

**Proficiency in English language and communication for professional practice: A  
communicative perspective**

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## **DECLARATION**

I, Lelingoana Benedict Lerotholi, declare that this thesis, (Proficiency in English Language and communication for Professional Practice), is my original work and that no part of the study is plagiarised. Where necessary, credit has been given to authors when their works were used or cited. A bibliography has been provided to indicate references which have been used.

## ABSTRACT

A viable employment context requires adequate communication skills in the employment environment. Successful language use for communication purpose presupposes the development of language proficiency in the users of the very language. Through globalisation, English communication skills play a pivotal role in corporate context, especially in societies where English is the official corporate language. This language use is on the other hand constrained by numerous socio-cultural issues of the context where the language is used. Within this, candidates who lack the necessary English communication skills face problems in finding jobs or perform poorly if hired. Candidates also face a problem of getting good paying jobs.

The acquisition of English language Proficiency constitutes one of Lesotho's main challenges in this century. Proficiency in English therefore, is requisite for employees to advance in both international and local organisations and also to enhance their technical proficiency. Globalisation has become a reality even in the developing communities like those in Lesotho. The prevalent use of English in Southern African countries, including Lesotho, therefore necessitates an adequate achievement of English language competence at the completion of education and training in order to perform well in the corporate world. This study explored the probability of engaging language skills with a view of advancing the Lesotho corporate context, and eventually the struggling economy. The study explored why there is a concern of inadequate English communication skills by those in the corporate context in Maseru.

The study was conducted within the paradigm of both qualitative and quantitative methods. Cluster random sampling technique was utilised and this permitted the researcher to divide the population of Maseru into clusters. The Sample was drawn from private organisations and government departments. The main tool of data collection was a questionnaire, which was used to collect data from participants within organisations. Data was also collected from national policy makers through face-to-face interviews. MoonStats statistical programme was used to analyse quantitative data while content analysis method was used to analyse qualitative data. The findings generally revealed that there was lack of language policy in the Lesotho context, which

could be attributed to inadequate English skills. It was therefore recommended that Lesotho establish explicit language planning and policy framework. Findings from the study are beneficial for this society, especially national policy makers in the planning of restorative best practices henceforth. Again, the study is of help in making recommendations in order to overcome poor language use in the business context. Finally, the study paves the way for further research.

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## **DEDICATION**

This study is dedicated to the following:

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- All those who have to utilise the English language as their official corporate language in the capital Maseru.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION.....	i
ABSTRACT.....	ii-iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	iv
DEDICATION.....	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	vi-xvi
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xvii-xviii
LIST OF TABLES.....	xix
LIST OF ACRONYMS.....	xx
Chapter 1.....	1
ORIENTATION AND GENERAL BACKGROUND.....	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION .....	1
1.2 CONTEXTUALIZATION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT .....	3
1.3 PURPOSE OF STUDY .....	8
1.4 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM .....	9
1.5 DEFINITION OF TERMS .....	11
1.5.1 An official Language.....	11
1.5.2 Communicative Competence .....	11
1.5.3 Language Proficiency.....	11
1.5.4 Grammatical Competence.....	11
1.5.5 Target Language.....	11
1.5.6 Medium of instruction .....	12
1.6 RATIONALE .....	12

1.7 RESEARCH QUESTIONS .....	12
1.8 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY.....	13
1.9 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY.....	13
1.10 METHODOLOGY.....	14
1.11 STUDY PARADIGMS .....	14
1.12 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS .....	16
1.13 SUMMARY .....	17
1.14 DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY.....	17
Chapter 2.....	19
LITERATURE REVIEW .....	19
2.1 INTRODUCTION .....	19
2.2 LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION AS CONCEPTS.....	19
2.3 COMMUNICATION BY OBJECTIVES .....	22
2.4 COMMUNICATION CODES .....	23
2.5 VERBAL AND NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION.....	23
2.6 EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION .....	23
2.7 COMMUNICATION AT WORK .....	24
2.8 COMMUNICATION CONTEXTS.....	24
2.8.1 Intrapersonal communication .....	25
2.8.2 Interpersonal communication .....	25
2.8.3 Small-group communication.....	25
2.8.4 Public communication .....	26
2.8.5 Organisational communication .....	26
2.9 THE STRUCTURAL FEATURES OF MODERN ENGLISH LANGUAGE .....	27
2.9.1 Phonology.....	28

