automatic or reflex responses on the part of the learner. It involves the ability to make judgments, to apply skills, to weigh up alternatives. It involves an awareness of what one is doing; in short, it implies understanding of what one is confronted with.

A crucial point about notions like understanding, thinking effectively, being able to communicate and so on is that they require some subject matter to be

73 O'Hear, 1981:33. Cf. Lansink 2004:121 who cites the sentiments of Neville Alexander when she states that '[t]he curriculum... is the official register of a society's knowledge which is linked to the type of economy and interests and culture of the dominant class. It includes how knowledge is organised and what legitimate knowledge is.'

74 Department of National Education, 1997:10.

75 O'Hear, 1981:33.

understood, thought about and communicated. You cannot just understand, think or communicate; there has to be something you are understanding [*sic*], thinking about or communicating.⁷⁶

Clearly, the old content-based curriculum that preceded Curriculum 2005 (later revised as Curriculum 21) reflected the aims and concerns of a particular (Nationalist) worldview and political philosophy, be it colonialism, imperialism or apartheid.

More serious than the charge that Curriculum 2005 is a *faux* curriculum, is the accusation that it cannot be understood at all. One critic noted

... the hopelessly overstated claims of OBE [outcomes-based education], the inaccessibility of the policy because of its burdensome vocabulary, and the under-preparedness of the environment into which OBE would be introduced....⁷⁷

In the above quotation, three reasons for the failure of Curriculum 2005/C21 come to the fore: grandiose and unattainable outcomes, a complex nomenclature and the under-preparedness and inexperience of teachers, educational planners and educational managers.⁷⁸

It is noteworthy that Jansen identifies the principal problem as being complex vocabulary that makes it difficult to understand the Curriculum 2005. Although the initial nomenclature of Curriculum 2005 was somewhat complex, this complexity of terminology does not offer conclusive evidence of any fundamental flaws in the general

⁷⁶ *Op. cit.*, 67.

⁷⁷ Jansen, 1997a:8. This present study adopts the view, expanded in Chapter One in the context of the discussion of the theory of language adopted in this study, that if language is seen as the production of meaning, then language-in-teaching could be seen as an aspect of a curriculum that is '... a "design for social futures"...'. That is, the curriculum becomes a way of empowering learners to create their future in much the same way as language enables them to inscribe and create their identity.

⁷⁸ Christie, 1989:98-113 and 219-249.

approach to education advanced in Curriculum 2005. However, the argument does point to a major problem in South Africa: the lack of proficiency in the global *lingua franca*.⁷⁹

The first of the criticisms levelled at Curriculum 2005/C21 above also warrants some discussion. It appears that the claims of Curriculum 2005/C21 are ‘overstated’ by which one could infer that they are too lofty, too broad and even too vague or, as the Pestalozzi Trust is cited as arguing, too (broadly) philosophical in nature and not sufficiently and specifically didactic. No curricular claims are specified; nor, however, does the critic define what he regards as being overstated. It can be inferred that the Critical Cross-field Outcomes and Learning Outcomes for all Learning Areas are the target of Jansen’s criticism.⁸⁰

The Critical Cross-field Outcomes and the Learning Outcomes for Languages are only outcomes and not specific instructions. These outcomes are intended to be interpreted and used to organise learning programmes. Both these outcomes and the general aim of one of the syllabi of the former National Party government’s curriculum for English are very broad. The latter states that ‘[t]he teacher should... promote... the pupils’ intellectual, emotional and social development to help them understand themselves and others, so that they may live more fully, happily and responsibly...’.⁸¹

79 Christie, 1989:98-113 and 219-249.

80 Department of National Education, 2002:1,6. The Learning Outcomes for a Learning Area are those outcomes that apply to a specific subject area. An example of a Learning Area is Languages and an example of a Learning Outcome for Languages is Learning Outcome 1 that states that ‘[t]he learner will be able to listen for information and enjoyment, and respond appropriately and critically in a wide range of situations’.

81 TED, 1986c:2.

Ultimately, practical issues surrounding the implementation of Curriculum 2005/C21 proved more serious than abstract issues. The final point of contention levelled by Jansen (cited earlier above) concerns the under-preparedness of educators and managers. Thus, one headline in *The Teacher* asks ‘Enough time for teachers?’⁸² In the same issue, another headline reads simply but curtly ‘Running out of time to train’.⁸³ Both these headlines capture the tremendous pressure facing educators, with little or no training, to put into practice a new approach to education within a short period of time. Both a lack of time and a lack of experience ultimately marred the implementation of this newer curriculum.

Indeed, one of the main obstacles to the smooth implementation of Curriculum 2005 was a lack of training in the principles of outcomes-based education. Even avid supporters expressed their concern, as is evident from the remarks of one teacher who states that ‘[w]e simply can’t do it all in one go. If we had highly skilled teachers it would be different’.⁸⁴ At the same time, local critics contended that elsewhere in the world similar experiments had failed.⁸⁵ Thus, in its infancy, Curriculum 2005 was demonised as a politically motivated and ill-construed attempt at educational reform that was based on a system that had been tried and found wanting in other countries.

An article in the August 1997 issue of *The Teacher* begged urgently, it seems in

82 Moshupi, 1997:4.

83 Maseko, 1997b:5.

84 Potenza, 1997:5.

85 Venter, 1997:13.

retrospect, for recognition of the fact that '[t]raining [was] needed for OBE'.⁸⁶ One teacher complained that '[educators] spend four years at college and... at university to be trained. And now [they] are expected to implement OBE effectively with four days of training'.⁸⁷ By March 2000, even an enthusiastic and committed advocate of Curriculum 2005/C21 stated somewhat euphemistically that '... the training provided by the provincial departments of education has not been adequate [and that more time is needed to train educators]...'.⁸⁸

Yet many supporters of Curriculum 2005/C21, sharing the then Minister Bengu's unrelenting optimism, still believed that the obstacles simply formed a rocky road to a better educational future.⁸⁹ However, in January 1998, even an education official from Gauteng stated that he was then only 'modestly optimistic' about the success of Curriculum 2005/C21.⁹⁰ By the end of 1998, the optimism of Curriculum 2005/C21's supporters was severely tested and there were calls to delay, perhaps even to abandon entirely, the implementation of Curriculum 2005. Clearly, a lack of understanding, a limited period of time for and insufficient training of teachers for the implementation of Curriculum 2005 and, most crucially, a lack of learning materials suited to the nature of the new approach to teaching and learning, all combined to undermine the efficacy of Curriculum 2005/C21.

⁸⁶ Macfarlane, 1997:2.

⁸⁷ Potenza, 2000:19.

⁸⁸ *Op. cit.*, 19.

⁸⁹ Naidoo, 1997:13.

⁹⁰ Grey, 1998:6. Note also that South Africa's education system includes both a national education department and provincial (state or county) education department; of the latter, there are nine in South Africa – Gauteng housing the capital Pretoria and the financial heart of the country Johannesburg.

In fact, if the comments of the critics of Curriculum 2005, cited in the preceding discussion, reveal very little about Curriculum 2005/C21 *per se*, then this is because the debate surrounding the introduction of Curriculum 2005 in the early stages of its implementation was often characterised by highly emotive accusations and counter-accusations, rather than constructive criticism. The fault appears to lie with the Department of National Education for not educating the public and educators sufficiently in the principles of outcomes-based education. However, this is clearly a public relations oversight and a case of poor intra-departmental communication, rather than an indication of any fundamental flaws in the principles informing Curriculum 2005, as expressed in the Critical Cross-field Outcomes and Learning Outcomes for each Learning Area.⁹¹

As the first reports regarding the implementation of Curriculum 2005/C21 filtered in, a process of introspection and reflection began to take place in the Department of National Education. Thus, in an interview, a consultant to the Department of National Education argues that educational planners should ‘[s]tart where [they] want to end up. In other words, start with the outcomes’.⁹² Clearly, this mild rebuke occurred because of a lack of understanding of the principles informing Curriculum 2005/C21 on the part of the very officials who were supposed to understand and implement the curriculum. An official of the Gauteng Department of Education, one of nine provincial education departments, noted that

[w]e’re gradually seeing that it [the implementation of Curriculum 2005]

⁹¹ Department of National Education, 2002:1,6. Cf. footnote 90 and 98 of the present chapter.

⁹² Garson, 1998a:5.

mustn't be a top-bottom issue. If you don't make... [parents, educators and learners] own this kind of thing, it won't do well.⁹³

Many teachers felt, as in the argument offered on behalf of the Pestalozzi Trust cited above, that they could have played an important role in avoiding the problem of a curriculum that, from their perspective, contradicted tried and trusted methods of teaching.⁹⁴

Further concerns focussed on issues as varied as assessment, the meaning of outcomes-based education and the need for training.

[The educators] were unanimous in expressing the desire to be given a clearer indication of what knowledge and skills they needed to focus on in each grade.... Several teachers expressed a need to be given a clear indication of what the key concerns of each Learning Area were, and for an outline of the content to be covered in each grade to be provided.... A key area of concern that caused considerable anxiety was not understanding what OBE was.... These teachers spoke with one voice about the need for much greater clarity in the area of assessment.... On the question of training, their view was that they would not be able to do justice to the new curriculum without receiving regular, high-quality training and on-going school-based support.⁹⁵

This discussion reveals that optimism for the successful implementation of Curriculum 2005/C21 had waned somewhat in comparison to the initial fervour with which some supporters, such as Putter (1998), greeted it. The reason for the cautious optimism exhibited by supporters during the implementation of Curriculum 2005/C21 that prevailed at this time was attributable to several practical considerations.

93 Potenza and Jansen, 1998:5.

94 Potenza, 2001 at www.theteacher.co.za. (accessed 20/10/02) notes in this regard that ' [t]o begin with, the Grade 8 teachers voiced their frustration at having to continue to implement Curriculum 2005 in its present form.... Their main source of information had been the media [my emphasis]'.

95 Potenza, 2001 at www.theteacher.co.za. Accessed 20/10/02.

Clearly, a culture of learning and teaching (COLTS) could not be created unless there were resources.⁹⁶ The Northern Cape, one of South Africa's nine provinces, for example, faced the problem of insufficient trainers.⁹⁷ Another province, KwaZulu-Natal, struggled with teacher-pupil ratios.⁹⁸ An official in the Mpumalanga Provincial Education Department simply stated that 'I am not yet a grandmother [but] this Curriculum 2005 will make me one'.⁹⁹

One of the causes of the concerns identified in the preceding discussion is a lack of suitable learning materials. Poor management (also already mentioned) resulted in bewildering contradictions regarding the supply of learning materials, for example. In November 1999, one commentator predicted that '[t]extbooks [are] set to become a rarity'.¹⁰⁰ She notes wryly that '... there is a budget for stopping textbooks from getting into schools [in] that implementing these cuts [on learning support materials] will mean extended working hours and [thus] "overtime payments will have to be made"'.¹⁰¹ In fact, the materials that were made available by the Department of National Education were criticised for being of a poor quality and, most important, for the fact that they missed the goal of outcomes-based education that '... is not about the stuff in books... [but]... about what you do with the stuff that's there'.¹⁰²

96 Smith, 1998:9. See also Kamsteeg, 1990:88. The call for a culture of learning and teaching in schools came about because of the violence that plagued schools for South Africans of colour from the 1976 Soweto riots to the 1980s, an approach that placed more emphasis on political liberation than education.

97 Smith, 1998:7.

98 *Ibid.*

99 *Ibid.* The official suggests that dealing with the new curriculum has exhausted and aged her.

100 Fine, 1999:4.

101 *Ibid.*

102 Potenza and Jansen, 1998:5.

Clearly, the speakers' remarks indicate that the Department of National Education had misunderstood and misapplied the principles of Curriculum 2005/C21. Even more ironic is the fact that there was an advertisement in *The Teacher* of March 2000 for a new series of Shakespeare texts designed for schools.¹⁰³ After listing the merits of these texts, the author informs the reader of the price for each text that ranges from R 29, 95 to R 44, 95 (relatively expensive in the South African context of large numbers of low-income families). Even a rough estimate of the cost of supplying such texts at a national level suggests a sizeable expense. It was, however, not only the prohibitive cost of books to which some objected but also the poor quality of learning support material designed by the Department of Education.¹⁰⁴

Refusing to abandon Curriculum 2005, yet conceding that the education system was dysfunctional and desperately in need of an overhaul, the then new Minister of Education, Kader Asmal, launched his five-year Tirisano rescue plan.¹⁰⁵ The plan aimed at addressing many of the obstacles facing the implementation of Curriculum 2005/C21. Ultimately, the former Minister also took schools and provincial education departments to task over issues, such as absenteeism, unprofessional behaviour and a lack of discipline in schools.¹⁰⁶ These actions were aimed at practical and managerial problems, showing clearly that these were critical areas of concern. In one instance, the entire staff of a school in the province of the Eastern Cape was dismissed.¹⁰⁷ Asmal's

¹⁰³ O'Connor, 2000:15.

¹⁰⁴ Potenza and Jansen, 1998:5.

¹⁰⁵ Pile, 1999:3.

¹⁰⁶ Grey, 2000:4.

¹⁰⁷ *Ibid.*

uncompromising stance on these issues earned him the nickname ‘Papa Action’.¹⁰⁸

One of the obstacles the Tirisano plan sought to overcome was the effect that the haphazard implementation of Curriculum 2005, coupled with retrenchments and the redeployment of teachers, was having on teacher morale. Critics of this newer curriculum had predicted that the conceptual complexity of Curriculum 2005, along with other factors, would undermine the fragile remnants of teacher morale in, for example, rural areas.¹⁰⁹ Other factors exacerbating low morale included a policy of re-deploying teachers to specific schools so that a departmental ideal ratio of pupils to teachers could be met. This process saw pupil-teacher ratios soar in some schools, thus further demoralizing staff.¹¹⁰ The most critical issue, namely that of training teachers in the principles of Curriculum 2005/C21, was addressed by stipulating that teachers had to participate in eighty hours of professional development.¹¹¹ It is clear that the Department of National Education responded to problems that were of a managerial nature rather than of a conceptual nature (in terms of the curriculum design).

Undoubtedly, all these measures were taken to limit the damage done to the implementation of this curriculum by poor management. Ultimately, however, damage control proved ineffective in propping up Curriculum 2005/C21 and thus, by February 2000, the former Education Minister Asmal announced that ‘... an independent team of

¹⁰⁸ *Ibid.*

¹⁰⁹ Jansen, 1997a:4.

¹¹⁰ Giyani, 1999:20.

¹¹¹ Potenza, 2000:19.

educationists [would] evaluate the implementation of outcomes-based education...'.¹¹²

The minister's pledge resulted in an investigation into Curriculum 2005 conducted by the Chisholm Committee.

The findings of the team were published in July 2001 as the *Draft Revised National Curriculum Statement* – the blueprint for what is now referred to as C21. The draft statement brings to light many of the objections that had been raised about the implementation of Curriculum 2005 by both its supporters and detractors. Linda Chisholm, chairperson of the committee, notes that in some respects Curriculum 2005 has not changed since its revision as C21. The present thesis concurs in that

[t]he principles and values of outcomes-based education (OBE) that underlie the streamlining process do not differ from those of Curriculum 2005, as implemented since 1998. What is different is the way in which it has been simplified and [in which it] has removed all complex jargon.¹¹³

At the beginning of this section, the argument of the thesis contends that simply because one does not understand a concept, one cannot argue that it is incorrect, invalid or irrelevant. Moreover, the argument also highlights the difference between conceptual validity and good management. The turbulent history of OBE in South Africa has resulted in the realisation that consultation is vital to the successful implementation of Curriculum 2005. Whether or not the implementation schedule is realistic is not the main concern of this study. In fact,

[f]ormal implementation of the revised Curriculum 2005 [is]... only likely to begin in 2004. Curriculum 2005 in its present form [will] continue to be

¹¹² Garson, 2000b:7.

¹¹³ Garson, 2000b:7.

implemented until it [is] overtaken by the revised policy.¹¹⁴

In the meantime, Emilia Potenza encourages teachers

[t]o work mainly with the Critical Outcomes and the Learning Outcomes. This would provide them with a sufficient policy framework within which to locate their practice during this period of transition.¹¹⁵

From the perspective of the present study, the implementation of Curriculum 2005 failed because of poor management and a lack of experience on the part of the new ANC-led government and this new curriculum, though not essential to the teaching of workplace skills, nevertheless provides a sound framework within which to pursue these skills.

Arguably, the current unpreparedness of South African learners for the workplace began with the distinction between mental and manual labour already argued. In addition, this distinction was perpetuated during South Africa's isolation from the international community, at a time when globalisation swept across the globe and challenged existing ideas about commerce and education.

Although Curriculum 2005/C21 clearly takes cognizance of the existence of globalisation, as is evident from the curriculum's Critical Cross-field Outcomes, this study argues that Curriculum 2005/C21 has yet to respond adequately to the influence of globalisation. The present study moves that it can do so by overtly recognising the workplace in its outcomes for the Learning Area known as Languages. The language classroom, as this study moves, could be used to inculcate workplace language skills.

7. Concluding remarks

¹¹⁴ Potenza, 2001:s.p. www.theteacher.co.za. Accessed 20/10/01.

¹¹⁵ *Ibid.*

The need to pursue workplace skills derives from the phenomenon of globalisation and its impact on the workplace. Globalisation is driven now not only by economically powerful nations but by the commercial choices of hundreds of millions of individuals all over the world and so it appears that this phenomenon is here to stay – for the time being.¹¹⁶ For this reason, this study urges a closer analysis of the impact of this phenomenon on the workplace and, by extension, on education – a task undertaken in Chapter Two.

In Chapter One, which follows, the research methodology of this study is contextualised within the paradigm shift that has taken place in the production of knowledge since the dawn of the era of globalisation in its current form. The argument strives to show that this study incorporates elements of traditional knowledge production and also Mode 2 knowledge production, a concept defined in Chapter One. A specialized literature survey follows, surveying works that are particularly relevant to this study. The research hypotheses, an identification of the research problems of this study and the chosen theoretical approach are then given. Outlining the structure of Chapter One, the argument concludes with a summary of each chapter of this thesis.

¹¹⁶ Coyle, 2003:13.

CHAPTER ONE

1.1 Contextualising the research methodology of this thesis

As argued in the Introduction to this study, *Workplace English skills for Grade 9 languages in C21* contends that the phenomenon of globalisation has altered the face of the international economy, the workplace and, by extension, education. Never before has the world seen the movement of capital and people across national and cultural lines to the extent that is now evident.¹ Solutions to political, economic and social problems are increasingly found by incorporating points of view from different cultures and disciplines. Traditional research methodology, within the confines of the traditional scientific method that poses research problems, hypothesises, tests and revises assumptions, is therefore adapting to these changing circumstances.

The present study incorporates the dominant aspects of traditional research that have elsewhere been termed “modernist”.² This study still functions within the framework set by the scientific method.³ Thus, ‘[o]n the simplest level, [traditional] science is knowledge of the world of nature ... subjected to some degree of sceptical rigour and explained by rational causes ... [in the form of]... regularities... [or]... a family of empirical (experiential) laws...[and scientific theories which are structure]... suggested by these laws and are devised to explain them in a scientifically rational

1 Gibbons *et al.*, 1994:1-3. Chapter Two of the present study offers a fuller account of the impact of globalisation on education.

2 *Ibid.* The meaning of “modernist” is unclear in the context. Considering the modernist construction of over-arching structures that impose order on seeming chaos, the very form of traditional research could be termed modernist in its attempt to impose structure and meaning on data, both qualitative and quantitative, and to further clarify existing views on “reality”.

3 *Op. cit.*, 2-3. See also the (electronic) Encyclopaedia Britannica 2002 for the entry on science which states that science is ‘[a]ny system of knowledge that is concerned with the physical world and its phenomena and that entails unbiased observations and systematic experimentation. In general, a science involves a pursuit of knowledge covering general truths or the operations of fundamental laws’.

manner... [that is, through]... careful observation or experiments... reports of regularities... systematic explanatory schemes (theories)... [commonly termed the *scientific method*]',⁴

One important aspect of the changing face of research is that it '... is carried out in a context of *application* [my emphasis]'.⁵ Increasingly, knowledge production is '...[t]ransdisciplinary... heterogeneous... heterarchical... [organisationally] transient... socially accountable and reflexive... [and brings together a] heterogeneous set of practitioners, collaborating on a problem defined in a specific and localised context...'.⁶ Thus, instead of applying a single (and limiting) method of research to a problem, the inclusion of different fields of inquiry means that this kind of research can formulate meaningful solutions to problems; that is, instead of merely dealing with symptoms, this kind of research could help to deal with the causes of problems.

4 The (electronic) Encyclopaedia Britannica 2002 for the entries, "science", history of "science" and "scientific method". 'Empirical laws and scientific theories differ in several ways. In a law, reasonably clear observational rules are available for determining the meaning of each of its terms; thus, a law can be tested by carefully observing the things and properties referred to by these terms. Indeed, they are initially formulated by generalizing or schematizing from observed relationships. In the case of scientific theories, however, some of the terms commonly refer to things that are not observed. Thus, it is evident that theories are imaginative constructions of the human mind – the results of philosophical and aesthetic judgments as well as of observation – for they are only suggested by observational information rather than inductively generalized from it. Moreover, theories cannot ordinarily be tested and accepted on the same grounds as laws. Thus, whereas an empirical law expresses a unifying relationship among a small selection of observables, scientific theories have much greater scope, explaining a variety of such laws and predicting others as yet undiscovered.... A theory may be characterized as a postulational system (a set of premises) from which empirical laws are deducible as theorems. Thus, it can have an abstract logical form, with axioms, formation rules, and rules for drawing deductions from the axioms, as well as definitions for empirically interpreting its symbols. In practice, however, theories are seldom structured so carefully....'

5 Gibbons *et al.*, 1994:3.

6 Gibbons *et al.*, 1994:3.

The use of the word “problem” in this context is deliberate and significant. The Introduction to this study makes this point clear when it refers to the social, historical and economic forces that inspired the architects of Curriculum 2005 (and its revised form C21) to find a new approach to education in South Africa. This study is trans-disciplinary in that its research problem spans the fields of education, English language teaching in particular, economics and to a lesser degree, the social sciences. Although there is a single author, the diverse range of sources suggests that experts from different fields of inquiry have collaborated, so to speak, on this research project.

Thus, this study incorporates pure academic research and socially based research. In the first instance, the Introduction offers a purely academic form of research in that it offers an overview of the history of the implementation of Curriculum 2005/C21 as a response both to South Africa’s apartheid past and its economic problems relating to underdevelopment and unemployment is given. This overview, however, highlights a number of problems relating to Curriculum 2005/C21 and to the South African context, that is, to the fact that learners are not prepared for the workplace – a problem that concerns South African society. At this juncture, the form of research undertaken in this study begins to incorporate traditional applied research within the context of the scientific method. Faced with a research problem, this study undertakes to find possible solutions. Thus, the study strives to show how Curriculum 2005/C21 could be used to teach workplace skills. The argument then strives to lay the

foundation for the construction of a model that can be used to design workplace literacy tasks. This stage of the research project is thus distinctly practical in nature.

The impact of this study's research problem, expressed in conventional scientific method terms, is expanded by the emphasis on application. Thus, resolving the research problem

... is organized around a particular application.... Such knowledge is intended to be useful to someone whether in industry or in government or society more generally and this imperative is present from the beginning.⁷

Applicability and usefulness, as is the case with traditional research, are not determined by profit or the ability to solve a technical problem, although these two concerns could play a role in the process of solving a problem.⁸ In fact,

[c]ontrary to what one might expect, working in the context of application increases the sensitivity of scientists and technologists to the broader implications of what they are doing.... This is because the issue on which research is based cannot be answered in scientific and technical terms alone.... The deepening on [*sic*] understanding that this brings, in turn, has an effect on what is considered worthwhile doing and, hence, on the structure of the research itself.⁹

It is in their transdisciplinarity, perhaps, that research projects, such as the current study, redefine '... appropriate cognitive and social practice...' so that it is derived largely from the context of the research project and '... evolves with it...'.¹⁰ The underlying motive for undertaking this research comes from a perceived social

⁷ Gibbons *et al.*, 1994:3-4.

⁸ *Op. cit.*, 7.

⁹ *Op. cit.*, 3.

¹⁰ Gibbons *et al.*, 4.

problem and it is anticipated that the findings of this study will serve the teaching community. Similarly, the ultimate positing of a theory of workplace English skills in Chapter Three and a model in Chapter Four according to which workplace literacy tasks can be designed suggests a conventional form qualitative research with a practical application. Consequently, the tentative solution this study offers in response to its research problem ‘... comprises both empirical and theoretical components...’ so that this study contributes to the existing body of educational knowledge but not ‘... necessarily [to] disciplinary knowledge’.¹¹ This research project must therefore be considered as part of an existing body of educational knowledge that is evolving in response to the impact of that Curriculum 2005/C21 has had educational practice in South Africa.

1.1.1 Research methodologies

As already argued, knowledge production is increasingly characterised by social accountability and reflexivity. The description of the context of this study in the Introduction and the construction of the research hypothesis both demonstrate that the broad research concerns of this thesis stem from a particular social concern: the need to prepare learners for the workplace. Knowledge production, as stated earlier, involves both a theoretical and a practical component.

During South Africa’s isolation from the global community, a new global force arose:

¹¹ Gibbons *et al.*, 1994:4.

globalisation. Globalisation allows the rapid transfer of capital in the quest for sound investments. This rapidly changing world produced by globalisation necessitates a certain set of skills identified as workplace English skills. This study brings together these two variables and synthesises them into its core aim: demonstrating why and how workplace English skills could be introduced into the newest curriculum. It follows that the research problem concerns the ability of Curriculum 2005/C21 to accommodate workplace English skills. These concerns are grounded in the domain of the socially reflective because the research problem is derived from the community in which the research is conducted.

In keeping with the changing face of knowledge production, the research methodology adopted in this study is eclectic, coupled with a largely deductive approach. By means of a qualitative analysis of relevant literature in Chapter Two, still part of the theoretical aspect of the present study, deduction assists in redefining the notion of work so that the resulting concept embraces both the classroom and the workplace. Having thus linked these two worlds, a process of deduction shows that an approach to education that does not relate to the real (working) world results in learners acquiring largely meaningless (in the context of a developing country) academic qualifications.

By means of a qualitative analysis of the principles underpinning workplace skills and a comparison of the fundamental principles underpinning Curriculum 2005/C21, a working definition of workplace English skills emerges. The present study also offers

a brief overview of the structure of Curriculum 2005/C21, including the Learning Area with which this study is concerned, namely, Languages.

A qualitative analysis of the fundamental principles of Curriculum 2005 (now called C21) and the principles informing workplace English skills reveals that, at the level of principle, these two concepts do not clash with each other. This point is underscored by means of a comparison of the aims of the newest curriculum, the aims of (the Learning Area) Languages and specific workplace English skills. This comparison results in the tabulation of similarities, emphasizing concerns common to Curriculum 2005/C21 workplace English skills and language teaching theory. A brief analysis of the Critical Cross-field Outcomes of Curriculum 2005/C21 and the Learning Outcomes for Languages as well as selected workplace English skills studies yields the result predicted in the research hypothesis, namely that the principles underpinning Curriculum 2005/C21 accord with those of the workplace English skills.

Chapter Three links generally accepted language teaching principles with the Learning Outcomes of the Languages Learning Area and the principles informing workplace English skills. A number of principles that constitute a tentative theory of workplace English skills are deduced. The aim of positing such a theory is to construct a model enabling educators to devise meaningful workplace literacy tasks.

The practical aspect of this research study is evident in Chapter Four which relies on

an inductive process to arrive at a model (for the design of workplace literacy tasks) that is generally applicable in any language teaching context. Thereafter, this model is applied in the construction of two tasks that were tested in a practical teaching context. By means of a quantitative analysis of the results of these two tasks, the validity of the model and the principles informing the tentative theory of workplace English skills were tested. Ultimately, this led to a modification of the model where necessary.

1.2 Literature survey

The literature surveyed here consists of post-graduate studies and published research. The published research used in this study includes research on globalization, English as a global language, literacy, the new literacy, and English language teaching methodology. Each category of literature has been numbered for ease of reference.

In the following section, a number of completed post-graduate research projects in South Africa are surveyed. These studies are foregrounded because they construct, albeit partially, the matrix of current research into post-apartheid education. As such, these studies highlight the contribution the present study has to make to this body of on-going research while attention is also drawn to the limitations of these studies in terms of the research concerns of this thesis.

1.2.1 Studies that focus on school management

In its overview of the implementation of Curriculum 2005/C21, the Introduction to this study refers to resistance on the part of educators and parents to Curriculum 2005.¹² It emphasizes the fact that this study is not concerned with the successful (or unsuccessful) implementation of this curriculum but with whether Curriculum 2005/C21 can accommodate workplace English skills. This study contends that resistance to Curriculum 2005 is equally irrelevant to the core aim of the present study; the core aim, to reiterate, is to argue that workplace English skills have to be incorporated into language training in order to prepare learners for the (global) workplace. Nevertheless, as indicated earlier above, this study incorporates elements of both M1 and M2 knowledge production and so the following studies' concerns ought to be considered in the light of broader research on Curriculum 2005 (and its revised form, C21).

Although general South African public opinion may hold that it is the teacher who stands at the forefront of the battle for or against Curriculum 2005/C21, it is, as Made (1999) argues, the headmaster, who more often than not, ensures the smooth implementation of new policies and practices – such Curriculum 2005/C21.¹³ It could be argued, in the light of the overview of the implementation of Curriculum 2005/C21

12 Emilia Potenza, 1998:5 cites one official's observation that '[w]e're gradually seeing that it [the implementation of Curriculum 2005] mustn't be a top-bottom issue. If you don't make [parents, educators and learners] own this kind of thing, it won't do well'. In his study, *Empowering parents as stakeholders in the democratisation of school education*, Molepo, 1999:s.p., concurs, arguing for the invaluable role parents can play through structures such as school governing bodies.

13 *An Investigation into the Management Skills Required by Junior Primary School Principals in the Implementation of Curriculum 2005*, Made, 1999:s.p.

in the Introduction to this study, that good management is crucial to the successful implementation of Curriculum 2005/C21.¹⁴ Similarly, it is arguable in the context of this study, that the possession of workplace English skills makes for better managers. In addition, since the success of Curriculum 2005/C21 depends on all stakeholders taking ownership of it, it is equally arguable that imparting workplace English skills to learners could assist them in assuming certain managerial functions in the school. This is a possibility that is demonstrated in the two experimental tasks described in Chapter Four of the present study.

The studies in the first category clearly take cognizance of the importance of the headmaster in the difficult transition period from the old content-based curriculum to Curriculum 2005/C21. The importance of workplace English skills comes to the fore, since

... the school stands in the centre of the developing community... and... for this reason... the school principal, as education manager, should have a firm knowledge of skills that enable him to efficiently implement the management of resistance to change.¹⁵

Caring as an Aspect of School Climate: implications for school effectiveness

(Molemane, 2000), the third study surveyed in the first sub-category of management studies that deals with school management, ‘... attempts to establish whether a caring

14 Curriculum 2005 refers here to outcomes-based education, whether this is Curriculum 2005 or Curriculum 21, the revised curriculum mentioned in the Introduction to this study. Currently, there are three curricula in existence: the pre-Curriculum 2005 curriculum (applicable to Grades 10-12), Curriculum 2005 (Foundation to Grade 9) and, finally, its revised form, C21 (not fully implemented).

15 The Management of Resistance Against Change by the Headmaster, Van Huyssteen, 2000:s.p. Chapter Two of this study lists a number of skills.

climate is a necessary condition for school effectiveness in the Mpumalanga Province...'; the study comes to the conclusion that '... a web of caring relations can lead to effective schools ...'.¹⁶ As is evident from the argument in Chapter Two, sound training in workplace English skills includes oral skills such as working in groups and effectively communicating ideas. This study contends, in concurrence with Molemane's (2000) study, that effective communication, in the context of Curriculum 2005/C21 and workplace English skills in the multicultural global context, by definition implies cultural sensitivity. One of Curriculum 2005/C21's fundamental aims is, in fact, to ensure that learners are '... culturally and aesthetically sensitive across a range of social contexts...'.¹⁷ In the following section, the focus of the studies surveyed shifts to the learner. These studies are learner-centred in that they are overtly concerned with the impact of Curriculum 2005/C21 on the well-being of the learner. The present study, insofar as it argues that the learner ought to be prepared for the workplace, is also learner-centred and thus shares a common point of departure with the studies surveyed in the next section.

1.2.2 Studies that focus on the learner

Curriculum and Society: a learner's perspective (Mzankomo, 1997), attempts to '...

¹⁶ Van Huyssteen, 2000:s.p.

¹⁷ Department of National Education, 2002:1. These fundamental aims are, in fact, called Critical Cross-field Outcomes. These outcomes are discussed and defined in Chapter Two.

draft guidelines for a relevant curriculum in the senior secondary phase ...’.¹⁸ The study finds that

... pupils highlight the following aspects: the need for alcohol, drug and gender education in secondary schools; multicultural education, a multi-religious approach and the introduction of subjects like art and sport; the need for in-service training and improvement of teaching skills on the part of teachers; and the use of technology and career education.¹⁹

With the benefit of hindsight, these aims seem somewhat redundant since the inception of Curriculum 2005/C21. Nevertheless, these concerns were then and, still are, very real. The present study claims that a relevant curriculum should include workplace English skills. The need for a relevant curriculum is underscored by Mathopo (1998), who notes that

[t]he movement of learners from township to suburban schools has necessitated a new management technique that will accommodate the unique characteristics of learners from diverse cultural, linguistic and socio-economic backgrounds.²⁰

Although this study is concerned with learner management, the quotation above echoes the contention of the argument of this thesis in the previous section. That is, true and effective communication in the workplace and elsewhere necessitates a form of training that aspires to achieve the goal of producing learners who are culturally sensitive.

18 Department of National Education, 2002:1. “Senior secondary phase” would have referred, in 1997, to Standards 8, 9 and 10 (Grades 10-12), grades that now fall under the Further Education and Training Band (FET). For an explanation of this term, see Figure 2.1 in Chapter Two.

19 *Ibid.*

20 Management Implications of the Movement of Children from Township to Suburban Schools, Mathopo, 1998:s.p.

Curriculum 2005/C21 emphasises the needs of the learner in selecting approaches to teaching. In Du Toit's 2000 study *Optimising memory of school learners: a neuropsychological perspective*, the researcher notes that '... far-reaching changes were made to education after the South African democratic election in 1994. A new national curriculum... Curriculum 2005 [stresses the need for] educators... to assess the prior knowledge of their learners before exposing them to new learning material. Research has shown that memory functions more effectively when new concepts are associated with prior knowledge.'²¹ The following section surveys three studies generally concerned with management and overtly concerned with the impact of Curriculum 2005/C21 on the training of educators.

1.2.3 Studies that focus on teacher or vocational training

Of particular interest is the fact that the three studies surveyed in this sub-category were completed between 1996-2001. The year 1997 saw the implementation of

21 Du Toit, 2000:s.p. Cf. the rest of the summary of this study: '[e]ducators, as professionals, need to be informed of new information regarding their field of expertise. Internationally there has been a substantial increase in knowledge on the neural functioning of the human brain. The purpose of this study is to determine the educational relevance of recent neuropsychological studies for memory. This involved a study of memory at the cellular and network level and of the related structural changes in the neural composition of the brain. An area of particular interest is the role of neurotransmitters in the synapse with regard to memory. The investigation also focused on the anatomy of the brain in general, as well as the location of memory in specific areas of the brain. The literature study provides an overview of the memory systems that are of particular significance to learners in the school context. An attempt is made to link memory systems to the neurological functioning of memory in the human brain, as it is currently understood. At this stage, there is no proven linear relationship between particular memory strategies and specific neural activities. A brief overview is also given of mnemonic strategies and mind maps as examples of effective memory strategies. A neuropsychological foundation for the effectiveness of these strategies is supplied. The following are the main findings of this study: 1) the interconnectedness of neurons in the brain is a clear indication that learning, and memory in particular, cannot take place in isolation. 2) memory is improved if new concepts are linked to existing memories. 3) All mental abilities should be integrated to optimise memory. 4) long-term memory is associated with structural changes in the brain. 5) the almost unlimited capacity of the human brain is reconfirmed. 6) The human memory is not a single system. 7) teachers should use various strategies to facilitate the optimal functioning of a learner's memory'.

Curriculum 2005/C21 was in the Foundation Phase.²² By 2001, as is indicated in the Introduction to this study, Curriculum 2005/C21 had come under revision and it was evident at that time that a lack of training was one of causes of the frustration experienced by educators during the early years of the implementation of Curriculum 2005/C21. Although the first study surveyed here addresses tertiary secretarial training, its findings are pertinent to the argument of the present study. Learning is a life-long process and so the present study contends that the current unpreparedness of workers for the workplace can be traced back to school and does not only apply to tertiary institutions.

The study entitled *Curriculum Design Based on Needs Assessment in the Subject Office Administration at Technicons*²³ (Nel, 1989) echoes the concern of this study in that it highlights the necessity for workplace skills training, albeit it in the context of secretarial work. A summary of Nel's (1989) argument states that

...[t]he development of office automation makes demands on secretaries in the form of mental *and* manual skills which have relevance to computerised systems. The continued change in the workplace brought about by office automation, demands a high level of adaptability and personal communication skills. It is further concluded that these mental and manual skills, as well as the needs of secretaries on the assumption of duty, are not being properly addressed by the training institutions [my emphasis].²⁴

Mental and manual skills are equally valid and present in office (workplace) skills.

Similarly, the need for well-developed (inter-cultural) communication skills echoes

22 The Foundation Phase represents Grades R-3 or pre-school to Grade 3. Figure 2.1 in Chapter Two.

23 Technicons were, prior to the Introduction of Curriculum 2005 (now C21), the South African equivalent to the United Kingdom's Polytechnics. Technicons used to award diplomas only. Currently, they offer degree courses. Technicon course in the past invariably included six months of theory training and six months apprenticeship or internship with a suitable company.

24 Curriculum Design Based on Needs Assessment in the Subject Office Administration at Technicons, Nel, 1989.

the argument of this study in the first category of studies surveyed in this section as well as the argument of this present study in Chapter Two. Thus, Nel (1989) notes that the secretaries are ill-equipped for the workplace because they have not been trained in the relevant workplace English skills. It can be inferred, of course, from the above quotation that it is not only secretaries who are ill-prepared for the workplace but also most learners. In fact all learners require some form of workplace skills and the skills that make

‘... a graduate employable [are] [t]raditional intellectual skills (critical evaluation of evidence, application of theory, logical argument); [n]ew core skills (communication, information and communications technology, application of numbers, teamwork and improving performance); [p]ersonal attributes (self-reliance, adaptability, flexibility, creativity) and[k]nowledge about how organisations work’.²⁵

In a separate study, Narsee (1997) concurs with the argument expressed above. She notes that a particular communication course ‘... [does] not appear to satisfy the needs of the workplace’.²⁶ The necessity, according to the researcher, of ensuring that (communication) courses do precisely this is expressed most succinctly when she states that

[i]n a country... where communication with management and the workforce is of ultimate importance in ensuring harmony and understanding, the offering of a revised course in related theory and skills seems very necessary.²⁷

25 Lickindorf, 2004:2 In the “Cabinet Report Card” section of The Star December 18, 2003, Khatu Maimala and Makhudu Sefara, 2003:21 give the then Minister of Education, Kader Asmal, a “B” for his performance. They note that ‘... employers have decried the quality, or rather the preparedness for the job market, of tertiary graduates’.

26 An Evaluation of the Suitability of the Course Communication Skills I for Engineering Students at Technicons in Natal [sic], Narsee, 1997. Although this study addresses tertiary education, its findings apply to this study. The dearth of workplace skills in learners stems from a trend that begins at secondary school level and extends to the tertiary environment.

27 Narsee, 1997:s.p.

Furthermore, Nel (1989) mentions office automation as a variable in the workplace that requires the ability to adapt and communication skills of a interpersonal nature. A counter-argument exists: automation actually leads to the deskilling of jobs and not the demand for more complex skills.²⁸ Thompson (1983) and Nel (1989) understand different things under the term “automation”. The former has automation in the office in mind. The latter, Thompson, has automation in the manufacturing industry in mind. Nel’s understanding of the term includes technological advances in word processing and general communications. This study agrees with Thompson’s view in that highly skilled workers are generally more expensive to hire. However, this study also agrees with Nel’s (1989) view in that a skilled work force is more attractive to foreign investors. Thus, by introducing relevant workplace English skills into Curriculum 2005/C21 and equipping learners with workplace skills, it may be possible to attract direct foreign investment, by making local workers attractive to foreign investors. Nel’s (1989) study indicates that there has been, for some time, an awareness of the need to make education more relevant to the workplace.²⁹

If feedback from educators expedited a revision of Curriculum 2005/C21, as is argued in the Introduction to this study, then

[c]hanges in the national curriculum have also resulted in increasing challenges in the field [of South African education] [contributing] to the restructuring of the nature of teaching and learning at higher education

²⁸ Thompson, 1983:132.

²⁹ Department of National Education, 1992:15. The report states that a future curriculum ‘... should be relevant and take cognizance of the personpower [sic] needs of the country’.

institutions in South Africa generally.³⁰

Matsheke's (1999) research highlights the need for appropriate training in a curriculum that seemed daunting to many educators in the period 1998-2001, and perhaps, still does.³¹ Endorsing this view, the present study calls for the introduction of workplace English skills into Curriculum 2005/C21 which should not only prepare learners for the workplace, but also provide clearer teaching goals to educators. The next section addresses these studies, concerned with the impact of Curriculum 2005/C21 on the actual teaching of subjects or Learning Areas.³²

1.2.4 Studies that focus on specific subjects or Learning Areas

This thesis is concerned with introducing workplace English skills into the Learning Area known as "Languages". The studies surveyed in this section represent only a limited number of studies concerned with specific subjects and Learning Areas.³³ The studies that have been selected for the present literature survey are all concerned with language and they contribute meaningfully to the theory of language and learning

30 Determining the Training Needs of Teacher Educators in Some Colleges of Education in the Eastern Cape Province for Outcomes-based Education, Matsheke, 1999.

31 As already noted, Jonathan Jansen, 1997a:8 mentions specifically '... the hopelessly overstated claims of OBE, the inaccessibility of the policy because of its burdensome vocabulary, and the under-preparedness of the environment into which OBE would be introduced...'. Regarding the complexity of the language, Malan, 1998:23 concurs when he states that '... uitkomst wat die leerder moet bemeester is dikwels waardes en normas... [en is nie] in verberuikersvreidnelike taal nie...[the outcomes that learners need to achieve are often related to values and attitudes and are expressed in language that is not user-friendly...]'.

32 "Subject" is a designation used only for Grades 10-12. In Grades 1-9, learners have Learning Areas. For example, in Grades 10-12 learners can take Mathematics as a subject. In Grades 1-9, they take a Learning Area called Mathematics and Mathematical Literacy. See the Brief Overview of Curriculum 2005/C21 in Chapter Two for a fuller description of a Learning Area.

33 At the time of writing, there were twenty-three studies on specific subjects or Learning Areas. Not all of these studies are relevant to this study, however, for the simple reason that they are concerned with the Natural Sciences. Since this study is not overtly concerned with Curriculum 2005/C21, but with its ability to house workplace skills, only those studies that deal overtly with language studies were chosen.

adopted by the argument in this thesis.

In the Introduction to this study, in the context of the discussion on the rise of English as a field of study, the present study contends that acquiring workplace English skills through the medium of English is essential if learners are to be prepared adequately for the workplace.³⁴ Thus, despite the fact that some of the studies surveyed here are overtly concerned with the teaching of literature or language exclusively, the didactic principles they uphold are, nevertheless, pertinent.