2.9.2 Syntax.....	28
2.9.3 Semantics .....	29
2.9.4 Pragmatics .....	29
2.10 STRUCTURE OF COMMUNICATION PROCESS .....	30
2.10.1 The powers necessary in the act of communication.....	31
2.10.2 Encoding.....	31
2.10.3 Decoding.....	32
2.10.4 Interpretation.....	32
2.10.5 Feedback .....	32
2.11 LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY.....	32
2.12 COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE.....	33
2.12.1 Components of communicative competence .....	34
2.13 THE GLOBAL ENGLISH.....	35
2.13.1 History of English .....	36
2.15 THE ROLE OF ENGLISH INTERNATIONALLY .....	38
2.16 THE ROLE OF ENGLISH IN SOUTHERN AFRICA .....	42
2.17 THE ROLE OF ENGLISH IN LESOTHO .....	44
2.18 ENGLISH AS THE OFFICIAL CORPORATE LANGUAGE IN FINLAND .....	45
2.19 CORPORATE ENGLISH TRAINING.....	47
2.19.1 English and employment.....	48
2.20 AN OVERVIEW OF THE AUSTRALIAN JOB MARKET .....	50
2.20.1 The nexus between English language skills and employability in Australia .....	51
2.21 ENGLISH SPECIFIC PURPOSES AND ITS CHARACTERISTICS .....	52
2.22 COGNITIVE LANGUAGE ABILITY AND INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS .....	52

2.23 LINGUA FRANCAS .....	53
2.23.1 English as a Lingua Franca .....	54
2.23.2 Defining English as a lingua franca.....	54
2.23.3 Main goals of English as lingua franca approach.....	57
2.23.4 Main challenges of English as lingua franca .....	58
2.23.5 Accent.....	59
2.23.6 Idiomaticity .....	60
2.23.7 A native Speaker .....	60
2.24 LANGUAGE PRACTICES AND LANGUAGING.....	61
2.24.1 Language and power.....	62
2.25 AN OVERVIEW OF APPLIED LINGUISTICS .....	62
2.25.1 The development of applied linguistics .....	64
2.26 SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION .....	64
2.27 LANGUAGE SKILLS AND ASSESSMENT .....	65
2.27.1 Listening .....	65
2.27.2 Speaking and Pronunciation.....	65
2.27.3 Reading .....	66
2.27.4 Writing .....	67
2.27.5 Language assessment .....	67
2.27.6 Fundamental issues in language assessment.....	68
2.28 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK .....	69
2.29 THEORIES OF APPLIED LINGUISTICS.....	70
2.29.1 Needs analysis theory .....	70
2.29.2 Overview of needs analysis practice.....	72
2.29.3 Conducting needs analysis and its rationale.....	72
2.29.4 Components of needs analysis .....	73
2.29.5 Language needs analysis at the societal level .....	77
2.30 METHODS OF TEACHING IN ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES.....	78

2.30.1 Skills in English for specific purposes .....	79
2.31 THEORIES OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY .....	79
2.31.1 Listening skills .....	79
2.31.2 Speaking skills .....	81
2.31.3 Reading Skills .....	81
2.31.4 Writing skills .....	82
2.32 THEORIES OF LANGUAGE PLANNING .....	83
2.32.1 The rational choice model .....	84
2.33 LANGUAGE POLICY AND OVERALL PLANNING .....	85
2.33.1 Language policy and implementation .....	87
2.34 THE PROBLEMATIC NATURE OF LANGUAGE .....	90
2.35 THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF LANGUAGE PLANNING AND LANGUAGE POLICY STUDIES .....	91
2.36 THE NATURE AND PURPOSE OF LANGUAGE PLANNING .....	93
2.37 TYPES OF LANGUAGE PLANNING ACTIVITIES .....	95
2.37.1 Status planning .....	95
2.37.2 Corpus planning .....	96
2.37.3 Acquisition planning .....	96
2.37.4 Attitude planning .....	97
2.38 THE FUNCTIONS OF LANGUAGE PLANNING .....	98
2.39 ORIENTATIONS AND IDEOLOGIES OF LANGUAGE POLICY.....	101
2.40 THE LANGUAGE PLANNING PROCESS.....	104
2.41 THE EVALUATION OF LANGUAGE POLICIES .....	109
2.42 LANGUAGE PLANNING, LANGUAGE POLICY AND LANGUAGE RIGHTS .....	109
2.43 LANGUAGE PLANNING AND ECONOMICS .....	112