For example, neither *An Integrated Interactive Approach to Language and Literature Education Within the Outcomes-based Education Approach for Afrikaans L2* (Malan, 1998) nor *Facilitating Learning in Communicative L2 Afrikaans Language teaching* (Dilrajh, 1999) directly addresses workplace English skills. Yet, both studies support a communicative approach to language teaching, albeit Afrikaans language teaching. Malan (1998), for example, argues for an integrated approach to language teaching that is ‘... geared towards communication [and that is] person-centred...’.³⁵ Similarly, Dilrajh (1999) supports the ‘discovery’ approach to language teaching, citing the ‘communicative teaching approach’ as the preferred method of teaching in the context of second language acquisition.³⁶

34 The argument contends, in the Introduction to this study, that English-speaking nations represent a powerful economic bloc and that this bloc is, presently, the driving force behind globalisation.

35 *An Integrated Interactive Approach to Language and Literature Education Within the Outcomes-based Education Approach for Afrikaans L2*, Malan, 1998. Communicative Language Teaching is not the exclusive preserve of Afrikaans language teaching. See the section on Communicative Language Teaching in Chapter One of the present study.

36 *Facilitating Learning in Communicative L2 Afrikaans Language teaching*, Dilrajh, 1999.

From Word to World: a multiliteracies approach to Language, Literacy and Communication for Curriculum 2005 (Lamberti, 1999) and the present study are similar in a number of ways. In the first instance, both studies appeal to the phenomenon of globalisation and the rapid change in technologies that, in turn, create the need for a flexible form of literacy education that prepares learners for the workplace. Lamberti's (1999) study distinguishes between the global multiliteracies approach to literacy education and the local curriculum's approach to literacy education whereas the present study cites globalisation as a catalyst to introducing workplace English skills into Curriculum 2005/C21.

Both studies assert that a new approach to education is necessary in order to maintain the relevance of Curriculum 2005/C21. Lamberti (1999) argues that Curriculum 2005/C21 '... lacks a coherent theoretical framework... [and as a result adopting the multiliteracies approach could]... offer a way of avoiding the collapse of the principles of Curriculum 2005'.³⁷ The present study claims that workplace English skills make language learning within the context of this curriculum relevant to the workplace. Clearly, both Lamberti's (1999) study and the present study argue from the premise that Curriculum 2005 (and its revised form, C21) provide a solid framework for many educational endeavours; the essential difference identified here is that the newest in South Africa curriculum simply has to be fine-tuned to meet

37 Lamberti, 1999:s.p. See the abstract to Lamberti's 1999 study, *From Word to World: a multiliteracies approach to Language, Literacy and Communication for Curriculum 2005*. Cf. Dreyer, 1995:397 whose thesis the present study mirrors in its use of three key variables. Dreyer's thesis adopts the following three variables in order to create a real-life context for literature: language teaching theory, literary theory and state and educational governance. The present study attempts to give English language teaching a real-life context by adopting three variables: language teaching theory, workplace skills and Curriculum 2005/C21.

current socio-economic trends, that is, the needs of the workplace.

The literature on the subject of literacy, surveyed at this juncture, does not define literacy in a uniform way. However, the next study surveyed in this section offers both a definition of literacy in general and more specifically, literacy in the workplace. *A Needs Assessment for a Workplace Literacy Programme Incorporating Basic Skills Training With Job-related Instructional Material Within the Textile Industry* (Jappie, 1992) echoes the New London Group's philosophy of language as outlined in *From Word to World: a multiliteracies approach to Language, Literacy and Communication for Curriculum 2005* (Lamberti, 1999). Language is seen as a social phenomenon and thus adequately mastering it in its various forms is synonymous with political,³⁸ social and personal empowerment.³⁹ Similarly, Jappie (1992) argues that

[l]iteracy is considered as a basic human right that has to be struggled for collectively as a contribution to the creation of a more just society, within each nation and globally. Illiteracy is merely a reflection of marginalisation, exploitation and oppression. In South Africa, this is an accurate assessment: the majority of the people who are illiterate are poor and black.⁴⁰

Lamberti (1999) follows the same line of argument. Jappie (1992) earlier claims that

38 Lamberti, 1999:32 contends that '[i]n a multiliteracies approach other semiotic systems are also viewed as functional systems which are constitutive of social reality. The word 'social'... refers to material relations of power and knowledge, not to neutral interaction between people and groups. Therefore, all instances of meaning-making are seen as ideological in that they enact particular power relations'.

39 *Op. cit.*, s.p. Lamberti notes elsewhere that '[o]ne implication of the definition of literacy as social practice is that it becomes necessary to think in terms of the plural form of the word "literacy" to encompass the range of social practices in which reading, writing and other signifying systems are embedded whose functions and meaning vary according to the contexts in which they are found, and the cultures of which they are a part'.

40 Jappie, 1992:1.

that the definition of literacy further defines the degree of empowerment. Thus,

[i]n South Africa... most people... due to their economic conditions are forced to leave school at a very early age and seek employment. This results in the fact that they quickly forget the details of the learning process. Social concepts such as literacy and poverty are integrally tied to their labels.... Who is literate depends on how we define literacy – whether it is the minimal ability, evidenced by the oral pronunciation of a few simple lines from a primer, or a more advanced complex [*sic*] of skills, requiring numeracy, writing and reading together.⁴¹

Lamberti (1999) reaffirms the view of literacy expressed above, adding that most texts are multimodal and contain elements of meaning that are non-linguistic and symbolic in nature. Thus, the kind of literacy advocated by Jappie (1992), above, does not reflect the needs of the contemporary workplace. In the contemporary workplace, meaning is produced in a multimodal manner. This is a manner that goes beyond the mode of literacy advocated by Jappie (1992).

Jappie (1992) advocates different kinds of literacy between which one can distinguish rather than a form of literacy that integrates different kinds of literacy.⁴² Lamberti (1999) also notes that the contemporary ‘... ideal worker is no longer a production-line automaton, but well-rounded, flexible, creative and capable of independent thought...’ – a far cry from the view of the typical worker as a passive entity.⁴³ To reiterate, as Jappie (1992) notes, ‘... the changing work environment and workers’ ability to cope with it will be the driving force behind the need for literacy training in

41 *Op. cit.*, 2. Cf. Lamberti, 1999:21 who points out the fact that only some literacies are learnt at school while other are learnt as the individual is exposed to new meaning-making situations.

42 Lamberti, 1999:34-36.

43 *Op. cit.*, 31.

the workplace’.⁴⁴

Clearly, a definition of literacy should stipulate what literacy is supposed to mean in practice. Jappie (1992) concedes that ‘... people read and write for different reasons....’⁴⁵ One of these reasons is implied in the notion of functional literacy a notion that recalls the Hallidayan (1985) concept of functional-grammar or grammar that emphasises meaning and not only form. If functional literacy appears to be a concept that is somewhat vague, then this vagueness is intentional. Jappie argues that ‘[t]his definition [is] intentionally relativist, setting a different threshold of literacy for each community’.⁴⁶

However, Lamberti (1999) rightly claims that the kind of literacy required to communicate in the global context far exceeds basic (functional) literacy. Paradoxically, as Lamberti’s (1999) thesis and the following stages of the argument below demonstrate, the individual who is fully conversant in global cultural iconography and semiology stands a greater chance of communicating across language and cultural divides than the individual who can speak, read and write only in basic English. Workplace skills are valuable inasmuch as they are skills that enable the individual to produce and decode multimodal texts.

Jappie (1992) proposes a form of literacy that addresses the needs of the textile

⁴⁴ Jappie, 1992:11.

⁴⁵ *Op. cit.*, 18.

⁴⁶ *Ibid.*

industry in South Africa. ‘At its simplest level, workplace literacy is literacy training in a work setting.’⁴⁷ ‘The importance of the link between literacy skills and the job is particularly important when decisions are being made concerning the content of training programmes.’⁴⁸ Thus, ‘[w]hile general literacy looks to the general development of the individual, workplace literacy seeks to meet the goals of the individual and the employer at the same time’.⁴⁹

The Introduction, in its overview of the early stages of the implementation of Curriculum 2005, notes that a lack of suitable teaching materials can mar the implementation of any curriculum – not least an outcomes-based curriculum such as Curriculum 2005/C21. In *The Revision of an Existing English Language Textbook to Meet the Demands of Outcomes-based Education*, Moeng (1999) undertakes the task of assessing the extent to which a Grade 10 English textbook meets outcomes-based criteria. ‘The research aimed to determine whether the seven critical cross-curricular and seven specific outcomes for the Learning Area (Language, Literacy and Communication) are written into the text... [or underpin its approach to language teaching]’.⁵⁰ Clearly, the author’s concern, endorsed by this present research project, is that teaching materials and learning programmes should reflect the Critical Cross-field Outcomes of Curriculum 2005/C21 and the Learning Outcomes for Languages,

47 Jappie, 1992:10.

48 *Ibid.*

49 *Ibid.*

50 Moeng (1999). The seven critical cross-curricular outcomes are actually called “Critical Cross-field Outcomes” and the seven specific outcomes for the Learning Area (Language, Literacy and Communication) are called “Learning Outcomes”. Finally, the current designation for the Learning Area in question is “Languages” and not “Language, Literacy and Communication”. See also Department of National Education, 2002:1-2, 6-7.

outlined in Chapter Two of this present study. However, the argument of this thesis adds to this aim the need for learning materials and programmes to develop workplace English skills.

1.2.5 Globalization

In the Introduction to this study, globalization is presented as a catalyst to global change in the fields of language, commerce and, by implication, education. Anonymous (1999a), Coyle (2003), Gray (2001), Gibbons *et al.* (1994), Gustafsson (1987), OECD (2002), O'Meara (1996) Thompson (1983), T&G Consultants (2002) and Wooldridge (2000) are relevant here.

On the one hand there are sources that indicate globalization's destructive effects. These effects include the ruthless exploitation of human and natural resources (T&G Consultants, 2002); the gradual deskilling of jobs (Thompson, 1983); the elimination of healthy competition and the crushing of global cultures and languages (Wooldridge, 2000).

There are also those sources that indicate the beneficial effects of globalization. Gustafsson (1987) and Wooldridge (2000) note that globalization is not an entirely new phenomenon. The former discusses the fallacy of economic independence, noting that a high degree of international economic interdependence already characterises global trade and has done so for some time. The latter indicates the beneficial effects of globalization. Coyle (2003) argues that it will continue to do so

because the consumer choices of millions of people drive globalization forward. O'Meara (1996) echoes Wooldridge (2000) by stating that a gradual process of liberalization characterised the global economy in the post-World War II period. Some sources are more cautious in their appraisal of the effects of globalization. Wooldridge (2000) notes that foreign competition opened up the domestic American automobile market in the 1950s. Gray (2001) observes that globalization could be a powerful force for the common good, depending on how it develops and is allowed to develop. OECD (2002) points out that globalization offers high returns but that these return will benefit only a skilled minority unless education prepares all learners to participate in the global economy. The following section offers a survey of sources that address the current global dominance of the English language.

1.2.6 English as a global language

Al-Alweiny (2001), Anonymous (2004c), Balfour (2002), Bosman (2000), Bosman and van der Merwe (2000), Crystal (1997), Gradoll (1997), Mathebula (2004), Sono (1994), Talgori (2001) and Wright (2002) offer different perspectives on the reasons for and the effects of English as a dominant global language.

Bosman and van der Merwe (2000), Crystal (1997), Gradoll (1997) and Talgori (2001) concur on the view that English is currently a dominant global language. Bosman and van der Merwe (2000) note the standing that the language enjoys as a language of the educated and economically prosperous. Crystal (1997) echoes this

view, arguing that English is dominant because of the increase in contact between cultures through international relations and travel. Gradoll (1997) notes that despite the fact English will not be spoken by as many people as, for example, Mandarin, the economic output of English-speaking nations will exceed that of Mandarin-speaking nations in the future. Consequently, English will continue to enjoy the standing it presently does. Talgori (2001) concurs with the Introduction to this study when he argues that the global interest in learning English can be attributed to globalization.

Anonymous (2004c), Balfour (2002), Bosman and van der Merwe (2000), Al-Alweiny (2001), Gray (1997), Sono (1994) and Wright (2002) also take cognizance of practical reasons for the dominance of English. Scientific works, research and textbooks are invariably in English, as is research into technology and the internet and (Bosman and van der Merwe, 2000 and Al-Alweiny, 2001). Balfour (2002) questions whether English is truly a *lingua franca* in South Africa, arguing that if it were, it would probably be the kind of English spoken by the majority of South Africans, who are often third or fourth-language speakers of English.⁵¹ Gray (1997) argues that English is not seen in a negative light unless teachers are perceived as not being proficient in the language. English is equated with economic success and the job market more often than not considers speakers of English in a more favourable light than those who cannot speak English (Sono, 1994 and Wright, 2002). Anonymous (2004c) and Crystal (1988 and 1997) note that “English-speaking” has become a

51 Cf. Harmer, 2000:1 moves that a *lingua franca* is ‘... a language widely adopted for communication between two speakers whose native languages are different from each other’s and where one or both speakers are using it as a “second” language’.

relative concept (nations such as Singapore have adopted English as their official language (Al-Alweiny, 2001) and thus there is a form of “Ameri-lish” that gives “speakers” access to the global consumer culture of fashion, music and popular culture. Mathebula (2004) notes with concern the tendency in South Africa among speakers of indigenous languages to translate key phrases in official broadcast commentary into English.

1.2.7 Literacy

Block (2002), Brown (1991), Lamberti (1999), Mercer (2000), Nakata (2002), Nunan (1990), Prinsloo and Breier (1996), Street (1988), Street (1996) and Wallace (2002) are surveyed here. Literacy has always been politicized both generally and in the South African context specifically. Prinsloo and Breier (1996) note that literacy in South Africa was a contentious topic in anti-apartheid politics before the 1990s and after 1994 became associated with the social development of South Africans of colour. Generally, Street (1988) notes that cultural biases influence the definition of “literacy” and “illiteracy”.

These biases are founded on two views of literacy: the ‘ideological’ and the ‘autonomous’. The former treats literacy as social practice that does not depend on an eternal and universal set of criteria for literacy whereas the latter treats it as a preconceived and universal notion of what constitutes literacy.⁵² Brown (1991) argues

⁵² Of interest is Richards', 2001:216 assertion that 'L2 learning and teaching needs to be understood in (sic) its own terms rather than approached via something else... increasingly TESOL seeks to establish its own theoretical foundations and research agenda...'. The

that literacy projects are often well-meant but misguided (and 'ideological' in bias) in their attempts to bring economically disadvantaged learners up to a “literate” standard. These preconceived standards ignore the fact that so-called “illiterate” learners have developed different kinds of literacy to enable them to function in society. Street (1996) singles out the school literacy myth as being a myth that suggests that higher cognitive abilities are the indisputable products of the kind of literacy offered at secondary school level. Brown (1991) agrees that this is a myth, citing as evidence the inability (given time constraints) and unwillingness or lack of faith in higher-level literacy skills (for disadvantaged learners) on the part of teachers to pursue a ‘literacy of thoughtfulness’.

Block (2002) coins the term “McCommunication” to refer to a form of English (communication) taught in English language programmes that simplifies language so that it is capable of performing standard commercial or communicative actions but does not enable to learner to engage critically with his or her environment. Nakata (2002) and Wallace (2002) affirm the possibility of teaching beyond the level of “McCommunication” by offering learners an “enriched” form of English – a form of English that enables the learner to interact critically with his or her environment.

Differences exist regarding what practices ought to be included under the term “literacy”. Mercer (2000) includes those skills used to think and act in social

present study argues that such an approach to language teaching ignores the social context and its vicissitudes that often determine why learners learn a particular language.

situations. For the purposes of their study on literacy in various workplaces and cultural contexts, Prinsloo and Breier (1996) define literacy as referring to print literacy that involves reading and writing; their understanding includes not only people's (literate) actions but also the value they attach to their actions. Lamberti (1999), borrowing extensively from the work of the "New London Group", notes that literacy is something of a misnomer since being literate in the era of globalization, technologically-dominated as it is, means that one has to be literate in many different ways.

1.2.8 The new literacy

Deciding at a societal level what literacy is automatically creates an ideological framework for how literacy is to be imparted. Brown (1991), Howatt (1994), Koester (2004), Lamberti (1999), Liestol, Morrison and Rasmussen (2004), Mercer (2000), Pennycook (1994), Prinsloo and Breier (1996), Street (1988) and Wright (2002) adopt what could be regarded, broadly, as a critical approach to the meaning and practice of literacy.

Advocates of the new literacy take cognizance of the politics underlying notions of literacy and for this very reason argue in favour of a form of literacy that empowers learners according to their needs and not preset standards of literacy; pre-set notions of literacy for Brown (1991) and Street (1988) often impose redundant and irrelevant forms of literacy on the learner. Street (1988) draws attention to the ideological concerns that underpin notions of literacy as given. Brown (1991), Koester (2004),

Mercer (2000) and Prinsloo and Breier (1996) concur, treating literacy as a phenomenon in various social (and economic) contexts so that actions associated with literacy, such as reading and writing, become, as Street (1996) argues, matters of social (and changing) rather than objective practice. Howatt (1994) and Wright (2002) note the economic and social-status concerns that have contributed to the demand for and spread of the English language.

Lamberti (1999) and Liestol, Morrison and Rasmussen (2004) argue that an empowering literacy includes being able to decode and produce meaning for different purposes and in different ways, resulting in the production of ‘multimodal’ and ‘multisensory’ texts. For Prinsloo and Breier (1996), a new approach to literacy includes understanding the institutions and discourses that generate literary genres and that make them possible in principle. For Mercer (2000) and Street (1988) this kind of literacy means recognizing that the meaning and content of literacy are determined by the context of that society and thus teaching people to be literate means thinking about the nature of literacy and thinking critically about it before instituting programmes to make people literate. Clearly, a new approach to literacy has certain implications for language teaching methodology.

1.2.9 Curriculum, syllabus, approach and method

Lewis (2002), Nunan (1993), Nunan (1996), Nunan (2004) and Harmer (2002) are surveyed here. “Curriculum”, “syllabus”, “approach” and “method” are core concepts

in translating notions of literacy into teaching practice. In the Introduction to this study, Curriculum 2005/C21 is described as a response to the social, economic and cultural needs of South Africans in a post-apartheid context. As such, the curriculum creates a framework for the practice of teaching in South Africa and this framework belies assumptions about literacy.

Nunan (1996) argues that a “curriculum” is a multifaceted concept comprising various aspects of teaching such as assessment, classroom teaching and management practice and the content of what is taught. Nunan (2004) notes that it could also refer to a specific course of study such as the history curriculum but distinguishes between three aspects of curriculum namely ‘plan’ (syllabus design, methodology and assessment), ‘action’ (classroom realities) ‘outcome’ (end product(s) of instruction). As the Introduction argues, the framework of a curriculum reveals what its architects believe about the nature and purpose of education. In Chapter Two, Curriculum 2005/C21, English language teaching principles and workplace skills are shown to share fundamental principles, making it possible to integrate the teaching of workplace skills into Curriculum 2005 in a manner that is consistent with English language teaching principles.

For Lewis (2002), “syllabus” refers to the ‘what’ or content of teaching and for Nunan (1996), to the selection of content and its arrangement, according to criteria such as difficulty or function, for the purposes of teaching. For Harmer (2002) an approach ‘... describes how language is used...’, a method ‘... is a practical

realisation of an approach' or the 'how', a procedure '... is an ordered sequence of techniques...' and a technique '... is a single activity...' such as '...silent viewing...'.⁵³

Lewis (2002) regards an approach as an '... integrated set of theoretical and practical beliefs' about language teaching.⁵⁴ As far as the teaching of language is concerned, one approach, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), currently dominates English language teaching practice. CLT is an umbrella term for a number of methods and procedures used in language teaching. An overview of three major language teaching approaches, including CLT, is offered at a later stage in the discussion in the present chapter.

1.3 Research hypotheses

1.3.1 Contextualisation

From the discussion in the Introduction to this research project, as well as the preceding literature survey, it is now possible to sketch more clearly the boundaries of

53 Harmer, 2002:80-90. Cf. Nunan 1993:55 who argues that '... syllabus design is concerned with the selection, justification and sequencing ... of content...' and methodology with '... the selection, justification and sequencing of learning tasks and activities' and *Op. cit.*, 56-57 where he argues that '... with the development of communicative approaches to language teaching, it has become apparent that this traditional distinction is becoming increasingly difficult to sustain.... Communicative language learning and teaching has forced a radical rethinking of key curriculum questions. These questions relate to the traditional domains of syllabus design (what?, why? and when?), methodology (how?), and assessment (how well?). Answering the 'what' and 'why' questions requires the syllabus designer to justify input. When syllabuses are defined largely in terms of linguistic content, the answer is usually in linguistic terms. However, when content is defined in terms of communicative tasks of one sort or another, the answers are more likely to be made with reference to the learner or with reference to psycholinguistic processes of acquisition'.

54 Lewis, 2002:1-2. Lewis writes in the context of the lexical approach which, he argues, is not really a new approach but a different perspective on CLT.

the current research problem. In the Introduction, the proposition is that Curriculum 2005, which has been revised as C21, was a response both to South Africa's apartheid past and economic problems posed by globalisation. Imperfect though it may be, Curriculum 2005/C21 is, nevertheless, an attempt to come to grips with certain realities of post-apartheid South Africa.

1.3.2 The hypotheses

This study argues that if one were to introduce workplace English skills into the Languages Learning Area, Curriculum 2005/C21 would be closer to its goal of preparing learners for the workplace. Broadly speaking then, the research problem entails how this goal could be achieved. The research methodology is largely traditional in its form, reflecting at times the changing face of knowledge production..

This study proposes a view of language that sees language as functional in its social context. From this proposition, four further propositions proceed, somewhat predictably. That is, in the second place, language is functional in its social context in that it achieves social goals. Thirdly, language produces meaning in a social context. In fact, meaning only exists in a social context. Fourthly, this view of language that sees it as the production of meaning for social goals within a social context conflates the distinction between reading, hearing and listening (receptive skills) and speaking and writing (productive skills). Finally, since work is such a widespread social phenomenon, this study adopts the view that teaching language should focus primarily on teaching the use of that language within the context of the workplace.

However, since this study adopts the view that language acquisition and production are about the production of meaning, those skills that are considered workplace skills represent a very broad range of skills indeed.

The Introduction to this study moves that globalization has exacerbated the demand for skills of a particular nature and, consequently, education policy makers and practitioners have to take cognizance of these skills and have to design programmes that enable learners to acquire these skills. In the light of the preceding literature survey's observations on the politics of literacy, it is necessary to make literacy the starting point of a discussion that integrates globalization, the English language, the new literacy and language teaching methodology and practice into a theory of language. Such a theory serves as a foundation for the formulation of a theory of workplace skills with which a model for the design of workplace skills can be constructed – the aim of the thesis in Chapters Three and Four.

1.3.3 The English language in this study

1.3.3.1 the dominance of the English language in the world

The literature survey notes that “literacy”, “literate” and “illiterate” are not objective and value-free concepts. Similarly, English cannot be called a *lingua franca* or a global language without the present discussion drawing attention to the historical

conditions that made English a global language.⁵⁵ The historical forces that ensured the spread of the English language also affected the social and economic uses of the language both in the United Kingdom, as Terry Eagleton (1983) argues, and South Africa. From a language teaching point of view, the global status of the language has had a significant effect on the development of language teaching approaches, methodologies and teaching practices.

In fact, as the discussion below reveals, English as a subject (or Learning Area as it is called in Curriculum 2005/C21) might very well owe its existence to its status as a global language. This study argues that the global position of English and the skills that are necessary to work and live in the context of globalization have considerable curricular implications. That is, these two variables, the global position of English and workplace skills, precipitate a re-examination not only of the content of education but, specifically, of language teaching. To reiterate, this study does not propose that English has any inherent value or claim to superiority over any other language. Certainly, its ‘... global reach...’ has given it a measure of dominance ‘... across many domains of use...’ but this is a matter of pragmatics from the current historical

55 One critic has referred to English as a failed lingua franca. Balfour (2002) writes from the perspective of the variety of English spoken by teachers in South Africa. In support of this claim, Robert Balfour (2002) notes that if English were to be a lingua franca in South Africa it would probably have to be BSAfE (Black South African English) and not SSAE (Standard South African English). This is because most English teachers in South Africa, given the demographics of South Africa, are second or third-language speakers of English (as already stated) and so the quality of the resulting English – or Englishes – would vary from area to area. Cf. Parakrama, 1995:1-40 who notes that the standard form of a language is an ideal that few attain and actually use. Since standards are often not carefully defined, it is difficult to teach students, following Pennycook (1994), a standard form while allowing them make creative use of local forms. However, certain genres of writing (including common lexical items associated with them) would offer standard forms of language in the context of their use.

perspective.⁵⁶ This study notes that globalisation, paradoxically, has made humanity more aware of other cultures and the imminent death of these cultures and their languages.

The economic aspect accruing to the current global status of English offers the most persuasive argument (from the perspective of the present study) in favour of instruction through the medium of English. According to one authoritative survey, the year 2050 will see 1,384 million speakers of Cantonese and only 508 million speakers of English.⁵⁷ In the new global economic order, China is clearly a major power. What, however, is the *economic* importance of the nations that speak languages other than English? The survey also predicts that in the year 2050 the economic output of English-speaking nations will be US\$ 7, 815 billion.⁵⁸ English is a preferred language even in some Asian countries. Taiwan, for example; during the secondary school phase, learners are required to take a foreign language that is invariably English.⁵⁹

⁵⁶ Wallace, 2002:106.

⁵⁷ Gradoll, 1997:227. Gradoll offers his views in condensed form in a 2001 issue of Wallpaper magazine. Cf. Crystal, 1997:60 who argues that in 1995 alone, there were 337,407,300 first language speakers of English and 235,351,300 second language speakers of English. Cf. Harmer, 2002:8 who offers an 'expanding circle' model where the 'inner circle' (USA and UK) represents 320-380 million speakers of English, the 'outer circle' (India and Singapore) represents 150-300 million speakers of English and the 'expanding circle' (China and Russia) represents 100-1000 million speakers.

⁵⁸ *Ibid.* Cf. Wright, 2002:2-7. Wright argues from the perspective of the availability of texts. In his article 'Language as a "Resource" in South Africa: the economic life of language in a globalising society', Laurence Wright argues that English is an economic good comparable to any other economic good. 'It would be no exaggeration to say that from an economic standpoint the value of particular languages, countrywide, relates to their utility within the formal economy [original emphases].' That is, it has economic value and utility. Thus, although one's home tongue - if it is not English - has utility, it may not necessarily, in the South African context have economic value. The reason for this is that '... language and culture tend to follow the axis of power...' with the result that 'English is the main language of influence and power in the globalised arena.... The crux of the matter is economic.' Consequently, '[t]here is no doubt that the top-down influence of English has tended to diminish the economic value of other languages at other levels'.

⁵⁹ Sono, 1994:60.

The figure associated with English speaking nations, as suggested above, becomes considerably higher if one takes into account the existence of regional forms of English in Hindi or Urdu-speaking nations like India, nations that could thus be included in the list of English-speaking nations.⁶⁰ In fact, over seventy countries, including disparate countries such as Nigeria and Singapore, have made English their official language.⁶¹ Although the disparity in wealth in South Africa is the product of specific historical circumstances outlined in the Introduction to this study,

... one of the many reasons for many inequalities in the present South African society [in the context of globalization] is the fact that mastery of English by the majority of the population is totally inadequate.⁶²

If the inability to speak English in South Africa leads to inequality, then, in the context of globalisation it must surely follow that the inability of an entire nation to speak English somehow retards that nation's ability to compete as effectively in the global arena as a nation that can communicate fluently in English. '[T]he mad rush to learn English [is] an inevitable consequence of globalisation...' and not an insidious conspiracy to cultural oppression.⁶³

In the South African context, the economic dominance of the English language has resulted in the production of very few technical, scientific and academic texts in the eleven official languages with the exception of English and Afrikaans. It appears as

⁶⁰ Crystal, 1988:257-258.

⁶¹ Al Aweiny, 2001:7. Cf. Crystal, 1997:56-60 and Crystal, 1997:78-110 who argues that English has become a global language for various reasons: international relations, the media, travel, international security, education, communication are largely conducted through the medium of English and, finally, English was, historically speaking, at '[t]he right place at the right time'.

⁶² Bosman and Van Der Merwe, 2000:225.

⁶³ Talgori, 2001:s.p.

though the list of texts in indigenous languages often includes only ‘... [the] Bible, dictionaries and grammars...’.⁶⁴ Research into technology, the Internet and academic publishing – all significant aspects of global commerce, culture and the production of knowledge – takes place through the medium of English.⁶⁵ Even it were possible to do subjects in the field of the natural sciences in one of South Africa’s other eleven languages,

‘[w]hat would be the point of attempting Higher Grade Science subjects in an African language when there are poor textbooks, the science teachers in question are accustomed to teaching in English, the tertiary institutions teach Science in English and the job-market operates in English?’⁶⁶

English will thus continue to gain appeal especially among South Africans of colour and these reasons are not exclusively economic in nature. In fact ‘... the English environment for African learners [of colour] will often be rich textually [in the form of available teaching materials] – but poor aurally [since most of the teachers are second or third-language speakers]; whereas the African language environment for such learners is usually rich aurally and poor textually.’⁶⁷

However, ‘[c]ultural incentives [to study African languages] and economic motivation [to learn English] will begin to compete more intensely’ and so the quality

⁶⁴ Bosman and Van Der Merwe, 2000:224-225.

⁶⁵ Al Aweiny, 2001:7-8.

⁶⁶ Wright, 2002:9. Wright argues from the perspective of the availability of texts.

⁶⁷ Wright, 2002:10. Cf. Ellis, 1992:48-49 who writes that ‘[a]n acquisition-rich classroom, therefore, is best characterised as one which provides both those experiences associated with communicating in natural discourse and those experiences derived from cognitive activities designed to raise the learner’s consciousness about the formal properties of the L2 and their function in language use’.

of English teachers will eventually match the quality of the learning materials.⁶⁸

Moreover, there is evidence to suggest that

‘[t]here is a strong correlation between *literacy* and *achievement* [; in fact,... it is reading... that most readily promotes cognitive development... [although] [i]nstruction in a language other than the home language or mother tongue in specific high achieving countries (for example, Singapore and Hong Kong) appears to exert no detrimental effect on their achievement [my emphasis]’.⁶⁹

The economic power behind English-speaking nations is not an historical accident. The gradual spread of the English language, the economic power it has come to represent and the birth of English as a field of study are all interrelated, as Terry Eagleton (1983) demonstrates.

In his survey of literary theory, entitled *Literary Theory*, Terry Eagleton (1983) traces the development of English (as a subject or, as it is referred to in Curriculum 2005, a Learning Area), from its obscurantist origin rooted in polite debate about taste, to its establishment as a subject, subjected to the rules of scientific inquiry. South Africa, being a former colony of Britain, naturally inherited many ideas from the British and Continental schools of thought. It should come as no surprise then, that the study of English in South Africa, from Milner’s policy of Anglicisation to the use of the English language as a tool of resistance, should reflect its development in Britain.⁷⁰

68 *Op. cit.*, 10. Cf. footnote 14 in the present chapter regarding the meaning of the distinction between Higher Grade and Standard Grade. Owing to the relative wealth and homogeneity of these societies, the learners in these countries are exposed to learning environments that are rich both aurally and textually.

69 *Op. cit.*, 10 and Gray, 1997:104-105.

70 Christie, 1989:34. Lord Alfred Milner, after the defeat of the Boer Republics in the Anglo-Boer War, pursued a policy of deliberately eradicating Dutch in South Africa by forcing parents to send their children to English schools. Children were punished for speaking Dutch in class.

The champions of English literature, most notably F.R. Leavis and other members of *Scrutiny*⁷¹, had to carve out a place for the new subject.⁷² The study of English was rapidly becoming the pursuit of the British middle classes and, as such, reflected the cultural and ideological concerns of this class.⁷³

However, Eagleton (1983) is quick to point out that the members of *Scrutiny* also had a profound influence on the study of English in British government schools. This influence has been felt ever since. The establishment of the study of English Literature brought with it the assumption that there is something that makes certain texts literary.⁷⁴ The result of *Scrutiny's* influence was the establishment of the so-called Canon of literature from which texts were selected for study, texts that could enlighten and change the reader, texts (so it was believed) that are, in fact, able to do so forever. The literary canon – or the impossibility of establishing such a thing in the face of global multiculturalism – is not at stake here, since the kind of English that is promoted by this study is not 'literary'. What was studied in British schools during the imperial era reflected economic trends in that society at that time; the most significant trend was the establishment of the idea of being British as opposed to the idea of being someone with whom one dealt in the colonies.

Of interest, in the light of the preceding discussion, is the fact that '[w]orkplace and

71 *Scrutiny* was the publication in which Leavis and his associates publicised their literary ideas.

72 Eagleton, 1983:36. Eagleton writes as a Marxist critic and thus accentuates the political dimension underpinning the history of English literature.

73 *Op. cit.*, 36.

74 *Op. cit.*, 28.

Literary [*sic*] genres have not always been the separate entities they have become today'.⁷⁵ This distinction was the product of a special method of analysis for the then new study of English Literature. Thus,

[p]ractical criticism came to mean a method which ... assumed that you could judge Literary "greatness" [*sic*] by bringing focussed attentiveness to bear on poems or pieces of prose isolated from their cultural and historical contexts.⁷⁶

Following the logic of the *Scrutiny* group, it seems that other forms of language, particularly language in the service of commerce, might be undesirable. Hence, teachers were urged to spend '... lessons alerting school children to the manipulateness [*sic*] of advertisements or the linguistic poverty of the popular press...'.⁷⁷ Ironically, the study of English was encouraged in order to prepare young civil servants for service in the imperial colonial service and so English was tied to prevailing imperial economic interests modes of production.⁷⁸

Although the distinction between literary and other kinds of language and Leavis caveat *a propos* the media's manipulative use language may have seemed revolutionary in his time, the recognition and study of inherent literary greatness in literary texts and the recognition of the manipulation of language for commercial or other purposes (in advertising for example) failed, ironically, to challenge the dominant economic system against which Leavis fought so hard.⁷⁹ Returning to the

75 Boiarsky, 1997:100.

76 Eagleton, 1983:43.

77 *Op. cit.*, 34.

78 Eagleton, 1983:135.

79 Eagleton, 1983:135.

South African context, this study notes that, for a long time, a number English departments in South Africa, being products of a European and particularly British past, were founded on and functioned according to the Leavisite principles outlined above. Even today, when African texts are substituted for Western European ones in the so-called Canon or when African texts dominate it

... old habits, such as canon-formation, binary oppositions and hierarchies of bodies of knowledge, die hard, and the supplanting of the old canon by a counter-canon is only tinkering with structural effects and not really fundamental change.⁸⁰

In the British Empire, the purpose of school may have been to prepare young men to administer what later became the colonies. After the formation of the Union of South Africa in 1910, as in many other colonies, the English language was used to maintain white rule – be it British imperial or Afrikaner Nationalist. In both instances, however, the purpose was to uphold a particular ideology.

The British authorities [for example] paid far more attention to education than the Dutch had done. They wanted to use education as a way of spreading their language – and traditions in the colony – and also as a means of social control. They declared English to be the official language, and they attempted to anglicize the church, the government offices and the schools. They set up a number of schools in the British tradition, and they brought over teachers from Britain. In 1839, they set up a proper Department of Education, and also gave financial help to local schools.⁸¹

The current global dominance of the English language is thus closely related to the gradual formation of its (economic) Empire, an empire that required the construction of “Britishness” as a cultural centre to hold together the colonized territories that made up the empire. Being “literate” at the time with which Eagleton is concerned

80 Sarinjeive, 1998:200.

81 Christie, 1989:34.

here, clearly meant being able to write and read texts in a manner that was conducive to the general interest of the Empire.

The present study argues that globalization has created a climate in which it is necessary to examine, critically, the notion of literacy and, by extension, language teaching within Curriculum 2005/C21. In the South African context, English language departments are, at any rate,

... obliged by legislation to become part of a new educational vision for the country. The new policy contains no exclusion clause whatsoever for English or other arts departments, which are going to have to wake up to the new realities faster than they would generally prefer.⁸²

This thesis moves that these realities include preparing learners for the workplace.

1.3.3.2 literacy as a social phenomenon

The kind of English language teaching described by Eagleton (1983) above, and one that Curriculum 2005/C21 rejects, could be termed ‘autonomous’ because it proffers a so-called objective standard for “literacy” that, by definition, generates its corollary – “illiteracy”.⁸³ Such a definition of literacy ignores its own ideological foundation, a foundation rooted in social and cultural practices and beliefs.⁸⁴ Notions about literacy, following Street (1988), are implicitly ‘ideological’ because they

... [refer to] social practices and conceptions of reading and writing... that

82 Kilfoil, 2002: www.unisa.ac.za/English/Scrutiny2. Accessed 15/10/02.

83 Street, 1988:73. The same author notes that the provision of English language teaching services represents a considerable income for the United Kingdom. As the discussion in Chapter Two reveals, the fundamental principles of Curriculum 2005/C21 lend themselves to a critical notion of literacy.

84 *Ibid.*

are already embedded in an ideology and cannot be isolated or treated as “neutral” or merely “technical”.... What practices are taught and how they are imparted depends upon the nature of the social formation. The skills and concepts that accompany literacy acquisition... do not stem in some way from the *inherent* qualities of literacy [my emphasis]....⁸⁵

Literacy is

... not just [about] what people *do* with literacy, but also their understandings of what they do, the values they give to their actions, and the ideologies and practices that encapsulate their use and valuing of literacy [original emphasis].⁸⁶

Nor can one use the term “literacy” uncritically in a way that suggests that ‘higher cognitive skills’ are the guaranteed outcomes of being able to read or write.⁸⁷

A discussion involving the meaning of literacy must acknowledge that it is ultimately about ‘communicative practice’ involving the use of ‘genres of literary practice and discourse’ that are generated by societal institutions and which produce and constrain acceptable forms of communication; people use language socially essentially to communicate meaning.⁸⁸

85 *Op. cit.*, 1-2. Cf. Street, 2003:1-2 who writes that ‘[the] standard view in many fields, from schooling to development programs, works from the assumption that literacy in itself, autonomously, will have effects on other social and cognitive practices. Introducing literacy to poor, “illiterate” people, villages, urban youth etc. will have the effect of enhancing their cognitive skills, improving their economic prospects, making them better citizens, regardless of the social and economic conditions that accounted for their “illiteracy” in the first place.... The alternative, ideological model of literacy,... posits instead that literacy is a social practice, not simply a technical and neutral skill; that it is always embedded in socially constructed epistemological principles.... The ways in which teachers or facilitators and their students interact is already a social practice that affects the nature of the literacy....’.

86 Prinsloo and Breier, 1996:24.

87 *Op. cit.*, 16-18. Similarly, Cameron, 1995:221 who questions the need to teach certain higher cognitive skills when she writes that ‘[u]nlike the pragmatically-challenged dimwits who populate usage guides and sales manuals, real language-users automatically probe for the meaning beneath the surface. They are quite capable of forming some assessment of the speaker’s intentions: they know when someone is trying to sell them something, be it a set of replacement windows or an economical version of the truth. Over and over again we find that obvious attempts at manipulation – Mrs Thatcher’s ‘makeover’, the renaming of an accident-prone nuclear plant, the use of bland military terms which in essence mean ‘killing people’ backfire not only because no one is fooled, but also because people resent being taken for fools’.

88 Bloor and Bloor, 1995:1. Cf. Harmer, 2002:86. The communicative approach, also-called the functional-notional approach, aims at equipping the learner with what he or she needs to communicate in real life. Scrivener, 1994:187 refers to the need to analyse what

That is to say that, when people use language, their language acts are the expression of meaning. *From this point of view the grammar becomes a study of how meanings are built up through the use of words and other linguistic forms such as tone and emphasis.* This may seem fairly obvious to most people since it accords with a commonsense view of language, but not all linguists have been concerned with meaning in such a direct way as Halliday.... For Halliday, the only approach to the construction of grammars that is likely to be successful will be one that recognizes *meaning* and *use* as central features of language and *tackles the grammar from this point of view* [my emphases]. It follows from this that Halliday's grammar is *semantic* (concerned with meaning) and *functional* (concerned with how the language is used) [original emphases].⁸⁹

Lamberti (1999) argues that the goal of literacy is to '... communicate effectively across national, regional, ethnic and class boundaries...' using '... new representational forms...' that learners invariably need '... *for access to employment...*' and to '... engage critically with the *conditions of their employment...*' [my emphases].⁹⁰ In practice, and it is the task of the teacher to ensure that,

learners actually expect from an English course. In the context of the present study, which argues that learners ought to be prepared for the workplace, the needs analysis is implicitly conducted by the needs of the workplace. The communicative approach to language teaching aims at getting '... learners to use the language they are learning to interact in realistic and meaningful ways, usually involving exchanges of information' as Scrivener, 1994:62 suggests.

89 Bloor and Bloor, 1995:1-2.

90 Lamberti, 1999:33. Cf. Anonymous, 2004c:s.p. A concerned mother bemoans her daughter's use of "Ameri-lish" which is a diluted form of international (American) English. Paradoxically, such a hybrid language could enable individuals to produce meaning across class, gender, race, cultural and ideological boundaries. Cf. Anonymous, 2005:s.p. who identifies a number of literacies that constitute essential skills for the twenty-first century: '[b]asic literacy is language proficiency (in English) and numeracy at levels of proficiency necessary to function on the job and in society.... Scientific literacy is knowledge and understanding of the scientific concepts and processes.... Economic literacy is the ability to identify economic problems, alternatives, costs, and benefits; analyze the incentives at work in economic situations;.... Technological literacy is knowledge about what technology is,.... Visual literacy is the ability to interpret, use, appreciate, and create images and video using both conventional and 21st century media.... Information literacy is the ability to evaluate information across a range of media;.... Global awareness is the recognition and understanding of interrelationships among international organizations, nation-states, public and private economic entities, sociocultural groups, and individuals across the globe. Multicultural literacy is the ability to understand and appreciate the similarities and differences in the customs, values, and beliefs of one's own culture and the cultures of other'.

... the learner engage[s] in a process of juxtaposing different discourses, social identities and interests, integrating them, and re-creating discourse in ways that have the potential to impact on society.⁹¹

To reiterate,

... the changes that are occurring in public, community and working life demand a fundamental rethinking of what is taught in schools and how it is taught.... [T]he view that the main aim of literacy education is to teach rule-governed standard forms of the English language must be replaced with one which prioritises the ability to negotiate [many discourses].⁹²

This study moves that this power to generate discourse and practice is not, however, deterministic and one-sided.⁹³ In deciding what must be taught and what is in the best interests of the learner, it is first necessary to acknowledge that such work takes place in the realm of the ideological.

There is, in other words, a context that must be considered when discussing literacy and language in general. Context includes the ‘physical environment’, ‘circumstances’ and the context (in the preceding senses of the word) of ‘use’. Thus, ‘[c]ontext is created anew in every interaction between a speaker and a listener or a writer and a reader... who create meanings together’.⁹⁴ ‘Contextual resources’ include the ‘physical surroundings’, ‘past, shared experience and relationships’, ‘shared goals’, and ‘the speakers’ experience of similar kinds of conversation’.⁹⁵

91 Lamberti, 1999:38-39.

92 *Op. cit.*, 32.

93 *Op. cit.*, 21 and 23.

94 Mercer, 2000:19-21.

95 *Op. cit.*, 44.

This perspective on language and ultimately, literacy, is social and it regards the production of meaning as a social process. The social production of meaning also tends to be functional; ‘... the fundamental components of meaning in language are *functional*...’ in the pursuit of shared goals.⁹⁶ The preceding discussion on literacy notes that literacy is about communicative practice. The word ‘communicative [my emphasis]’ here implies the social production of meaning since the use of language between two or more persons suggests that something is communicated by one person to the other and *vice-versa*. Communication always occurs in a context that constrains the use of grammatical structures, tone and even gesture or body language.⁹⁷ Understanding a language means understanding that its structure ‘... is derived from its function...’ and that when one studies language one has to approach its discursivity ‘... in terms of the social reality of which it is an integral part’.⁹⁸

Lamberti (1999) supports the view that language is about making meaning by noting that ‘[a]ll communication [can be regarded as] as a semiotic activity’ so that ‘[l]anguage [study] is [in fact the study of] social semiotic[s]’ and but one of many semiotic systems that constitute culture’.⁹⁹ In this sense, ‘... language does not consist of sentences but of discourse’.¹⁰⁰ Discourse can be defined as ‘...sets of

⁹⁶ Halliday, 1985:13.

⁹⁷ Bloor and Bloor, 1995:3 notes that ‘[w]hen people use language to express meanings, they do so in specific situations, and the form of the language that they use is influenced by the complex elements of those situations’.

⁹⁸ Lamberti, 1999:35.

⁹⁹ Lamberti, 1999:33-34.

¹⁰⁰ *Op. cit.*,34.

systematically organized statements which give expression to specific social meanings and values'.¹⁰¹

When one speaks of a person's language ability, a number of things are implied. One implies that the individual has '... meaning-making' capabilities that embrace '... one or more languages...' and '... various discourses and genres which constitute a number of literacies and a number of symbol systems....'.¹⁰² When a person communicates, he or she encodes meaning using a number of systems of which language is but one. 'The emphasis is on meaning-making as active production'.¹⁰³ 'Active' suggests that the individual has some say in the production of meaning and that he or she does not simply internalize and replicate ready-made discourses.

Regarding the use of English as a vehicle for enabling learners in South Africa to acquire workplace skills, the preceding discussion applies with equal force. Pennycook (1994) writes that the 'worldliness' of the English language stems from its 'global spread' but also, significantly, from its 'everyday *use* [my emphasis]'.¹⁰⁴ '[U]se' is significant because it intimates social practice and thus the spread of English is attributable to specific social practices on the part of the people who

101 Prinsloo and Breier, 1996:21.

102 Lamberti, 1999:35.

103 *Op. cit.*, 38.

104 Pennycook, 1994:185. Cf. Blake, 1996:303-306, 312 who notes that other social phenomena such as urbanization, the abandoning of Latin as a requirement for entrance to British universities, air travel and the two world wars brought people from different cultures together in situations where they had to renegotiate their identities and assumptions about their own and others' culture.

actually use the language.¹⁰⁵

Considering that there are more foreign than native speakers of English, this observation is important in the context of the present discussion.¹⁰⁶ It is important because it suggests that English has been appropriated in various ways by different cultures (and individuals) for their own uses, with the result that ‘... looking at the spread of English and various forms of culture and knowledge, we cannot assume any *necessary* cultural or linguistic imperialism [my emphasis].’¹⁰⁷ In fact, Goodman and Gradoll (1996) note that the English language *per se* does not create inequality but that ‘...access to English is not uniformly available...’, thus preventing many people from participating in the new global culture.¹⁰⁸

1.3.3.3 a critical approach to literacy

A critical approach to literacy and, by extension, to English language teaching requires a critical pedagogy. A critical pedagogy

can be described as education grounded in a desire for social change.... The question then becomes how to construct a theory and practice of education that can... account for why some 'disadvantaged' students fail to 'succeed' in school and, on the other, develop ways of teaching that offer greater possibilities to... [minorities] not only in order that they

105 Mercer, 2000:1 notes that ‘[p]eople use language everyday to think and act together and it is this normal everyday use with which I am concerned’.

106 Crystal, 1997:57-60.

107 Pennycook, 1994:262. Cf. *Op. cit.*, 263 and 260. The author cites the example of a Kenyan politician who used Kipling’s ‘If’ in a political speech prior to an election, appropriating the poem for his own uses. Similarly, the author notes that English was used as a vehicle to spread pan-Africanism.

108 Goodman and Gradoll, 1996:200. Cf. *Op. cit.*, 196 where the author considers English a “killer” language because the demand for English has resulted in the abandoning of minority languages in some cultures.

might... [succeed] in the ways traditionally defined by education but also in order that these definitions of success, both within schools and beyond, can be changed. Broadly speaking, then, critical pedagogy aims to change both schooling and society, to the mutual benefit of both.¹⁰⁹

For Pennycook (1994), a ‘critical pedagogy’ is one that gives ethics a place of prominence in education.

- It empowers the learner to interrogate the very process of the production of knowledge and to question established curricular knowledge.
- It encourages the learner to challenge notions of objectivity and universality and to questions the nature of teacher-pupil roles.
- Most important, the teacher is required to listen and to regard him or herself as a ‘transformative intellectual’.¹¹⁰

It is possible to develop a form of literacy that equips learners of English in other cultures with discursive practices and skills that empower them. Brown (1991) calls this kind of literacy a ‘literacy of thoughtfulness’.¹¹¹ Pennycook (1994) writes about the possibility of a ‘critical pedagogy’.¹¹² Pennycook’s (1994) theory contributes two additional criteria that relate directly to English language teaching.

- Teachers should ensure that learners have ‘... access to standard forms of language that are significant within the context....’ and

109 Pennycook, 1994:297.

110 *Op. cit.*, 298-299, 305.

111 Brown, 1991:232.

112 Pennycook, 1994:297.

- Students should be encouraged to use their own forms.¹¹³

Wallace (2002) and Nakata's (2002) 'literate' English recognizes the means of encoding at the disposal of the individual. They envisage an empowering form of English that enables the learner to work with

- 'content',
- 'language itself' and
- '... the limits for understanding [what he or she] can do with [his or her] language...' in a 'planned' and 'elaborate' manner.¹¹⁴

It is a form of English that enables the individual to interact critically with prevailing discourses so that he or she can:

- reshape the discourses that inform its (English's) 'hegemony',¹¹⁵
- pluralize English by using written English as 'public discourse' while retaining 'multiple' and 'shifting' 'vernacular' codes and
- draw '... variously on the resources of a single language [in this case English]'.¹¹⁶

113 Pennycook, 1994:315. Cf. De Kadt and Mathonsi, 2003:92-103 who investigate the possibility of '...[w]riting with an African voice...' and concludes that '[i]nterviews with... [black] students suggest that few respondents feel able to assume an African identity [in academic writing]...'.
114 Wallace, 2002:106.

115 Regarding the need to interrogate hegemony, refer to Greyling, 2000:9 who proposes as method for interrogating discourse in newspaper editorials. 'Step-by-step procedure Step 1: Learners select a newsworthy event as topic of study. Step 2: Learners collect different newspaper editorials on the event. Step 3: The facilitator explains how to define constructs or learners are required to follow instructions in a handout in which a step-by-step procedure is provided and practical applications are explained. Step 4: The learners and the facilitator identify the constructs used in the texts: 4.1 What are the poles of the constructs? 4.2 What aspect do the events/entities/opposites have in common? 4.3 List the words and phrases that may be used as evidence of the constructs that have been defined. 4.4 Paraphrase the implications of the poles of the construct. Use the words and phrases that have been identified as part of your formulation. 4.5 Explore the interactions among constructs. When constructs are combined, how do arguments change? 4.6 Share constructs and interpretations in peer-group context, with the facilitator sharing ideas where required. 4.7 Diversify your constructs and paraphrases. Step 5: In pairs or groups, learners are required to select five constructs in arguing a case for taking a position on the newsworthy event. Step 6: Using your analysis, write out an editorial of your own.'

Their theory of 'literate' English

- '... makes explicit its grounds...',
- enables the learner to engage '... critically and constructively...' with the language and
- thus yields English that is 'enriched' and that '... provides a useful bridge into expository written language...'.¹¹⁷

1.3.3.4 critical literacy and Curriculum 2005/C21

The integration of workplace skills into Curriculum 2005/C21 faces no significant obstacle because there is no clash at the level of fundamental principles. Furthermore, as the discussion in Chapter Two proposes, and as Table 1.1 in Appendix C reveals, Curriculum 2005/C21 actually anticipates a (language teaching) pedagogy that is critical in nature. Although the discussion on conceptual similarity between Curriculum 2005/C21, workplace skills and language teaching principles takes place in Chapter Two, it is necessary to introduce the fundamental principles – the Critical Cross-field Outcomes – of the Curriculum 2005/C21 to the discussion on critical pedagogy.

116 Wallace, 2002:106-107. Cf. Bond, 2000:312 who describes a programme in South Africa that attempts to implement these principles. The Associate in Management Programme (AIM) at the University of the Witwatersrand in South Africa, for example, '... seeks to develop the functional skills, integrated knowledge, personal awareness and self-confidence needed to manage effectively in an environment of diversity, uncertainty and change'.

117 Wallace, 2002:106.

The Critical Cross-field Outcomes that exist to guide any learning programme designed in the context of Curriculum 2005/C21 are:

1. [to] identify and solve problems in which responses display that responsible decisions using critical and creative thinking have been made;
2. [to] work effectively with others as members of a team, group, organisation and community;
3. [to] organize and manage oneself and one's activities responsibly and effectively;
4. [to] collect, analyse, organize and critically evaluate information;
5. [to] communicate effectively using visual, mathematical and/or language skills in the modes of oral and/or written presentation;
6. [to] use science and technology effectively and critically, showing responsibility towards the environment and health of others; [and]
7. [to] demonstrate an understanding of the world as a set of interrelated problems by recognizing that problem-solving contexts do not exist in isolation.¹¹⁸

These outcomes are umbrella outcomes in that they cover all Learning Areas.

Furthermore,

... it must be the intention underlying any programme of learning to make an individual aware of the importance of:

1. reflecting on and exploring a variety of strategies to learn more effectively,
2. participating as a responsible citizen in the life of local, national and global communities,
3. being culturally and aesthetically sensitive across a range of social contexts,
4. exploring education and career opportunities, [and]

118 Department of National Education, 2002:1-2. Cf. Spady and Schlebusch, 1999:70-71. Cf. www.culture2.coe.int/portfolio/inc.asp.html accessed 18/3/05. The European Union's "ELP" or European Language Portfolio programme offers certain language thresholds are very similar to Curriculum 2005's Critical Cross-field Outcomes and the Learning Outcomes for Languages. The descriptors for 'Proficient User: C1 and C2' read as follows: '[p]roficient User C2 Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. Can summarise information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in more complex situations. C1 Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognise implicit meaning. Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices'.

5. developing entrepreneurial opportunities.¹¹⁹

These outcomes should not be confused with the Learning Outcomes that are relevant to a particular Learning Area (subject) and that are addressed in Chapter Two. Critical Cross-field Outcomes are broad value judgements about the purpose and nature of Curriculum 2005/C21. The definitions of critical literacy in the preceding discussion indirectly point to the nature of the curriculum within which a critical literacy is taught but refer specifically to literacy. Since literacy is not only about reading and about writing but also about the value and meaning one attaches to literacy practices (including reading and writing), the similarities between the Critical Cross-field Outcomes and the principles of a critical literacy and pedagogy are significant.

Brown (1991) argues that a ‘literacy of thoughtfulness’ cannot simply be appended to existing teaching practices which stem from a particular curricular perspective. In other words, one ‘... cannot incorporate higher literacy [such as the kind outlined in the preceding discussion on critical literacy] into...’ into a curriculum that encourages a ‘transmission model’ [teacher-centred, passive learner] of teaching.¹²⁰ The principles underlying the teaching and practice of higher literacy are not compatible with the fundamental framework of the curriculum within which one would attempt to teach higher literacy. It is thus crucial, now, to examine the compatibility of the principles of a critical literacy with those of Curriculum 2005/C21 as encapsulated in its Critical Cross-field Outcomes.

¹¹⁹ *Ibid.*

¹²⁰ Brown, 1991:244.

In Table 1.1 of Appendix C, each Critical Cross-field Outcome is matched with one or more of the principles of critical literacy listed in the preceding section. The purpose of this strategy is to show that the principles of a critical literacy and pedagogy do not conflict with the principles of Curriculum 2005/C21. From a language teaching perspective, this accordance is important since this thesis argues that the kinds of workplace skills required to function within the context of globalization are the kinds of language skills that are nurtured by a critical literacy and pedagogy.

Although critical literacy and pedagogy do not constitute a curriculum *per se*, the preceding discussion reveals that the principles underpinning Curriculum 2005/C21 and a critical literacy are similar. Curriculum 2005/C21 encourages approaches to literacy and language teaching that are critical. That is, language practitioners working within the context of Curriculum 2005/C21 have a mandate, in the form of the Critical Cross-field Outcomes and the Learning Outcomes for Languages, to inculcate a form of literacy in learners that is critical. Fulfilling this mandate requires a critical pedagogy that encapsulates the principles of critical literacy. Within the field of language teaching, the term “approach” to language teaching is relevant since it provides guidelines for a (critical, in this instance) pedagogy of language teaching.

1.3.3.5 Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

Communicative Language Teaching offers a useful approach for a critical pedagogy of workplace English skills teaching. An approach to language ‘... describes how language is used...’.¹²¹ Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) does not automatically qualify as a critical approach to literacy. It does accentuate the social dimension in which communication is embedded. It also rejects the anti-communicative and anti-critical approaches to language teaching that precede it.

Communicative language teaching (CLT) refers to both processes and goals in classroom learning. The central theoretical concept in communicative language teaching is “communicative competence,” a term introduced into discussions of language use and second or foreign language learning in the early 1970s.... Understanding of CLT can be traced to concurrent developments in Europe and North America. In Europe, the language needs of a rapidly increasing group of immigrants and guest workers, and a rich British linguistic tradition that included social as well as linguistic context in description of language behaviour, led the Council of Europe to develop a syllabus for learners based on notional-functional concepts of language use.... Language functions based on an assessment of the communicative needs of learners specified the end result, or goal, of an instructional program. The term communicative attached itself to programs that used a notional-functional syllabus based on needs assessment, and the language for specific purposes (LSP) movement was launched.¹²²

121 Harmer, 2002:80-90. Cf. Howatt, 1994:192 who states that ‘Learning how to speak a new language, it is held, is not a rational process which can be organized in a step-by-step manner following graded syllabuses of new points to learn, exercises and explanations. It is an intuitive process for which human beings have a natural capacity that can be awakened provided only that the proper conditions exist.’ Cf. also Kumaravivelu, 1993:75 who notes that ‘... language-centred approaches... (such as the audio-lingual method) [seek] to provide opportunities for learners to practice preselected, presequenced linguistic structures through form-focused activities in class, assuming that the learners can draw from this linguistic repertoire whenever they wish to communicate in the target languages outside the class. Learner-centered approaches are those which are principally concerned with learner needs. These approaches (such as [the] communicative [approach]) seek to provide opportunities for learners to practice preselected, presequenced notions and functions through communication-focused activities, assuming that the learners can make use of them to fulfil their communicative needs outside the class. Learning-centered approaches ... provide opportunities for learners to participate in open-ended interaction through meaning-focused activities in class, assuming that the learners can develop grammatical ability through those meaning-focused activities’.

122 Savignon, 2003:1.

Communication can be said to consist of a ‘... combination of acts’ or ‘... series of elements’ that differ from one another in ‘...purpose and intent...’.¹²³ Communication has ‘social purpose’ and, in the context of EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teaching, often aims at ‘international communication’.¹²⁴ For this reason, being competent in communication requires a number of competencies. Brown (1994) argues that CLT embraces ‘...all components of communicative competence...’.¹²⁵ Communicative competence requires knowledge of the rules of language (grammatical competence), an understanding of how sentences are strung together to form discourse (discourse competence), an understanding of the social context of language and, finally, the ability to ‘repair’ and ‘sustain’ communication using the preceding competencies (strategic competence). The present study argues that these competencies should be integrated with a critical approach to literacy, as discussed further below.¹²⁶

It is appropriate now to consider some of the anti-communicative and anti-critical approaches to language teaching that precede the Communicative Approach in order to appreciate why CLT is so popular in language teaching and why it is a useful vehicle for a critical literacy and pedagogy. Howatt (1994) argues that language teaching itself has gone through ‘... three major strands...’.¹²⁷ The first phase saw the ‘... gradual integration of foreign language teaching into a modernized secondary

¹²³ Brown, 1994:232.

¹²⁴ Cook, 2001:213. This principle also applies to first language speakers since South Africa is part of the global communication.

¹²⁵ Brown, 1994:245.

¹²⁶ *Op. cit.*, 227-228.

¹²⁷ Howatt, 1994:129.

school curriculum'; the second phase saw the increased demand for English because of increased inter-cultural contact and the third phase saw the rise of '... new ideas on how language could be taught more efficiently and easily...'.¹²⁸ It is with the third phase that the present discussion is concerned. The figure below illustrates the difference between traditional and communicative curricula.

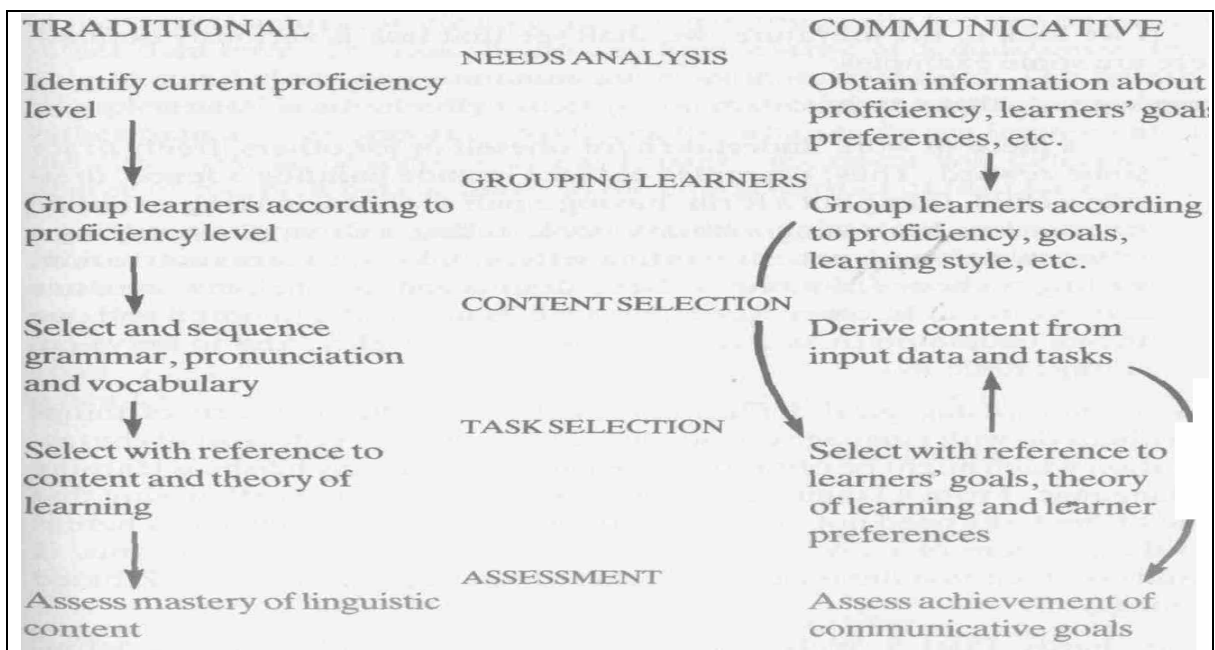


Figure 1.2 Traditional and Communicative Curriculum Models Compared (Nunan, 1993:57)

The communicative approach, in general, and the task-based method specifically, contrast sharply with the non-communicative grammar-translation method.

The grammar-translation method was devised and developed for use in secondary schools.... The 'grammar-translation' label is misleading in some respects.... The origins of the method do not lie in an attempt to teach languages by grammar and translation, these were taken for granted anyway.... The traditional scholastic approach among individual learners in the eighteenth century had been to acquire a reading knowledge of foreign

¹²⁸ Howatt, 1994:129-130.

languages by studying a grammar and applying this knowledge to the interpretation of texts with the use of a dictionary.... The central feature was the replacement of the traditional texts by exemplificatory [*sic*] sentences.¹²⁹

Intrinsically... the method is so ordinary that it is sometimes difficult to see what all the fuss was about. Each new lesson had one or two new grammar rules, a short vocabulary list, and some practice examples to translate. Boring, maybe, but hardly the horror story we are sometimes asked to believe. However, it also contained seeds, which eventually grew into a jungle of obscure rules, endless lists of gender classes and gender-class exceptions, self-conscious 'literary' archaisms, snippets of philology, and a total loss of genuine feeling for living language.¹³⁰

The 'autonomous' (Street, 1988) nature of this approach to literacy and language teaching is clear: the focus on texts and the application of a predetermined grammar suggests an "objective" definition of literacy and language learning. This particular "objective" stance strips the act of language learning of its social dimension, since it is text-based, and does not recognize the role of the learner in the *production* of meaning. Indeed, the grammar-translation method is not a 'horror story' but it does not lend itself easily to a critical approach to literacy.

Another method that is not easily compatible with a Communicative Approach to language teaching is the Audiolingual Method. This method, among others surveyed by Harmer (2002), is a Behaviourist model of language learning and teaching that relies on presentation, practice and production (PPP); this is a method that divides language teaching and learning into three distinct stages in which the teacher first shows the learners (or the learner listens to language recordings), then arranges

129 Howatt, 1994:131.

130 *Op. cit.*, 136.

practice exercises and finally allows the learner to use the language in more uncontrolled circumstances.¹³¹

Although the focus is on the learner, this method also does not encourage the *production* of meaning by the learner in a social context.¹³² The ‘autonomous’ assumption of literacy (street, 1988) is also evident here since it does not recognizance the role of the learner in the production of meaning. The discussion in the present chapter, thus far, has addressed what kind of literacy is required in the context of globalization. Curriculum 2005/C21 is fundamentally supportive of such an approach to literacy, particularly if it is conducted in a communicative manner.

The communicative approach, an approach to which this study appeals in its theory of language, is an umbrella term for an approach to language teaching that inspires the learners to use language in a social context and in a situation that creates a need or desire to communicate.¹³³ One example of a need to communicate is the need to

131 Harmer, 2002:79-90. Cf. O’Neal, 2000:s.p. who argues in defence of pure grammar teaching that ‘[g]enerative competence [sic] the ability to use underlying syntax and structure is one of the foundations of communicative competence. Without it, there is no pragmatic competence worth talking about’. Cf. the discussion on consciousness-raising in grammar teaching in Chapter Three.

132 Cook, 2001:216 notes that the difference between the audio-lingual method and the methodology of the communicative approach lies in the fact that CLT does not make use of artificial dialogues, for example, that are learned by repetition and practice.

133 Harmer, 2002:80-90. Cf. Nunan, 2004:7. Cf. Kumaravadivelu, 1993:74 who notes that ‘[w]hile I agree with Nunan that a task-based curriculum should reflect an integrated set of processes, I nevertheless see task-based pedagogy to be predominantly method-driven.... Since task is so closely intertwined with classroom methodology, it seems to me that one way of dealing with the conceptual and terminological ambiguity discussed earlier is to redefine it in relation to specific language teaching methodologies.... Cf. Savignon, 2003:4 argues that ‘[b]y definition, CLT puts the focus on the learner. Learners’ communicative needs provide a framework for elaborating program goals with regard to functional competence. Functional goals imply global, qualitative evaluation of learner achievement as opposed to quantitative assessment of discrete linguistic features’. Regarding form versus meaning, Cf. O’Neal, 2000:s.p. who notes that ‘[t]he question "Is form as important as meaning?" is fundamentally mistaken. Form IS part of meaning.... The "narrow" or fundamentalist version of CLT can easily become a stifling orthodoxy in which things like rote-learning,

acquire or exchange information.¹³⁴ At stake in CLT is not exclusively the learner's knowledge of language forms (linguistic competence) but his or her communicative competence.¹³⁵ It is not yet clear, however, *what* needs to be taught and *how* it must be taught in order to satisfy the demands of a critical literacy that prepares learners for the workplace, the aim of the present study.¹³⁶

There are many methods and techniques within CLT. One of these methods, one that is particularly relevant in the context of this thesis and the workplace, is the task-based approach.¹³⁷ The aim of a task that is communicative in nature is to encourage learners to '... use the language'.¹³⁸ Task-based learning '... involves the

memorisation, "display questions", "teacher-talk" automatically mean BAD. None of these things alone is bad. What matters is how, when and why they are done'.

134 Cook, 2001:218 notes that 'information communication teaching... emphasizes the information that is transferred rather than the social interaction between the participants...'. The reason for this change of emphasis is that not all activities that involve pair work or group work necessarily yield socially authentic or useful situations. Sources of 'real' information, Cook, 2001:220 claims can be found in, for example, 'literature', 'interesting facts', the milieu of the students and academic subjects.

135 Brown, 1994:227.

136 Richards, 1990:4 who writes that '[t]o prepare effective language teachers [and learners], it is necessary to have a theory of effective language teaching - a statement of the general principles that account for effective teaching, including a specification of the key variables in effective language teaching and how they are interrelated. Such a theory is arrived at through the study of the teaching process itself. This theory should form the basis for the principles and content of second language teacher education, which is thus dependent upon the following sequence: (a) Describe effective language teaching processes; (b) develop a theory of the nature of effective language teaching; and (c) develop principles for the preparation of language teacher.' The present study argues that the term 'effective', like "objective" and "literate", is not value-free and must be interrogated in the light of a theory of critical literacy.

137 Other techniques include the information gap and guided roleplay.

138 Scrivener, 1994:62. See *Ibid.* where the author argues that '... the focus was on classroom process and learner autonomy. The use of games, role playing, and activities in pairs and other small groups has gained acceptance and is now widely recommended for inclusion in language-teaching programs.... Communicative language teaching derives from a multidisciplinary perspective that includes, at the least, linguistics, psychology, philosophy, sociology, and educational research. The focus has been the elaboration and implementation of programs and methodologies that promote the development of functional language ability through learners' participation in communicative events. Central to CLT is the understanding of language learning as both an educational and a political issue. Language teaching is inextricably linked with language policy. Viewed from a multicultural intranational as well as international perspective, diverse sociopolitical contexts mandate not only a diverse set of language-learning goals but a diverse set of teaching strategies. Program design and implementation depend on negotiation between policy makers, linguists, researchers, and

specification not of a sequence of language items, but of a sequence of communicative tasks to be carried out in the target language. Central to the notion of the communicative task is the exchange of meanings'.¹³⁹

A task-based approach to learning assumes that '... learners are just as likely to learn language if they [are] thinking about a non-linguistic problem as when they [are] concentrating on particular language forms'.¹⁴⁰ They are also more likely to learn something by doing it.¹⁴¹

The concept of a task is so everyday as to appear uncontroversial: we all carry out a variety of tasks in our daily lives, at work and at home, and the term refers to a very real concept. However, it seems to be just this breadth and commonplace character of the notion that make precise definition, or agreement on what is meant, difficult to achieve.¹⁴²

teachers.... Evaluation of program success requires a similar collaborative effort. The selection of methods and materials appropriate to both the goals and the context of teaching begins with an analysis of learners' needs and styles of learning.'

139 Willis and Willis, 2001:173. Cf. *Op. cit.*, 173 where the authors note that 'task' could include "metacommunicative tasks" in which the focus is on language form but '... focus on form seems to be so all-embracing as to cover almost anything that might happen in a classroom'. For this reason the authors restrict their definition to communicative tasks.

140 Harmer, 2002:85. Cf. Savignon, 2003:7 who notes that '[w]hile involvement in communicative events is seen as central to language development, this involvement necessarily requires attention to form. Communication cannot take place in the absence of structure, or grammar, a set of shared assumptions about how language works, along with a willingness of participants to cooperate in the negotiation of meaning. In their carefully researched and widely cited paper proposing components of communicative competence, Canale and Swain (1980) did not suggest that grammar was unimportant. They sought rather to situate grammatical competence within a more broadly defined communicative competence. Similarly, the findings of the Savignon (1971) study did not suggest that teachers forsake grammar instruction. Rather, the replacement of structure drills in a language laboratory with self-expression focused on meaning was found to be a more effective way to develop communicative ability...'

141 Scrivener, 1994:4.

142 Murphy, 1993:140. Cf. Nunan, 1993:59 who argues that definitions of a task '...have a common characteristic; they... suggest that tasks are concerned with communicative language... the communicative task [is] a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form.... Minimally, a task will consist of some input data and one or more related activities or procedures. Input refers to the data that learners are to work on: it may be linguistic (e.g. a radio broadcast), non-linguistic (e.g. a set of photographs), or 'hybrid' (e.g. a road map). In addition, tasks will have, either explicitly or implicitly (and in most cases these are implicit) goals, roles of teachers and learners and a setting. This relatively simple scheme provides a useful framework for summarizing research on tasks'.

A task involves a goal. That is,

[t]he idea of purposefulness appears to run through daily tasks, along with connotations of routineness, and repetition; we have to learn to do such tasks, and in most cases how to do them.... So tasks also have content, and may be divided either into stages of their execution or into sub-tasks which go to make up the whole....¹⁴³

A task-based approach to language teaching selects content according to the needs of the learner and, possibly the employer, and emphasises ‘... communication through interaction in the target language...’ through activities and the use of ‘... authentic texts...’ that ‘... focus not only on language but also on the learning process itself...’, enhancing the learner’s personal experience; most important, a task-based approach ‘... [links] *classroom language learning with language use outside the classroom*... [my emphasis]’.¹⁴⁴ Invariably, a task-based approach to language teaching begins with an introduction to the task that aims at enabling learners to acquire ‘... some new knowledge or skill, with one set of these learning tasks designed or intended as language learning tasks’. It is followed by instruction in the use of particular language forms or communicative conventions (such as the structure of a business letter) followed by the execution of the task.¹⁴⁵ Only after the completion of the task does the educator intervene and focus on language errors.¹⁴⁶ On a communicative continuum, task-based learning

¹⁴³ Murphy, 1993:140.

¹⁴⁴ Nunan, 2004:1.

¹⁴⁵ Murphy, 1993:140. Cf. *Ibid.* where the author argues that ‘...while many tasks may involve the use of language, uses of language in themselves do not correspond obviously to the order of things we call tasks.... We may invent apparently mechanical tasks such as drills, which seem to focus on language for itself, or we may devise apparently communicative tasks such as information-gap exercises, which mimic purposeful activities that involve use of language. In both cases the expectation is that the language will be acquired through carrying out the learning task, where the task acts as a vehicle or catalyst for the learning.

¹⁴⁶ Harmer, 2002:87.

clearly emphasizes a communicative method of language teaching. An explanatory figure is provided below.¹⁴⁷

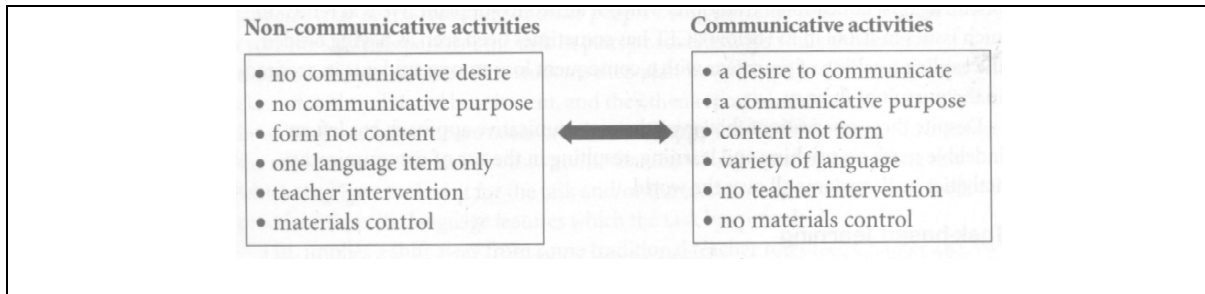


Figure 1.1 Communicative Continuum (Harmer, 2002: 85)

1.3.3.6 critical literacy and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

Writers such as Deborah Cameron (2002) contend that globalisation has, in fact, redefined the concepts “communication” and, by extension “skills” and, of course, the composite concept “communication skills”. In ‘Globalisation and the teaching of “communication skills”’, Deborah Cameron argues that globalisation currently defines the meaning of communication and the skills associated with this phenomenon as well as the level at which they are practised and the scope they are allowed to enjoy as communication skills.¹⁴⁸ As a consequence, that which is regarded as communication within the field of English language teaching and training is one-sided and is permeated through-and-through with largely western, upper middle-class, white and American values and perspectives.¹⁴⁹

¹⁴⁷ From *The Practice of English Language Teaching*, Harmer, 2002.

¹⁴⁸ Cameron, 2002:71.

¹⁴⁹ *Op. cit.*, 70.

Language teaching courses emphasize the value of speaking and direct communication of meaning as opposed to tactful silence and circumlocution – both aspects of Japanese culture.¹⁵⁰ These language teaching values are presented as embodying expert knowledge and skills that are universal and that must, therefore, be acquired in order to demonstrate effective communication. Cameron insists that the flow of expertise is ‘... one-sided from dominant to subaltern cultures...’ and not reciprocal.¹⁵¹ Yet, ‘[t]his standpoint assumes that learning English... cancels out children’s [or adults’] previously acquired and on-going acquisition of their first language competencies and communicative patterns’.¹⁵² What is more pertinent in the South African context is that,

... the kind of English we admire [judging by the nationality of the winners of literary prizes and well-known academics] for its elegance and eloquence is frequently not produced by those whose first language it is. It is a supranatural global English that does not necessarily emanate in any direct way from the centre, as is suggested in over-polarized accounts of centre versus periphery English; it will clearly demonstrate a whole range of functions but as a secondary discourse is most powerful when used discursively rather than experientially.¹⁵³

English language teaching materials are designed to avoid ‘PARSNIP [politics, alcohol, religion, gender, narcotics, isms and pork]’.¹⁵⁴ Gray (2002) concedes that this process strips the target culture of any offensive elements but notes that it misrepresents that culture. Both the consuming culture and the target culture thus become victims of what Cameron (2002) and Gray (2002) would undoubtedly call a

150 *Op. cit.*, 67-68.

151 Cameron, 2002:70.

152 *Op. cit.*, 105. Cf. Nakata, 2000:106-120.

153 Wallace, 2002:105-106.

154 Cameron, 2002:159.

process of “dumbing down”. Nevertheless, the willingness of the producers of these texts to take these taboos into consideration, though motivated by a desire to sell the texts, still shows an awareness of otherness and suggests that the “other” is a variable in the western (allegedly dominant) frame of reference.¹⁵⁵

The current global understanding of communication and the skills associated with this phenomenon cannot, following Cameron, be divorced from globalisation and the historical process that led up to the spread of globalization. The new global form of capitalism is ‘... [d]ominated by forms of work in which language-using is an integral part of almost every worker’s function...’ – very different from the notion of the worker as exclusively performing manual labour.¹⁵⁶ This current state of affairs is, in turn, the product of historical development – both economic and cultural – in which

... the “traditional manual/non-manual” distinction [of labour] was in the process of being superseded by a new division of labour, in which an élite class of “symbolic analysts” – creative professionals skilled in the art of words, numbers, images and digital bits – would dominate a much bigger and less privileged group of workers providing routine service. The implication [being that]... individuals will need a relatively high level of linguistic skill if they are to participate in waged labour at all.¹⁵⁷

These communicative skills are of a sophisticated kind or are put to sophisticated uses that empower the user to transform his or her environment and to participate in, for example, what Cameron calls the ‘... culture of self-improvement...’; this is a culture

155 Cameron, 2002:70, 72. For Cameron, the dominant culture from which these language teaching values flow is American culture – a culture that sets global social, economic and political trends. Curriculum 2005/C21 emphasizes the importance of cultural sensitivity in its Critical Cross Field Outcomes.

156 Cameron, 2002:72.

157 *Ibid.*

that incorporates the popular (in both senses of the word) notions of self-help, recovery, neuro-linguistic programming and other forms of popular discourse (such as talk shows) that involve ‘... listening and talking openly about *problems*...[my emphasis]’.¹⁵⁸ Listening, speaking and writing are thus reduced to assembly-line like functions – or so Cameron claims. Echoing her views is David Block (2002) who refers to this streamlined and unsophisticated form of communication as “McCommunication”.¹⁵⁹

“McCommunication” is ‘... [the] framing of communication as a rational activity dedicated to the transfer of information between and among individuals in an efficient, calculated, predictable and controlled manner...’.¹⁶⁰ This assembly-line approach to communication suggests some attempt at ensuring standardisation and quality within standardisation. The notion of quality control has curiously surfaced

158 *Op. cit.*, 74. Cf. footnote 77 in which she argues that listening skills in communication manuals and language teaching textbooks reduces this intuitive act to a series of steps resembling an assembly line.

159 Block, 2002:121. Cf. Wallace, 2002:112. A similar degree of opprobrium is meted out to Task-based Language (TBL) Teaching. Following Cameron’s (2002) argument, this approach to language teaching reduces communication to the level of task-fulfilment and not much else. Cf. O’Neal, 2000:s.p who argues that ‘[s]peech acts and functions are important. But in the real world, typical speech acts have to be modified and varied to fit different situations. Typical speech acts typically lead to very unpredictable outcomes. A competent speaker has to know different ways of performing the same speech act. Speakers can do this only if they can generate new examples of the different syntactic structures they need to perform typical speech-acts. That is only one reason a language syllabus has to have a structural as well as pragmatic component. Unfortunately, communicative goals in CLT are usually described so narrowly that it is impossible to study the necessary syntactic forms properly’.

160 Block, 2002:121. Cf. Street, 2003:8 writes of the difficulty in balancing literacy needs of local communities with those set by policy administrators. ‘In this case, as in many development contexts, the problem arises as to whether there is a conflict between theory and policy and between the local and the needs of scale faced by administrators? The more those ethnographers explain the “complexity” of literacy practices, the more policy makers find it impossible to design programs that can take account of all that complexity. The more ethnographers demonstrate that literacy does not necessarily have the effects that the rhetoric has suggested – improved health, cognition, empowerment – the harder does it become for policymakers to persuade funders to support literacy programs. The more ethnographers focus on specific local contexts, the harder does it seem to “upscale” their projects to take account of the large numbers of people seen to be in need.’

elsewhere in global culture. In fact, this approach to communication belies a deeper assumption about communication being the road to ‘... better human beings...’ so that the self or the subject under late capitalism has become a ‘... reflexive project...’ capable of consuming goods and services in the quest for self-improvement.¹⁶¹ In essence, Cameron claims that current global communication, on a cultural level, creates and sustains a notion of self that consumes in a misguided attempt to improve what it sees as problematic aspects of itself, often openly discussing these problems.

On an economic level, this kind of communication sustains a notion of the self that labours to create and sustain the conditions necessary for the consumption of goods and services in the quest for self-improvement rather than for enriching interpersonal communication. Other criticisms levelled at the communicative approach include its alleged eroding of grammar in ‘...pursuit of fluency...’ and favouring of ‘native speakers’ since the approach requires little teacher intervention and encourages the ‘uncontrolled use’ of language; even the task-based method could become, if practised in a manner such as the one Cameron deplores, a form of “McCommunication”.¹⁶²

¹⁶¹ Cameron, 2002:75.

¹⁶² Harmer, 2000:86-87. Cf. O’Neal, 2000:s.p. who notes that ‘[i]t sounds so neat and convincing to say “[at] the end of the lesson learners will be able to talk about their jobs” or “be able to give directions”. If these descriptions mean anything, they mean “with some luck and a lot of hard work and good teaching, learners may be able to say a little more about their jobs than they could at the beginning.... Although CLT grew out of a rejection of “structuralism”, which was supposed to be based on behaviourism, communicative goals in CLT are all described in typical behaviourist terminology. This implies that language is just behaviour [“McCommunication”] and that communicative competence can be described in simple behaviourist terms’.

Nearly two decades before globalisation became a fashionable topic or catch-word, D.A. Wilkins (1974) argued that global (general in scope and not for specific purposes) English language courses were similar to long or short-term investments. According to Wilkins' (1974) analogy, these investments are long-term in that learners see their acquisition of English as a process that benefits them in the long-run.

There are, however, other learners who may need to cash their investment immediately. Whatever they learn may be needed immediately for the purpose of *communication*. They cannot afford to be told that in due course they will be able to make use of what they are learning [my emphasis].¹⁶³

Cameron equates a functional approach to language teaching with an approach that exists solely to mirror the economic concerns of globalisation. However, this thesis contends that the functional basis of language and language teaching within the economy is not exclusively the product of globalisation but a product of human interaction in general.¹⁶⁴ For Halliday, language is 'systemic', and meaning is a '... choice by which a language, or any other semiotic system, is interpreted as networks of interlocking options...' of which the interpretation belies many purposes.¹⁶⁵ In the act of interpretation, the interpreter has two options: to understand the text or to

¹⁶³ Wilkins, 1974:69-70.

¹⁶⁴ Halliday, 1985:14 and 18 defines operational (functional) syllabuses as those syllabuses that define the operations or functions learners are able to perform. Notional syllabuses are syllabuses that have as a starting point '... [the] desired communicative capacity... what it is they communicate through language... [and which as a result] define teaching in terms of content rather than the form of the language...'.¹⁶⁵

¹⁶⁵ *Op. cit.*, 14.

evaluate it. Following Halliday, the latter option is the more advanced of the two.¹⁶⁶

The former represents the level to which current global communication has been relegated – at least in the eyes of Cameron (2002). Both options are, to Halliday, components of normal discourse – depending clearly on the purpose of the interpreter and not on prevailing economic conditions.

Both Halliday (1985) and Cameron (2002) agree that communication centres more often than not on speech, rather than any other traditional skill area in English language teaching. For Halliday (1985), this emphasis is logical and desirable.

‘Why is speech so important? It is not because of any intrinsic value in spoken texts. Communities without a written language *obviously* have their literary and sacred texts in spoken form.... [Speech is so important because] that... potential of the system [to yield multiple options of interpretation] is more richly developed, and more fully revealed in speech... [my emphasis]’.¹⁶⁷

Cameron (2002) decries this emphasis on speech, asserting that it reflects global commercial interests rather than anything to do with meaning or interpersonal communication. In the age of technology, Cameron finds it somewhat perplexing that global communication and training in communication emphasize not technologies such as the internet but rather ‘... [the] oldest, least technologised [*sic*] and least mediated of all communication channels: spoken interaction, or talk’.¹⁶⁸ In line with this study (in Chapter Two) Cameron notes, that ‘... in surveys taken to assess which

¹⁶⁶ *Ibid.*

¹⁶⁷ Halliday, 1985:23.

¹⁶⁸ Cameron, 2002:71. See also Kramsch and Thorne, 2002:100. Kramsch and Thorne argue that ‘[g]lobal technologies... only exacerbate the distance in social and cultural genres of communication’.

skills are needed to maximize employability, employers almost invariably distinguish “communication skills” from “literacy” and “ICQ” [Information and Communication Technologies]... [the] “communication skills” displayed by recruits [being more] important than “literacy skills” or facility [with] ICTS [ICT skills]’.¹⁶⁹

Cameron notes that many language teaching textbooks are topic-based (functional-notional). Under the guise of effective communication, only those language functions that are culturally and economically (commercially) useful from the perspective of a dominant (American) culture are addressed and taught. To better understand how functional-notional syllabuses and other syllabuses relate to the notion of critical literacy as it has evolved in the foregoing argument, the discussion now focuses on different kinds of syllabuses.