2.43.1 Language and economic development.....	114
2.44 THE DEVELOPMENT PROCESS.....	114
2.45 LANGUAGE POLICY IN AFRICA.....	115
2.46 LANGUAGE POLICY AND LANGUAGE ATTITUDES .....	118
2.47 LANGUAGE PLANNING AND LANGUAGE POLICY IN EDUCATION.....	119
2.47.1 Bilingualism and bilingual education .....	121
2.48 LESOTHO LANGUAGE POLICY .....	122
2.49 MINORITY LANGUAGES IN LESOTHO .....	123
2.50 PRE-COLONIAL ERA EDUCATION .....	124
2.51 COLONIAL PERIOD EDUCATION.....	125
2.52 POST-COLONIAL ERA EDUCATION .....	126
2.53 THE CURRENT STRUCTURE OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM IN LESOTHO ...	129
2.54 CONCLUSION.....	131
Chapter 3.....	133
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN .....	133
3.1 INTRODUCTION .....	133
3.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY .....	133
3.3 STUDY PARADIGMS.....	134
3.3.1 Content analysis.....	135
3.4 RESEARCH METHOD AND DESIGN .....	136
3.4.1 Population .....	137
3.5 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS .....	137
3.6 RELIABILITY .....	138
3.7 VALIDITY .....	139
3.8 COUNTRY OVERVIEW .....	139

- 3.8.1 Historical background ..... 140
- 3.9 SAMPLE SIZE ..... 141
- 3.10 SAMPLING ..... 142
- 3.10.1 The sampling frame and the sampling size ..... 142
- 3.11 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS ..... 144
- 3.11.1 Questionnaire ..... 144
- 3.11.2 Interviews ..... 145
- 3.12 PILOT STUDY ..... 146
- 3.13 DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION ..... 146
- 3.13.1 MoonStats ..... 146
- 3.13.2 Setting up the coding parameters in MoonStats ..... 147
- 3.14 CONSTRAINTS ..... 151
- 3.15 CONCLUSION ..... 152
- Chapter 4 ..... 153
- DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION ..... 153
- 4.1 INTRODUCTION ..... 153
- 4.2 GENDER ..... 153
- 4.3 AGE ..... 154
- 4.4 RACE GROUP ..... 155
- 4.5 EMPLOYMENT STATUS ..... 155
- 4.6 EDUCATION LEVEL ..... 157
- 4.7 EMPLOYMENT DURATION ..... 158
- 4.8 CORPORATE LANGUAGE SKILLS ..... 159
- 4.9 JOB QUALIFICATION ..... 160
- 4.10 ENGLISH CONSIDERATION ..... 161

4.11 LANGUAGE WIDELY USED .....	162
4.12 ENGLISH NEED.....	162
4.13 ENGLISH ABILITIES .....	163
4.14 IMPORTANCE OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE .....	164
4.15 ENGLISH CONTRIBUTION .....	164
4.16 ENGLISH AND JOB OPPORTUNITY .....	165
4.17 ENHANCEMENT OF ENGLISH ABILITY .....	166
4.18 GOOD USE OF ENGLISH .....	166
4.19 ENGLISH ERRORS CONCERN .....	167
4.20 ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION PROBLEMS.....	168
4.21 STUDENTS AND ENGLISH.....	169
4.22 ENGLISH AND STUDENTS PERFORMANCE .....	170
4.23 ENGLISH AND EFFECTIVENESS.....	170
4.24 ENGLISH AND UNDESIRABLE EMPLOYEE .....	171
4.25 JOB PERFORMANCE.....	172
4.26 ENGLISH AND JOB EFFICIENCY .....	172
4.27 TEACHING METHODS.....	173
4.28 LANGUAGE POLICY .....	174
4.29 GOOD LANGUAGE POLICIES .....	174
4.30 LANGUAGE POLICY AND BUSINESS.....	175
4.31 LANGUAGE POLICY VERSUS LANGUAGE KNOWLEDGE.....	176
4.32 LANGUAGE POLICY AND HUMAN CAPITAL.....	177
4.33 LANGUAGE POLICY AND WORK.....	177
4.34 ORAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS.....	178
4.35 WRITTEN COMMUNICATION SKILLS .....	178