1.3.3.7 syllabuses

For Nunan (1996), a syllabus is a way of selecting and grading thematic, functional or linguistic content.¹⁷⁰ Nunan (1996) categorizes syllabuses into two major groups: ‘process-oriented’ and ‘product-oriented’; product-oriented syllabuses are termed ‘analytic’ if they select and grade material according to purpose and ‘synthetic’ if language is broken up into parts and taught separately until the learner assimilates all

¹⁶⁹ *Op. cit.*, 71.

¹⁷⁰ Nunan, 1996:6.

the parts.¹⁷¹ Nunan's (1996) categorization of syllabuses is summarized in the form of a diagram in Figure 1.2.

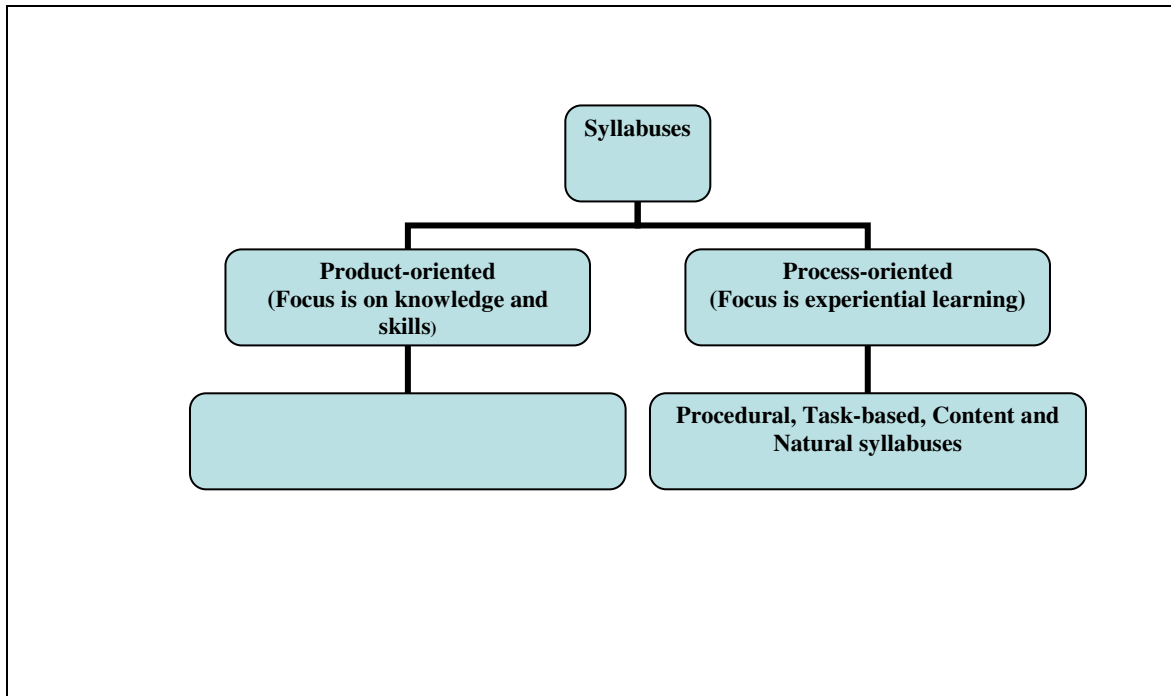


Figure 1.2 Types of Syllabus (Nunan, 1996:27-51)

The distinction between product and process is artificial, from the perspective of the present study in Chapters Two, Three and Four. However, the use of the distinction by Nunan (1996) is functional and does not suggest that grammar, for example, is

171 *Op. cit.*, 27-28. Cf. O'Neal, 2000:s.p. who argues in favour of the teaching of grammatical structures: '[s]peech acts and functions are important. But in the real world, typical speech acts have to be modified and varied to fit different situations. Typical speech acts typically lead to very unpredictable outcomes. A competent speaker has to know different ways of performing the same speech act. Speakers can do this only if they can generate new examples of the different syntactic structures they need to perform typical speech-acts. That is only one reason a language syllabus has to have a structural as well as pragmatic component. Unfortunately, communicative goals in CLT are usually described so narrowly that it is impossible to study the necessary syntactic forms properly.... If we always begin with the speech act, we lose sight of the generative system that makes all speech acts possible'.

entirely absent from process-oriented syllabuses. Nunan (1996) also highlights the general features and weaknesses of the various syllabuses he describes. These have been tabulated for ease of reference.

From the perspective of this thesis, one that attempts to integrate critical literacy, Curriculum 2005, communicative language teaching and workplace skills, none of the syllabuses described below, would, in itself, prove a sound framework for pursuing the kind of workplace literacy advocated by the present study.

Table 1.2 Product-oriented Syllabuses (Nunan, 1996: 28-38)

Product-oriented Syllabuses	
1. Grammatical	
Features	Weakness
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Input is graded according to grammatical notions of simplicity and complexity. • Language is learned in sections and incorporated into existing knowledge of the language. • These syllabuses are synthetic because they divide language up into artificial chunks according to notions of grammatical simplicity and complexity. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exclusive focus on grammar. • Language has many functions. • One form may have many functions.
2. Functional-notional	
Features	Weakness
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Function relates to communicate purpose. • Notion refers to meaning and logical relationships. • These syllabuses are analytic because they refer to the way in which chunks of language are learned for a communicative purpose. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Selection and grading of material is difficult because the basis of the syllabus is functional and not linguistic. • The lists of functions do not always reflect how language is learned.

Table 1.3 Process-oriented Syllabuses (Nunan, 1996: 42-51)

Process-oriented Syllabuses	
1. Procedural and Task-based	
Features	Weakness
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • They are similar to syllabuses that advocate the task-based method. • Classroom processes that stimulate learning are important. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There is very little guidance on how to select tasks and problems that are conducive to task-based teaching. • There are varying definitions of task. • There are varying criteria for task selection.
2. Content	
Features	Weakness
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Experiential content is taken from a well-defined subject area or topic. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Content is often trivialized in the eyes of the learner who may know much about a topic in his or her own language.
3. Natural	
Features	Weakness
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language is treated as a single skill. • The goal is communication. • It is important to create a relaxed atmosphere for the natural production of language. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language is used in different ways so being able to read a novel does not enable one to understand an academic lecture. • Communication skills are different from academic skills and so acquiring the former does not necessarily entail acquiring the latter.

1.3.3.8 learning styles

In Chapter Four, two tasks that are designed according to an integrated theory of workplace literacy are described. These two tasks were designed so that they incorporate as many of the learning styles described below as possible. ‘Briefly put, learning styles are... the general approaches to learning or problem solving, while learning strategies are the specific behaviours or actions – often conscious – used by the students to improve or enhance their learning process.’¹⁷²

The value of a taxonomy of learning styles and strategies for the language teacher lies

¹⁷² Keefe, 1979:4 states that ‘[l]earning style is the way in which each person absorbs and retains information and/or skills.’ Kinsella, 1995:171 contends that ‘[a] learning style refers to an individual’s natural, habitual, and preferred ways of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills which persist regardless of teaching methods or content area.’ Since these preferences come from the learner him or herself, they indicate how that learner prefers to interact with his or her environment.

in the fact that the said teacher can adapt his or her teaching and teaching to pre-empt or cater for as many of the learners' learning styles and techniques as possible; the model for the design of workplace literacy tasks, proposed in Chapter Four of this study, as well as the sample activities evaluated and discussed in that chapter, attempt to do precisely that. In order to assist the teacher in improving lesson preparation, a brief overview of the main categories of learning styles follows.

The first category of learning styles relates to the influence of the senses on learning.

For example,

[v]isually oriented students... would rather see a film on a subject than listen to a lecture or discussion.... Auditory students, unlike visual students, are comfortable with lectures, discussions, radio and television. These students often feel frustrated when teachers write assignments and test instructions on the board or on a handout, but do not go over them orally.... Hands-on students like manipulative and three-dimensional materials that are touchable and moveable. These students are frequently in motion: [they] may fidget, get up regularly or tap their pencils.¹⁷³

Both the maintenance questionnaire (see section 4.2.4) and the audio-visual devices survey (see section 4.2.5) could appeal to students who are visually orientated. The input phase takes the form of a mini-lecture. The questionnaire and the memoranda are also tangible forms that can be handled. The second category of learning styles addresses the extroversion/introversion dichotomy.

An extraverted [*sic*] person is often regarded as a "life of the party" person. Introverted people, conversely, are thought of as quiet and reserved, with tendencies toward "reclusiveness".... Extraverted learners gain their energy and focus from events and people outside of themselves. They enjoy a breadth of interest and many friends, and they like group work. Extraverted students enjoy English conversation, role-plays, and other highly interactive activities. Introverted learners, on the other hand, are stimulated most by their own inner

¹⁷³ Dreyer, 2000:249.

world of ideas and feelings.¹⁷⁴

The tasks outlined in Chapter Four could appeal to learners who display this learning style since there is an individual component to each task that requires individual understanding and, only thereafter, group participation. Introverted students could thus be comfortable with the tasks then there are some learners who prefer to gain a deep and intuitive understanding of language as opposed to a concrete understanding gained through actual learning materials and interaction.

There are some learners (“intuitive”) who ‘... try to build a mental model of the second language information[;] [t]hey deal best with the “big picture” in an abstract and non-linear way’ and others (“concrete-sequential”) who prefer language learning materials and techniques that involve combinations of sound, movement, sight and touch, and that can be applied in a concrete, step-by-step linear manner. These learners tend to follow logical... paths in finding solutions. Randomness and lack of consistency in lesson plans are difficult for such students to handle in the language classroom.¹⁷⁵

Since the ultimate goal of both tasks, namely the compilation of a composite workplace form, follows a methodical procedure and involves the acquisition of information and its processing, students who are ‘intuitive’ could be comfortable with the tasks outlined in Chapter Four. Related to these styles is the closure-orientated, as opposed to open, approach.

Students oriented toward closure have a strong need for clarity in all aspects of language learning. They want lesson directions and grammar rules to be spelled out and are unable to cope with much slack in the system. These students are likely to plan language study sessions carefully and do homework on time or early. However, they do not like to participate in tutorials, or role-plays unless they are adequately prepared. A student who is more open may approach a language assignment or a class activity as though it were an entertaining game. This type of student usually has a high tolerance of

¹⁷⁴ *Ibid.*

¹⁷⁵ Dreyer, 2000:250.

ambiguity, does not worry about not comprehending everything, and does not feel the need to come to rapid conclusions about the topic.¹⁷⁶

Since there is a distinct input phase that precedes these tasks, learners who are closure-orientated might not feel uncomfortable participating in these tasks. The input to each task provides the necessary grammatical input, form input, lexical input as well as general knowledge input required to complete the task. Furthermore, the tasks are clearly described and have measurable goals. Similarly,

[s]tudents with a global learning style seek the big picture right away. This kind of learner sometimes has trouble discerning the important details from a confusing language background.... Global learners may, therefore, experience problems when they are required to independently analyse components or steps in a task, or do assignments with a “trial-and-error” or “discovery” approach.... In contrast, analytic students like details better than the overall picture. The analytic student has no trouble picking out significant details from a welter of background items and prefers language learning strategies that involve dissecting and logically analysing the given material, searching for contrasts, and finding cause-effect relationships.¹⁷⁷

A global learner might be comfortable with the workplace skills tasks outlined in Chapter Four since there is a socially contextualised purpose to the tasks. This learner might grasp the significance of what he or she was doing and would therefore perceive the greater social function and meaning of the product (text) he or she had developed. Analytic students could relate to the analytical aspects of the tasks. These include: acquiring numerical data, processing the data, disseminating the data and compiling composite dated tables. Both tasks, therefore, contain sub-components that could appeal to each of the learning styles outlined above.

¹⁷⁶ *Ibid.*

¹⁷⁷ Dreyer, 2000:250-251.

Learners also use specific strategies or techniques to help them acquire aspects of language.¹⁷⁸ Some examples include the strategy of repetition or visual association in the attempt to learn vocabulary. Other strategies could include the use of mind maps. Although it is not always possible to accommodate every learning style in every task, the teacher could attempt to accommodate different learning styles by making the input phase of facilitation as comprehensive as possible. That is, different learning styles could be accommodated by using different teaching strategies as well as different tasks. In the following section, the argument focuses on the use of textual material in language teaching.

1.3.3.9 textual sources

In the present section, the argument focuses on the relative merits of literary and traditional workplace texts for the purposes of preparing learners for the workplace. Initially, it appears as if the relationship between the acquisition of skills and the texts used to acquire these skills is arbitrary. Once the multimodality of contemporary workplace texts is introduced into the discussion, it becomes apparent that the selection of texts is central to the acquisition of relevant workplace skills.

178 Cf. *Ibid.* where she notes that '[d]irect strategies are "those behaviors [sic] which directly involve the target language and directly enhance language learning" [such as]: memory, cognitive and compensatory. Memory strategies are those that facilitate the recall of vocabulary items (e.g. using imagery). Cognitive strategies are those that facilitate the processing of language input and preparing for language output (e.g. repetition). Compensation strategies are those that allow one to "fill in the gaps" in knowledge (e.g. guessing word meaning). Indirect strategies, [include] [t]hree subtypes of strategies: metacognitive, affective and social. Metacognitive strategies are those that manage the process of learning (e.g. practice opportunities). Affective strategies are those used for controlling emotions, attitudes, and motivation (e.g. writing a diary). Social strategies are those that involve learning with others (e.g. asking for correction)'.

It could be said of the way English was taught in the past in South Africa that

[r]ealistically, a major in English [was and still is] *rarely entrepreneurial*, although many people with language and literature training become consultants and freelance workers in materials development, editing, translation, interpreting, teaching and remedial teaching (my emphasis).¹⁷⁹

Both ‘language and literature training’ are mentioned. The

... [traditional] study of English leaves a student more informed, more responsible in decision making, with critical abilities honed so that s/he can adopt a certain distance from political speech-making, biased reporting in the media.... English studies rarely focus on received information, preferring students to apply skills and knowledge to a variety of texts in a flexible and purposeful manner and this orientation potentially produces highly literate, articulate individuals capable of adapting to different life situations. (*This is, however, a very rose-tinted view of what the discipline is, in fact, achieving at the moment!*) [my emphasis].¹⁸⁰

Both literary and traditional workplace genres, the latter addressed in transactional writing tasks, are treated as having been ‘rarely entrepreneurial’ in nature. ‘[E]ntrepreneurial’ suggests something of a practical and usable nature and the notion of use implies social meaning.

Being ‘literate’ is equated with being able to ‘...apply skills and knowledge to a variety of texts in a flexible and purposeful manner... [that] potentially produces highly literate, articulate individuals capable of adapting to different life situations’.¹⁸¹ Such skills include being ‘...more informed, more responsible in decision making, with critical abilities honed so that... [one] can adopt a certain

¹⁷⁹ Kilfoil, 2002: www.unisa.ac.za/English/Scrutiny2. Accessed 15/10/02.

¹⁸⁰ *Ibid.*

¹⁸¹ Kilfoil, 2002: www.unisa.ac.za/English/Scrutiny2. Accessed 15/10/02.

distance from political speech-making [and] biased reporting in the media...'.¹⁸² This injunction is applied equally to literature and language training, suggesting that skills enjoy centre-stage in relation to texts since texts are not imbued with a magical formula that produces higher cognitive skills. Of note is the assumption that these higher cognitive skills automatically develop from literacy as it is defined here, regardless of whether the training was literary or linguistic in nature.

Since the scenario sketched in the quotation represents a '... very rose-tinted view of what the discipline [of English] is...' ¹⁸³ one could be tempted to assume that the text is arbitrary. The use of 'rarely' in relation to 'entrepreneurial' suggests that the writer bemoans the fact that the skills are not entrepreneurial, that in fact they fail to develop a class of entrepreneurs. 'Entrepreneurial, in turn, suggests a person who is capable of generating his or her own livelihood but who is also able to reflect on his or her world in a critical manner in order to achieve this aim. Thus, the assumption that traditional literacy, as described above, creates an independent and reflective individual is 'rose-tinted'. Considering the fact that literary and language texts, following the above quotation, are used to inculcate the ability to adopt a critical distance from discourses in the media and politics, the relationship between the use of texts and the acquisition of relevant skills needs to be investigated more closely.

From the perspective of this study, as argued in the Introduction, the market forces of

¹⁸² *Ibid.*

¹⁸³ *Ibid.*

globalization and the employers who hire workers demand and determine the range of skills required in the workplace. One employer argues that

[t]he thing that worries [him as an employer] is the fact that this enormous proliferation of disciplines exists. [One] may study too many subjects, not specialising.... [He worries] about the generalist... more courses should be *vocationally orientated*. To what end do people study the social sciences [my emphasis]?¹⁸⁴

The speaker's position is that of an employer, as one who seeks skills for commercial purposes. From this perspective, potential employees lack relevant skills. Both the speaker commenting on the failure of English literature and language training to develop entrepreneurs and the speaker concerned about the lack of workplace skills in potential employees appear to share similar concerns. However, one speaker approaches the problem as an educator and the other as an employer. The one represent the (language) classroom and school, albeit indirectly, and the other the workplace. In Chapter Two of this study, the classroom and the workplace are joined to each other by redefining the notion of work. It is not, however, only different notions of work that apparently pit education and the workplace in opposition to each other.

The speaker concerned about the lack of entrepreneurial skills is clearly concerned with the learner. The employer is concerned about the workplace and the employee in the workplace but, ultimately, about the success of his or her business. The Introduction to this study emphasizes the fact that this thesis is not a defence of globalization. It also highlights the realities of the global economy and it is thus

184 Roizen and Jepson, 1985:143-146.

necessary to have the best interest of the learner at heart while also considering the concerns of the employer. A closer inspection, in Chapter Two, of what employers require reveals that global workplace skills demand the kinds of higher cognitive skills that do not automatically accrue to 'autonomous' notions of literacy but that do accrue to a critical approach to literacy.

Lamberti (1999) notes that the contemporary '... ideal worker is no longer a production-line automaton, but well-rounded, flexible, creative and capable of independent thought...'.¹⁸⁵ Jappie (1992) notes, '... the changing work environment and workers' ability to cope with it will be the driving force behind the need for literacy training...'.¹⁸⁶ As a consequence, [s]chools and other education and training institutions will need to incorporate teaching basic workplace [English] skills into their curriculum to ensure that students are properly equipped for the world of work....¹⁸⁷ A workplace skills consultancy defines these skills as being

... [those] skills are critical to the success of modern businesses. They are also crucial in public sector workplaces such as hospitals, schools and government offices. Workplace basic skills include literacy skills and other important skills, attitudes and behaviors [*sic*] that are essential to workplace success and high performance. Gaining basic skills also has a positive impact on employees' attitudes and behaviors [*sic*]. This is often just as valuable to employers as the skills gain[ed]....¹⁸⁸

If, following the comments of speaker concerned about the lack of entrepreneurial skills in learners, traditional literature and language training have failed to produce

¹⁸⁵ Lamberti, 1999:31.

¹⁸⁶ Jappie, 1992:11.

¹⁸⁷ Thomas, 2002 at www.landofsixpeoples.com/news02/nc204254.htm. Accessed 26/10/02.

¹⁸⁸ *Ibid.*

the kind of learner who is attractive to the employer, then a closer analysis of the principles underpinning the selection of texts for training is required.¹⁸⁹ Literary texts, one supporter (of using literature to teach workplace skills) argues,

should have “intrinsic worth”, ... should be “well-written” and “appealing” with the result that they enable “the reader to grow”, [should] “provide the reader with new insights” and finally, ... have “real meaning”. Literary texts are therefore examples of authentic written materials that promote classroom interaction.¹⁹⁰

From the perspective of a critical approach to literacy that interrogates ‘autonomous’ notions of literacy, the terms “intrinsic worth”, “well-written” and “appealing” are problematic since ‘[w]hat is valued in one culture is not necessarily valued in another’.¹⁹¹ That is not to say that within the context of a specific culture’s literacy practices certain texts do not fulfil these criteria.

In the South African context, however, it is possible that the use of traditional literary texts, both “European” and “African”, encumber the learner with tasks that bear little relation to his or her (working) life.¹⁹² The criteria “intrinsic worth”, “well-written” and “appealing” could equally be applied to the kinds of texts that learners have to decode and, possibly produce, such as advertisements. Nevertheless, if the goals of a critical literacy include the ability to engage critically with discourses, which they do, then these criteria do appear to echo some of the core concerns of a critical literacy.

The form and discourse informing literary texts and workplace genres are often

¹⁸⁹ Kilfoil, 1997:202.

¹⁹⁰ *Op. cit.*, 207.

¹⁹¹ *Ibid.*

¹⁹² Cf. Sarinjeive, 1998:200 who decries the fact that merely tinkering with the content of courses in English seldom solves the problem of inadequate analytical skills.

difficult to use in the classroom because their form is sometimes alien to the learner and the content alludes to cultural practices and values that are not always local in nature. However, in the case of workplace skills, most people have to work and will thus encounter these forms. Engaging with them is not pointless at all.

The “appeal” of post-modern and post-colonial literary texts to students in countries such as South Africa could very well lie in their concerns with the relationship between language and identity. By studying literary texts that narrate the struggles of colonized people to find their “voice”, the learner could come to an understanding of how subject positions are articulated and can be rearticulated in discourse. The learner could become empowered to reshape the discourses that inform its (English’s) ‘hegemony’ by drawing ‘... variously on the resources of a single language [in this case English]’.¹⁹³

If learners were given an opportunity to select literary texts for study, the teaching of such texts could help the learner to interrogate the process of the production of knowledge, established curricular knowledge and notions of “objectivity” and “universality”, allcore concerns of critical literacy. How then, would this address the apparent arbitrariness of the text, as noted earlier in the present section, in relation to the acquisition of a skill? If the literary texts were perceived by the learner as relevant

¹⁹³ Wallace, 2002:106-107. Cf. Bond, 2000:312 who describes a programme in South Africa that attempts to implement these principles. The Associate in Management Programme (AIM) at the University of the Witwatersrand in South Africa, for example, ‘... seeks to develop the functional skills, integrated knowledge, personal awareness and self-confidence needed to manage effectively in an environment of diversity, uncertainty and change’.

to his or her life, the acquisition of the relevant skills would be seen in a cultural context that is familiar, not alien, to the learner.

Another advantage accruing to the traditional literary approach to the study of English is that this kind of English constitutes ‘... a socially acceptable means of communication’.¹⁹⁴ The same principle applies to traditional workplace skills texts such as the memorandum or business letter. What is significant here is the notion of communication being ‘socially acceptable’. There are conflicting interests here since ‘socially’, from the perspective of the learner, surely includes his or her immediate environment and relationships and not only the workplace. From the perspective of the educator and the employer, ‘social’ includes the workplace and the school. Critical literacy includes the ability to negotiate different discourses since it is also ‘[p]art of a reader’s developing discourse competence [to] increase familiarity with the conventions that help to structure different types of discourse’.¹⁹⁵

What makes the use of workplace skills texts so appealing is that workplace English, as a concept, in contrast to literary English, poses fewer problems in delineating its own boundaries.¹⁹⁶ At the beginning of the present section, however, mention is made of the multimodality of contemporary workplace and cultural texts. These texts defy traditional boundaries, resorting to so-called ‘border-crossing’, and so the difficulty of

194 Wallace, 2002:106-107.

195 Kilfoil, 1997:203.

196 In the introduction to *Literary Theory*, Terry Eagleton (1983), describes the fluid boundaries of English as a subject as it has evolved in time.

defining “Literature” should not preclude the use of texts that are held as ‘literary’ for use in workplace skills training. Although not directly pertinent here, ‘...teaching for [literary] meaning... [is perhaps] especially appropriate for children from low-income [and culturally diverse] families because of the cultural discontinuity they experience in schools...’; it enables these learners to cross cultural boundaries in the workplace and in their immediate environment.¹⁹⁷

Although workplace ‘... discourse [is] embedded in professional and workplace contexts and involves communication between people in a variety of relationships and roles [in these professional contexts]...’, even outside the classroom (or the formal workplace) people interact as ‘... customers, clients and patients...’.¹⁹⁸ Workplace English is ‘... the form of communication we use outside the academic classroom. It is the way we communicate the business of society. It is the process “by which society keeps itself going”’.¹⁹⁹

Although literary discourse may form part of the life of many people, the business of society dominates daily life for most people and workplace English skills are ‘... the core skills that [people as] employees need to do their jobs successfully’.²⁰⁰ Workplace skills also help the learner to broaden his or her English vocabulary since workplace English deals with routine affairs and daily (commercial) life. In preparing

197 Kamper, 1998:86.

198 Koester, 2004:1.

199 Kilfoil, 1997:207-208.

200 www.workplacebasicskills.com/nonframe/workplaceskills/workplacebasicskills.htm. Accessed 20/10/2002.

the learner to function in increasing multicultural workplaces, workplace skills training can expose the learner to a very broad range of discourses and discourse production strategies.

Another valid perspective on the uses of literary and workplace texts suggests that the ‘... purpose of workplace English skills is not to replace traditional English [with its emphasis on literature] but rather to extend it by introducing documents used in the workplace, and by providing the literacy skills necessary for reading and writing these documents’.²⁰¹ An objection to this strategy is that literary texts are not authentic to the workplace, neither in form nor in use.

Authenticity should not be confused with authentic use.²⁰² By drawing the learner’s attention, for example, to the fact that the school’s toilets are blocked and that they pose a health risk, one could easily create a scenario within which to teach the form of the business letter through the authentic *use* of this workplace form. Teaching the form of the business letter and its use in this context and ensuring the necessary lexical and genre input would fulfil Pennycook’s (1994) criteria that learners should

201 Boiarsky, 1997:17.

202 Parsons, 2000:26-27. Cf. O’Neal, 2000:s.p. who argues in this regard that if ‘... for example, I want a dialogue in which someone deliberately lies, or threatens someone, or promises to do something and then later fails to fulfil that promise. Where could I find an “authentic” example of such dialogues? When people know they are being observed or that someone is recording what they say, they rarely behave authentically or normally. *Yet all* of us know - at least in our own languages -what people are likely to say in such situations. Why should we refuse to use those intuitions in the materials we create or use for our students?... The logical conclusion of the “authentic only” argument is that we should treat non-native speakers of English in a way good writers and speakers of English would never treat native-speakers; that is - that we should ignore the problems non-native speakers have with English and speak or write as if those problems simply did not exist. This, by the way, does not mean that we should necessarily avoid language that we think is likely to cause a problem. It means only that we should locate it in contexts that give that language saliency and which also helps learners to infer meaning’.

be given access to standards form of language.²⁰³ Similarly, by using a political and culturally tense event in a novel, one could teach negotiation, arguably the most important oral skill in multicultural workplaces, through role-play. The objection to this strategy is that its use is authentic but the form, the novel, is unlikely to feature prominently in the workplace. If a literary text is carefully selected for its ability to stimulate discussion on discursive strategies, for example, then it could serve as a useful prompt for workplace skills tasks. Authenticity in teaching materials, workplace or otherwise, though advantageous, is ultimately not essential when it comes to teaching workplace English skills. For this reason, neither traditional workplace forms nor literary texts can claim the advantage that authenticity offers. This study maintains, however, that the immediate environment of the learner serves as a real-life source of authentic situations, to which the learner can relate directly, in which to develop workplace skills.

A final strategy for resolving the problem of which kinds of texts to use in workplace skills training, involves a shift to the multimodality of contemporary workplace texts. This shift in focus highlights the multimodality of texts and hence the need to adopt a multiliteracies approach to language teaching.²⁰⁴ Kress (2000) argues that

203 Pennycook, 1994:315. To this condition, Pennycook adds the need to encourage learners to use their own forms. It is debatable whether this is an injunction or a recommendation. In this instance, it is probably unnecessary to investigate alternative forms since the business letter remains a powerful and useful standard global form.

204 Lamberti, 1999:22-26 lists these literacies as computer literacy, media literacy, visual literacy, critical literacy and cultural literacy.

...[t]he suggestion that language... is a multimodal system may seem outrageous; we have been taught to think of language as a single and homogenous [*sic*] system of representation....²⁰⁵

Lamberti (1999) asserts that most texts, including those in the workplace, are multimodal. A text is said to be multimodal or even multisensory when it encompasses text, sound and other visual elements such as navigation buttons on a web page.²⁰⁶ Multimodal texts are composed of textual elements that individually require different decoding strategies.²⁰⁷ Similarly, the production and encoding of such texts requires knowledge of their separate forms and functions.

The ways we read continually adapt to whatever technological or social changes come along. Currently, the book as a primary form of reading seems to be challenged by e-books, the Web, and other media.... Now, the reading experience extends beyond the book, beyond the computer screen, and into the world around us. Text is accompanied by—or perhaps more accurately, includes—image, sound, and physical form, any or all of which might be dynamic or interactive.... Rather than competing with or replacing written text, carefully authored multisensory texts enrich reading

²⁰⁵ Kress, 2000:186.

²⁰⁶ Lamberti, 1999:38. Cf. Kress, 2000:186. The result is that these two aspects work together to produce meaning; as a result, both are '... in the system [of language] ...'. Kress (2000) suggests looking at another language, such as sign language to show how the distinction between gesture and sign is actually arbitrary. Sign language, like any other language, is thus multimodal. It is quite possible, following this line of reasoning, to "read" a presented speech. Cf. Back, 2004:161 who writes that '[m]ultisensory reading relies on people's ability to collate and decipher multiple sensory streams simultaneously, much as we interpret the world around us through the use of multiple senses. This is more than a simple struggle between perceptual sensitivities, however; we use cultural cues and personal perceptual history as criteria to interpret sensory data. Fortunately, such complex patterning tasks are just what the human brain excels at: we do possess what Manguel (1996) calls a "reading sense." In this argument, use of the term "multisensory" rather than "multimodal" or "multimedia" is deliberate: an attempt to pull critical analysis in new media toward consideration of the human body's interface systems as well as cultural systems'.

²⁰⁷ Cf. Back, 2004:167 who writes that '[i]nnovators who design multimodal artifacts often combine two dissimilar but familiar media, wrapping one genre around or into another: they combine a book with a video driving game or put an orchestra into a storybook. Providing such conceptual "handles" allows a familiar object or idea to take on new properties. In essence, designers are stacking schemas, using two or more existing mental templates to allow people to understand what they encounter in innovative objects or processes... the placing of one well-understood narrative into a new situation. Recontextualizing familiar behavior, for example, allows the use of known body actions in novel situations. A critical reader can recognize the different schema in the projected stack and read them both separately and in combination'. The present study attempts such an act of recontextualization in Chapter Four.

by complementing written text with effective semantic support in multiple modalities.... These interactive capacities are not simply an added pathway to understanding a text; they change the basic way the text is understood....²⁰⁸

Goodman and Gradoll (1996) also note that multimodal texts are characterized by ‘border crossing’ in that they erase the distinction between formal and informal writing and use, for example, advertising strategies where one would not expect such strategies to be used.²⁰⁹ Such texts are thus not simply multimedia texts but multimodal. The notion of multimodality encompasses not only electronic media but also ordinary workplace genres that become transformed in social practice, as Chapter Four of this study strives to show. If the language teacher in South Africa is to adopt a critical approach to literacy, one that is concomitant with the principles of Curriculum 2005/C21, then he or she should select texts, for decoding and production, in accordance with the workplace and the principles of a critical literacy.

The first criterion relates to content. One could argue that skill is paramount over the content of a text. Authentic use, not authentic content, develops skills. The discussion surrounding the entrepreneurial concerns of one critic cited at the beginning of this section serves as evidence for such an assumption. But the principles of a critical literacy, as previously discussed, call for ‘content’ that enables the learner to contemplate ‘language itself’ and ‘... the limits for understanding [what he or she]

208 Back, 2004:157-158.

209 Goodman and Gradoll, 1996:141.

can do with [his or her] language...’ in a ‘planned’ and ‘elaborate’ manner.²¹⁰ For this reason, content, literary or otherwise, is important.

The second criterion relates to the ability of texts to stimulate language production in terms of the discourses that inform its (English’s) ‘hegemony’. In other words, texts should draw the attention of the learner to the ways in which hegemony or dominance and identity are constructed through language; the learner should learn how to interrogate the structure of such discourse and re-produce it by engaging critically with it. Ultimately, the material should ‘... [make] explicit its grounds...’, enable the learner to engage ‘... critically and constructively...’ with the language and thus yield English that is ‘enriched’ and that ‘... provides a useful bridge into expository written language...’.²¹¹

The third criterion relates to appropriating the English language for the learner’s own use. In this regard, he or she must have access to standard forms. In this way, the learner can produce written English as ‘public discourse’ while retaining ‘multiple’ and ‘shifting’ ‘vernacular’ codes and draw ‘... variously on the resources of a single language [in this case English]’.²¹²

²¹⁰ Wallace, 2002:106.

²¹¹ *Ibid.*

²¹² Wallace, 2002:106. Cf. Bond, 2000:312 who describes a programme in South Africa that attempts to implement these principles. The Associate in Management Programme (AIM) at the University of the Witwatersrand in South Africa, for example, ‘... seeks to develop the functional skills, integrated knowledge, personal awareness and self-confidence needed to manage effectively in an environment of diversity, uncertainty and change’.

The preceding discussion offers guidelines for the selection of texts, guidelines that are consistent with the theoretical position adopted in this study. In Chapter Two, specific workplace skills are identified. The lists of skills cited there, together with the principles outlined above, provide clearer guidelines on the selection of useful texts. Although literary texts fulfil the criteria of a critical literacy, this study asserts that Arts and Culture, another Learning Area in Curriculum 2005/C21, might offer a better home for literature and that the Learning Area that Literature currently shares with language teaching, namely “Languages”, should be devoted to workplace skills. The Learning Outcomes for Languages specify both literary and general language outcomes. From the perspective of this study, it appears that the split attention that these subjects receive is not advantageous to the learner. In the next section, the observations of the foregoing discussion are integrated into a working theory of language commensurate with the aims of this thesis: the preparation of learners for the workplace.

1.3.4 Guidelines for a critical literacy theory of (English) workplace skills

From the preceding discussion in this chapter, the following pertinent observations emerge:

- The meaning of literacy is not given but is ‘ideological’.
- Higher cognitive skills are not automatically acquired in reading and writing.

- Globalization has highlighted the demand for critical workplace literacy and the notion of the workplace itself, owing, for example, to e-commuting, has changed.
- The principles of an empowering critical literacy are not at odds with those of Curriculum 2005/C21.
- These principles are also not at odds with communicative language teaching principles as Pennycook (1994), for example, argues and they recognize the value of different learning styles. A critical approach to literacy means enabling learners to acquire both standard language forms and higher critical cognitive skills; the focus is on encoding and decoding multimodal texts using a variety of literacies.

The observations listed above form a framework for a critical literacy of workplace skills. This framework is developed as the argument proceeds. In Chapter Two, the notion of ‘work’ is explored in order to show that language tasks that address the workplace can become ‘work’ in both a classroom and workplace sense. In Chapter Three, the compatibility of communicative language teaching principles with those of a critical literacy, as outlined above, and Curriculum 2005 is established. A summary of the argument in the remaining chapters is offered below.

1.3.5 A brief overview of the essential argument

A brief summary of the argument is set out in the following sub-sections.

1.3.5.1 synopsis of the introduction

The argument of this thesis, as outlined in the Introduction, strives to show that:

- a race/class-based distinction between mental and manual skills produced a form of education that did not strive to prepare all learners for the workplace;
- international economic interdependence, in the form of globalization, is a significant catalyst to social, economic and educational change;
- preparing learners for the (global) workplace is not the same as supporting globalisation *per se*;
- the alleged weaknesses of Curriculum 2005/C21 relate to the way it has been implemented and not its fundamental principles.

1.3.5.2 synopsis of the first chapter

Chapter One sets out the research methodology employed in this study. It includes the literature study and describes the research hypotheses underpinning the argument of this project. The relationship between economics and education is not deterministic and so, by means of a critical approach to literacy, the subject boundaries of English can be shifted to include workplace skills. Finally, Chapter One describes the theories of language and learning adopted in this study.

1.3.5.3 synopsis of the second chapter

Chapter Two redefines work in such a way that there is no longer a gap between work that is done in the classroom and work that is done in the workplace. This resolution presupposes that workplace English skills are pursued in the classroom. The qualitative evaluation of the sources used includes a discussion on the relevance of qualifications. Of central importance to the thesis of this study is the demonstration, following the redefinition of work, of the compatibility of the principles of Curriculum 2005/C21 with those underpinning workplace English skills.

1.3.5.4 synopsis of the third chapter

In Chapter Three, a qualitative analysis of selected and generally accepted English communicative language teaching principles with a view to demonstrating the compatibility of these principles with those of the newest South African curriculum and those that inhere in workplace English skills. Following this analysis, the argument proposes a tentative theory of workplace English skills.

1.3.5.5 summary of the argument in the fourth chapter and the conclusion

Using the tentative theory outlined in Chapter Three, Chapter Four constructs a model for the design of workplace literacy tasks, incorporating the key elements of the argument of this study. This model is then applied to the construction of two

workplace literacy training tasks. These tasks are designed so that they reflect the theoretical concerns of English language teaching. A qualitative and quantitative analysis of these tasks, after they were subjected to testing in a Grade 9 classroom, is offered. Finally, the findings of this analysis are extrapolated to the research hypotheses of this study as well as to the tentative theory of workplace English skills formulated in Chapter Three. Appropriate theoretical adjustments are made and conclusions drawn. The study concludes with a synopsis of the findings and a proposal for further avenues for research.

CHAPTER TWO

2.1 Overview of the argument and introduction to Chapter Two

This thesis begins, in the Introduction, by highlighting the five variables that point to the necessity of introducing workplace skills through the medium of English at secondary school level in South Africa.¹ The literature survey in Chapter One confirms that language use and language teaching are ultimately about producing meaning in social contexts; the discussion on language and theories of language teaching reinforces the social nature of language teaching that is communicative in its fundamental concerns but also task-based.

Chapter Two develops the thesis of this study by attempting to resolve conceptual obstacles to integrating workplace English skills into Curriculum 2005/C21. The first of these obstacles concerns the openness of the school to societal forces. If the school is not open to the forces shaping society, then the fact that globalisation is currently altering the face of most societies is quite irrelevant. As has been argued in the Introduction, this is not the case.² The second obstacle concerns the nature of work. If the work that is done in the workplace and the work that is done in the school bear no relation to each other, then that which is done in the school, though it may be a metaphor for what is done in the workplace, remains divorced from the workplace

1 These variables are: the distinction between mental and manual labour, the rise of globalisation, the implementation of outcomes-based education in South Africa, the dominance of the English language in the world, the rise of English as a field of study and the distinction between workplace English skills and literary English.

2 Commenting on the university – an educational environment as important if not more important than the school in a developing country – Dowling and Seepe, 2004:186 note that '[o]ur universities are subject to the pressures of society and to the imperatives of the government of the day. There is now a public and governmental expectation that [they]... have to relate to social and cultural development and national building'.

and could become disconnected from economic realities. This chapter attempts to define the parameters of workplace English skills and it offers a brief overview of the structure of the newest curriculum in South Africa. It then argues that Curriculum 2005/C21, at the level of principle, provides a solid framework within which workplace English skills can be introduced into the language classroom, and posits a tentative theory of workplace English skills. The broad context within which this theory is applied is, of course, the school and a brief discussion of the role of the school therefore follows.

2.2 School and work

Ingemar Gustafsson (1987) states that the role of the school in spreading ideologies about work is to motivate learners to work and, secondly, ‘... to justify changing methods of production or the social organisation of work [and to prepare learners for these changes]’.³ There appears to be a commonsense attitude regarding the relationship between education and economics; this attitude is clearly evident in the headline of the *Mail and Guardian*’s ‘Getting Ahead’ section of August 11-17, 2000 that reads: ‘Education vs. the market’. Gustafsson’s claim implies that the school is an agent for change, as does the heading; the caption heading implies that the school and the market are in opposition to each other. Both quotations imply that work and education are opposed to each other. In an attempt to resolve this perceived opposition, this thesis asserts that education becomes relevant and therefore meaningful only when it prepares learners for life in society; and life in society

³ Gustafsson, 1987:34.

includes earning a living.⁴

Life in society includes life in the workplace. This is not to say, however, as has already been argued in the Introduction to this study, that the school should or does justify the oppressive economic practices that some have argued are promoted by globalisation. This study seeks a resolution to the education/market dichotomy by contending that schools can fulfil both commonly accepted obligations of schools: preparing learners for life and preparing them to be economically active and effective. Unfortunately, there ‘... are relatively few studies which have analysed the relationship between productive work programmes in schools and the world of work in the wider sense of the word’.⁵ What is certain, however, is that the school is a system open to the forces that shape society.⁶ Thus, whatever happens to a society invariably affects the schooling system. The education/work dichotomy (described above) rests on a presumed gap between the workplace and the school.

2.3 Redefining work

A distinction should be made between doing and work. The former has to do with the manner in which people become human and the latter, with what they need to stay alive.⁷ The notion of work deserves some elaboration as it is central to the argument of this study.

⁴ In the Introduction to this study, the argument cites Anthony O’Hear’s 1981:33 observation that ‘... people’s concepts of education and its aims are never independent of their general social and ethical ideals’.

⁵ Gustafsson, 1987:9.

⁶ Badenhorst, 1987:129.

⁷ Gustafsson, 1987:11.

... [P]eople work in order to survive. We do things that change the world around us, so that we can meet our needs for survival. Firstly, we have to produce food and clothes and shelter so that we can keep ourselves alive. But then we also have to make sure that we can continue to do this in the future. Farmers need to sow and harvest, and sow again. Factory owners need to make sure that machines can be fixed if they break down; they need to make sure that goods can be made and sold tomorrow, as well as today. So, we work for two main reasons:

- to meet our immediate needs for survival [and]
- to meet our needs for renewal.

Work is a central human activity – the way we work – the way we produce and renew our conditions affects almost everything we do. It affects where we live and how we spend our days. It affects how we see ourselves, and it affects our relationships with other people. It also affects the material conditions under which we live.

At different times different societies have survived and renewed themselves by doing different sorts of work. For example, South Africa was once a land economy. People lived off the land. They produced what they needed: food, clothes and shelter from the land. People worked together, and children learned the ways of the society from their parents and the people around them. Today South Africa is a capitalist country, based on wealth from industries and mines. The society provides schools for children to learn. The work we do and our way of life have changed enormously. In fact, the basic system of production has changed so much that we can call it a revolution – *Industrial Revolution* [my emphasis].⁸

The above quotation extends Gustafsson's much shorter circumscription of work. It also introduces the notion of successive economic revolutions. These revolutions, as has globalisation, have significantly altered the way people used to work. Work, as a concept, has many facets and it relates

- to the type of activity;
- to the attainment of a certain goal;
- to the end product;
- to a transformation of nature [and]

⁸ Christie, 1989:177-178.

- to social relationships.⁹

The above characteristics define the kind of work that takes place outside the school, but this study asserts, below, that the work that is done in schools could also fit these descriptions.¹⁰

A further distinction between productive work and education-as-process is possible.

Productive work results in consumable objects. That is, work relates

- to [a] type of [workplace] activity;
- to [an] attainment of a certain [commercial] goal;
- to [an] end product [for sale and consumption];
- to [a] transformation of [raw materials or information] [and]
- to social [workplace] relationships.¹¹

Education-as-process suggests that what the process does to learners is paramount.

The notion of process is also relevant in language work, as Chapter Three asserts.

These two definitions are thus distinct from each other. Working in a school garden, for example, can achieve both the production of consumable goods and the facilitation of knowledge, as conveyed in the concept of education-as-process.

Learners may grow vegetables that can be consumed or sold but they also learn about the various relationships comprising the ecosystem. Not only do the learners transform nature, they are also transformed through the learning process. Gustafsson appears to conflate the historically racist distinction (in the South African context) between mental and manual labour, discussed in the Introduction to this research

⁹ Gustafsson, 1987:11.

¹⁰ Cf. footnote 2 in the present chapter.

¹¹ Gustafsson, 1987:11-12.

study.¹² His conflation of this distinction can be demonstrated by way of example.

In planning a vegetable garden, learners respond to society's demands by organizing social relationships in the school so that they (the learners) can engage in an activity, the goal of which is to transform nature by producing vegetables. These vegetables can then be sold. Work is thus a term that can be applied to various activities that may differ in terms of type, goal, product, and needs met or ability to transform nature; and these activities may also function differently in the context of social relationships. Despite the fact that the work that is done in the workplace usually involves some form of remuneration, all work-related activities have two fundamental characteristics in common: a process and a product.¹³ Even unpaid work is characterized by this distinction. Not all work is paid. There is voluntary work and remunerated work. In some service industries, training (in the sense of apprenticeship) work is not always remunerated. All kinds of work-related tasks, however, paid or unpaid, share the characteristics of process and product.

The value of purely academic qualifications, such as the school-leaving certificate in South Africa, is questionable in the light of Gustafsson's argument.¹⁴

12 In the Introduction to this study, the argument cites a submission to the Natal Native Commission in which manual labour ('industry') is relegated to 'Natives' and mental labour is reserved for South Africans of European descent. Lebea, 2004:2 notes that a job creation scheme in 'Ivory Park' equips youth '[f]ormerly unemployed... with technical and entrepreneurial skills...' resulting in about 80 per cent of the "graduates" of the programme finding work.

13 Cf. Merkestein, 1998:49, who questions whether '... this dichotomy is real'. She notes that one could approach the study of a text by regarding it as either a process or product. This present study conflates the distinction in the present chapter as well as in Chapters Three and Four.

14 Writing in the context of language teaching, Lewis, 2002:18 notes that '... most teachers [are concerned] with the product...' when, in fact, learning '... is about process...'.

2.4 Academic qualifications and work

In his study, *Schools and the Transformation of Work*, Gustafsson (1987) notes that

... [educational programmes] [in Zimbabwe and Botswana] share a common characteristic of student involvement in productive work and the strong belief among their founders that student involvement in productive work is a way of establishing a closer relationship between education and the world of work.¹⁵

Ironically, despite the relative poverty of most African states,

[the] capacity of post-colonial governments to put up schools has been phenomenal. The proportion of children attending primary school in developing countries has doubled in the past three decades, rising from 35 per cent [*sic*] in 1950, to 75 per cent in 1990. Today 120 million more children are enrolled in primary school than were attending just a decade ago (now totalling 500 million). In Africa, the number of children attending school continues to grow at 5 per cent a year, far surpassing population growth and despite only slight economic growth.¹⁶

Gustafsson (1987) pre-empts the irony suggested by Fuller (1991), above, by noting earlier that

... [the] hammering out of policies [for greater continuity between school and the world of work] was accompanied by... resistance to such schemes from young people and their parents whose main ambition was to improve their living standard outside the rural environment. Experience told them that the best way to achieve this was by acquiring high *academic* qualifications [my emphasis].¹⁷

¹⁵ Gustafsson, 1987:2.

¹⁶ Fuller, 1991:3. Cf. Lickindorf, 2004:2 who notes that '[f]or years, the World Bank fostered the belief that primary education offered greater individual and social returns than higher education. But in the 1990s the pendulum swung back.... Higher education is again unequivocally endorsed, but there is a danger in overemphasising its role in advancing economic competitiveness which could bring undue emphasis on labour-market needs, at the expense of wider social and cultural contributions'. In the context of this study, this trend need not cause concern. This study proposes that culture should be addressed in an appropriate Learning Area at school – Arts and Culture.

¹⁷ Gustafsson, 1987:2. Paper Qualification Syndrome (PQS) and Unemployment of School Leavers: a comparative sub-regional study, in Oxenham: 1982:s.p., published under the aegis of the International Labour Office in Addis Ababa, echoes this view.

As early 1982, as is indicated in *Paper Qualification Syndrome (PQS) and Unemployment of School Leavers: a comparative sub-regional study* (Oxenham, 1982) it had become clear that these qualifications meant very little to developing African economies in that ‘... in what is called the “Third World”... mass schooling was not delivering on its promises’.¹⁸

In her work, *The Right to Learn*, Pam Christie (1989) also questions the value of certificates and qualifications when she explicitly states that

[i]t’s easy to see that certificates are tied to jobs. But how does the link actually work? Obviously certificates alone don’t guarantee jobs.... But it’s also true that in our society we can’t do certain jobs if we don’t have qualifications. It’s true that some jobs do need training. Imagine an untrained bridge-builder! But does training necessarily imply certificates? What function do certificates and qualifications play in our society?¹⁹

This regrettable situation arose because of an educational policy that ‘... separates educational qualifications from occupations and treats them as if they were sources of income in their own right’.²⁰ Thus, ‘... it is deduced, usually implicitly, that educational inequality is one of the main causes of economic inequality’.²¹ The result is a ‘... deep popular expectation [in the Third World] that mass schooling connotes the spread of mass opportunity’.²² Two years after the latter pronouncement, a similar view was aired at the Southern African Conference on Relevant Education. It was

18 Elsewhere in the Paper Qualification report, the argument of that report suggests that the number of positions available to academically trained employees in the African countries surveyed in the study do not match the number of job seekers. The result is a new class of disillusioned and educated young people who were unemployed. Cf. Fuller, 1982:ix and 2.

19 Christie, 1989:188.

20 Hussein, 1981:166.

21 Hussein, 1981:164.

22 Fuller, 1999:3.

noted that education

... has failed to deliver the goods, according to governments, employers, parents and students in both developed and developing countries. The big question is how we can make education respond to both the needs of the individual and those of society. The present education system is accused of being academically biased.... Is vocationalisation [*sic*] the answer? Have we identified the real problem? Can education create jobs?²³

Unfortunately, it is clear that education *per se* does not and cannot create jobs; nor does it guarantee employment even when jobs are available. A curriculum that aspires to prepare learners for the workplace, however, could improve the marketability of South African learners both within the country and in the global labour market.

The reason why South Africa inherited the paper qualification syndrome problem may have something to do with the country's past expectations of schools, reflected in summative (Matriculation) examinations. Traditionally, the work done in South African schools, as in many other African schools as the earlier argument above illustrates, derived and, perhaps still derives, its meaning and content from the reproduction of factual knowledge for end-of-year examinations. This approach to education comes from the tendency to standardise administration and governance (and in many cases, political loyalties!) in many African countries.²⁴ In practice, these examinations have been regarded as instruments for testing the ability of the learner to regurgitate a passing percentage of objective facts. Historically, education in South Africa has taken place in isolation from the economic (but not ideological) realities facing the country, as the Introduction to this study argues. Such an approach to

²³ Mudariki, 1993:133.

²⁴ Fuller, 1991:14. These countries include: Botswana, South Africa, Zimbabwe, Lesotho and Swaziland.

education also insidiously perpetuates the distinction between mental and manual labour. In the case of many independent African countries, mental labour was reserved for a governing élite based on either political loyalties or ethnic bonds or both.²⁵

As early as the 1970s, some of the African countries referred to in Fuller's study attempted to use the disadvantages of examinations to the advantage of learners and their country. Examinations, which were seen as neutral methods of assessing learners' abilities (untainted, that is, by social, racial or family positions), were adapted so that they tested insight and application of general knowledge.²⁶ 'There can never be certainty that candidates do answer [such] questions by using the skills that the question is intended to test...'.²⁷ Relying on examinations alone to assess the ability of the learner is not enough. The following section explores how both a lack of planning and the failure to integrate education and the workplace contributed to the increasing irrelevance of educational qualifications.

The lack of management and planning in the implementation of Curriculum 2005 alluded to in the Introduction to this study can be ascribed to the fact that educators

... tend to be reactors rather than being proactive. For years, others (school boards, legislators, Federal and state governments) have given us our orders [that] we have followed. In truth, regardless of who told us to do what, we are held responsible when things go awry... and they usually do.²⁸

²⁵ *Ibid.*

²⁶ Oxenham, 1982:201, 179.

²⁷ *Op. cit.*, 80.

²⁸ Fuller, 1991:67.

Following Fuller, this present study proposes that educational planners should be proactive by listening to the prevailing voice, that is, by taking their cues from the trends set by globalisation. Similarly, Tom Metrowich (1993) holds the optimistic view that

... [the] business community is in a strong position to help effect the type of educational changes necessary to enable South Africa to become a global economic player while at the same time being involved in the lives of communities at a local level....

Although this will necessitate ‘... active commitment of time, effort, money and management expertise...’.²⁹ Such a partnership, even if it involves participation in curriculum planning only, may succeed where other such partnerships have failed in taking South Africans into the global market effectively.³⁰

To recap, the above discussion has shown that, historically, there has always been a relationship between schools and society but that this relationship has not necessarily translated into a form of education that has striven to prepare learners for the workplace. Furthermore, as has been argued, it is society that defines the meaning of work according to the way it organizes people to transform nature and deliver products for consumption. These social relations, leading to the production of goods,

29 Metrowich, 1993:145. Cf. Anonymous, 2004a:5 who notes that the Democratic Alliance’s (a political party in South Africa) ‘... solution to the skills crisis is to allow businesses, who are by their very nature forward-thinking, to decide which skills will be required in the future’. Cf. Tabane, 2004:6. This view echoes the argument of the present study that notes that globalisation creates the demand for new skills. Business has a say in skills training through the SETAS (Sector Education Training Authorities) and through workplace skills plans that ‘... consist of a list... of priority skills needed by the enterprise [and as a reward for their development of skill]... a percentage of the skills levy is returned to the company...’. Van Zyl, 2004:18 asks: ‘Where does the responsibility lie for preparing graduates adequately for the job market?... employers in the UK are setting the trend by playing a larger role in the education and training of newly employed graduates...’.

30 Pretorius, 2004:8. Of note here is the fact that Business Trust, a group of businesses committed to assisting in the funding of the Further Education and Training Band (Grades 10-12) will cease its support in 2004.

are reproduced in schools. In South Africa prior to 1994, schools reflected the ideology of apartheid and its distinction between mental and manual labour. As in many other African countries, as the preceding discussion shows, a system of education that is out of step with economic realities soon exacts a high price from the societies concerned.³¹ Education that is divorced from the economic realities of a nation offers learner mere certificates (the so-called “paper qualifications syndrome”) that do not represent any specific skills that are useful in a developing economy.³² Thus, in order to equip learners for the workplace, it follows that learners need to be equipped with workplace English skills, the kinds of skills identified in the next section.

2.5 Discovering workplace English skills

In the Introduction to this study, the former South African Minister of Education, Kader Asmal, is cited as supporting a system of (secondary) education that takes the ‘new millennium realities’, such as globalisation, into consideration.³³ The concerns employers have over the absence of crucial workplace skills in students is not the sole concern of tertiary institutions. Since current legislation allows learners to leave

31 Pam Christie’s work *The Right to Learn* (1989) provides ample evidence of the ways in which the National Party government promoted its ideology through State education from 1948-1994.

32 Although not of immediate relevance to this study, some examples of attempts to link work and education in Africa deserve mention. In the 1970s and 1980s the Serowe Brigades in Botswana attempted to establish quasi-socialist communities which sought to pool labour and share profits from various agricultural and small-scale industrial activities. In-fighting brought these projects to an end. In Tanzania, former president Julius Nyerere pursued a policy of education for self-reliance, that is, independence from Western powers. His approach to education made room for both formal training in the classroom and practical work experience in the fields or workshops. Learners also had to go out into rural areas and share their knowledge with others. Of note is the fact that this programme was undertaken through the medium of the Swahili language. Sarah Murray and Liz Johanson’s, 1993:137-145; 274-275, *Read to Learn* contains informative and brief accounts of the projects described above.

33 Cf. Spady and Schlebusch, 1999:16.

school at the end of Grade 9 and to enter the labour market, the present study argues that workplace skills should be introduced early on in the senior phase so that Grade 9 learners are equipped with some of the essential workplace skills they might require in the workplace.³⁴ Cowley (2002) notes the existence of ‘under prepared learners [ULs]’ and the inability of workplace trainers to meet the needs of these newcomers to the workplace.³⁵ ULs are characterised by their ‘disadvantaged socio-economic background’, ‘disadvantaged education’, ‘limited English proficiency’ and non-European/Western culture.³⁶

As early as 1985, in their study of the workplace, Judith Roizen and Mark Jepson (1985) note that a ‘... substantial number of comments [from employers cited in their study] urge closer links between industry and higher education institutions...’ in the form of core workplace skills which are those

... core skills that employees need to do their jobs successfully.... Workplace basic skills include literacy skills and other important skills, attitudes and behaviors [*sic*] that are essential to workplace success and high performance.³⁷

In the context of globalisation, literacy is essentially the ability to communicate, in a broad sense, in English.³⁸ At the same time, the kind of English this study endorses as the medium through which these skills should be taught is a critical ‘literate’ English

34 Cf. Figure 2.1. Grade 9 is the last year in the Senior Phase of the General Education and Training Band (GET). Grades Ten to Twelve form the Further Education and Training Band (FET).

35 Cowley, 2002:28-40. Cf *Op. cit.*, 33 where Cowley notes that these trainers ‘...were aware that ESP [English for Specific Purposes such as English for the workplace or academic English] does play a part in learning, they did not necessarily have a thorough understanding of its central role in the learning process’.

36 Cowley, 2002:31.

37 Roizen and Jepson, 1985:134 and www.workplacebasicskills.com/nonframe/workplaceskills/workplacebasicskills.htm. Accessed 20/10/2003.

38 Boiarsky, 1997:17.

as described in Chapter One. This kind of English empowers the learner in that it provides more than mere stock responses to predictable commercial communicative contexts.³⁹ In order to show that a critical literate English can be accommodated within Curriculum 2005/C21, a brief overview of the essential structures of the Curriculum 2005/C21 follows. This overview describes only the essential structures needed to show conceptual similarity between Curriculum 2005/C21, language teaching principles and workplace skills.

2.6 A brief overview of Curriculum 2005/C21

Outcomes-based education is an approach to the process of education that involves

[d]efining, organising, focusing and directing all aspects of an instructional and credentialing system in relation to the things we want ALL [*sic*] learners to demonstrate successfully when they exit the system.⁴⁰

It is criterion-based in the sense that the outcomes are criteria or targets that learners must meet before being deemed successful in the Learning Area delineated by those outcomes. In this sense, outcomes-based education ‘... has been around since the 1960s, evolving from mastery-learning and competency-based education’.⁴¹

Under this system, what a learner does at each stage of his or her life-long

39 Tangential but of interest is the possibility that “McCommunication” – as described by Block (2002) – is ultimately a variant of the audio-lingual method. Both these methods share the constricting methodology of providing stock responses to stock situations that do not take into consideration the subtle variations on communication contexts that often arise during real-life social and commercial interaction.

40 Kilfoil, 1999:9. Cf. Spady and Schlebusch, 1999:50-51 who argue that outcomes-based education is not about ‘points’ but ‘criteria’ that cannot be ‘averaged’.

41 Kilfoil, 1999:7.

commitment to education has an effect on his or her ability to work and his or her self-development in a practical and concrete way. At every stage, there is recognition of what he or she can actually do and there is also an accommodating and enthusiastic expectation of what he or she can become. This, at the risk of oversimplifying outcomes-based education, is the spirit that informs Curriculum 2005/C21.⁴²

As previously mentioned in the Introduction, the Critical Cross-field Outcomes must inform the structure and content of all learning programmes in South Africa. The processes of registering all programmes, including public secondary educational programmes, and ensuring that they comply with the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) criteria are monitored by the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA). By law, all institutions offering any form of education or training must register themselves and their courses with SAQA.

The National Qualifications Framework (see Figure 2.1 on the following page) is a structure that organizes all levels of education in South Africa. Grade 9, the level with which this study is concerned, offers the first exit level in the General Education and Training Band. An exit level indicates the point at which a learner exits a particular training band.⁴³ At this point, a learner may leave school or he or she could enter

⁴² Monau, 1997:12.

⁴³ SAQA also recognizes the principle of Recognition of Prior Learning (RPL). A learner who has never had any training, for example, but has worked in an industry for a number of years may apply for RPL. An assessor or various assessors will then determine, according to the outcomes set for courses in that industry, whether the learner has achieved those outcomes. If so, the learner is awarded the appropriate certification. Figure 2.1 in the present chapter describes the levels of life-long learning recognized by SAQA through its National Qualifications Framework (NQF). SAQA, as Van Zyl, 2004:18 would concur, creates a ‘... regulatory

another training programme that is more practical in nature.

SCHOOL GRADE	NQF LEVEL	BAND	DEGREE, DIPLOMA & CERTIFICATE	
	8		Doctorates and further research degrees	
	7		First degrees, diplomas and certificates	
	6			
	5			
12 (Exit level 2)	4	Further	School College NGO's Training Certificates	
11	3			
10	2			
9 (Exit level 1)	1	General	Senior (Grades 7–9)	ABET 4
8			Intermediate (Grades 4–6)	ABET 3
7				
6			Pre–School and Foundation (R – 3)	ABET 2
5				
4				
3				
2				
1				ABET 1

Figure 2.1 The National Qualifications Framework (Department of National Education, 1997:30)

The danger exists that outcomes become the focus of learning and not the actual skills delineated by these outcomes. Furthermore, even skills can become constricting in that they limit language use, for example, to very specific contexts. However, the Critical Cross-field Outcomes in Curriculum 2005/C21 are very broad indeed and so this danger is not immediate. That is, each outcome points to a vast range of skills. Thus, in essence, Curriculum 2005/C21 does not promote “McCommunication” either through its Critical Cross-field Outcomes or Learning Outcomes for each Learning Area.

environment [that] ensures that higher education [and, by extension as argued earlier, secondary education] providers are developing curricula that are relevant to the needs of the economy, and that the programmes will adequately prepare graduates for the job market’.

The Critical Cross-field Outcomes that exist to guide any learning programme designed in the context of Curriculum 2005/C21 are:

1. [to] identify and solve problems in which responses display that responsible decisions using critical and creative thinking have been made;
2. [to] work effectively with others as members of a team, group, organisation and community;
3. [to] organize and manage oneself and one's activities responsibly and effectively;
4. [to] collect, analyse, organize and critically evaluate information;
5. [to] communicate effectively using visual, mathematical and/or language skills in the modes of oral and/or written presentation;
6. [to] use science and technology effectively and critically, showing responsibility towards the environment and health of others; [and]
7. [to] demonstrate an understanding of the world as a set of interrelated problems by recognizing that problem-solving contexts do not exist in isolation.⁴⁴

These outcomes are umbrella outcomes in that they cover all Learning Areas.

Furthermore,

... it must be the intention underlying any programme of learning to make an individual aware of the importance of:

1. reflecting on and exploring a variety of strategies to learn more effectively,
2. participating as a responsible citizen in the life of local, national and global communities,
3. being culturally and aesthetically sensitive across a range of social contexts,
4. exploring education and career opportunities, [and]
5. developing entrepreneurial opportunities.⁴⁵

Each Learning Area, in addition to the above-stated outcomes, has its own Learning

⁴⁴ Department of National Education, 2002:1-2. Cf. Spady and Schlebusch, 1999:70-71.

⁴⁵ *Ibid.* Lewis, 2002:105-106 argues that there is in '... education a hidden agenda which seeks to develop particular intellectual skills, the most important of which are involved in: [i]dentifying problems; collecting information, data and evidence; classifying data by recognising similarity and difference; ranking, making hierarchies, separating more from less important; evaluating evidence and argument; estimating, so that the plausibility of an answer may be evaluated; taking decisions based on complete or partial data [and] communicating results effectively'.

Outcomes.⁴⁶ A Learning Outcome guides those who design learning programmes by constructing a framework within which relevant skills can be identified and within which learning activities that pursue the acquisition of these skills can be designed.

There are six Learning Outcomes for Languages.

- **LO1(Listening)** The learner is able to listen for information and enjoyment and respond appropriately and critically in a wide range of situations.
- **LO2 (Speaking)** The learner is able to communicate confidently and effectively in spoken language in a wide range of situations.
- **LO3 (Reading and Viewing)** The learner is able to read and view for information and enjoyment and respond critically to the aesthetic, cultural and emotional values in texts.
- **LO4 (Writing)** The learner is able to write different kinds of factual and imaginative texts for a wide range of purposes.
- **LO5 (Thinking and Reasoning)** The learner is able to use language to think and reason, and access, process and use information for learning.
- **LO6 (Language Structure and Use)** The learner will know and be able to use the sounds, words and grammar of the language to create and interpret texts.⁴⁷

These outcomes represent the concerns of the major approaches to language teaching that are synthesized into this study's theory of language in Chapter One. That is, that language teaching and learning are about the production of meaning – an act that empowers the individual.

Similarly, and by way of example, the first Learning Outcome that states that '[t]he learner is able to listen for information and enjoyment and respond appropriately and critically in a wide range of situations', clearly shows that the situations in which the

⁴⁶ There are eight Learning Areas. This study is concerned with Languages and, indirectly, Arts and Culture. The argument of this thesis proposes that literature should be shifted to Arts and Culture and that the English language classroom be devoted to workplace skills.

⁴⁷ Department of National Education, 2002:91-92.

skill is demonstrated are not specified; rather, the scope of the skill is shown to be wide.⁴⁸ The same can be said of the second Learning Outcome that states that ‘[t]he learner is able to communicate confidently and effectively in spoken language in a wide range of situations’.⁴⁹ In both instances, the breadth of the outcomes implies an approach that does not teach specific structures but rather skills, thus empowering the learner to produce meaning and not predetermined and limited segments of meaning.

“McCommunication” does not underpin Learning Outcome 3 that states that ‘[t]he learner is able to read and view for information and enjoyment and respond critically to the aesthetic, cultural and emotional values in texts’ since the learner’s response is not limited to commercial interests but also aesthetic and cultural ones – suggesting the kind of critical literacy advocated by Lamberti (1999) in Chapter One of the present study.⁵⁰ The workplace will increasingly become multicultural, especially in a country such as South Africa. As is demonstrated in the next section, effective communication skills are therefore vital to ensure the smooth running of multicultural workplaces.

Curriculum 2005/C21 recognizes the need to empower learners to function in multicultural workplaces as is evident from its guiding principles, listed earlier above after the Critical Cross-field Outcomes. It is clear that Curriculum 2005/C21 encourages cross-cultural communication in that it encourages the designers of

⁴⁸ Department of National Education, 2002:91-92.

⁴⁹ *Ibid.*

⁵⁰ *Op. cit.*, 1-2.

learning programmes to ensure that the learner participates ‘... as a responsible citizen in the life of local, national and global communities’ and that the learner is ‘... culturally and aesthetically sensitive across a range of social contexts’.⁵¹ Thus, both Curriculum 2005/C21 and workplace English skills are founded on the principle of mutual respect. Learning Outcomes 4, 5 and 6 demonstrate that Curriculum 2005/C21 promotes widely applicable knowledge; in contrast to the National Party’s content-based curriculum, this newer curriculum also favours competence in language use over very limited uses such as those critiqued by Cameron (2002) as demonstrated in Chapter One.⁵²

Theoretically, and at the risk of oversimplifying Curriculum 2005/C21, these outcomes identify the intended result of whatever is done in a Learning Area. Thus, two English teachers working at different schools could focus on Learning Outcome 2 (Speaking). One teacher could assign a short skit as a task whereas another teacher could assign a role-playing task. In both instances, learners could be said to have used language (confidently) in different situations. The Assessment Criteria, not central to the argument of this study, assist an educator in assessing whether his or her learners

51 Department of National Education, 2002:1-2. It is clear from even a cursory survey of the Critical Cross-field Outcomes, that Curriculum 2005 encapsulates the principles of the modern workplace. Problem solving (including holistic or systemic approaches to problem-solving) enjoys high priority in the list of Critical Cross-field Outcomes and, as is demonstrated further below, features in the list of workplace English skills. It goes without saying that problem solving, as it is defined in the Critical Cross-field Outcomes, would include conflict resolution across cultural lines.

52 *Ibid.* ‘LO4 (Writing) The learner is able to write different kinds of factual and imaginative texts for a wide range of purposes’, ‘LO5 (Thinking and Reasoning) The learner is able to use language to think and reason, and access, process and use information for learning’ and ‘LO6 (Language Structure and Use) The learner will know and be able to use the sounds, words and grammar of the language to create and interpret texts’.

had achieved an aspect of that outcome by stipulating a wide range of situations that have to be addressed in order to achieve an outcome.

On a macro-planning level, learning is organized in such a way that as many aspects of an outcome in a Learning Area as possible are addressed in a learner's school career. For example, in addition to role-playing, writing and performing skits, learners could engage in a telephone conversation, manage a conflict situation or give directions to a foreign tourist, to name but a few examples. Each task in the above list puts the learner in another situation and requires him or her to use different sets of discourse, register, tone and gestures, for each situation.

Admittedly, the definition of workplace English skills offered under section 2.5 above is broad and has, for convenience sake, been repeated here as a footnote.⁵³ What is certain, however, is that '[t]he new workplace of the 1990s [and the twenty-first century] is communication-intensive'.⁵⁴ Since '... globalisation changes the conditions under which language learning takes place...', and, since the most visible changes to societies under globalisation are economic, it should come as no surprise that '... the linguistic skills of workers at all levels take on new importance...' and

53 www.landofsixpeoples.com/news02/nc204254.htm. Accessed 20/10/2002. Workplace English skills are those '... core skills that employees need to do their jobs successfully. These skills are critical to the success of modern businesses. They are also crucial in the public sector Workplace basic skills include literacy skills and other important skills, attitudes and behaviors [sic] that are essential to workplace success and high performance. Gaining basic skills also has a positive impact on employees' attitudes and behaviors . This is often just as valuable to employers as the skills gain[ed]....'

54 Block and Cameron, 2002:5. Cf. A.P. Carnevale (1990), L. Harvey (1997), Carol Boiarsky (1997) and Wendy Kilfoil (1997). Cf. Boiarsky, 1997:24-100 and Kilfoil, 1997:227 for a list of communicative workplace skills. These skills apply equally to divergent industries such as '... manufacturing, health services, office services, retail trades and accommodations and food services'. Cf. Boiarsky, 1997:23 and Spady and Schlebusch, 1999:50-51.

that these skills acquire the status of “linguistic capital” – a term coined by Pierre Bourdieu in 1991.⁵⁵ Extending the argument in the Introduction to this thesis, workplace skills in English have, in fact, great linguistic capital, a value arising not from any intrinsic value but rather from extraneous economic and historical conditions.

As stated earlier, the purpose in providing the preceding overview of the content of Curriculum 2005/C21 is to match its Critical Cross-field Outcomes and Learning Outcomes with workplace skills to show that Curriculum 2005/C21 does not clash in any way with the fundamental principles of workplace skills. As noted already, Workplace English skills can easily be accommodated within Curriculum 2005/C21.⁵⁶ These workplace English skills have been tabled (see Table 2.1) and numbered to facilitate comparison and referencing.⁵⁷

The tables that follow match a particular workplace skill with corresponding Critical Cross-field Outcomes and Learning Outcomes. The first column in each table lists a workplace skill. The second column lists corresponding Learning Outcomes in Languages, the Learning Area under discussion in this study. The third column lists

55 Block and Cameron, 2002:5. The authors also note that ‘[s]ome commentators have suggested that languages are coming to be treated more and more as economic commodities, and that this view is displacing traditional ideologies in which languages were primarily symbols of ethnic or national identity’. Cf. Wright, 2002:10.

56 Department of National Education, 2002:1-2. The inclusion of critical-thinking skills in the list of desirable workplace English skills clearly shows that workplace English skills aim at empowering the learner. Similarly, Curriculum 2005/C21 encourages the designers of learning programmes to ensure that learners develop entrepreneurial abilities, explore career options that best suit them and finally, reflect on learning strategies that best suit them and the tasks they are required to perform.

57 Undoubtedly, as globalisation takes root in an increasing number of countries, the need to communicate business strategies and the need to facilitate inter-cultural communication will become more urgent.

corresponding Critical Cross-field Outcomes embodied in that particular workplace skill and Learning Outcome.

The first table lists Oral workplace skills. Learning Outcome 2 is directly pertinent here as are Learning Outcomes 5 and 6 that refer, respectively, to thinking/reasoning and language structure. Learning Outcomes 5 and 6 are present in all tasks, as far as Languages as a Learning Area is concerned.

Table 2.1 Workplace Oral Skills and Matching Outcomes

Oral Skills (Listening and Speaking)	Matching Learning Outcomes for Languages	Matching Critical Cross-field Outcome
1. Making formal presentations	1,2,5 and 6	1, 2–7
2. Intervening effectively in meetings	1,2,5 and 6	1,2,5 and 7
3. Participating in group discussions	1,2,5 and 6	1,2,4,5 and 7
4. Persuading clients	1,2,5 and 6	All
5. Informal exchanges of ideas	1 and 2	2,4,5 and 7
6. Telephone skills	1,2,5 and 6	All
The following skills could also be included in this category:		
7. Giving instructions and directions	1,2,5 and 6	1–5 and 7
8. Negotiating, praising and reprimanding	1,2,5 and 6	1–5 and 7
9. Introducing oneself and others	2	2
10. Chairing meetings	All	All
11. Debating	1,2,5 and 6	1–5 and 7

The workplace skill involving the delivery of formal presentations, for example, requires input from four relevant Learning Outcomes for Languages.

- **LO1 (Listening)** The learner is able to listen for information and enjoyment and respond appropriately and critically in a wide range of situations.
- **LO2 (Speaking)** The learner is able to communicate confidently and effectively in spoken language in a wide range of situations.
- **LO5 (Thinking and Reasoning)** The learner is able to use language to think and reason, and access, process and use information for

learning.

- **LO6 (Language Structure and Use)** The learner will know and be able to use the sounds, words and grammar of the language to create and interpret texts.⁵⁸

Making a formal presentation and achieving Learning Outcomes 2 and 5 for Languages, in turn, allow the learner to demonstrate that he or she can achieve the criteria specified by Critical Cross-field Outcomes 2-7 which require the learner to be able:

2. [to] work effectively with others as members of a team, group, organisation and community;
3. [to] organize and manage [him or herself] and [his or her] activities responsibly and effectively;
4. [to] collect, analyse, organize and critically evaluate information;
5. [to] communicate effectively using visual, mathematical and/or language skills in the modes of oral and/or written presentation;
6. [to] use science and technology effectively and critically, showing responsibility towards the environment and health of others; [and]
7. [to] demonstrate an understanding of the world as a set of interrelated problems by recognising that problem-solving contexts do not exist in isolation.⁵⁹

Although some of the skills represented in the skill tables in this section may appear too demanding for Grade 9 learners, these tasks could be adapted for use in the Grade 9 language classroom. The need to make allowances for Grade 9 learners' language ability in no way detracts from the need to introduce these skills at this level. In fact,

⁵⁸ Department of National Education, 2002:91-92. Cameron (2002) notes, as is argued in Chapter One of this thesis, that speaking skills – at once so commonplace and intuitive – have become the focus of concern in corporate communication training programmes. Yet, as the argument in Chapter One (in the context of this study's theory of language) contends, language is about producing meaning and once one adopts this view of language, the traditional distinction between productive (speaking and writing) and receptive skills (reading and listening) becomes redundant. Speaking skills thus incorporate more than actual talk; there is input (listening) that precedes the production of meaning through speaking and writing. In fact, it is difficult to isolate skills in the context of the workplace since work in the workplace is often a process that integrates all skill areas.

⁵⁹ *Op. cit.*, 1-2.

none of the skills represented in, for example, the Oral skills table (Table 2.1) represents a learning task that is alien to the milieu of Grade 9 learners.

Skill 4, for example, that of persuading clients, represents nothing other than the general skill of persuasion. Similarly, skill 8, which involves a modified form of persuasion (negotiation), praise and reprimanding, represents communicative skills of a daily and very practical nature. Finally, in three of the eleven skills above, all Critical Cross-field Outcomes are represented.

Since the Critical Cross-field Outcomes embody the fundamental goals of Curriculum 2005/C21, this concurrence is significant and suggests accordance between workplace skills and Curriculum 2005 at a fundamental level. In at least six instances (skills 2, 3, 6, 7, 8 and 11), most of the Learning Outcomes and Critical Cross-field Outcomes are represented.

A similar degree of concurrence characterises the relationship between workplace writing skills and the Learning Outcomes and Critical Cross-field Outcomes of Curriculum 2005/C21. This degree of concurrence is significant in that the skill of writing is a skill that underpins many other skills. The writing skills in Table 2.2 below are not too demanding for Grade 9 learners since the tasks used to acquire and practise these skills can be adapted to the level of the learners. Table 2.2 shows that, in at least six instances (skills 4, 6, 9, 11, 17 and 18), most of the Learning Outcomes and Critical Cross-field Outcomes are represented in selected workplace skills.

The Learning Outcomes have been conceived in such a way that they imply cross-curricular integration. This suggests that the concurrence described above covers the entire curriculum. That is, the Critical Cross-field Outcomes encapsulate critical skills. These are skills that enable a learner to perform tasks in any learning situation. In fact, these skills enable a learner to learn and, most crucially, to learn to do. Thus, these skills are covered in every Learning Area, confirming a central proposition in this thesis.

These outcomes are meant to guide all learning programmes in South Africa, regardless of the institution offering those programmes. In theory then, if this intention is realized, one can be sure that any given learning programme will impart these critical skills to learners working in those programmes.

Cross-curricular integration also ensures that skills become transferable across a wide range of disciplines. The writing skills in the table that follows are thus clearly widely applicable writing skills – regardless of the context in which they are used. For the sake of cohesion, the table is set out on the following page.

Table 2.2 Workplace Writing Skills and Matching Outcomes

Writing Skills	Matching Learning Outcomes for Languages	Matching Critical Cross-field Outcome
1. Spelling correctly	4	5
2. Writing, sending and reading letters of congratulations, thanks, apology, recommendation, complaint, request, unwelcome news and goodwill	3, 4 and 5	1,4 and 5
3. Writing, sending and reading electronic mail	3, 4 and 5	1,4 and 5
4. Summarising and paraphrasing texts	3, 4 and 5	1,4 and 5
5. Explaining the benefits of certain courses of action by means of reports and reviews	All	1,2,4,5 and 7
6. Recording decisions taken (by means of minutes)	4 and 5	2 and 5
7. Extracting relevant information and recording it concisely	2,5, 6 and 7	1,4 and 5
8. Presenting a plan of action	4,5 and 7	2,3,4,5 and 6
9. Writing and issuing instructions	4,5 and 7	1,4 and 5
10. Recommending action	4,5 and 7	1,2,4,5 and 7
11. Evaluating a situation	2,5,6 and 7	1,4 and 7
12. Designing visual material for different purposes	3, 4 and 5	4,5,6 and 7
13. Filling in forms	3, 4 and 5	4 and 5
14. Writing telegrams	3, 4 and 5	1,4 and 5
15. Writing postcards	3,4 and 5	1,4 and 5
16. Taking notes	4 and 5	4 and 5
17. Making lists	4 and 5	3,4 and 5
18. Writing speeches	2,4 and 5	All
19. Conducting surveys	All	2,3,4,5 and 7

In the table below that represents cognitive skills, it is noteworthy that each workplace cognitive skill represents all Curriculum 2005/C21's fundamental principles – the Critical Cross-field Outcomes. Nine of the eleven workplace skills incorporate most of the Learning Outcomes for Languages.

Table 2.3 Workplace Cognitive Skills and Matching Outcomes

Cognitive Skills	Matching Learning Outcomes for Languages	Matching Critical Cross-field Outcome
1. Teaching oneself	5	All
2. Creative thinking	5	
3. Problem-solving	All	
4. Goal setting	3–5	
5. Making informed decisions	1,3 and 5	
6. Allocating of time and money	3–5	
7. Developing agendas	1,3–5	
8. Skimming/Scanning	3 and 5	
9. Getting information from different sources	1,3–5	
10. Developing budgets	All	
11. Computing costs	All	

The same can be said of the personal management skills in Table 2.4, where three out of four workplace skills embody most of both the Learning Outcomes for Languages and the Critical Cross-field Outcomes.

Table 2.4 Workplace Personal Management Skills and Matching Outcomes

Personal Management Skills	Matching Learning Outcomes for Languages	Matching Critical Cross-field Outcome
1. Feeling good about oneself	2 and 5	3
2. Feeling motivated	2 and 5	1 and 3
3. Taking responsibility	1,3 and 5	1,2,3,5,6 and 7
4. Managing time, the body and daily routine	5	3

From the above discussion, it emerges that at a broad conceptual level, workplace English skills and the Critical Cross-field Outcomes of Curriculum 2005/C21, that is, the broad principles underpinning the newest curriculum, accord with each other in

spirit and often, as is evident from the examples provided, in letter.⁶⁰ Furthermore, it is equally evident that all the skills addressed in this section clearly relate to one or more of the Learning Outcomes and one or more of the Critical Cross-field Outcomes associated with Languages. Finally, specific language skills (reading, writing, listening or speaking) are also associated with the relevant Learning Outcomes. For example, Learning Outcome 2 is associated with speaking. The principles of the Curriculum 2005/C21 are in accordance with those of workplace English skills and these principles, in turn, directly address the Learning Outcomes for Languages. Curriculum 2005/C21 provides a context within which workplace English skills can be introduced to the (English) language classroom.

Workplace English skills aim not only at equipping the learner with the skills necessary to perform tasks for a client but also to work effectively in a multicultural space. In all instances, working together in teams, pairs and groups in a classroom situation features prominently. Similarly, acquiring information, processing it and

⁶⁰ During an interview with Yvonne Mudimu, head of ABET (Adult Basic Education and Training) at Kelloggs Company, in Pretoria on May 14, 2003, this claim was confirmed. The responses were transcribed without making any grammatical changes or corrections. Following questions and answers have been transcribed from that interview. The stance of this thesis regarding literature is that the study of literature should be pursued in the Learning Area known as Arts and Culture, as already noted.

1. Do the principles underpinning workplace skills conflict with the principles of Curriculum 2005 or do they agree with the principles of Curriculum 2005? They agree with them.

2. Would you say that it would be more useful to introduce workplace skills in Grade 9 Languages and do away with literature? Would our students derive more benefit from studying workplace skills than from studying literature? No... no. I think as part of the... the... syllabus they need to choose which route they want to take. If they want to go to university, they could continue to study literature but if already because learners [sic] are academic. Then for those who are not academic... introduce workplace skills. This is my personal opinion.

3. So you would say, look, from Grade, what is it, Grade 5 or 6 when they begin with literature study that we should teach literature but also deal with workplace skills? Yes. For those learners who are not university material. For those then we introduce workplace skills.

then communicating it for a variety of purposes using relevant means and technology play an important role. The same applies to self-management.

In Chapter Three, the focus of the argument shifts to the task of integration the theoretical principles outlined in Chapters One, Two and Three into a working theory of workplace literacy. This theory is then used in Chapter Four to construct a model that can be used to design workplace literacy tasks.

CHAPTER THREE

3.1 Towards a critical literacy approach to workplace skills

Workplace English skills and Curriculum 2005/C21 are, in the light of the preceding discussion, eminently compatible with each other. The principles of a critical literacy are in accordance with the Critical Cross-field Outcomes. However, it remains to be seen whether a critical workplace literacy accords with generally accepted communicative language teaching principles. For this reason, a critical literacy of workplace skills is not simply a matter of adopting a functional-notional or task-based syllabus that is based on workplace literacy in content.¹

3.2 Communicative language teaching practices

In this section of the study, general aspects of communicative language teaching theory are addressed. These aspects are: the distinction between reception and production, competence, process and product in language production, grammar and pronunciation, receptive skills and teaching practices and productive skills and teaching practices.

¹ The lists of workplace related skills tabulated in Chapter Two are not exhaustive since, as already argued, globalization and the advancement of communicative technologies create the demand for new kinds of communicative skills or new applications of existing skills. These skills often imply specific language functions, although language functions are not necessarily communicative goals. As indicated in Chapter One, a weakness of the functional-notional syllabus, and the method of language teaching it implies, is that language is not necessarily learned in pre-packaged functional chunks. Furthermore, it is difficult to grade material in this kind of syllabus since it is difficult to grade a function as opposed to a linguistic concept or structure. A perusal of the lists of workplace skills in Chapter Two reveals just how difficult it is to find a beginning for a programme of workplace skills. The lists of workplace skills also contain workplace skills that involve specific tasks. It is tempting to convert all the skills in these tables into tasks and to adopt a task-based syllabus. However, as with functional-notional syllabuses, it is difficult to grade and therefore organize tasks into a structure that remains conducive to learning a language. That is, although the focus of the argument here is not language acquisition, a critical approach to language teaching requires that learners are capable of more than “McCommunication”.

3.2.1 Reception and production in language teaching

Language skills do not exist in isolation. As the discussion below reveals, communicative language teaching recognises the presence of different skills at any moment in the language learning process. The Communicative Approach to language teaching is useful from the perspective of the present study since being literate in the era of globalization means being able to decode and encode multimodal texts, as argued in Chapter One. The production of these kinds of texts requires the use of different skills at any given time. Reading, for example, is traditionally a ‘receptive’ skill but the discussion on the new literacy in Chapter One shows that reading is active in that the decoding of a text automatically presupposes the construction of meaning, albeit meaning in the mind of the learner.

It is unlikely that tasks in the workplace do not include all skills areas. A workplace task may involve speaking, for example, but the work done prior to the main task, in all likelihood, involves one or more skill areas – if not all of them. The distinction between reading, writing, speaking and listening can be retained as a functional distinction that describes moments in the process of language learning, as depicted in Figure 3.1 below.²

² Lewis, 2002:8.

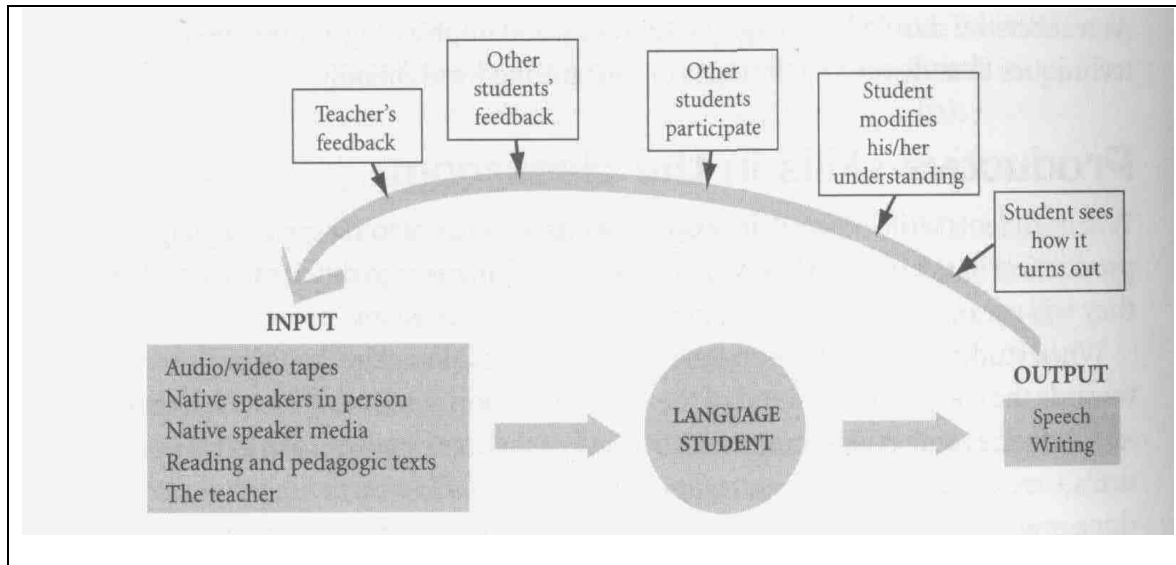


Figure 3.1 Communicative Language Teaching Process (Harmer, 2002:250)

Learning a language is now no longer a skill through which one acquires the means to make meaning; it is, by its very nature, a process of making meaning. Thus, ‘... listening and reading [for example] [become in themselves] a production of texts... though texts-for-themselves, not texts-for-others’.³ Similarly, ‘[t]he terms “reading” and “writing”... refer to all meaning-making and interpretation, whether it is an internal or external process’.⁴ Currently,

[t]he act of reading text... seems primarily a visual act: a structured interpretation of a standard set of symbolic images. These images, whether alphabetic, pictographic, or hieroglyphic, grew from the original invention (or inventions) of writing: that innovative intuition that connected marks made by the hands with sounds produced in spoken language.... In fact the act of reading includes an entire complex of cultural and cognitive

³ Lamberti, 1999:38.