4.36 ENGLISH AND BUSINESS GROWTH.....	180
4.37 ENGLISH AS A MAIN LANGUAGE.....	181
4.38 LANGUAGE TRAINING .....	182
4.39 WORK PLACE TRAINING .....	182
4.40 GENERAL STAFF TRAINING.....	183
4.41 LANGUAGE WORK SHOPS.....	184
4.42 EMPLOYEE FEEDBACK .....	184
4.43 TRAINING AND CORE BUSINESS .....	185
4.44 LANGUAGE EDUCATION TRAINING .....	186
4.45 ENGLISH FOR INTERACTIONS .....	186
4.46 ENGLISH FOR READING.....	187
4.47 ENGLISH AND ACTIVITIES PERFORMANCE.....	187
4.48 ENGLISH FOR REPORTS PREPARATION .....	188
4.49 WORKPLACE AND LANGUAGE COMPETENCY .....	189
4.50 ENGLISH AND STRATEGIES IMPLEMENTATION.....	189
4.51 ENGLISH IN PROJECTS MANAGEMENT .....	190
4.52 ENGLISH IN RESEARCH .....	191
4.53 ENGLISH IN TECHNICAL ADVICE.....	191
4.54 POOR COMMUNICATION SKILLS.....	192
4.55 LANGUAGE AND WORK.....	193
4.56 LANGUAGE IN MEETINGS .....	193
4.57 MAJOR IMPROVEMENTS.....	194
4.58 MAJOR PROBLEMS .....	195
4.59 CONTENT ANALYSIS RESULTS .....	196
4.60 CURRICULUM AND RESOURCES RELEVANCE.....	196



4.61 THE BRITISH AND BASOTHO LANGUAGE RELATIONSHIP .....	197
4.62 SPECIAL TRAINING RECOMMENDATION .....	197
4.63 SKILLS FOR PROFESSIONAL SPEAKERS.....	197
4.64 ABSENCE OF LANGUAGE POLICY .....	197
4.65 EDUCATION IMPROVEMENT INITIATIVE.....	198
4.66 EFFORTS ON ENGLISH SKILLS.....	198
4.67 GENERAL CHALLENGES .....	198
4.68 POLICY AND GOALS .....	198
4.69 WORK RELEVANT SKILLS .....	199
4.70 STAKEHOLDERS .....	199
4.71 CONCLUSION .....	199
CHAPTER 5 .....	200
CONCLUSION, SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	200
5.1 INTRODUCTION .....	200
5.2 SUMMARY .....	201
5.2.1 Assessment of objectives.....	201
5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS .....	202
5.4 CONCLUSION .....	203
REFERENCES.....	204
PRIMARY SOURCE .....	204
SECONDARY SOURCES .....	206
JOURNAL ARTICLES.....	215
INTERNET SOURCES .....	219
APPENDICES.....	221
APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE TO INTERNAL PUBLICS.....	222
APPENDIX B: INTERVIEWS TO POLICY MAKERS.....	235

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR POLICY MAKERS..... 236

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Communication process .....	31
Figure 2: The three concentric circles of English.....	38
Figure 3: The notion of English as lingua franca and its possible interpretations. ....	56
Figure 4: Fundamental components of testing.....	69
Figure 5: What needs analysis establishes. ....	75
Figure 6: The language planning process .....	108
Figure 7: Organization structure of the ministry of education and training.....	129
Figure 8: Map of Lesotho.....	140
Figure 9: Default page view.....	147
Figure 10: File creation window .....	148
Figure 11: Names and values of variables .....	148
Figure 12: Inserted data .....	149
Figure 13: Data sheet view.....	150
Figure 14: Pie chart representation of age .....	151
Figure 15: Gender .....	153
Figure 16: Age of respondents .....	154
Figure 17: Race group of respondents .....	155
Figure 18: Education level of internal publics .....	157
Figure 19: Employment duration .....	158
Figure 20: Corporate language skills.....	159
Figure 21: Job qualification.....	160
Figure 22: English consideration .....	161
Figure 23: Language widely used.....	162
Figure 24: English and students .....	169
Figure 25: English and students performance.....	170
Figure 26: English and effectiveness.....	170
Figure 27: English and undesirable employee.....	171
Figure 28: Job performance and proficiency .....	172
Figure 29: English and job efficiency.....	172
Figure 30: Teaching methods.....	173