⁴ *Ibid.* Cf. Kress, 2000:189 and Michaels and Sohmer, 2000:271 who give examples of how texts become (and already are) patently multimodal when they are “read” (interpreted). A map is a graphical representation of lives, social systems, personal narratives and so on. Conversely, the inscription of his or her life into a map or other graphical representation of reality such as a table, graph or memorandum, as is used in Chapter Four of the present study, empowers the learner by enabling him or her to inscribe his or her identity. As Chapter Four of this study proposes, even the writing of a memorandum becomes an empowering action.

filters through which the symbols of whatever is being read are interpreted.⁵

The pedagogical realities of the learning context demand, however, that there be some form of input before learners begin working on a task; nothing is produced *ex nihilo*. Lamberti (1999) notes that there are ‘... negative political and social consequences...’ that arise from conflating the distinction between reading and writing, for example, in which learners have the benefits of only partial literacy or rather of only some literacies.⁶ This thesis advocates a critical literacy, following Pennycook (1994), that empowers the learner by making him competent in the process of decoding and encoding meaning.⁷

3.2.2 Competence

The notion of competence is applicable to speaking, writing and reading as forms of language production. The Learning Outcomes for Languages in Curriculum 2005 use broad descriptors such as ‘wide range’ and ‘effectively’ that are defined in the Assessment Criteria. These Assessment Criteria do not, however, give specific guidance on what constitutes correct grammar or usage. Within communicative language teaching, where the ability to communicate in a social context is valued over correct but not necessarily socially useful language production, it makes more sense to speak of communicative competence.

⁵ Back, 2004:60.

⁶ Lamberti, 1999:38-39.

⁷ *Op. cit.*, 39. That is, both reading and writing are processes in which meaning is constructed through signs; however, there is a significant difference between producing signs through the internal process of reading and producing signs through the external process of writing: the former makes meaning for the individual and the latter enables the individual to construct actively his or her social identity and thus gives him or her control over the means of producing his or her identity, rather than being spoken or written by someone else.

Communicative competence, in writing and speaking, requires knowledge of the rules of language (grammatical competence), an understanding of how sentences are strung together to form discourse (discourse competence), an understanding of the social context of language and, finally, the ability to ‘repair’ and ‘sustain’ communication using the preceding competencies (strategic competence).⁸ These competencies fall in the scope of what Pennycook (1994) recognizes as being standard forms of language. The present study contends that these competencies are implied, in fact, in Learning Outcome 2, since the successful achievement of Learning Outcome 2 depends on being able to use both standard and local forms.

3.2.3 Process and product in language teaching and production

As the discussion below shows, ‘process’ aptly describes both language learning and usage (production). This study asserts in Chapter Two that learning and production involve both process and product and that process and product are inseparable. In speaking, for example, the learner formulates (employing the competencies listed above) what he or she wants to say, articulates the meaning he or she wishes to convey and, finally, ‘self-monitors’ the meaning that is produced by identifying mistakes and correcting them.⁹ Writing includes identifying key ideas, drafting, conferencing (or peer input) revising, editing (revising again) and ‘publishing’ all of which suggest process.¹⁰

⁸ Brown, 1994:227-228.

⁹ Bygate, 2001:16.

¹⁰ Maybin, 1996:152.

3.2.4 Grammar and pronunciation

If language acquisition and production are regarded as processes, then formal instruction in grammar (and pronunciation), divorced from instruction in skills or specific genres, probably has little value. Grammar ‘... is not static,... prescriptive,... well-defined,... the basis of language learning,... [about] “correct sentences”,... linearly sequenced,... a set of rules,... a set of transformations,... primarily the tense system... [or, for that matter,] distinct from “vocabulary”...’.¹¹ This is especially the case since

‘[m]uch of the grammar that is taught is inaccurate,... the rules are... incomprehensible.... [and] [t]here is no research evidence that explicit knowledge of grammar aids acquisition of the grammatical system....[;] [m]ost tellingly, grammar is not the basis of language acquisition...’.¹²

In both speech and writing, a learner could communicate an idea effectively while not observing certain fundamental structures and rules of the English language.¹³ There are experts who celebrate this ‘independent language assumption’ because it

liberates the teacher from contrived grammatical progressions... [since] learners need the freedom to construct language for themselves. If students are using natural processes of learning built into their minds, the teacher can step back and let them get on with it by providing activities and language examples to get these natural processes going.... Sometimes this is seen as hypothesis-testing... [where]

¹¹ Lewis, 2002:135-137.

¹² *Op. cit.*, 133. Cf. Parkinson, 2001:278 who notes in her research paper that ‘... in the context of the study grammatical improvement was not observed as a result of formal [and explicit] grammar teaching or as a result of extensive communication in the language.’ This study adopts the position that learners need to know standard forms and grammatical structures in order to engage critically with workplace and other discourses.

¹³ Chaudary, 1997:22 poses a crucial question: ‘[i]s comprehensibility to be the sole basis of judgement [in speaking], or must we demand a high degree of phonetic and allophonic accuracy?’ This question is addressed again in Chapter Four of this thesis. Cf. Dreyer, 1995:398 who notes that ‘[a]lthough... [they] are right in warning against any assumptions of a predictable correlation between speech act functions and grammatical forms, a reminder of the grammatical capacity required to perform speech acts seems to be appropriate... a place must be provided for sustained grammatical capacity...’. This study moves that this capacity can be developed in an experiential manner, as suggested in Chapter Four.

... the learner makes a guess at the rules of the language, tries it out... and accepts or revises the rules....¹⁴

Since meaning is produced in a social context and, since meaning implies meaning for someone, one cannot simply ignore grammar and lexis altogether. The process of writing and the input and feedback it implies includes making learners aware of lapses in grammar and lexis. Ellis (1992) refers to this kind of input as ‘consciousness-raising’.

The purpose of consciousness-raising is to

‘... *isolate* a specific linguistic feature...’, provide ‘... *data*...and... an *explicit rule* describing or explaining the feature...’, encourage learners to ‘...utilise *intellectual effort* to understand the targeted feature...’, clarify misunderstandings through ‘...further data and description/explanation...’ and ‘... (although this is not obligatory) to articulate the rule describing the grammatical structure [original emphases].’¹⁵

Consciousness-raising is a non-intrusive act of intervention on the part of the facilitator to guide the learner towards the awareness that there is something “wrong”, non-standard as Pennycook (1994) might argue, or, in the nomenclature of Curriculum 2005, “ineffective”, about his or her writing or speaking. Consciousness-raising presupposes that the learner will respond to this guidance. ‘We need to ask, therefore, whether the more limited goal of consciousness-raising – to teach explicit knowledge – has any value. Ultimately, consciousness-raising can only be justified if it can be shown that it contributes to the learner's ability to communicate.’¹⁶ If

¹⁴ Cook, 2001:215.

¹⁵ Ellis, 1992:234. Cf. *Ibid.* where the author notes that ‘[i]t should be clear from this list that the main purpose of consciousness-raising is to develop explicit knowledge of grammar. I want to emphasise, however, that this is not the same as metalingual knowledge. It is perfectly possible to develop an explicit understanding of how a grammatical structure works without learning much in the way of grammatical terminology. Grammar can be explained, and, therefore, understood in everyday language. It may be, however, that access to some metalanguage will facilitate the development of explicit knowledge’.

¹⁶ Ellis, 1992:238.

‘[t]he acquisition of implicit knowledge involves three *processes*, [namely]... noticing (i.e. the learner becomes conscious of the presence of a linguistic feature in the input, whereas previously she had ignored it),... comparing (i.e. the learner compares the linguistic feature noticed in the input with her own mental grammar, registering to what extent there is a 'gap' between the input and her grammar) and ... integrating (i.e. the learner integrates a representation of the new linguistic feature into her mental grammar)’ [then consciousness-raising] ‘... contributes to the processes of noticing and comparing and, therefore, prepares the grounds for the integration of new linguistic material [my emphasis].¹⁷

The ‘integration’ of this new knowledge, however, cannot be brought about through consciousness-raising since

[t]his process is controlled by the learner and will take place only when the learner is developmentally ready. [However, consciousness-raising] results in explicit knowledge. Thus, even if the learner is unable to integrate the new feature as implicit knowledge, she can construct an alternative explicit representation which can be stored separately and subsequently accessed when the learner is developmentally primed to handle it.... Consciousness-raising, then, is unlikely to result in immediate acquisition. More likely, it will have a *delayed* effect.¹⁸

Alternatives to consciousness-raising include controlled and free practice. Practice is a far more deliberate intervention in the learner’s acquisition of language. Ellis (1992) doubts the value of practice, although he recognizes in it some application to speaking.¹⁹

¹⁷ Ellis, 1992:238.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*

¹⁹ Ellis, 1992:10 defines controlled practice as a strategy that ‘(1) takes place when the learner has already internalised the specific feature which is the learning target; (2) involves production on the part of the learner; (3) involves the isolation of a specific linguistic feature; (4) requires the learner to focus attention on this linguistic feature; (5) requires the learner to carry out a mechanical operation that leads to correct production of the target feature; (6) involves the provision of teacher feedback regarding the accuracy of the learner’s production of the target feature; (7) provides the learner with the opportunity to repeat incorrect productions correctly’. Cf. *Ibid.* where the author notes that ‘[f]ree practice is not so easy to define. The problem lies in establishing clear criteria for distinguishing ‘free practice’ from ‘communicative use’. One possible criterion is the purpose of the performance. It can be argued that when the learner is concerned with learning the L2, she engages in free practice, but when the learner is concerned with conveying a real message, she engages in ‘communicative use’. A similar distinction might be made in the case of the pianist who plays a concerto in his studio as a preliminary to a full public performance. The distinction is not an easy one where the classroom language learner is concerned, however. For one thing, the learner may be engaged in both learning and communicating at the same time. That is, she

Considering the fact that language is about the social production of meaning, the practising of decontextualised fragments of grammar holds little value for the learner.

Practice probably does help where pronunciation is concerned – it gives learners opportunities to get their tongues around new words and phrases. Also, practice may be quite effective in helping learners to remember new lexical material, including formulaic chunks such as 'How do you do?', 'Can I have a . . .?' and 'I don't understand.' Some learners – extroverts who enjoy speaking in the classroom, for example – may respond positively to practice activities. For these reasons, practice will always have a place in the classroom. It needs to be recognised, however, that practice will often not lead to immediate procedural knowledge of grammatical rules, irrespective of its quantity and quality.... 'Practice' is essentially a *pedagogic* construct.²⁰

As with pronunciation in speaking, grammar maintains a difficult relationship with writing within the communicative approach to language teaching. Sources of mistakes in writing include 'interference' from the home language, 'lexical deficiency' and 'partial mastery [of lexis]'.²¹ Since '... the emphasis in language is on process, not product...' correcting or intervening to correct students' work in order to overcome problems of lexis, for example, must be carefully planned.²²

Once a process approach to writing is implemented, correction gives way to feedback or input at every stage of the writing process that, in turn, allows for 'reformulation'.²³ Lewis (2002) argues in favour of the lexical approach, an approach that he argues is not a 'revolution[ary] approach' at all but rather a '...radical and helpful change of

may be entirely focused on meaning content but be fully aware that the real reason why she is taking part in the activity is to learn the language'.

²⁰ Ellis, 1992:23.

²¹ Lewis, 2002:171.

²² *Op. cit.*, 176.

²³ *Ibid.*

emphasis...'.²⁴ This change of emphasis shares a number of core concerns with the CLT. In the first instance, it advocates the use of 'real English' and stresses the fact that '... communicative competence is wider than accuracy...' and that 'socio-linguistic competence' is favoured over 'grammatical competence'.²⁵

This perspective on language teaching rejects the drill-based 'PPP (Present-Practice-Produce)' model, favouring a 'task' and 'process' method over an 'exercise' and 'product' method.²⁶ This is not to say that a certain degree of practice is not useful.

Irrespective of whether the practice is controlled, contextualised or communicative, it will have the following characteristics: (1) There is some attempt to isolate a specific grammatical feature for focused attention. (2) The learners are required to produce sentences containing the targeted feature. (3) The learners will be provided with opportunities for repetition of the targeted feature. (4) There is an expectancy that the learners will perform the grammatical feature correctly. In general, therefore, practice activities are 'success oriented'. (5) The learners receive feedback on whether their performance of the grammatical structure is correct or not. This feedback may be immediate or delayed.²⁷

3.2.5 Receptive language skills

The artificial nature of the distinction between production and reception is evident in the descriptions of the learning outcomes representing receptive skills. In Curriculum 2005/C21, these skills are represented in Learning Outcomes 1 and 3, repeated here for convenience. The descriptors for these outcomes implicitly recognize the artificial nature

²⁴ Lewis, 2002:193. Cf. *Ibid.* where the author notes that language is an 'organism' rather than a machine. This particular metaphor, namely that of an organism, lends itself to a critical literacy and communicative form of writing.

²⁵ *Op. cit.*, vi-vii.

²⁶ *Op. cit.*, vii.

²⁷ Ellis, 1992:233.

of the distinction between listening and reading.

- **LO1 (Listening)** The learner is able to listen for information and enjoyment and respond appropriately and critically in a wide range of situations.
- **LO3 (Reading and Viewing)** The learner is able to read and view for information and enjoyment and respond critically to the aesthetic, cultural and emotional values in texts.²⁸

In both instances, the outcomes listed above link the receptive with the productive: 'listen...respond' and 'read...respond'. Rost (2001) notes that listening is a skill most widely used in conjunction with other skills in that it is the primary means of acquiring language.²⁹ This perspective suggests, however, that listening is a 'receptive' skill. The discussion on critical literacy in Chapter One indicates that during both the encoding and decoding of language meaning is actively produced; meaning can only be produced with effort on the part of the reader or listener who negotiates a number of codes in an attempt to make meaning.

For this reason, listening should not be taught discreetly (in isolation) from other skills; nor can the skill be taught without teaching 'metacognitive', 'cognitive' and 'social' listening strategies that empower learners to listen effectively.³⁰ Since listening tasks elicit a response from the learner ('bottom-up') or utilize the learner's prior knowledge to do something in relation to the listening text ('top-down'), it is necessary to ensure that tasks are '... well-structured... [and that they] activate [prior] knowledge [and] experience' by means of texts that are '...authentic, interesting, varied and

²⁸ Department of National Education, 2002:68,108.

²⁹ Rost, 2001:7.

³⁰ *Op. cit.*, 11.

challenging...’.³¹ In Chapter Four, these principles are applied to two tasks that are subjected to experimentation.

Next to listening, reading is, arguably, the second most important means of input in language learning and teaching. In the process of reading, both text and learner are significant variables. If the point of departure is the learner (‘bottom-down’), then his or her contribution to the process, in the form of knowledge of the form of genres, knowledge of the code and conventions of genres and general knowledge is important.³² If the point of departure is the text (‘bottom- up’), then specific features of the text can be taught.³³ Simply asserting that the former is communicative in nature and the latter is not is not valid in this context. The learner does not unilaterally construct meaning since the text provides the main resource for reading.³⁴ Learning how to read and how to interrogate critically the text and the discourses informing the text – a basic requirement for critical literacy – require the use of a metalanguage.

In order to empower the learner to achieve higher cognitive levels of literacy, the learner needs to be able to discuss texts using a metalanguage. This language should consist, for example, of concepts such as “sentence” and “complex sentence”.³⁵ It should become progressively more complex until it includes abstract notions of cohesion, rhetorical

³¹ Rost, 2001:7,11.

³² Wallace, 2001:22.

³³ *Op. cit.*, 21.

³⁴ *Op. cit.*, 75.

³⁵ *Op. cit.*, 25.

features and general features of specific genres, temporality in narratives.³⁶ Learners should be taught to reflect on the reasons they read, the underlying assumptions and discursive strategies that inform texts, the purposes and context of texts and the reasons for the choice of words, styles and syntax of texts.³⁷ To this end, the emphasis should be placed on how to read and on how to interrogate texts of all kinds.³⁸ The above principles point to a critical approach to literacy.

All workplace English skills require reading in that most workplace tasks require reading or are preceded by acts of reading. The list of workplace writing skills cited in Table 2.2 in Chapter Two lists texts such as telegrams, notes, memoranda and letters. These texts have distinct forms and their forms often follow from their use in real life. From a critical literacy point of view, instruction in workplace language would have to include instruction in the real and authentic use of workplace genres and forms, including the language structures necessary to communicate effectively in the workplace through those forms. The Learning Outcome for reading echoes this approach in that learners are required to ‘... read and view for information...’.³⁹

3.2.6 Productive language skills

The productive language skills are speaking and writing. In Curriculum 2005/C21, these skills are represented in Learning Outcomes 2 and 4, repeated here for convenience.

³⁶ Wallace, 2001:25.

³⁷ *Op. cit.*, 24, 26.

³⁸ Silberstein, 1994:10.

³⁹ Department of National Education, 2002:104.

- **LO2 (Speaking)** The learner is able to communicate confidently and effectively in spoken language in a wide range of situations.
- **LO4 (Writing)** The learner is able to write different kinds of factual and imaginative texts for a wide range of purposes.⁴⁰

By allowing the learner to acquire language in a natural way, rather than learning fragments of grammar that have no direct application in his or her life, the teacher ensures that the learner actually *uses* the language. Learning Outcome 2, cited above, appears to support this natural approach to language teaching since it advocates the use of language in a ‘wide range of situations’. Since ‘wide’ is not defined, the assumption that the learner should be empowered to recognize, negotiate and respond to various discourses is tenable. Allowing for the natural acquisition and use of language makes it possible to communicate an idea most effectively with simple gestures or broken phrases and incomplete sentences. To what extent should there be direct intervention on the part of the teacher in the form of instruction in grammar to make the production of the learner accurate and effective?

For this reason, Pennycook’s (1994) assertion that learners need to be taught both standard forms and local forms is important. Confident and effective communication implies intelligible communication. Intelligible communication includes aspects of language such as pronunciation and grammatical competence. Although a ‘natural’ approach to grammar teaching results in the production of language, it does not necessarily result in the production of socially useful meaning.⁴¹ From the perspective of a language teacher in assessing a learner’s achievement of Learning Outcome 2, an

⁴⁰ Department of National Education, 2002:68,108.

⁴¹ Cook, 2001:215.

educator must take these aspects of language into consideration without losing sight of the primary goal of language teaching and learning: the production of *meaning* in a wide (and often unpredictable) range of situations.⁴²

Clarity of pronunciation, admittedly a very difficult concept to define, does affect the quality of the communicative effort.⁴³ The notion of “correct” pronunciation poses a problem because pronunciation is often an expression of a particular individual or social identity.⁴⁴ ‘Standard’ pronunciation implies an ‘autonomous’ notion of literate oral communication. In contrast, clarity of pronunciation and its effect on quality of communication is ‘ideological’ and open to scrutiny and debate by teacher and learner alike since ‘clarity’ and ‘quality’ are subjective in nature. For this reason, clarity of expression is a more useful guide in developing a learner's pronunciation of the English language than notions of correctness.⁴⁵ In terms of teaching methodology, drills that emphasize correctness over clarity are thus anti-communicative and not conducive towards a critical literacy.⁴⁶ Other pronunciation teaching practices that appear to clash with a communicative approach to language teaching as outlined in the foregoing discussion include ‘elicited mechanical production’, ‘listening and repeating’ and

42 Learning Outcome 6 emphasizes the need to teach grammar. This study contends that one does not teach grammar for the sake of grammar. One teaches grammar insofar as it empowers the learner to produce meaning effectively in a social context.

43 Cf. Parakrama, 1995:1-40 that the standard form of a language is an ideal which few attain and actually use. Since standards are often not carefully defined, it is difficult, following Pennycook (1994), to teach students a standard form while allowing them make creative use of local forms.

44 Seidelhofer, 2001:57-58.

45 *Op. cit.*, 57-58. Where poor pronunciation makes it virtually impossible to understand the speaker, one could argue that correct pronunciation is important. Conversely, if the speaker's pronunciation is not standard but is, nevertheless, intelligible, then pronunciation ought not to be a core concern of the language facilitator's.

46 Seidelhofer, 2001:57.

‘discrimination [between sounds and pairs of words]’.⁴⁷ All communication, including oral communication, is ultimately the social production of meaning; errors or misunderstandings in pronunciation and meaning can be resolved in a number of speaking turns, something that does not happen in writing without redrafting.⁴⁸

In contrast to oral production, the ability to write effectively requires a certain degree of compliance with grammatical forms and genres. For example, writing skills include correct spelling (linguistic competence); learners must also be familiar with different kinds of letters and documents (discursive competence); in presentations and meetings, learners are required to communicate appropriately (sociolinguistic competence); finally, strategic competence is addressed in the need to persuade clients.

Learning Outcome 4 states that ‘[t]he learner is able to write different kinds of factual and imaginative texts for a wide range of purposes’.⁴⁹ The wording of this outcome leaves the statement open to interpretation.

Learning to write is seen as a natural process supported by the teacher who creates a motivating working context with real purposes and audiences.... the teacher's responsibility is to equip students with linguistic skills so that they can read and reproduce the genres which will give access to subject knowledge and power in the outside world.... Both approaches claim to 'empower' students, the first through giving them ownership of their writing and the second through equipping them with important linguistic skills. Taking both these approaches together suggests that they could be

⁴⁷ *Op. cit.*, 62-63.

⁴⁸ Bygate, 2001:16. Cf. Ellis, 1992:38 who argues that [i]t is common to emphasise the differences that exist between pedagogic and naturalistic discourse. A good example of this is to be found in work on turn-taking. In ordinary conversations in English turn-taking is characterised by self-regulated competition and initiative... whereas in classroom discourse there is frequently a rigid allocation of turns. Who speaks to whom at what time about what topics is subject to strict control with the result that competition and individual learner initiative are discouraged’.

⁴⁹ Department of National Education, 2002:108.

seen as complementary rather than oppositional.... In addition, we need to look at how writing practices in the classroom relate to those used outside the school, and at whether there is scope for extending the range of activities used with students.⁵⁰

Writing can be regarded as a process, an act of imitation or, as this study moves, both; it is a process of refinement resulting in a specific product. It is the process of *re*-producing, rather than reproducing, a genre that includes instruction in the form and features of that genre. Both process and input are necessary to inculcate in learners a sense of their being ‘apprentice authors’ and, indeed, apprentices of the workplace.⁵¹ Following the Assessment Criteria for Learning Outcome 4, an educator knows that a learner has achieved Learning Outcome 4 if he or she has produced, among other texts, email, reports, reviews, minutes and agenda.⁵² Instruction in these genres requires drawing learners’ attention to the ways in which each genre is ‘... differently structured depending on [its] [purpose] and audience...’ as well as the predictable “chunks” of language (lexical items) that often appear in standard, particularly workplace, genres.⁵³

A lexical item is a ‘socially-sanctioned’, ‘independent’, ‘minimal unit’ used for a certain ‘syntactic purpose’ the use of which is a ‘social institution’ and the meaning of which is not predictable from its form.⁵⁴ Instruction in workplace and other genres is facilitated by the use of ‘exemplars’ accompanied by ‘directional input’ from the facilitator through discussion on the ‘particular features’ of the genre in question; the emphasis is placed on

⁵⁰ Maybin, 1996:157.

⁵¹ *Op. cit.*,151-152.

⁵² Department of National Education, 2002:108.

⁵³ Maybin, 1996:156.

⁵⁴ Lewis, 2002:89.

how to ‘construct’ such texts.⁵⁵ Admittedly, knowing how to construct such texts is no guarantee that the learner will have access to the circles of power in which such genres are used but if he or she does, then such knowledge is essential.⁵⁶ Other Assessment Criteria mention creative or literary texts and the same principles apply although the lexical items in literary texts are not as predictable as they are in workplace genres.⁵⁷

The observations regarding communicative language teaching practices are summarised below. Regarding speaking, the present study notes that:

- 1 developing a learner’s speaking skills in English means that the learner has to be able to speak English that is intelligible, as grammatically correct as possible but, most important, appropriate in non-verbal (aspects of) communication, tone, degree of formality and register and that
- 2 speaking tasks should have a desired goal and/or should result in a product.

Regarding writing, the present study notes that:

- 3 writing should not be used in isolation from other skills;
- 4 writing requires graphic, textual and audio input;
- 5 writing is a skill that consolidates all other skills and
- 6 an awareness of the audience is a prerequisite to setting meaningful tasks.

Meaningful listening tasks should be designed and assessed in terms of:

- 7 how long it takes for a learner to respond to a task;

⁵⁵ Maybin, 1996:156.

⁵⁶ *Ibid.*

⁵⁷ In the Introduction to Literary Theory, Terry Eagleton (1983) argues that the distinction between literary and non-literary texts is not given but constructed differently in different periods. For this reason, scientific works written in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries were often considered works of art, the writer paying careful attention to style and other aspects of literary writing.

- 8 how many times learners want instructions repeated;
- 9 how many times learners want educators to explain something to them and
- 10 how many times learners misunderstand the task.

Finally, the following conclusions regarding reading are relevant to this discussion:

- 11 reading tasks should develop reading strategies not knowledge of content;
- 12 for example, reading tasks should help learners recognize when functions such as
the following are performed:
 - a writer is giving examples,
 - a point is being emphasized,
 - an idea is being explained or clarified,
 - there is a change in thought,
 - the writer is drawing a conclusion and
- 13 reading tasks should expose learners to different kinds of writing;
- 14 workplace literacy training tasks should enable learners to produce workplace
literacy meaning(s) while still learning enough of the language itself so that the
learner is capable of more than “McCommunication” and
- 15 the texts that are produced have to be multimodal.

These observations on communicative language teaching practices (points 1-15 above) can be integrated with the requirements of the workplace. A meaningful workplace literacy training task is one that should:

- establish the context of the task and a clear, achievable and measurable outcome (4, 7),

- provide authentic, meaningful, relevant, interesting, diverse and manageable input from different skill areas (8–11 and 16–18),
- draw the attention of the learner to *appropriate* grammatical responses and not necessarily *correct* responses and conventions (6 and 19–20),
- include both process and product (5) and
- be assessed in terms of real-life response time (12–15).

In the light of the above points, it is also possible to add the following principles, namely that a meaningful workplace-literacy training task is one that should:

- take into account the different learning styles of learners and
- focus on empowering learners to produce meaning and to engage critically with dominant discourses.

3 Towards a theory of workplace literacy

Lewis (2002) describes a number of shifts in emphasis in teaching that are required to make language teaching more meaningful. Close inspection of these shifts reveals that they represent the kind of language teaching methodology that could be quite useful in instilling critical workplace literacy skills in learners, as described in the preceding section. There must be a shift from

‘[w]ritten language to spoken language, speaking to listening, product to process, short-term to long-term, answers to questions, explanations to exploration, knowledge to skill, accuracy to communication, structure to lexis, sentence to text, parts to wholes, planned certainty to unguided uncertainty, teacher-centred to learner-centred [and] recipes to theory’.⁵⁸

⁵⁸ Lewis, 2002:32-34.

From the perspective of this study that argues for the development of workplace literacy, a number of points deserve comment.

- The emphasis on spoken language makes sense in the context of teaching English as a foreign language. In the South African context, arguably becoming an increasingly ESL (English as a Second Language) environment, writing skills are crucial, especially considering the multimodal nature of workplace skills genres. Lewis (2002) concedes that the second shift, from speaking to listening' is mostly relevant in the foreign language teaching context.⁵⁹
- Regarding the shift from product to process, the present study argues that these two aspects of work are inseparable. What Lewis argues here is for a greater level of input during the process phase and less emphasis on the product.
- The emphasis on enquiry and interrogation, intimated in the fourth to seventh propositions, clearly indicates a critical stance in relation to the meaning and scope of literacy.
- The eighth shift, accuracy to communication, reflects the concerns of a communicative approach to language teaching, one to which the present study subscribes.
- Although the value of lexis cannot be underestimated, the close relationship between lexis and genre cannot be ignored either. For this reasons, this study argues that lexis cannot be emphasized over genre, particularly in the context of workplace literacy. The tenth and eleventh shifts encapsulate a holistic approach to lexis and genre that the present study envisions.

⁵⁹ *Op. cit.*,32.

- Shifts twelve to fourteen reflect the fundamental principles of Curriculum 2005, Communicative Language Teaching, critical literacy and, indeed, the contemporary workplace. The ‘uncertainty’ of the twelfth shift suggests an approach to language teaching that avoids the pitfalls of “McCommunication”. Similarly, the fourteenth shift, from recipe to theory, suggests the ability on the part of the learner to apply knowledge of language in a skilled manner rather than simply to reproduce learned forms. The focus on the learner in the thirteenth shift is indicative of both a communicative approach to language teaching as well as a critical approach to literacy that considers the need of the learner rather than an ‘autonomous’ notion of literacy.

The present chapter aims at developing a theory of workplace skills that empowers the learner and teacher to pursue workplace literacy through a communicative, task-based and outcomes-based language teaching pedagogy that instils a critical approach to the aforementioned literacy. The observations regarding critical literacy, workplace skills and communicative language teaching practices and their application to a literacy of the workplace are summarised below.

- The distinction between mental and manual skills (and the privileging of the former of the latter), the influence of globalization and the dominance of the English language highlight the need for workplace skills training in English.
- The meaning of ‘literacy’ is not given since literacy has to do with the goals and expectations of a particular society that is open to change. A critical approach to literacy has as its point of departure the aims of literacy and the needs of the learner

and empowers learners to communicate effectively and to interrogate the discourses that shape their lives.

- Literacy involves more than reading and writing. Workplace literacy involves reading and writing but also critical thinking and knowledge of workplace forms.
- Workplace skills:
 - enable the learner to function effectively in the workplace,
 - require reading, writing, speaking and listening skills,
 - implies competent usage of standard and local forms of language,
 - workplace skills are by implicitly orientated towards an outcome and are observable and assessable and
 - comprise both process and product.
- Language is the social production of meaning.
- The social production of meaning in the context of the workplace often consists of tasks.
- Authenticity of use is more important than authenticity of text.
- Traditional language syllabuses emphasize grammar over use or *vice-versa* resulting in the need to reappraise such syllabuses for use in workplace skills training.

From the discussion in the present chapter a number of equally important observations emerge.

- The distinction between reception and production is a functional rather than essential distinction.

- The acquisition and production of language (including grammar and pronunciation) are essentially processes.
- Communicative competence overrides grammatical accuracy and accuracy in pronunciation.

Finally, a working definition of a literacy of the workplace that encapsulates the principles listed above is offered. Workplace literacy is the capacity to make meaning in the context of the workplace. It derives its meaning and scope from the ability to reflect on a need or demand and to respond to it critically by acquiring and producing meaning, using standard and non-standard forms of language in the workplace and other public contexts. The acquisition of meaning-making capabilities involves a cycle of reception and production of meaning directed at the process of completing a task that results in a product or text of a mono- or multimodal nature.

With these fundamental principles in mind, the argument proceeds, in Chapter Four, with the task of constructing a model, based on the tentative theory outlined above, for constructing communicative task-based activities that equip learners with workplace skills.

CHAPTER FOUR

In addition to constructing a model that language teachers could use to design workplace related tasks, this chapter presents and analyzes the findings of practical applications of the model, given in Figure 4.1. As already stated, this model is based on the principles offered in the tentative theory of workplace English skills proposed in the previous chapter. As argued, there are a number of fundamental propositions upon which a theory of workplace English skills can be formulated; and these are given in synopsis here. In order to be meaningful, a workplace English skills task requires input that involves the use of a variety of skills such as time management, listening skills, group work skills and grammatical proficiency; such a task should also take cognizance of prior learning, individual capabilities and learning styles. In addition, such a task entails a process of producing meaning that results in a product of a mono- or multimodal nature.

4.1 Towards a model for the design of workplace literacy tasks

Jeremy Harmer (2002) asserts that communicative language tasks often create a communication gap.¹ This gap provides an incentive to learners to communicate. For example, one group of learners has the answers to questions about a famous personality, whereas another group of learners has only the questions. Alternatively, both groups have some questions and some answers. In order to get the answers to their questions, each group has to communicate with the other by asking appropriate questions either orally or in writing. This approach carries with it the danger of “McCommunication” – an artificial, overly-streamlined and rigidly controlled communicative process where the communication gap is so artificial and so over-described that the application of language

¹ Harmer, 2002:85-86.

in this context becomes somewhat limited and contrived.² In Chapter Two of the present study, the argument takes cognizance of Gustafsson's (1987) views on the possibility of preparing learners for the work that they will ultimately do. This study proposes that a real communicative need – derived from the immediate surroundings of the learners – should thus replace the artificial communication gap. In the present chapter, for example, the study makes use of a practical maintenance questionnaire as a workplace task that directs the learners to their immediate context and the real needs of the school: the physical state of the classroom.

The need to provide meaningful input is most important. Meaningful input includes any information learners may require to complete a particular task. The input should be of a kind that empowers the learner to perform a broad range of communicative tasks – again, with the aim of transforming “McCommunication”. In the language classroom, this input includes teaching grammatical structures and writing or speaking conventions, such as an acceptable format for a business letter or the correct form of address for public officials and dignitaries, representing information in graphical form and providing information, where necessary, on cultural, geographical or political issues. In essence, input, in the context of workplace English skills, includes any language input or general knowledge input that is necessary to complete the task. The mode of providing this input may range from educator input to video and audio input as well as to research tasks undertaken by the learners but guided and monitored by the educator.

² Block, 2002:121. Cf. Dreyer, 1995:149 who argues that communicative activities constitute ‘... communicative rituals...’ or ‘... simulated events...’. The present study in Chapter Four argues that communicative tasks can directly address the workplace and thus avoid being mere rituals.

Ideally, tasks should be designed in such a way that the time it takes to do the task should match as closely as possible the amount of time it would take to do the same task in the workplace. In consequence, learners should become conscious of the importance of managing their use of time during the completion of a given task. Although learning styles and the abilities of individuals may influence the time it takes to complete the task, the educator should strive to emphasize the importance of working towards deadlines. One possible model that embraces the principles outlined in Chapter Three and the preceding discussion may look as follows:

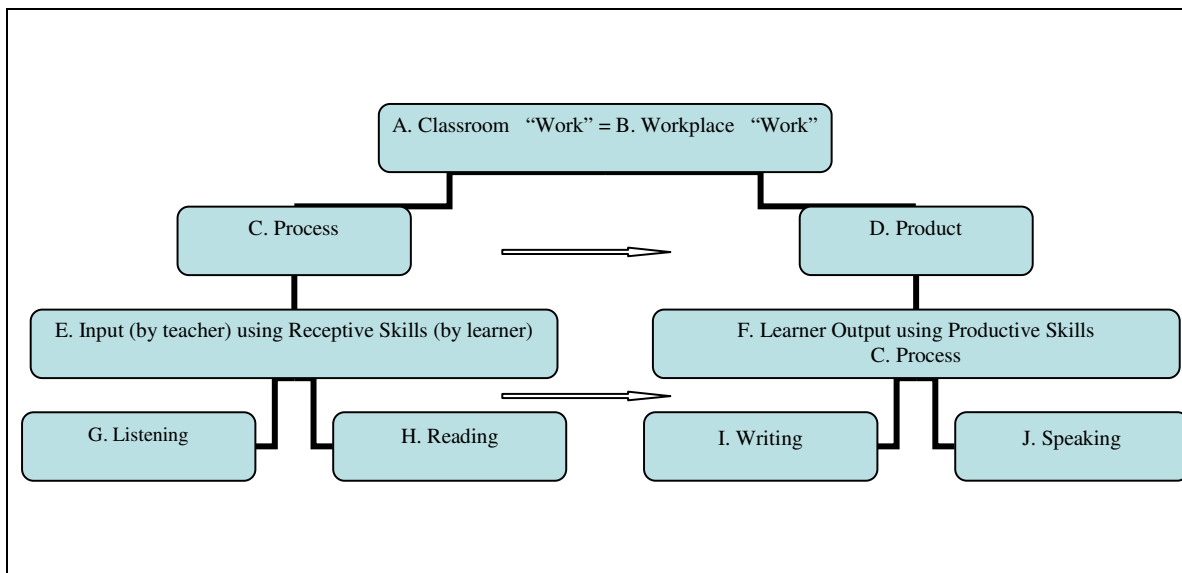


Figure 4.1 A Model for the Design of Workplace Literacy Tasks

The model in Figure 4.1 was used to design tasks that were tested in the classroom in 2003. Following the model and the results of the first round of experiments, an updated

model, revised in direct consequence of the findings, is given in Figure 4.2 towards the end of this chapter.³

In Figure 4.1 above, the classroom (A) and the workplace (B) are linked together by a similar notion of work and, as is argued in Chapter Two, this is expressed as both process and product (C and D). The teacher establishes the context of the task. Meaningful input (E) during the process stage (C) calls on the receptive skills of the learner. That is, the teacher speaks and gives information to the learners in the form of, for example, an explanation. Alternatively, the learners conduct independent research for the information they need in order to complete the task.

This means that even when a task relies on the information gap approach to the completion of the task learners doing the task will either read or listen, or they will use both receptive skills during the input phase. During the output phase (F), the learners use the input (E) that they have acquired to work and to produce a workplace product (D). To this end, they will most certainly employ both writing and speaking skills. In the following section, the model is applied to the construction of two workplace literacy tasks.

³ The theoretical base of the present study was altered after examination. For ethical reasons, the first model, the model used to test this study's hypotheses, was not altered. The second and revised model, however, incorporates the observations of the revised theoretical basis.

4.2 Workplace literacy tasks to test the model

4.2.1 Background to the testing of the model

As already noted, the viability of the model proposed in Figure 4.1 (above) was tested in the classroom. Two lessons encompassing workplace literacy tasks were designed for use at Grade 9 level. These two tasks were tested in two different classes under comparable conditions. The tasks were designed according to the principles enshrined in the proposed model, and as outlined in Chapter Three. The school, in which these tasks were tested with the knowledge and approval of the acting Head of Department and the Principal of the school, is a former Model C school.⁴ The tasks were each undertaken during a forty-five minute period in the Learning Area known as Languages.

Two Grade 9 classes, which, for convenience of distinction, are designated Grade 9X and 9Y (not their actual classification) were involved in the testing of the tasks. Grade 9X was perceived as academically competent, whereas Grade 9Y was perceived as academically challenged since, at the time of testing, the latter class consisted of learners who had failed Grade 8 and had therefore been placed in a special class in order to receive additional support. In the following section, a brief description of each task is provided.

⁴ After the 1994 elections, South African government-run schools were given the option of becoming entirely private, entirely state-subsidised or Model C schools – a category of school that is now referred to as a Section 21 school. The last option meant that the state paid for only a certain number of members of staff. School fees raised by the school governing body covered the salaries of additional members of staff and other general expenses.

4.2.2 Description of tasks

4.2.2.1 maintenance questionnaire

The maintenance questionnaire task was assigned to 9X and it was a task that involved learners in the assessment of the condition of their immediate environment: their classroom. A sample of their (unchanged and unedited) responses can be viewed in Appendix A. Names have been withheld to prevent any possible identification and the samples have been used for purely academic purposes to illustrate the effectiveness of the proposed model.

The task was made more real by informing learners that the questionnaires that they had to design would ultimately be used by the school to assess the state of the school buildings so that any necessary repairs could be made.⁵ In accordance with the model in Figure 4.1, the task (act of work) consists of both process and product. The act of work encompasses the initial stages of individual work and moves to the group work stage of editing and compiling a composite maintenance questionnaire.

In this way, the tasks described in this section are multimodal. They consist of an oral component (discussing the task and the product), a writing component (producing individual and composite questionnaires), a reading component (reading and editing individual questionnaires), a listening component (listening to input and suggestions from

⁵ See Table 3.2 in Chapter Two. This task encompasses Learning Outcomes (LO) 1-5 and 6, the core outcome being LO 3 that states that '[l]earners will be able to write different kinds of factual and imaginative texts for a wide range of purposes'. Cf. Department of National Education, 2002:6. By definition, the Learning Outcomes relate to the Critical Cross-field Outcomes and these tasks embody the fundamental principles of Curriculum 2005/C21as demonstrated in Chapter Three.

peers), an individual component (individual questionnaires) and a group component (final composite questionnaire). Although the final product, the questionnaire, appears only in a written form, its actual use in designing a maintenance audit (by means of a questionnaire) is multimodal since its findings were, theoretically, to be relayed to the governing body and the local district office by means of presentations or other multimodal texts.

The second task was an audio-visual devices survey, outlined in the following section. This task was designed with a similar practical intention. That is, learners were again asked to conduct a survey and were informed that the information generated would be put to use by the school. The second task is therefore comparable to the first task in that it requires the same skills and consists of similar components to the first task.

4.2.2.2 audio-visual devices survey

The audio-visual survey task was assigned to 9Y and was a task that involved learners in the assessment of the availability of electronic resources in classmates' homes. A sample of their (unchanged and unedited) responses can be viewed in Appendix B, again with the identities of the learners protected. The audio-visual devices survey task engaged learners in the task of compiling a composite list that indicated the number of learners who had access to various electronic media.

This task was given a real-life dimension by informing the learners that the information would be used to plan inter-disciplinary projects in such a way that available resources

could be pooled so that the school did not have to acquire expensive equipment.⁶ Learners first acquired individual information for their own immediate groups and then requested data from other groups so that they could compile a composite list for the class.

In the next section, the fidelity of these tasks to the principles of workplace skills and Curriculum 2005/C21 is gauged. This evaluation takes the form of a table (4.1) that lists, firstly, the principles of the tentative theory of workplace skills, and secondly, a corresponding description of the way in which the tasks reflect these principles.

4.2.3 Evaluation of the tasks

4.2.3.1 criteria for evaluating the tasks themselves

The model proposed in Figure 4.1 implies a number of principles, in addition to but overlapping with those enumerated at the beginning of this chapter. The first is that a genuine workplace literacy task ought to link the workplace and the classroom. This link should be made by offering a form of work that involves both process and product.

That is, the task or work must be of such a nature that its successful completion offers a product that is the result of a comprehensive process of production. In the case of both the tasks described earlier, learners receive input via receptive skills (listening and

⁶ See Table 3.2 in Chapter Two. This task encompasses LOs 1-5 and 6, the core outcome being LO 3, cited in footnote 4 in the present chapter.

reading) and, create a product by means of the productive (speaking and writing) language skills.

The process is comprehensive in that the delivery of the product is preceded by an input phase during which learners acquire or revise the necessary knowledge and skills to engage in a creative process to deliver the product. Furthermore, the delivery of the product depends on inter-personal communication.

The quality of the product is determined by input from the group of learners. By means of group work, the learners thus learn to work together or they gain experience in team work to ensure that the end-product is viable and of a high quality, or that it reflects the development of the skills of the individuals in the group. For the sake of brevity a synopsis is offered on the following page.