Figure 31 : Language policy .....	174
Figure 32: Good language policies.....	175
Figure 33: Language policy and business .....	175
Figure 34: Language policy versus language knowledge .....	176
Figure 35: Language policy and human capital .....	177
Figure 36: Language policy and work.....	177
Figure 37: English and business growth.....	180
Figure 38: English as a main language .....	181
Figure 39: Language training.....	182
Figure 40: Work place training.....	182
Figure 41: General staff training .....	183
Figure 42: Language workshops .....	184
Figure 43: Employee feedback.....	184
Figure 44: Training and core business .....	185
Figure 45: Language education training .....	186
Figure 46: Major improvements.....	194
Figure 47: Major problems.....	195

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: The different aspects of a language .....	30
Table 2: The three distinct periods in the history of English .....	37
Table 3: List of needs identified in needs analysis literature.....	77
Table 4: Ideologies of language planning.....	104
Table 5: Lesotho schools ownership trends .....	128
Table 6: Simple random sample size at 95 percent confidence level .....	143
Table 7: Employment status.....	156
Table 8: Need of English .....	163
Table 9: English abilities.....	164
Table 10: English language importance .....	164
Table 11: English contribution .....	165
Table 12: English and job employment .....	166
Table 13: Enhancement of English ability.....	166
Table 14: Good use of English .....	167
Table 15: English errors concern.....	167
Table 16: English pronunciation problems.....	168
Table 17: Oral communication skills.....	178
Table 18: Written communication skills .....	179
Table 19: English for interactions .....	186
Table 20: English for reading .....	187
Table 21: English and activities performance .....	188
Table 22: English for reports preparation.....	188
Table 23: Work and language competency .....	189
Table 24: English and strategies implementation .....	190
Table 25: English in projects management.....	190
Table 26: English in research.....	191
Table 27: English in technical advice.....	192
Table 28: Poor communication skills .....	192
Table 29: Language and work.....	193
Table 30: Language in meetings .....	194

## **LIST OF ACRONYMS**

ACL: Anglican Church of Lesotho

BOS: Bureau of Statistics

ELF: English as a Lingua Franca

ESP: English for Specific Purpose

GDP: Gross Domestic Product

LCE: Lesotho College of Education

LCAPF: Lesotho Curriculum Assessment Policy Framework

LEC: Lesotho Evangelical Church

LF: Lingua Franca

ME: Middle English

MoDE: Modern English

NUL: National University of Lesotho

OE: Old English

OECD: Organization for Economic Corporation and Development

RCC: Roman Catholic Church

## ***Chapter 1***

### **ORIENTATION AND GENERAL BACKGROUND**

#### **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

Communication skills are immensely valued as graduate attributes for employability, both in the local context and internationally. Tertiary education or corporate training therefore plays a pivotal role in enhancing the vital language competence. The fast-paced modern human interactions and the role that global English plays in those interactions are indicators that adequate oral English communication skills are imperative for employability and job market. According to Mawer (2007), a competitive corporate environment requires an adequate knowledge of language, especially target language. The author vehemently maintains that English language skills are sole determinants of employment opportunities and high income in English dominated societies. The acquisition of sufficient oral and written communication competency in English language constitutes one of Lesotho's education system's main challenges in this new century. The use of language for communication according to Steinberg (2007: 118) plays a vital role in personal life, business, education and other situations where people encounter each other.

This study explored the relationship between proficiency in English and employability and the success of graduates. The goal of research study was to ascertain how the language skills can have an impact on the employment in the job environment in Lesotho. Of critical importance is to note that the role of English skills of graduates plays a significant role in their new job environment. English skills are directly associated with efficiency in the job performance itself and employment opportunities, alongside career prospects.

While language plays such a critical role in one's life, linguistic abilities and communicative competency, especially in the target language, are of paramount importance in today's global context. Oral and written communicative competence and level of achievement, especially at the completion of education and training, is extremely vital and has an immense contribution to the global economy.

The dawn of web computing has opened new doors for rapid social and economic interactions. Globalisation has become a reality even in the least developed societies like Lesotho. According to Moss & Osborn (2010:32), as developing countries like Lesotho endeavor to expand their international market and influences, it is extremely crucial for the citizens especially in the corporate context to achieve communicative competence and proficiency in the vital English language. The authors maintain that there is greater potential to tap into the linguistic wealth of the continent for development and education. Limage (1994:119) maintains that although development operates within a linguistic code, issues regarding the role of language in development are often ignored.