Table 4.1 Evaluation of the Tasks to the Tentative Theory of Workplace Skills

Workplace Skills Theory Principles A workplace literacy task should:	Evaluation of the Tasks
establish the context of the task and clear, achievable and measurable outcomes,	The tasks are real-life tasks in that the information generated is intended for use in assessing the condition of school buildings, or what audio-visual devices can be drawn on as a resource. There is a specific product that must be produced.
provide authentic, meaningful, relevant, interesting, diverse and manageable input from different skill areas,	The teacher placed the tasks in context by explaining that they generate data that is useful to the school. The learners were thus aware that their work was relevant to their immediate environment.
draw the attention of the learner to <i>appropriate</i> grammatical responses although not necessarily <i>correct</i> responses and conventions,	The teacher demonstrated the possible form a questionnaire or list could take as well as appropriate language structures, such as question forms and basic punctuation while allowing for innovation on the part of the learners. Learners were also shown what form the presentation of data could take.
involve process and product,	There is a process (input and work phase) and specific product. The act of work encompasses the initial stages of individual work and moves to the group work stage of editing and compiling a composite maintenance questionnaire.
be assessed in terms of real-life response time,	The tasks were limited in time to a single 45-minute period.
take into account the different learning styles of learners and	For example, cognitive strategies ‘... for processing of language input and preparing for language output...’ and social strategies involving ‘... learning with others [group work]...’ were highlighted. ⁷
focus on empowering learners to produce meaning.	Since the tasks were relevant to the learners’ immediate context and, since the data generated was presented in a form that could be widely understood, learners produced a questionnaire (9X) on the one hand and on the other, a resource list (9Y) both through interaction and collaboration. Ultimately, these forms could be used to suggest improvements to the school or better use of resources.

The exact procedures followed in class when the tasks were completed is described before presenting an analysis of the data. These two tasks (drawing up a questionnaire

⁷ Dreyer, 2000:251. For ethical reasons, Table 4.1 was not revised during the process of revising the thesis after examination.

and compiling a table) are evaluated according to the principles of a tentative theory of workplace skills in order to ensure that the tasks are outcomes-based, workplace literacy and language-focussed.

4.2.4 Instructions and procedure: maintenance questionnaire (9X)

Although the tasks were regarded as approximately equal according to their degree of difficulty, the maintenance questionnaire was randomly assigned to Grade 9X, the class considered academically more competent than Grade 9Y, the class that undertook the audio-visual devices survey.

Each task was done in a single forty-five minute period divided into four components of ten minutes each for the completion of the task and five minutes for the revision of and reflection on the task. Thus, ten minutes were allocated to the explanation of the task and the necessary grammatical input or revision. Ten minutes were given to individuals to complete their individual questionnaires. Ten minutes were allocated to groups to circulate individual questionnaires for comment. Ten minutes were allocated to group work in composing the final questionnaire and five minutes for the editing of the final questionnaire.

To elaborate on the time allocated, the task was divided up into two phases. Phase 1 (ten minutes) contextualised the task for the learners by situating it in a real-life context, as

outlined in the introduction to this section.⁸ Learners were informed that there was a goal to the task and a real-life application. They were also informed that there was a limited period of time within which they had to complete the task, and were shown examples of questionnaire-like questions. The educator also explained the function of a maintenance questionnaire to the class.

Phase 2 (thirty-five minutes) consisted of the actual working process and the design and revision of the product. During this time, the educator moved freely around the class, noting the behaviour and interaction of the learners and occasionally clarifying the task.

In terms of the organization of the task, eight steps were taken in preparation for the maintenance questionnaire.

- Learners were divided into groups of up to seven learners. There were five groups in total. There was no deliberate attempt to balance groups in terms of gender, race or home language.
- Each learner received a single sheet of paper. Learners wrote their name, age, gender and home language on the sheet of paper, using the remaining space for their individual contributions to the group product.⁹
- Groups focussed on a specific aspect of maintenance that had to be addressed in their particular questionnaires. The topics covered in the task were: walls, floors and ceilings; heaters and fans; furniture; electrical appliances and windows and doors.

⁸ See 4.2.2.1 in the present chapter.

⁹ No reference to these learners' names is made. References to their names have been replaced with descriptive phrases such as Learner 1 from Group 6 in order to protect and respect their identity.

- The teacher explained that the purpose of the task was to design a set of at least eight to ten questions that covered the essential aspects of the condition of the classroom. In this way, learners could decide whether to structure questions so that they elicited simple responses or extended answers.
- The teacher emphasized the fact that the questionnaires had to be sufficiently comprehensive and meaningful as to provide a realistic appraisal of the condition of the classroom.
- Furthermore, the individual questionnaires had to be circulated within each group for comment before a composite questionnaire was drawn up using questions from each learner's questionnaire.
- The final questionnaire had to be edited by the group for common language errors such as concord, incomplete sentence structure, faulty punctuation, incorrect word choice and tense shifts. These structures are taught in Grade 8 and so this exercise was seen as revision.
- The teacher then explained the structure of typical questionnaire questions with the learners by providing sample questions on the board using a different context. A different context was used so that learners did not copy the teacher's questions.

4.2.4.1 data analysis according to the first criterion of achievement (9X)

The results of the experiment were categorised as follows. Criterion One requires only that learners actually submit a document that resembles a questionnaire in that it contains questions pertaining to the aspect of maintenance under consideration in that group. The learner's work can be viewed in Appendix A. A summary of the data is offered below.

- All 14 male and all 15 female learners completed the task according to Criterion One.
- A hundred per cent of the learners were able to contribute individually to the group product and all of the groups were able to submit a composite questionnaire. This suggests that home language had no negative effect on teamwork.

A number of general observations regarding the results generated under Criterion One deserve discussion. Phase 1, namely, the teacher input phase, took considerably longer than was anticipated. This suggests the importance of this phase to the model proposed in this chapter. Furthermore, two learners commented on the relevance of the task, suggesting that possibly the task was not sufficiently contextualised in the minds of some learners. There were also three individual comments relating to procedure. That is, these learners were unsure of how to begin the task. They did not distinguish between individual contributions and the group product and had to be informed again as to how to generate their own questions first. Their confusion points to the need to increase the amount of time spent on Phase 1 of a workplace English skills task.

However, the fact that all the groups were able to complete their questionnaires, circulate them and update them suggests that, overall, learners were able to complete the task and that it made sense to them. The evidence also suggests that despite the variety of home languages spoken, the task appears not to have been perceived as culturally alien to any of the learners.

4.2.4.2 data analysis according to the second criterion (Grade 9X)

However, the above results yield no information about the quality of the documents produced. Criterion Two refines the analysis offered in the preceding section by establishing the number of suggestions, comments and corrections that were made by learners' peers in each group. The responses of the individuals and the groups can be viewed in Appendix A to this study. The results are tabulated below in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Data Analysis According to Criterion 2 (9X)

Group	Male: Female Ratio	English: Other Language Ratio	Total Number of Original Questions	Total Number of Additions to Questions	Total Number of Comments by Peers	Total Number of Suggested Corrections By Peers
1	0 : 5	0 : 5	38	10	5	1
2	3 : 3	5 : 1	62	1	10	0
3	5 : 1	0 : 6	40	19	2	5
4	3 : 3	2 : 4	37	6	4	4
5	4 : 2	0 : 6	56	4	12	4
Total			233	40	33	14

A number of observations can be made, in the light of the data generated by the application of the second criterion.

- Group 1, an all-female and non-English-speaking group, produced the second lowest number of original questions but the second highest number of additions to questions, the third highest number of comments and the lowest number of suggested content changes. The high number of comments suggests a higher level of awareness of the content of their peers' work than is the case in Groups 3 and 4 further suggesting, at an early stage, that the ultimate product would be of a high quality.

- Group 2 produced the highest number of questions. This group has the lowest number of additions to questions, a high number of comments but the lowest number of suggested content changes. This suggests that learners did not closely analyse their peers' work but merely added on questions without considering the content of the existing questions.
- Group 3, an all-male non-English-speaking group, produced the third highest number of original questions, the highest number of additions to questions, the lowest number of comments and the highest number of suggested content changes. The limited number of comments suggests a low level of qualitative involvement with the work of their peers, although the high number of suggested changes implies attention to detail that could yield high quality group work.
- Group 4, like Group 2, was a mixed-gender, largely non-English-speaking group. It has the lowest number of original questions, the third highest number of additions to questions, the fourth highest number of comments and (along with Group 5) the third highest number of suggested content changes. The limited number of original questions but the relatively high number of additions, comments and suggested content changes suggests that the group attempted an all-round process of quality assurance. That is, equal portions of time were allotted to the processes of individual question setting, commenting, adding and editing and each process was given due attention. In turn, this suggests a high level of collaboration.
- Group 5 was a largely male group of non-English-speaking members. This group has the second highest number of original questions, the second lowest number of additions to questions, the highest number of comments and the third highest number

of suggested content changes. The high number of comments suggests a high level of involvement with the content of peers' work. The restricted number of additions and suggested content changes, however, cast aspersions on the quality and validity of the comments.

In general, however, the data, viewed in the light of Criterion Two, does not necessarily imply successful achievement of the task because only one of the groups (Group 4) made a significant effort to comment on the quality of members' questions – either in terms of grammar or in terms of content – as is evident from the limited number of comments in relation to the total number of questions. This lack of team spirit is probably not acceptable in the contemporary workplace. Similarly, the above observations jointly suggest that very little knowledge of any kind was pooled or shared during the process of producing the survey.

From the above evidence, it is clear that Criteria One and Two are not sufficiently qualitative to determine the quality of the learners' responses. For this reason, Criterion Three analyses the content of each group's composite questionnaire (if it produced one) and then compares it to the learners' individual work to establish a correlation (if any) between poor individual performance and group performance. The grammatical criteria used for this process are: spelling, punctuation, fragments, subject-verb agreement, pronoun-antecedent agreement and vocabulary.

Although strict adherence to the rules of grammar *per se* is not a primary concern, a lack of attention to this aspect could compromise quality. Most important, however, in the context of this study and the tasks under consideration, is the fact that an awareness of grammar and grammatical corrections suggests that teamwork is vital in the workplace. Thus, the low number of grammar suggestions indicates little or no group work in the final product.

A group was randomly selected for closer analysis of its responses. The group's questionnaire is analysed in terms of grammatical accuracy but also in terms of its content. That is, if a question is deemed not to be phrased in such a way that it could actually provide meaningful information about the condition of the classroom, then it is considered vague.

4.2.4.3 data analysis according to the third criterion (Grade 9X)

The application of the third criterion yields the data that appears on the following page.

The totals indicate the total number of *questions* and not *learners*.

Table 4.3 Data for Analysis of Responses According to the Third Criterion¹⁰

Group	Male: Female Ratio	English: Other Language Ratio	Total Number of Original Questions	Total Number of Vague Questions	SP	P	SS	SV	PA	VC
1	0 : 5	0 : 5	6	1/6	1	1	1	0	0	0
2	3 : 3	5 : 1	7	2/7	0	4	0	1	0	2
3	5 : 1	0 : 6	Not done							
4	3 : 3	2 : 4	Not done							
5	4 : 2	0 : 6	6	1/6	0	1	1	2	0	1
Total Number of Questions			19	4	1	6	1	3	0	3

In the light of the above data, a number of observations can be made. Firstly, only three groups submitted composite questionnaire forms. The high number of grammatical errors and the low number of corrections to original sentences suggest very little attention to detail. This is endorsed by the fact that a relatively high number of vague questions were formulated which further suggest that the final products would not meet the criteria of a successful questionnaire.

In addition to the foregoing analysis, a comparison of the data as analysed under Criteria Two and Three yields the following findings:

¹⁰ Sp = Spelling; P = Punctuation; SS = Sentence Structure; SV = Subject-verb agreement (Concord); PA = Pronoun-antecedent agreement and VC = Inappropriate word choice.

Table 4.4 Data for Analysis of Responses According to Criteria Two and Three

Group	Male : Female Ratio	English : Other Language Ratio	Total Number of Original Questions	Total Number of Questions Composite	Total Number of Additions to Questions	Total Number of Suggested Corrections To Original Questions	S P	P	S S	S V	P A	V C
1	0 : 5	0 : 5	38	6	10	1	1	1	1	0	0	0
2	3 : 3	5 : 1	62	7	1	0	0	4	0	1	0	2
3	5 : 1	0 : 6	40	Not done	Not done							
4	3 : 3	2 : 4	37	Not done								
5	4 : 2	0 : 6	56	6	4	4	0	1	1	2	0	1
Total			233	19	15	5	1	6	2	3	0	3

The second stage of the application of Criterion Three to the composite surveys involves a further qualitative analysis to confirm the findings summarised in Table 4.4. A random sample of individual learner's work was taken to establish whether there is a correlation between poor individual performance and the final group performance. Two groups were randomly selected: Group 1 and Group 2. These groups' responses can be viewed in Appendix A. The original documents have not been changed in any way. They have merely been typed for uniformity. The data in the following discussion is not tabulated but listed and discussed. Vagueness in the discussion that follows is defined as the phrasing of a question in such a way that it does not elicit a response that is relevant to the aspect of maintenance under discussion.

An analysis of their individual work yields similarly noteworthy results.

- As already stated, Group 1 is not an English-speaking group. Three of the learners are Tswana-speaking, one is Pedi-speaking and one is Xhosa-speaking.
- All five female learners submitted documents containing at least seven original questions. In total, there were thirty-eight original questions.
- Two of the documents revealed three and two spelling errors respectively, no punctuation errors, no fragments, two and zero subject-verb agreement errors respectively, zero and two pronoun-antecedent errors and no vocabulary errors.
- Three of the documents showed no spelling errors, no punctuation errors, no fragments, no examples of subject-verb agreement errors, no pronoun-antecedent errors and no significant inappropriate vocabulary errors.
- Group 1's final survey contains six questions of which one is clearly vague (as defined at the beginning of this section). There are three errors (spelling, punctuation and sentence fragments). The questions address the major structural aspects of the classroom and thus the questions could be useful in an actual survey.
- The low number of errors in the original documents and the high number of additions to original questions could account for the relative success enjoyed by this group while a high degree of individual involvement endorses this success.

Group Two contains three male learners and three female learners.

- All the documents have very similar questions and errors, suggesting little individual work and little or no evidence of editing.
- The three male learners had at least ten questions per document. One male learner's document contains three spelling errors, eight punctuation errors, eight punctuation

errors, zero fragments, three subject-verb agreement errors, three pronoun-antecedent errors and two vocabulary errors. Another male learner's document contains only two subject-verb agreement errors. One document contains seven spelling mistakes, two punctuation errors, one subject-verb agreement error and one vocabulary error. This represents a high number of mistakes further suggesting little or no team work in the final draft.

- The three female learners showed similar results. One learner's document contains six spelling errors, two punctuation errors, one subject-verb agreement errors and one vocabulary error. One document contains three punctuation errors, one pronoun-antecedent error and three vocabulary errors. Another document contains five spelling errors, five punctuation errors, one subject-verb agreement error and one vocabulary error. There are thus twenty-nine errors in thirty-one sentences. In the mixed-gender group there were thus twenty errors more in thirteen fewer sentences than in the first all-female group.

Clearly, the lack of individual contributions to the group's task and poor individual effort hampered the group's effort.

4.2.5 Instructions and procedure: audio-visual devices survey (9Y)

As observed earlier, this task was completed using Grade 9Y, the class considered academically weaker than Grade 9X, the class that undertook the maintenance questionnaire. There were nineteen learners in 9Y – seven males and twelve females.

The same timeframe was used for this task as for the questionnaire: ten minutes were for teacher input; ten minutes to complete individual and group tables, ten to use memoranda to acquire data from other groups and ten minutes to compose final composite tables representing the whole class. Five minutes were allocated to preparing the final composite lists and checking the accuracy of the data.

Once again, the task was divided up into two phases. Phase 1 (ten minutes) contextualised the task for the learners by situating it in a real-life context, as required by the first proposition outlined in the introduction to this section.¹¹ Learners in this group were also informed that there was a goal to the task and a real-life application; the information acquired was essential so that it became possible to pool electronic resources. Learners were also informed that there was a limited period of time within which they had to complete the task.

The input phase consisted of an explanation of the format and use of a memorandum in a workplace situation. Learners were instructed to complete a table for themselves, then their group, and then to request data from other groups by sending them a memorandum. Phase 2 (thirty-five minutes) represents the process. During this time, the educator moved freely around the class, noting the behaviour and interaction of the learners, making suggestions and occasionally clarifying the task.

Seven steps were undertaken in the preparation of the audio-visual devices survey task.

¹¹ See 4.2.2.1 in the present chapter.

- Learners were again divided into groups of five to seven learners. Each learner was issued with a single sheet of paper. Learners were requested to write their name, age, gender and home language on the sheet of paper, using the remaining space for their individual contributions to the group product.¹²
- Groups were then told that they had to find out how many members had access to the following electronic devices and media: videocassette recorders, tape recorders, computers, video cameras (either digital or analogue), digital cameras and conventional cameras.
- Learners were told that this information was necessary so that it would become possible to pool electronic resources (*in lieu* of the school purchasing all these media) should it become necessary to do interdisciplinary group projects.
- The teacher then explained the structure and possible functions of the memorandum to the learners and thereafter provided lexical items indicating polite requests for use with the memorandum form.
- The teacher explained that the purpose of the task was to compile an individual table listing the individual's access to each of the media listed above.
- Thereafter, each group had to compile a group table.
- Next, each group had to use memoranda (no verbal communication between groups was allowed) to furnish details about their own media resources and to acquire details

¹² No reference to these learners' names is made. References to their names have been replaced with descriptive phrases such as Learner 1 from Group 6.

about the other groups' resources in order to compile composite tables representing the whole class.¹³ Each group's class table could then be analysed for accuracy.

4.2.5.1 evaluative criteria for the audio-visual devices survey task (9Y)

Criterion One (C1) seeks only to establish whether each individual produced a table for him or herself that reflects the number of electronic media in his or her home. Criterion Two A (C2A) seeks to establish how many memoranda were sent out and returned with some form of comment from another group. Criterion Two B (C2B) establishes whether any memoranda returned with actual figures from other groups. Criterion Three (C3) attempts to establish whether each group produced a composite table containing data, acquired by means of memoranda, from all other groups in the class.

4.2.5.2 data analysis according to all three criteria (9Y)

Criteria One, Two and Three are represented in table 4.5 on the following page:

¹³ The purpose of the task was to assist learners in acquiring knowledge of workplace forms and writing conventions that can be used to acquire and process information. Verbal communication would thus have prevented the acquisition and development of this skill.

Table 4.5 Composite Data Table for Criteria One, Two and Three

Group	C1	C2 (A)	C2 (B)	C3
1	4/4	0/4	0/4	0
2	4/4	1/4	0/4	0
3	4/4	1/4	1/4	0
4	4/4	3/4	3/4	0
5	3/4	3/4	3/4	0
Total (18)	19	N/A	N/A	0

- None of the groups actually completed the task by drawing up a composite table (Criterion Three).
- Nineteen learners, that is, ninety-five per cent of learners, completed the individual table task (Criterion 1).¹⁴
- Four out of the five groups submitted some kind of evidence, following Criterion Two, that they had requested data, by means of a (written) memorandum from the other groups in the class.
- One group had requested (though not necessarily received) data from only two groups. Consequently, this group's composite table is not complete and therefore this group did not complete the task satisfactorily.

The students' responses may be viewed in Appendix B. No changes were made to the students' responses. In Group 1, one member submitted a memorandum with no text, two

¹⁴ Although not indicated in the table, all males completed the task following Definition 1, whereas two females did not. In the preceding task, assigned to Grade 9X, there exists an all female group that outperformed a mixed-gender group.

submitted memoranda with cryptic requests such as ‘Would like to see your information...’. Two members furnished data for exchange with other groups but the difference between these sets of data suggests that they mistook individual data for their group’s data. Group 2 submitted two clear requests and two cryptic requests.

Possible reasons for the high rate of failure in this task are now considered. The data furnished by the learners are internally inconsistent; this suggests that the learners mistook individual data for group data. Group 3 submitted two clear requests, one cryptic request and one memorandum with no request. Group 4 submitted memoranda with clear requests but conflicting sets of group data. Group 5 submitted two incomplete memoranda requests, only one of which furnished data of any kind.

Learners made a number of verbal comments during the lesson. One comment suggested that the task was ‘boring’; another was made in the form of the question, ‘Why do we have to do this?’ Yet another comment made it clear that there was great confusion as to how learners were supposed to acquire data from other groups. In fact, frequently learners had to be instructed to sit down and not resort to verbal communication to acquire the necessary data. Only three of the nineteen learners appear to have been dissatisfied with the task. However, the fact that none of the groups was able to complete a composite table (not included in the study) suggests that the confusion expressed by one learner was, in fact, widespread. The evidence points to the importance of Phase 1 (teacher input) in undertaking a workplace English skills task.

4.2.6 Further deductions from both sets of data

Although both tasks follow the model outlined at the beginning of this chapter, that is, a workplace English skills task that is contextualised by the teacher and introduced with input, the input provided was not, perhaps, adequate or sufficiently clear.

In retrospect, a single difference between the two tasks warrants some attention. The first task, the questionnaire task assigned to Grade 9X, does not require any written request for data from other groups. Although learners in Grade 9X who did this task were told to circulate their questionnaires for comment, they were not expected to do so in writing. They were allowed to pass on their questionnaires without any specific oral or written request. The request was made on their behalf by the teacher in Phase 1 of the task.

Thus, it could be argued that oral requests are easier to make since they involve non-verbal cues not available during written communication. Grade 9Y's learners (the class that had to undertake the electronic media survey) had to submit a formal and written request to other groups to acquire the data they needed. As the comments quoted earlier show, there appears to be a correlation between individual cryptic written requests for information and the inability of the group to complete the task, even though learners were aware of the fact that they had to get information from other groups in order to complete the task. This underlines the importance of Phase 1, the input phase. That is, the teacher must take into consideration not only the required forms for a communicative act, but also the correct conventions such as posing questions in a meaningful way.

The evidence above does not, from the perspective of the argument of this study, invalidate the tentative theory of workplace English skills proposed in Chapter Two. In fact, it appears to emphasize the importance of a particular phase outlined in this theory – Phase 1. The fact that learners doing the electronics survey task (involving the use of the memorandum) were able to complete the first stage of the task suggests that it was inter-group interaction that posed a problem for the completion of this particular task. This can arguably be attributed to a lack of confidence or poor self-image in a group repeating a grade, or simply to a lower overall ability.

In turn, as the list of workplace English skills outlined in Tables 2.3 and 2.4 in Chapter Two show, teachers clearly need to spend time on facilitating group dynamics and personal management skills. Increasing the grammatical input alone could not have significantly altered the results described above. The few comments made about the relevance of the tasks suggest that the tasks are, essentially, meaningful but that poor input and failure by the teacher to contextualise tasks in Phase 1 could hamper the success of the process.

4.2.7 Adjusting the model

The above observations reveal three areas of revision necessary to make the revised model more inclusive of the observations of the argument in Chapter Three of this study. These areas are time, input and context.¹⁵ The revised model in Figure 4.2 shows that

¹⁵ The second model has been revised in direct consequence of the findings of the experiments but also theoretical changes recommended during the examination of this thesis. The first model, as previously stated, has not been altered for ethical reasons.

stages A-D take place within a continuous cycle. As the argument in Chapter Three notes, process is as important, if not more important, than product. Equally important is the fact that this notion, process, characterises each stage so that each stage is a process and the whole itself is a process.

4.2.7.1 context and task

The workplace, as argued in Chapter Two of this study, offers guidance to language teachers on what learners are required to do in the workplace. At the same time, as noted in Chapter One, a critical approach to literacy requires that learners critically interact with hegemonic discourses and that they acquire the means to interact and reshape such discourses and practices.

Establishing the context of the task first necessitates identifying the need that underpins the task. In the context of the experiments outlined earlier in the present chapter, it is clear that learners first ought to have been given an opportunity to reflect on the relevance of the task in order to appreciate the authentic use of the genres and lexical items used to complete the task. This kind of reflection might assist in avoiding the problem of “McCommunication” since learners would be critically involved in analysing their response to a given situation. Following the identification of the need, it is crucial to delineate carefully the boundaries and goals of the task. Clearly, insufficient attention was paid to this stage.

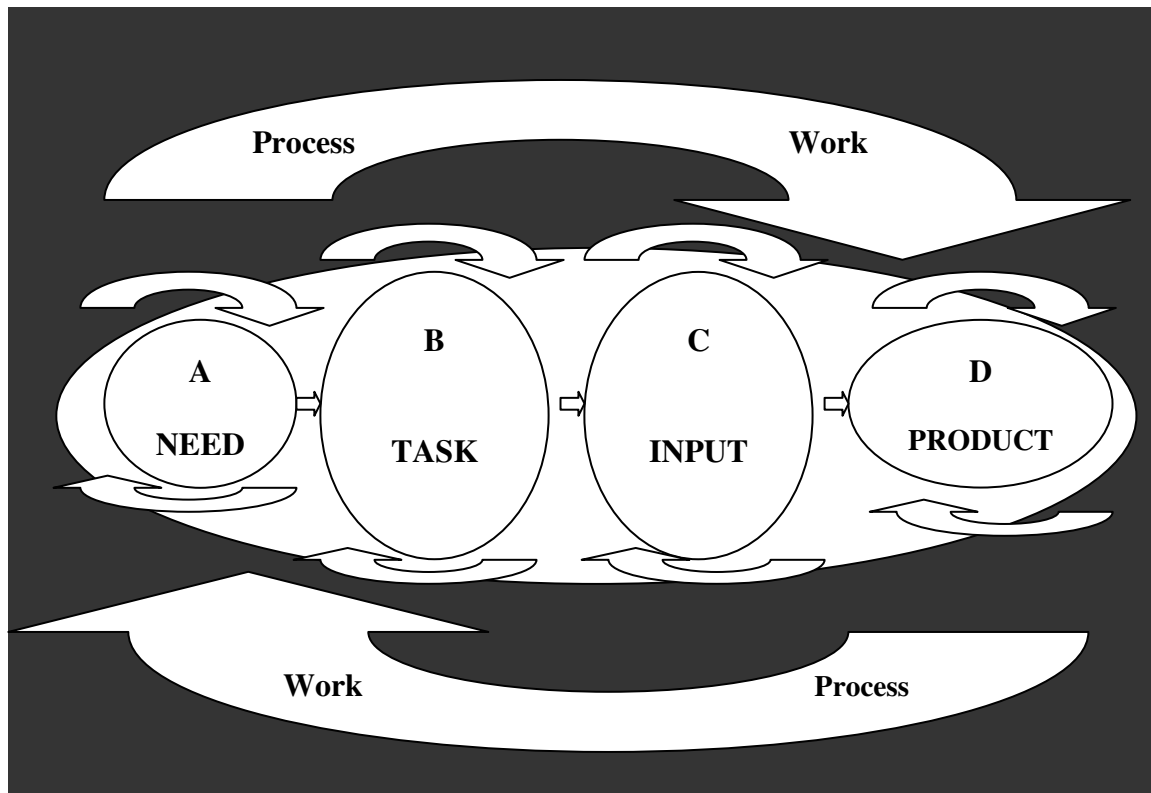
4.2.7.2 time

Clearly, time was a factor in the poor performance of the learners. The input required, as discussed in 4.2.7.3 below, is more substantial than anticipated by the first model. Since each stage is a process in itself, extending the period of time spent on each stage would, in all likelihood, produce results significantly different from those generated by the experiments in this chapter.

4.2.7.3 input

The need for more input is evident, particularly in the results of the audio-visual devices survey task. That is, the input phase made insufficient provision for studying genre and lexis. It also made insufficient provision for different learning styles and for developing the complex group-dynamic skills required to work together to produce a workplace text of any sophistication. In the discussions that this kind of reflection might generate, learners could make use of both local forms of language in their interaction with one another and standard lexical items. In the experiments, groups were incapable of acquiring information from other groups and synthesising this information with their own work because they were not able to organize themselves, plan, divide labour efficiently and perform more than one task at a time. Furthermore, the input phase, as it is described at the beginning of this chapter includes, present receptive skills as listening skills, ignoring the fact that listening is an active skill and that during the input phase, learners produce meaning as they learn about language and genre. In essence, this makes the input phase a purely passive phase.

In retrospect therefore, it can be deduced that learners ought to have been given an opportunity, for example, to study real-life samples of memoranda. In their study of these samples, learners would have been reading and writing – in the sense of constructing meaning – and thus the productive skills could have become part of the process skills and *vice-versa*.¹⁶ In effect, this action would have integrated the product phase with the process phase resulting in a single continuous cycle of production in which process and product are indistinguishable from each other. These observations can now be translated into a revision of the model proposed in Figure 4.1 earlier in this chapter. For the sake of cohesion the table is set out on the following page.



16 Cf. Brokensha, 2000:324 who offers a reflective cycle that describes the construction of ESP materials from design to implementation consisting of following stages: 'target-centred needs analysis', 'materials design', 'implementation', 'observation', 'critical reflection' and 'modification'.

Figure 4.2 A Revised Model for the Design of Workplace Literacy Tasks

Thus, following the revised model above, the process of producing a workplace task is a cyclical process of production and revision.¹⁷ The cycle depicted in the revised model would presuppose a longer input phase. Thus, the revised model shows that the traditional distinctions upheld in language teaching, the classroom and even the workplace are conflated in the model proposed in this study. For example, the revised model shows that process and product are essentially part of one process – work. The distinction between productive and receptive skills also becomes arbitrary in that the decoding of a text during feedback, for example, is also a process of reading – where reading itself is a form of producing meaning. ‘Importantly, the question arises whether such modes such as “written language” or “spoken language” can, in any case, be regarded as “monomodal”: in fact... they cannot. This means that we have to rethink “language” as a multimodal phenomenon.’¹⁸

For the language instructor, the above modification has the following implications for teaching practice. Teacher input now takes place using the texts produced as first drafts

17 Murray and Johann, 1989:s.p. in Read to Learn, argue that this process of writing and revising what one has written constitutes a process approach to learning and writing. The findings of this thesis differ slightly from their findings – in which skill areas exist independently of one another and learning is cyclical – in that the present study argues for a conflation of skill boundaries which then results in a cyclical process of learning. Cf. Merkestein, 1998:48-49 who notes that one can learn a lot about ‘... production behaviour...’ by studying the product since ‘... changes found in the product, the text, are then indicators of changes in linguistic behaviour during the process.’ Thus, as this study asserts, one can conflate the distinction between process and product in the design of workplace skills tasks since required changes to the input phase can be derived from reflection on the product and the revision of that product.

18 Kress, 2000:184.

only. These draft are then shown to learners as input and the weaknesses of the drafts highlighted and discussed. Supplementary grammatical input could also be provided.

This process could become even more empowering by emphasising the fact that the production of memoranda and questionnaires empower the learners to inscribe the world in text and to control the process of inscription. That is, workplace skills tasks in general could be reinterpreted as tools for the process of producing reality. This level of abstraction may, however, not be useful at Grade 9 level. The learners would become active in the process of re-encoding the texts after having discussed their failure to produce texts that would have achieved the desired social effect. In this way, the social dimensions of the production of meaning would be reinforced. This ends the argument of the present study. The Conclusion to this thesis follows.

CONCLUSION

It is hoped that the observations made in this study, *Workplace English skills for Grade 9 languages in C21*, the conclusions drawn and the model offered in the fourth chapter of this study contribute to the existing body of thought on English language teaching using an outcomes-based approach. The knowledge gleaned from this research could be of some use to educators. The first chapter states that this study is concerned with application and often arises in response to a perceived social need or problem. This thesis attempts to show how workplace skills, if introduced at Grade 9 level, could help to prepare learners for the workplace.

This thesis proposes, in the Introduction, that the current lack of skills is the product of a deliberate policy of first British colonial and then apartheid-era education that sought to reserve jobs requiring purely cognitive skills for South Africans of European descent. Most South Africans of colour were not educated to perform tasks beyond manual labour tasks. The apartheid era saw the political, economic, social, cultural and sporting isolation of South Africa. During this period, dramatic changes took place in the world. One of these changes was the rise of globalisation that changed the way capital moves rapidly across national boundaries in pursuit of skills and profits. South Africa's system of education and its economy were thus not prepared for re-entry into the international system of commerce in 1994. At the time that globalisation began to make its influence felt, English assumed the position of the global *lingua franca*. Multicultural South Africa had not sufficiently prepared its learners for this reality. Although Curriculum 2004/C21 is an attempt to prepare learners for the workplace, this study moves that the curriculum's insufficient emphasis on workplace skills does not adequately prepare learners to

function effectively in the workplace.

This study is not a definitive study. No study, is intended to be definitive or final. Nevertheless, the model offered in Chapter Four does incorporate the Critical Cross-field Outcomes of Curriculum 2005/C21, the Learning Outcomes for Languages, and generally accepted principles of language teaching, and thus attempts to unify these different variables in a theory of workplace skills and an accompanying model. Since workplace English skills reflect the Critical Cross-field Outcomes of Curriculum 2005/C21 and the Learning Outcomes for Languages, as shown in the third chapter of this study, this model is suited to the design of language-based tasks that attempt to prepare learners for the workplace. The model offered in Chapter Four of this study was designed to try to meet the needs of employers, learners and those of language educators. This study argues that if one were to introduce workplace English skills into the Languages Learning Area, Curriculum 2005/C21 would be closer to its goal of preparing learners for the workplace. Broadly speaking then, the research problem investigates the manner in which this goal could be achieved.

This study proposes a view of language that sees language as functional in its social context. The tasks described in Chapter Four attempt to situate the completion of workplace tasks in a social context and for a social goal in line with M2 knowledge production. From this proposition, three further propositions or hypotheses proceed, as this study has shown.

The second and third propositions explored in this thesis relate to the context of language. That is, the second proposition claims that language is functional in its social context in that it achieves social goals. The workplace tasks described in Chapter Four derive their meaning and impact from the fact that they are intended to be used within a community such as the school. The tasks are embedded in perceived social needs. The third proposition, that language produces meaning in a social context, follows logically from the second. The practical tasks used to test those propositions are shown to have been meaningful because of the social context within which they are performed. In fact, as is argued in Chapter One, meaning only exists in a social context.

The fourth proposition sees language as the production of meaning. This approach to language is shown to conflate, in the context of language teaching, the distinction between hearing, listening, reading (receptive skills) on the one hand, and speaking and writing (productive skills) on the other. This point is made towards the end of Chapter Four, culminating in a revised model for the design of workplace literacy tasks. Finally, since work is such a widespread social phenomenon, this study has shown that teaching language should focus primarily on teaching the use of that language within the context of the workplace. However, since this study adopts the view that language acquisition and production are about the production of meaning, workplace skills are shown to be very broad in scope. The tasks that were put to the test and discussed in Chapter Four seek to demonstrate this point. The tasks themselves are deemed to have been meaningful in that they were intended for a socially meaningful purpose. They could only be

accomplished within a collaborative context and they were contextualised in the life of the community they were intended to help.

The Introduction to this thesis acknowledges the efforts of South African educators labouring under very difficult conditions. In this sense, the conclusions reached by this study, expressed in the model offered in the fourth chapter, suggest that the classroom could and indeed, should, be transformed into a space that prepares learners for the real world (of work): the workplace. In order to provide a rationale for this newer approach to the teaching of English language skills, the Introduction discusses the influence of globalisation on the workplace and also the manner in which it creates a demand for skills. Curriculum 2005, an outcomes-based curriculum, is shown to be one that has been designed to meet the challenges posed by globalisation by adopting an approach to learning that focuses on what a learner can do, and not only on what he or she knows and can reproduce in an examination.

This study does not argue that preparing learners for the real world could or should exclude other forms of life-skills education. In fact, in keeping with the changing face of knowledge production, other researchers may undertake research that supplements or even supplants the findings of this study. Similarly, this study spans the fields of economics, social studies and education (including politics and facilitation in English). Acknowledging the necessary limitations of any research project, suggestions for further research that spans a combination of fields of enquiry are now offered.

Within the field of education, a number of possibilities for further language-related studies exist. The model offered in the fourth chapter of this study has been subjected to limited testing. Although it is shown to achieve what it sets out to do, that is, to offer a framework within which outcomes-based, language-related and task-based activities can be designed, the study tested only two workplace English tasks underpinned by two specific skills language skills: compiling questionnaires and using memoranda. Following *The Revision of an Existing English Language Textbook to Meet the Demands of Outcomes-based Education* (Moeng, 1999), a study cited in the first chapter of the present study, further research into outcomes-based materials could be undertaken to determine whether these materials reflect the concerns of the model offered in this study.

Other multidisciplinary research spanning language studies and Economics and the Social sciences also exist. For example, further research could lead to a modification of the model offered here so that it reflects the Learning Outcomes for the Learning Area Economics and Management Sciences. Such a model thus reflects not only generally accepted language teaching principles but also generally accepted principles of teaching commercial or social studies. Skills training for resisting globalisation might also be a feasible research topic.

At the time of writing, Curriculum 2005/C21 is still in place in South African schools although there is evidence of growing discontent with this outcomes-based approach to education. Similarly, it appears as if all official languages in South Africa will be promoted equally, as indeed, they should be. Nevertheless, this study contends that it is

important to help learners to acquire skills through the medium of English, since current trends indicate that the immediate economic future is likely to continue to be dominated by English.

Although a number of parents have expressed dissatisfaction with Curriculum 2005/C21 (through agencies such as the Pestalozzi Trust cited in the Introduction to this study), it is unlikely that Curriculum 2005/C21 will be abandoned in the near future. This thesis has striven to show that Curriculum 2005/C21 provides a solid framework within which workplace English skills can be taught. It has also argued that workplace English skills are crucial in preparing learners to become responsible citizens. The vision of parents and educators for a better future, as described in the Introduction to this study, is indeed a desirable one. This study asserts that by introducing workplace English skills into Curriculum 2005/C21, this vision stands a good chance at being realised.

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APPENDIX A

The following scripts have been retyped from the originals that have been deposited with the study leader for this project. No changes have been made to the original scripts. Initials and names have been replaced with numbers. Statements added after the scripts were circulated for commentary are added after the phrase “Added later”.

Maintenance questionnaire Task Scripts

Group 1 Student 1

15 years 1988/06/03

Female

Xhosa

Walls, Floors and Ceilings

1. Are the walls painted?
2. Are the walls in good condition?
3. When was the last time the walls and floors cleaned
4. Does the ceiling have cracks?
5. Does the floor have holes?
6. Are the posters on the wall?
7. Is the dust on the walls? and ceiling

Added later

8. Does the ceilings leak?
9. Are the walls properly constructed?
10. Are the walls well plastered (strongly cemented)?

Group 1 Student 2

15 / Female

Tswana

THEME: WALLS; FLOORS; CEILINGS

1. Are the walls painted?
2. Are the walls in good conditions?
3. When was the last time the walls and floor cleaned?
4. Does the ceiling have cracks?
5. Does the floor have holes in it?
6. Are there posters on the walls? [Added later:] Bad question.
7. IS there dust on the walls and ceiling?
- Added later?
8. Are the walls properly constructed
9. are the wall well plastered (strongly semented)

Group 1 Student 3

14 yrs female

Pedi (n / south)

Walls, floors & ceiling

Questions

1. Are the walls painted?
2. Are the walls in good condition?
3. When was the walls and floors cleans? [Added later:] ?
4. Does the ceiling have cracks?
5. Does the floor have hole? [Added later:] ?
6. Are there posttests on the walls? [Added later:] ?
7. Is there dust on the floors and walls?

Added later

Does the ceiling like?

Is the walls properly constructed?

Are the walls well plastered?

Group 1 Student 4

14 yrs 5 months

Tswana

THEME: Walls, floors & ceiling.

Questions

1. Are the walls painted? [Added later:] yes.
2. Are the walls in good condition?
3. Does the ceiling have cracks?
4. Does the floor have ceramic tiles?
5. Does the walls need posters?
6. Are they dust on the walls
7. Do the tiles need replacing?
8. Does the cielings leak?
9. Are the walls properly constructed?
10. Are the walls well plastered (strongly semented)?

Group 1 Student 5

15 Female

Tswana

THEME:

Walls

Floors

Ceiling

Are the walls painted? [Added later:] It's a classroom, who cares

Are the walls in good condition?

When was the last time the walls and floors cleaned? [Added later:] How must I know?

Does the ceiling have cracks?

Does the floor have holes in it?

Are the posters on the walls?

Is there any dust on the wall and ceiling? [Added later:] Dah

[Added later:]

Are the walls properly constructed

Do the ceilings leak

Group 1's Final Draft

1. Are the walls painted?
2. Are the walls in good condition
3. When was the last time the walls and floor cleaned?
4. Does the ceiling have cracks?
5. Does the floor have holes in it?
6. Is the dust on the walls and ceiling?

Group 2 Student 1

Age: 15

Gender: Male

Home language: English

Furniture

1. Is the furniture in good condition (eg) Is the top's screwed to the top?
2. Are the chairs sturdy?
3. Is the table's hygienicly clean.
4. Are they graffiti Free?
5. Is the desks big enough to write on.? [Added later:] Dir
6. Do the capboards have door's?
7. Do the caboards have enough Space to ? Store books.
8. Do all the cupboard have secure looks.?
9. Is there enough furniture?
10. DO the desks have hole's In It?
11. [Added later:] Dum Question

Group 2 Student 2

13 /Male

Female

Xhosa

Furniture

1. Is the furniture in good condition?
2. Are the chairs sturdy?
3. Are they hygienic?
4. Are they graffiti free? [Added later:] what do u think
5. Is the desk big enough to write on?
6. Do all the cupboards have doors?
7. Do all the cupboards have enough space? [Added later:] Dir that's stupid
8. Are the cupboards secure?
9. Is there enough furniture?
10. Do the desks have holes in them?

Group 2 Student 3

15 / Female

English

Furniture

1. Is the furniture in good condition. Eg: are the tops screwed on properly?
2. Are the chairs sterdy?
3. Are the desks hygenicly clean.
4. Are they graphity free?
5. Is the desk big enough to work on?
6. Do the cuberds have doors?
7. Are the cuberds have enough space?
8. Are the cuberds secure?
9. Is there enough fernature?
10. Do the have wholes in them?
11. Are there a same amont of Desks as chairs?

[Added later:] 1. You should have ask more questions be for the first question

So your question are not good

Group 2 Student 4

14 /Male

English

Furniture

1. Are the desks in good condition?
2. Are the chairs sturdy
3. Are the tables hygienically clean?
4. Are they graffiti free? Added later Stupid very Stupid questions Do you have reliable equipments to clean your furnitures
5. Are the desks big enough to write on? [Added later:] Stupid again If it's furniture it was of course measured you idiot
6. Do all the cupboards have doors?
7. Do the cupboard have enough space? [Added later:] Depending on what the cupboards are used for.
8. Are the cupboards secure (eg locks latches)?
9. Is there enough furniture.?
10. Do they desks have holes in them?
11. Are there same amount of chairs as tables?

Group 2 Student 5

15 / Female

English

Furniture

1. Is the furniture in good condition eg: are the tops screwed on properly etc?
2. Are the chairs sturdy?
3. Is the furniture hygenicly clean?
4. Is the furniture graffiti free?
5. Is the desk at an acceptable size?
6. Do the cupboards have doors?
7. Do the cupboards possess enough space for eg: books?
8. Are the cupboards secure eg: have locks?
9. Is there enough furniture?
10. Do they have holes (desks)?

Group 2 Student 6

13 /Male

Female

Xhosa

1. is the furniture in good condition? eg: are the top screwed on properly
2. Are the chairs sterdy?
3. Are they hygencicly clean?
4. Are they grafity Free?
5. Are the desks big enough to write on?
6. Do the coaberds have door's?
7. Do the coaberds have secure locks ect.....
8. Is there enough furntire
9. Do the desk have holes in them?

[Added later:]

Questions are exceptable but some really not nessary It would be fixed if you stoped using a kids knowledge.

Group 2's Final Draft

1. Is there furniture in good condition eg: are the tops screwed on properly etc?
2. Are the chairs sturdy?
3. Is the furniture hygienically clean?
4. Is the furniture graffiti free?
5. Is the desk at an acceptable size?
6. Do the cupboards have doors?
7. Do the cupboards possess enough space for eg: book

Group 3 Student 1

16 /M

English / Afrikaans

Windows + doors

1. Does the Locks of doors Look in good condition? Added later no
2. cracked windows? [Added later:] no / hope it falls on you head
3. How many doors and windows are there? [Added later:] who cares
4. Are there Any chipped putty on the window fram's? [Added later:] shut up is dis
part of above question
5. are the door frames working probally? [Added later:] don't give a [expletive]
6. are there cradles in the doors? Added later don't want to look
7. are there any rasted window accesserys? Added later to far to look
8. Are the windows in good reach? [Added later:] don't bother trying to reach
9. Are the windows tranperent? [Added later:] retarded question I'll say so are you.

Group 3 Student 2

14 /Male

Setswana

Windows & doors

1. Are the locks of the doors in good condition?
2. Are there cracks on the windows?
3. How many doors and windows are there?
4. Are there chipped party on the windows?
5. Are the door frames works properly?
6. Are there cracks on the doors?
7. Are the window handle rusted?
8. Are the windows in good reach?
9. Are the windows transparent?
10. [Added later:] is there butler proofing on windows and door?

Group 3 Student 3

15 year old Female

Setswana

Windows and Doors

1. Are the locks for door in good condition?
2. Are there any cracks on the windows?
3. Are the window frames painted?
4. Are there any chiped partie in the windows?
5. Are the door frames working properly?
6. Are there any cracks on the door?
7. What are the window made of?
8. Are the window handles rasted?
9. Are they all in good reach?

Group 3 Student 4

Age: 15 years old

Sex: Male

Home language: Zulu

Theme: Windows and doors

1. Are the locks of the doors in good condition.
2. Are there cracks on the windows.
3. Are the window frames stable.
4. Are there any chipped patti on the window frames.
5. Are door frames working properly.
6. Are there cracks on the door.
7. Are the window handles rusted
8. Are they in good reach.
9. [Added later:] Are there butlerproof?

Added later 10. [left blank]

Group 3 Student 5

Age: 14 years

Sex: Female

Home language: Tswana and English

Theme: Windows and Doors

1. How many door are there and windows? Added alter: Doesn't make scence.
2. Is the locks of the doors in good condition? Added later [correction] Are [the locks...].
3. Are there cracks on the windows?
4. Are they any chipped partty in the windows?
5. Are the door frames working properly?
6. Is the door cracked.
7. Are the window handles rusted?
8. Are the windows in good reach?
9. Are the windows transparent?
10. [Added later:] Is there butler proofing on windows and door?

Group 3 Student 6

14 yrs old / Female

Home language: Zulu

Theme: Windows and doors

1. Any broken windows? Or cracks?
2. Doors in good condition?
3. How many doors and windows are there?
4. Are there any chipparty on the windows?
5. Are the door frame working properly?
6. Are there cracks on the doors?
7. Are the window handles rusted?
8. Are the windows's in good reach.
9. Are the windows transparent?
10. [Added later:] Are there butlerproof?

Group 3's Final Draft

1. Any broken windows or cracked windows?
2. Are doors in good condition?
3. Are there cracks on the door?
4. Are there any chippartty on the windows?
5. Are the door frame working properly?
6. Are the window [incomplete]

APPENDIX B

No changes have been made to the original texts.

Group 1 Memoranda

MEMORANDUM

Date:
To:
From: Group 1
Re: Request for information

Dear Sir Ms [no additional text]

MEMORANDUM

Date: 22/07/03
To: [Student 3 a member of same group]
From: Student 1 of Group 1
Re: Request for information

Dear Sir Ms

Would like to see your technical infor [no further text]

[on the reverse side of the memorandum appears what is presumable the group's data:]

VCR	4/4 100%
Tape recorder	4/4 100%
Computer	3/4 85%
Video camera	4/4 100%
Camera (normal)	4/4 100%
Camera (digital)	[blank]

MEMORANDUM

Date: 22/07/03

To: Group 3

From: [Group 1]

Re: Request for information

Dear Sir Ms

Would like to see your Technical information.

[On the reverse side]

VCR	4/4 100%
Tape recorder	3/4 75%
Computer	3/4 75%
Video camera	1/4 25%
Camera (normal)	2/4 50%
Camera (digital)	1/4 25%

Group 1 Individual Tables

Name:	Student 1
Age:	15
Sex:	Female
Home language:	Tswana
VCR	4/4 100%
Tape recorder	4/4 100%
Computer	3/4 85%
Video camera	4/4 100%
Camera (normal)	4/4 100%
Camera (digital)	[blank]

Name:	Student 2
Age:	15
Sex:	Female
Home language:	Tswana
VCR	4/4 100%
Tape recorder	4/4 100%
Computer	3/4 85%
Video camera	4/4 100%
Camera (normal)	[blank]
Camera (digital)	[blank]

Name:	Student 3
Age:	15
Sex:	Female
Home language:	Tswana
VCR	4/4 100%
Tape recorder	4/4 100%
Computer	3/4 85%
Video camera	4/4 100%
Camera (normal)	[blank]
Camera (digital)	[blank]

Name:	Student 4
Age:	15
Sex:	Female
Home language:	Southern Sotho
VCR	4/4 100%
Tape recorder	4/4 100%
Computer	3/4 55%
Video camera	4/4 100%
Camera (normal)	4/4 100%
Camera (digital)	[blank]

Group 2 Memoranda

MEMORANDUM

Date: 23/7/03
To: [Group 4]
From: Group 2
Re: Request for infammation

VCR	4/4 100%
Tape recorder	4/4 100%
Computer	4/4 100%
Video camera	4/4 100%
Camera (normal)	4/4 100%
Camera (digital)	4/4 100%

[On the reverse side:]

Dear Sir / Madam

As a group we are requesting for your group's technology information.

MEMORANDUM

Date: 23/07/03
To: to Group 4 [again]
From: Group 2
CC: Request for informations

Dear Ms

As Cleo's group ask 4 information 4 technology

[On the reverse side:]

VCR	4/4 100%
Tape recorder	3/4 75%
Computer	[omitted]
Video camera	1/4 25%
Camera (normal)	[not specified]
Camera (digital)	[not specified]

MEMORANDUM

Date: 23/07/03
To: Group 1
From: Group 2
[other details omitted]

Dear / Sir / Miss

We would love to know how many of you have technical's at home (please)

[On the reverse side:]

VCR	[omitted]
Tape recorder	4/4 100%
Computer	[omitted]
[Vidio]	4/4 100%
[sic]camera	
Camera (normal)	[not specified]
Camera (digital)	[not specified]

MEMORANDUM

Date: 23/07/03
To: Group 5
From: Group 2
Re: Request for information

Dear sir

As a group we would like to know how many people have all the technology information.

[Comment: You did not send your info please send it!]

VCR	[omitted]
Tape recorder	4/4 100%
Computer	3/4 99%
[Vidio] camera	4/4 100%
Camera (normal)	4/4 100%
Camera (digital)	2/4 50%

Group 2 Individual Tables

Name:		Student 1
Age:	14	
Sex:	Female	
Home language:	Sotho	
VCR	4/4 100%	
Tape recorder	4/4 100%	
Computer	3/4 85%	
Video camera	2/4 50%	
Camera (normal)	4/4 100%	
Camera (digital)	[blank]	
Name:		Student 2
Age:	16	
Sex:	Female	
Home language:	Zulu	
VCR	4/4 100%	
Tape recorder	4/4 100%	
Computer	3/4 99%	
Video camera	2/4 50%	
Camera (normal)	[not specified]	
Camera (digital)	[not specified]	
Name:		Student 3
Age:	15	
Sex:	Female	
Home language:	Sotho and Ndebele	
VCR	4/4 100%	
Tape recorder	4/4 100%	
Computer	3/4 99%	
Video camera	2/4 50%	
Camera (normal)	[not specified]	
Camera (digital)	[not specified]	
Name:		Student 4 [response (erroneously) in
	memorandum format]	
Age:	15	
Sex:	Female	
Home language:	Xhosa	
VCR	4/4 100%	
Tape recorder	4/4 100%	
Computer	3/4 99%	
Video camera	2/4 50%	
Camera (normal)	[not specified]	
Camera (digital)	[not specified]	

Group 3 Memoranda

MEMORANDUM

Date: 22/7/03
To: [Group 1]
From: Group 3
Re: Request for information

Dear Sir /Miss

Would you like to give us your technical information?

[On the reverse side:]

VCR	4/4 100%
Tape recorder	4/4 100%
Computer	3/4 85%
[Vedio]camera	4/4 100%
Camera (normal)	[not specified]
Camera (digital)	[not specified]

Yours faithful
[Student's name]

MEMORANDUM

Date: 23/07/03
To: to Group 4 [again]
From: Group 2
CC: Request for information.

Dear / Sir / Mr / Mrs

[On the reverse side:]

VCR	4/4
Tape recorder	3/4
Computer	2/4
Video camera	3/4
Camera (normal)	2/4
Camera (digital)	2/4

MEMORANDUM

Date: 23/07/03

To: [Nickname of student from another unspecified group]

From: [not stated]

CC: Request for infomation

Dear Sir / Ms

What information would you like me to give

MEMORANDUM

Date: [not stated]

To: [Group 3]

From: Student 1 of Group 3

CC: Request for infomation

Dear Sir / madam

we will like to know how many learners has Technical information

[On the reverse side:]

VCR	4/4 100% [Response:] 4/4 100%
Tape recorder	4/4 100% [Response:] 4/4 100%
Computer	2/4 50% [Response:] 3/4 99%
[Vedio] camera	3/4 75% [Response:] 4/4 100%
Camera (normal)	4/4 100% [Response:] 0/4 0%
Camera (digital)	0/4 0% [Response:] 4/4 100%

Group 3 Individual Tables

Name: **Student 1**

Age: 14
Sex: Male
Home language: English and Tshwana
VCR 4/4 100%
Tape recorder 3/4 75%
Computer 3/4 75%
Video camera 1/4 25%
Camera (normal) 2/4 50%
Camera (digital) 1/4 25%

Name: **Student 2**

Age: 14
Sex: Male
Home language: Tswana
VCR 3/4 75%
Tape recorder 3/4 75%
Computer 1/4 25%
Video camera 1/4 25%
Camera (normal) 2/4 50%
Camera (digital) [not specified]

Name: **Student 3**

Age: 15
Sex: Male
Home language: English and Setswana
VCR 3/4 75%
Tape recorder 3/4 75%
Computer 1/4 25%
Video camera [not specified]
Camera (normal) 2/4 50%
Camera (digital) [not specified]

Name: **Student 4** [response (erroneously) in memorandum format]

Age: 15
Sex: Male
Home language: Tswana
VCR 4/4 100%
Tape recorder 3/4
Computer 3/4 75%
Video camera 1/4 25%
Camera (normal) 1/4 25%
Camera (digital) 2/4 50%

Group 4 Memoranda

MEMORANDUM

Date: 23/7/03
To: [not specified]
From: Group 4
Re: Request for information

Dear Sir / Miss [Student 1 from Group 2]

We as a group would like to know that how many of you in your group have some technical equipment at homes.

[Partly on the reverse side:]

VCR	4/4 100%
Tape recorder	4/4 100%
Computer	3/4 99%
Video camera	2/4 50%
Camera (normal)	4/4 100%
Camera (digital)	[not specified]

MEMORANDUM

Date: 23/7/03
To: [not specified]
From: Group 4
Re: Request for information

Dear Sir / Miss [Student 1 from Group 2]

We as a group would like to know that how many of you in your group have some technical equipment at homes.

[Partly on the reverse side:]

VCR	4/4 100%
Tape recorder	4/4 100%
Computer	3/4 99%
Video camera	2/4 50%
Camera (normal)	4/4 100%
Camera (digital)	[not specified]

MEMORANDUM

Date: 23/07/03
To: [Group 5]
From: [Group 4]
Re: Request for information.

Dear Sir / Madam [Name of student from Group 5]

We as a group would like to know that how many of you in your group have some technical equipments at home

Thank you!

[Comment: You did not send your info please send it!]

VCR	4/4
Tape recorder	4/4
Computer	2/4
Video camera	3/4
Camera (normal)	2/4
Camera (digital)	2/4

MEMORANDUM

Date: 23/7/03
To: [Student 3 from Group 3]
From: Group 4
Re: Request for information

Dear Sir / Madam [Student 3 from Group 3]

We as a group would like to know that how many of you in your group have some technical information at home

Thank you

[Student 4 from Group 4]

[On the reverse side:]

VCR	4/4 100%
Tape recorder	4/4 100%
Computer	3/4 85%
Video camera	2/4 50%
Camera (normal)	[not specified]
Camera (digital)	[not specified]

MEMORANDUM

Date: 22/07/03
To: Student 3 from Group 3
From: Group 4
Re: Please give us your technical information.

Dear sir or madam

Here is our technical information.

VCR	3/3
Tape recorder	2/3
Computer	1/3
Video camera	0/3
Camera (normal)	3/3
Camera (digital)	3/3

Group 4 Individual Tables

Name:	Student 1
Age:	14
Sex:	[Female]
Home language:	Sotho and Sepedi
VCR	4/4 100%
Tape recorder	3/4 75%
Computer	2/4 50%
[Vedio] camera	3/4 25%
Camera (normal)	4/4 100%
Camera (digital)	0/4 0%

Name:	Student 2
Age:	15
Sex:	Female
Home language:	Tswana
VCR	4/4 100%
Tape recorder	2/4 50%

Computer 3/4 75%
Video camera 1/4 25%
Camera (normal) 0/0 0%
Camera (digital) 4/4 100%

Name:

Student 3

Age: 15
Sex: Female
Home language: Tswana / venda
VCR 4/4 100%
Tape recorder 4/4 100%
Computer 2/4 75%
Video camera 3/4
Camera (normal) [not specified]
Camera (digital) 4/4 100%

Name:

Student 4 [response (erroneously) in memorandum format]

Age: 15
Sex: Male
Home language: Tswana
VCR 4/4 100%
Tape recorder 4/4 100%
Computer 2/4 50%
Video camera 3/4 75%
Camera (normal) 4/4 100%
Camera (digital) 0/4 0%

Group 5 Memoranda

MEMORANDUM

Date: 22/7/03
To: [Student 3 from Group 3]
From: Group 5
Re: Request for information

Dear Sir / Ms

[Instruction: Look at back]

[On the reverse side:]

VCR	3/4 75%
Tape recorder	4/4 75%
Computer	1/4 25%
Video camera	1/4 25%
Camera (normal)	2/5 25%
Camera (digital)	[unclear]

[Comment added: Thanx for your selfish help] [Signed Member from Group 3]

MEMORANDUM

Date: 22/07/03
To: [Group 2]
From: Group 5
Re: Request for information, here is our technical Info.

[Comment: You did not send your info please send it!]

Group 5 Individual Tables

Name:		Student 1
Age:	15	
Sex:	[Male]	
Home language:	Sesotho	
VCR	3/3 100%	
Tape recorder	2/3	
Computer	1/3	
Video camera	0/3 0%	
Camera (normal)	[unclear]	
Camera (digital)	[unclear]	
Name:		Student 2
Age:	15	
Sex:	Female	
Home language:	tswana	
VCR	3/3 100%	
Tape recorder	3/3 100%	
Computer	1/3 33%	
Vidio camera	0/3 0%	
Camera (normal)	3/3 100%	
Camera (digital)	1/3 33%	
Name:		Student 3
Age:	16	
Sex:	Male	
Home language:	Setswana	
VCR	3/3 100%	
Tape recorder	3/3 100%	
Computer	0/3 0%	
Video camera	3/3 100%	
Camera (normal)	1/3 33%	
Camera (digital)	3/3 100%	

APPENDIX C (TABLES)

Table 1.1 The Compatibility of the Critical Cross-Field Outcomes With the Principles of a ‘Critical Literacy’

Critical Cross-field Outcome	Critical Literacy/Pedagogy Principle
1. [to] identify and solve problems in which responses display that responsible decisions using critical and creative thinking have been made;	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It empowers the learner to interrogate the very process of the production of knowledge and to question established curricular knowledge and it encourages the learner to challenge notions of objectivity and universality and to questions the nature of teacher-pupil roles. • ‘Literate’ English is a form of English that enables the individual to interact critically with prevailing discourses so that he or she can: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • reshape the discourses that inform its (English’s) ‘hegemony’, • pluralize English by using written English as ‘public discourse’ while retaining ‘multiple’ and ‘shifting’ ‘vernacular’ codes and • draw ‘... variously on the resources of a single language [in this case English]’.
2. [to] work effectively with others as members of a team, group, organisation and community;	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ‘Literate’ English is a form of English that enables the individual to interact critically with prevailing discourses so that he or she can: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • pluralize English by using written English as ‘public discourse’ while retaining ‘multiple’ and ‘shifting’ ‘vernacular’ codes and • draw ‘... variously on the resources of a single language [in this case English]’. • It encourages the learner to challenge notions of objectivity and universality and to questions the nature of teacher-pupil roles.
3. [to] organize and manage oneself and one’s activities responsibly and effectively;	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ‘Literate’ English is a form of English that enables the individual to interact critically with prevailing discourses so that he or she can: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • reshape the discourses that inform its (English’s) ‘hegemony’ and • draw ‘... variously on the resources of a single language [in this case English]’.
4. [to] collect, analyse, organize and critically evaluate information;	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It empowers the learner to interrogate the very process of the production of knowledge and to question established curricular knowledge and it encourages the learner to challenge notions of objectivity and universality and to questions the nature of teacher-pupil roles. • ‘Literate’ English is a form of English that enables the individual to interact critically with prevailing discourses so that he or she can: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • reshape the discourses that inform its (English’s) ‘hegemony’, • pluralize English by using written English as ‘public discourse’ while retaining ‘multiple’ and ‘shifting’ ‘vernacular’ codes and • draw ‘... variously on the resources of a single language [in this case English]’.
5. [to] communicate effectively using visual, mathematical and/or language skills in the modes of oral and/or written presentation;	<p>Wallace (2002) and Nakata’s (2002) ‘literate’ English enables the learner to work with</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ‘content’, • ‘language itself’ and • ‘... the limits for understanding [what he or she] can do with [his or her] language...’ in a ‘planned’ and ‘elaborate’ manner.
6. [to] use science and technology effectively and critically, showing responsibility towards the environment and health of others; [and]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It empowers the learner to interrogate the very process of the production of knowledge and to question established curricular knowledge and it encourages the learner to challenge notions of objectivity and universality and to questions the nature of teacher-pupil roles. • ‘Literate’ English is a form of English that enables the individual to interact critically with prevailing discourses so that he or she can: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • reshape the discourses that inform its (English’s) ‘hegemony’, • pluralize English by using written English as ‘public discourse’ while retaining ‘multiple’ and ‘shifting’ ‘vernacular’ codes and • draw ‘... variously on the resources of a single language [in this case English]’. <p>Wallace (2002) and Nakata’s (2002) ‘literate’ English enables the learner to work with</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ‘content’, • ‘language itself’ and • ‘... the limits for understanding [what he or she] can do with [his or her] language...’ in a ‘planned’ and ‘elaborate’ manner.

7. [to] demonstrate an understanding of the world as a set of interrelated problems by recognizing that problem-solving contexts do not exist in isolation.
 - It empowers the learner to interrogate the very process of the production of knowledge and to question established curricular knowledge and it encourages the learner to challenge notions of objectivity and universality and to questions the nature of teacher-pupil roles.
 - 'Literate' English is a form of English that enables the individual to interact critically with prevailing discourses so that he or she can:
 - reshape the discourses that inform its (English's) 'hegemony',
 - pluralize English by using written English as 'public discourse' while retaining 'multiple' and 'shifting' 'vernacular' codes and
 - draw '... variously on the resources of a single language [in this case English]'. Wallace (2002) and Nakata's (2002) 'literate' English enables the learner to work with
 - 'content',
 - 'language itself' and
8. reflecting on and exploring a variety of strategies to learn more effectively,
 - 'Literate' English is a form of English that enables the individual to interact critically with prevailing discourses so that he or she can:
 - reshape the discourses that inform its (English's) 'hegemony',
 - pluralize English by using written English as 'public discourse' while retaining 'multiple' and 'shifting' 'vernacular' codes and
9. participating as a responsible citizen in the life of local, national and global communities,
 - 'Literate' English is a form of English that enables the individual to interact critically with prevailing discourses so that he or she can:
 - draw '... variously on the resources of a single language [in this case English]'.
 - reshape the discourses that inform its (English's) 'hegemony'.
10. being culturally and aesthetically sensitive across a range of social contexts,
 - 'Literate' English is a form of English that enables the individual to interact critically with prevailing discourses so that he or she can:
 - reshape the discourses that inform its (English's) 'hegemony' and
 - draw '... variously on the resources of a single language [in this case English]'.
11. exploring education and career opportunities, [and]
 - 'Literate' English is a form of English that enables the individual to interact critically with prevailing discourses so that he or she can:
 - reshape the discourses that inform its (English's) 'hegemony' and
 - draw '... variously on the resources of a single language [in this case English]'.
12. developing entrepreneurial opportunities.
 - 'Literate' English is a form of English that enables the individual to interact critically with prevailing discourses so that he or she can:
 - reshape the discourses that inform its (English's) 'hegemony' and
 - draw '... variously on the resources of a single language [in this case English]'.

Table 1.2 Product-oriented Syllabuses

Product-oriented Syllabuses	
1. Grammatical	
Features	Weakness
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Input is graded according to grammatical notions of simplicity and complexity. Language is learned in sections and incorporated into existing knowledge of the language. These syllabuses are synthetic because they divide language up into artificial chunks according to notions of grammatical simplicity and complexity. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Exclusive focus on grammar. Language has many functions. One form may have many functions.
2. Functional-notional	
Features	Weakness
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Function relates to communicate purpose. Notion refers to meaning and logical relationships. These syllabuses are analytic because they refer to the way in which chunks of language are learned for a communicative purpose. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Selection and grading of material is difficult because the basis of the syllabus is functional and not linguistic. The lists of functions do not always reflect how language is learned.

Table 1.3 Process-oriented Syllabuses

Process-oriented Syllabuses	
1. Procedural and Task-based	
Features	Weakness
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> They are similar to syllabuses that advocate the task-based method. Classroom processes that stimulate learning are important. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> There is very little guidance on how to select tasks and problems that are conducive to task-based teaching. There are varying definitions of task. There are varying criteria for task selection.
2. Content	
Features	Weakness
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Experiential content is taken from a well-defined subject area or topic. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Content is often trivialized in the eyes of the learner who may know much about a topic in his or her own language.
3. Natural	
Features	Weakness
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Language is treated as a single skill. The goal is communication. It is important to create a relaxed atmosphere for the natural production of language. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Language is used in different way so being able to read a novel does not enable one to understand an academic lecture. Communication skills are different from academic skills and so acquiring the former does not necessarily entail acquiring the latter.

Table 2.1 Workplace Oral Skills and Matching Outcomes

Oral Skills (Listening and Speaking)	Matching Learning Outcomes for Languages	Matching Critical Cross-field Outcome
1. Making formal presentations	1,2,5 and 6	1, 2–7
2. Intervening effectively in meetings	1,2,5 and 6	1,2,5 and 7
3. Participating in group discussions	1,2,5 and 6	1,2,4,5 and 7
4. Persuading clients	1,2,5 and 6	All
5. Informal exchanges of ideas	1 and 2	2,4,5 and 7
6. Telephone skills	1,2,5 and 6	All
The following skills could also be included in this category:		
7. Giving instructions and directions	1,2,5 and 6	1–5 and 7
8. Negotiating, praising and reprimanding	1,2,5 and 6	1–5 and 7
9. Introducing oneself and others	2	2
10. Chairing meetings	All	All
11. Debating	1,2,5 and 6	1–5 and 7

Table 2.2 **Workplace Writing Skills and Matching Outcomes**

Writing Skills	Matching Learning Outcomes for Languages	Matching Critical Cross-field Outcome
1. Spelling correctly	4	5
2. Writing, sending and reading letters of congratulations, thanks, apology, recommendation, complaint, request, unwelcome news and goodwill	3, 4 and 5	1,4 and 5
3. Writing, sending and reading electronic mail	3, 4 and 5	1,4 and 5
4. Summarising and paraphrasing texts	3, 4 and 5	1,4 and 5
5. Explaining the benefits of certain courses of action	All	1,2,4,5 and 7
6. Recording decisions taken through minutes	4 and 5	2 and 5
7. Extracting relevant information and recording it concisely	2,5, 6 and 7	1,4 and 5
8. Presenting a plan of action	4,5 and 7	2,3,4,5 and 6
9. Writing and issuing instructions	4,5 and 7	1,4 and 5
10. Recommending action	4,5 and 7	1,2,4,5 and 7
11. Evaluating a situation	2,5,6 and 7	1,4 and 7
12. Designing visual material for different purposes	3, 4 and 5	4,5,6 and 7
13. Filling in forms	3, 4 and 5	4 and 5
14. Writing telegrams	3, 4 and 5	1,4 and 5
15. Writing postcards	3,4 and 5	1,4 and 5
16. Taking notes	4 and 5	4 and 5
17. Making lists	4 and 5	3,4 and 5
18. Writing speeches	2,4 and 5	All
19. Conducting surveys and surveys	All	2,3,4,5 and 7

Table 2.3 Workplace Cognitive Skills and Matching Outcomes

Cognitive Skills	Matching Learning Outcomes for Languages	Matching Critical Cross-field Outcome
1. Teaching oneself	5	All
2. Creative thinking	5	
3. Problem-solving	All	
4. Goal setting	3–5	
5. Making informed decisions	1,3 and 5	
6. Allocating of time and money	3–5	
7. Developing agendas	1,3–5	
8. Skimming/Scanning	3 and 5	
9. Getting information from different sources	1,3–5	
10. Developing budgets	All	
11. Computing costs	All	

Table 2.4 Workplace Personal Management Skills and Matching Outcomes

Personal Management Skills	Matching Learning Outcomes for Languages	Matching Critical Cross-field Outcome
1. Feeling good about oneself	2 and 5	3
2. Feeling motivated	2 and 5	1 and 3
3. Taking responsibility	1,3 and 5	1,2,3,5,6 and 7
4. Managing time, the body and daily routine	5	3

Table 4.1 Evaluation of the Tasks to the Tentative Theory of Workplace Skills

Workplace Skills Theory Principles A workplace literacy task should:	Evaluation of the Tasks
establish the context of the task and clear, achievable and measurable outcomes,	The tasks are real-life tasks in that the information generated will be used for assessing the condition of school buildings, or what audio-visual devices can be drawn on as a resource. There is a specific product that must be produced.
provide authentic, meaningful, relevant, interesting, diverse and manageable input from different skill areas,	The teacher placed the tasks in context by explaining that they generate data that is useful to the school. The learners were thus aware that their work was relevant to their immediate environment.
draw the attention of the learner to <i>appropriate</i> grammatical responses although not necessarily <i>correct</i> responses and conventions,	The teacher demonstrated the possible form a questionnaire or list could take as well as appropriate language structures, such as question forms and basic punctuation while allowing for innovation on the part of the learners. Learners were also shown what form the presentation of data could take.
involve process and product,	There is a process (input and work phase) and specific product. The act of work encompasses the initial stages of individual work and moves to the group work stage of editing and compiling a composite maintenance questionnaire.
be assessed in terms of real-life response time,	The tasks were limited in time to a single 45 minute period.
take into account the different learning styles of learners and	For example, cognitive strategies ‘... for processing of language input and preparing for language output...’ and social strategies involving ‘... learning with others [group work]...’ were highlighted.
focus on empowering learners to produce meaning.	Since the tasks were relevant to the learners’ immediate context and, since the data generated was presented in a form that could be widely understood, learners produced a questionnaire on the one hand and on the other, a resource list both through interaction and collaboration. Ultimately, these forms could be used to suggest improvements to the school or better use of resources.

Table 4.2 Data Analysis According to Criterion Two (9X)

Group	Male: Female Ratio	English: Other Language Ratio	Total Number of Original Questions	Total Number of Additions to Questions	Total Number of Comments by Peers	Total Number of Suggested Corrections By Peers
1	0 : 5	0 : 5	38	10	5	1
2	3 : 3	5 : 1	62	1	10	0
3	5 : 1	0 : 6	40	19	2	5
4	3 : 3	2 : 4	37	6	4	4
5	4 : 2	0 : 6	56	4	12	4
Total			233	40	33	14

Table 4.3 Data for Analysis of Responses According to the Third Criterion (9X)

Group	Male: Female Ratio	English: Other Language Ratio	Total Number of Original Questions	Total Number of Vague Questions	SP	P	SS	SV	PA	VC
1	0 : 5	0 : 5	6	1/6	1	1	1	0	0	0
2	3 : 3	5 : 1	7	2/7	0	4	0	1	0	2
3	5 : 1	0 : 6	Not done							
4	3 : 3	2 : 4	Not done							
5	4 : 2	0 : 6	6	1/6	0	1	1	2	0	1
Total Number of Questions			19	4	1	6	1	3	0	3

Table 4.4 Data for Analysis of Responses According to Criteria Two and Three (9Y)

Gr ou p	M a l e : F e m a l e R a t i o	Engli sh : O t h e r L a n g u a g e R a t i o	Total Numbe r of Origina l Questio ns	Total Num ber of Quest ions Com posite	Total Num ber of Addit ions to Quest ions	Total Number of Suggested Correctio ns To Original Questions	S P	P	S S	S V	P A	V C
1	0 : 5	0 : 5	38	6	10	1	1	1	1	0	0	0
2	3 : 3	5 : 1	62	7	1	0	0	4	0	1	0	2
3	5 : 1	0 : 6	40	Not done	Not done							
4	3 : 3	2 : 4	37	Not done								
5	4 : 2	0 : 6	56	6	4	4	0	1	1	2	0	1
Total			233	19	15	5	1	6	2	3	0	3

Table 4.5 Composite Data Table for Criteria One, Two and Three (9Y)

Group	C1	C2 A	C2 B	C3
1	4/4	0/4	0/4	0
2	4/4	1/4	0/4	0
3	4/4	1/4	1/4	0
4	4/4	3/4	3/4	0
5	3/4	3/4	3/4	0
Total (18)	19	N/A	N/A	0

APPENDIX D (FIGURES)

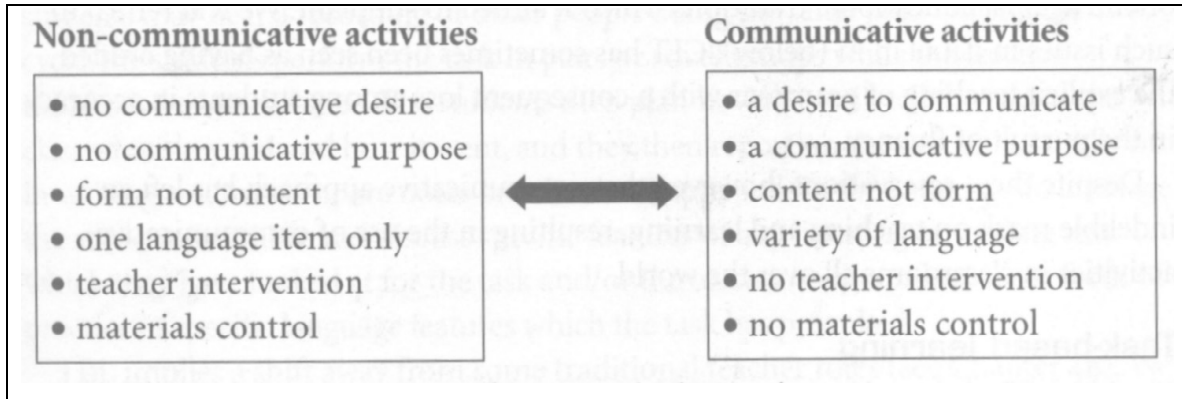


Figure 1.1 Communicative Continuum

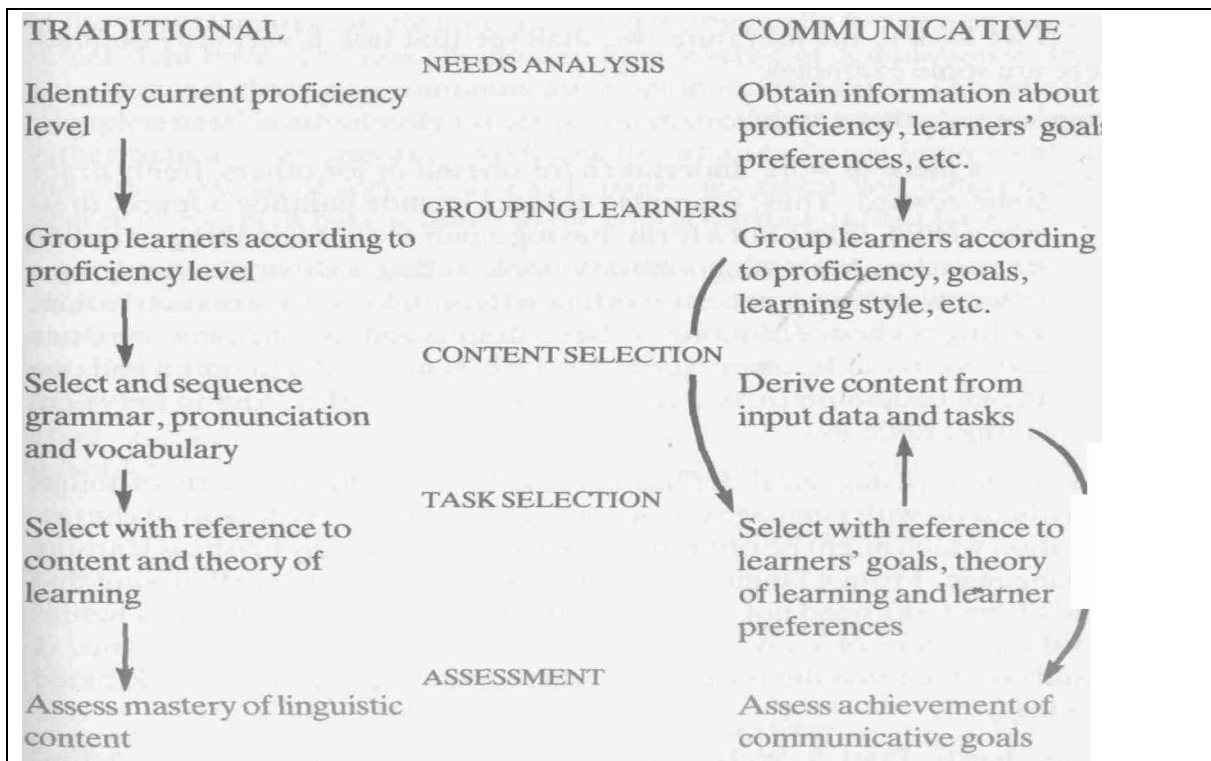


Figure 1.2 Traditional and Communicative Curriculum Models Compared

SCHOOL GRADE	NQF LEVEL	BAND	DEGREE, DIPLOMA & CERTIFICATE	
	8		Doctorates and further research degrees	
	7		First degrees, diplomas and certificates	
	6			
	5			
12 (Exit level 2)	4	Further	School College NGO's Training Certificates	
11	3			
10	2			
9 (Exit level 1)	1	General	Senior (Grades 7–9)	ABET 4
8			Intermediate (Grades 4–6)	ABET 3
7				
6			Pre–School and Foundation (R – 3)	ABET 2
5				
4				
3				
2				
1				ABET 1

Figure 2.1 The National Qualifications Framework

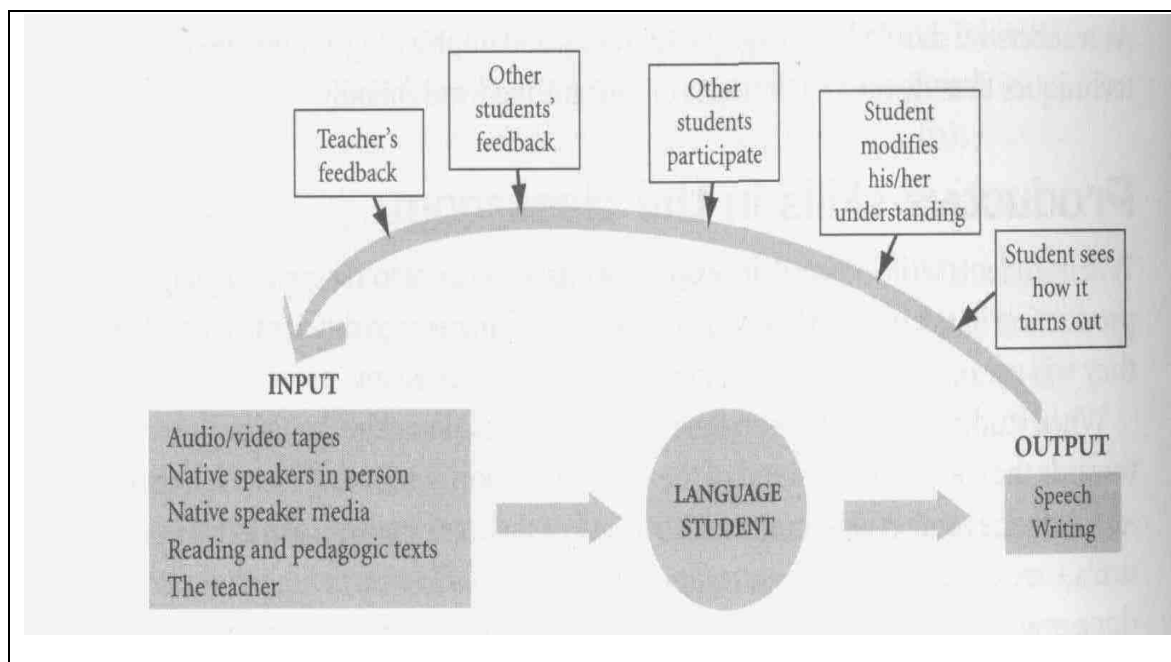


Figure 3.1 Communicative Language Teaching Process

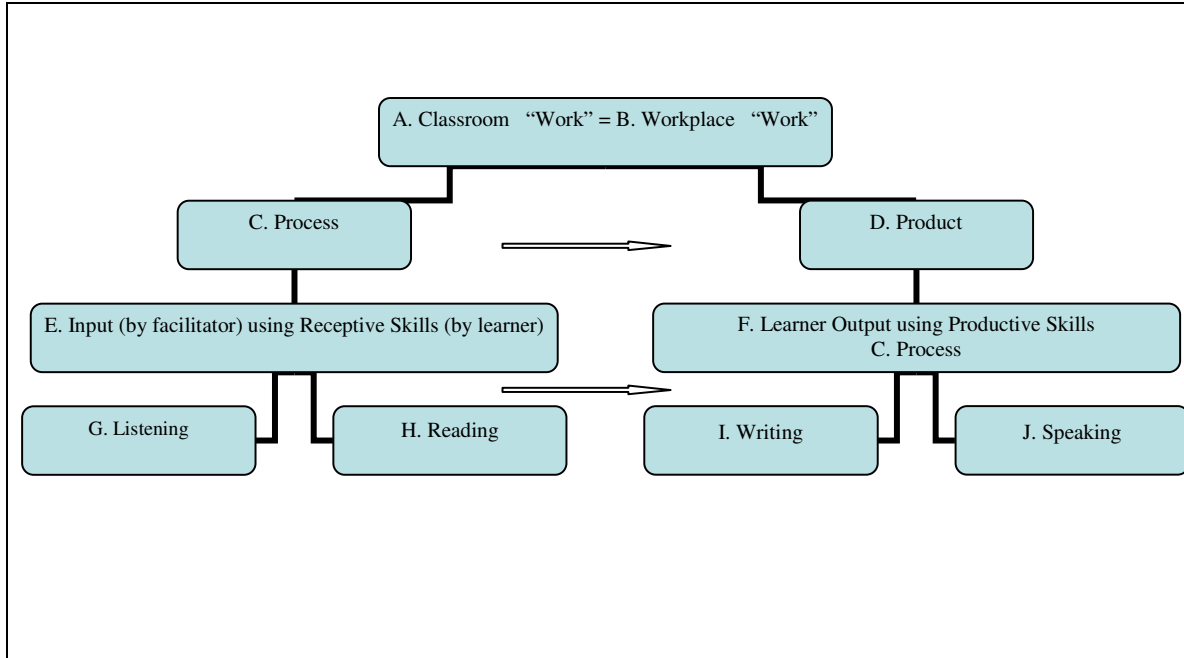


Figure 4.1 A Model for the Design of Workplace literacy Tasks

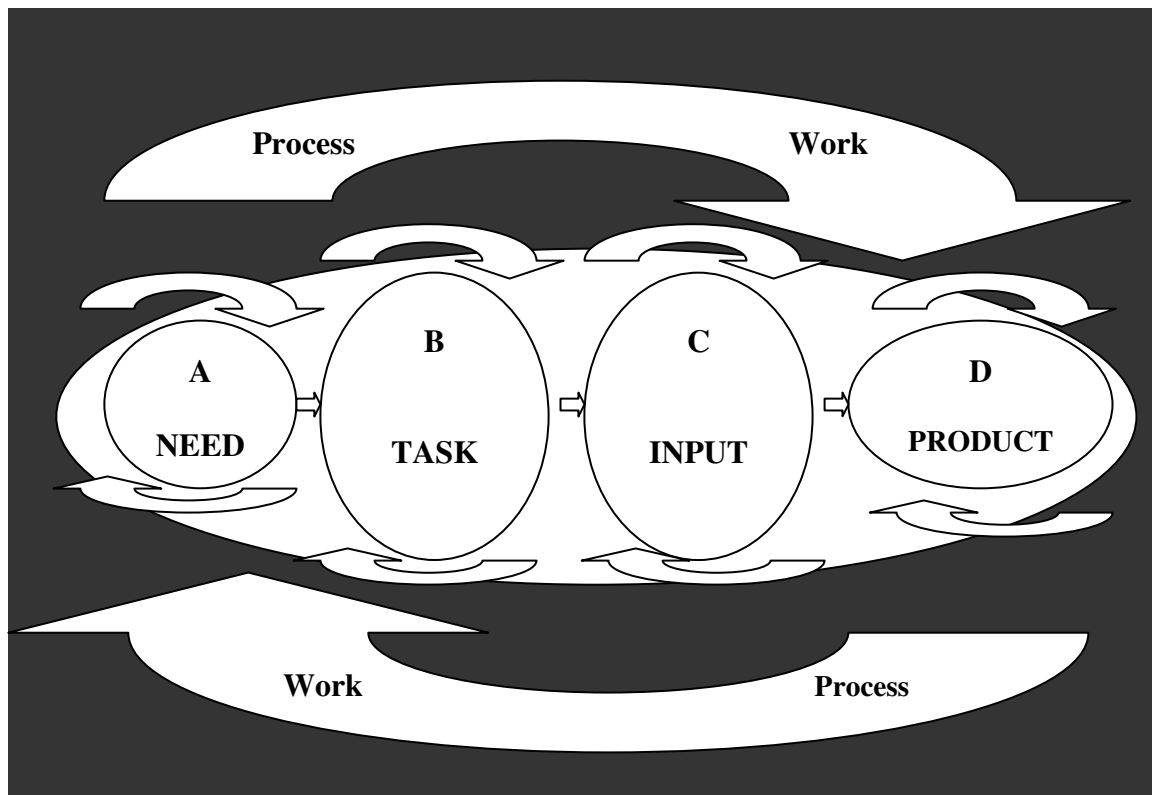


Figure 4.2 A Revised Model for the Design of Workplace literacy Tasks