While the concept of communicative competence has occupied such a central position for growing debate among researchers and language policy officers, research has however, and sadly, revealed that English language proficiency still remains a major challenge in the corporate context in Lesotho. Despite the emphasis accorded to the fact of being proficient in spoken and written speech these days, students have still failed to achieve a sufficient degree of competence in this desired language at the completion of tertiary education. Most unfortunately, this category of students is at the edge of joining and making positive contribution towards the industry development. English has become the language of technology, commerce and government and thus the most powerful language globally (Baldwin & James, 2010: 336). According to the authors, oral communication plays a vital role in the development of literacy skills.

According to Maseko (2007), English language challenges manifest in different settings, from academic to corporate. English language, target language and medium of instructions in Lesotho problems, are enormous among the professionals. The target language difficulty that Lesotho professionals encounter in providing services is extensively documented. The education system produces professionals who are quite incompetent in the target client language (Maseko, 2007). Although the linguistic dimension of languages is taught in school, their real acquisition is produced through socio-cultural absorption and interactions.

In view of Maseko's opinion, it is therefore inevitable that the professionals' services are lacking and less informed by their clients' needs if the target language is deficient in the necessary proficiency. This study examined the probability of engaging English proficiency with a view of enhancing effectiveness in language use in the corporate context in Lesotho.

Kern (2008:367) states that language is not only a tool for interaction but it is a reserve from which all creative thought and one's perception of the world emanates as well as new knowledge, human history and a source of pleasure and inspiration. English is the language of power worldwide, and it is the main language of communication. It also carries most of the world's knowledge and it is the second or foreign language of the majority of the people in Lesotho. According to a recent survey, only 21% of the population can speak English fluently in Lesotho (Seotsanyana, 2009).

The study also examined the extent to which the language needs of industry and business are taken into account in national language education policy in Lesotho. The study concluded with recommendations to higher learning institutions, corporate training organisers and national policy makers. Finally, the project made comments regarding future research on this increasingly topical issue.

## **1.2 CONTEXTUALISATION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT**

The advent of independence from colonial master Britain in 1966 provided, as it did in other African states, a drive for restorative measures that include curriculum reform and development in Lesotho. Since then, a number of curriculum and assessment reforms have been attempted, but all with a little success. In all cases, the objective was to achieve the goals of education for national development. The Curriculum and Assessment Policy of 2009 represented the latest education reform, which marked a departure from the subject and examination-oriented curriculum to a new dispensation. The 2009 policy document was developed and published at the time when Lesotho, like many other countries, was confronted by some economic, environmental and social challenges (Ministry of Education and Training, 2009).

The limitations of the inherited colonial education system were identified and overhauled for the first time in 1971, when the then minister of education announced the education policy for development as a response to the perceived limitations of that education system. The new policy prioritised the fundamental role of education in accomplishing economic growth. Subsequent to that initial 1978 national education dialogue, an education sector task force was founded to configure a strategy document that would guide and inform education processes. The report of this task force was presented and adopted in 1982 as a policy document guiding education reform processes up to the year 2000. As such, the overall goal of the ministry in the new curriculum and assessment policy has been to ensure that there is access, quality, equity and relevance in the education sector (Ministry of Education and Training, 2009).

The Ministry of Education and Training further opines that despite the developmental milestones in the Lesotho curriculum policy since independence, the attainment of the intended policy outcomes, especially the teaching and learning of English has been stifled by numerous factors in the form of contextual issues, structures and internal contradictions. The language policy of Lesotho, especially the teaching and learning of English, is however greeted as an embodiment of meaningful change in language policies. Of course, the year 2000 marked an end of any major efforts on the country's curriculum. Thus, there has never been any other visible curriculum reform attempts beyond 2000, though the old problem has never been adequately and efficiently addressed (Seotsanyana, 2009).

The dilemma with language policy in Lesotho is that there is a dearth in proactive actions embarked on towards implementing the policy for it to yield positive results work on the speakers of other languages such as Sesotho, which is the mother tongue, largely utilised for daily and informal encounters (Kern, 2008:367). The author of course, acknowledges that Language planning is considered as primarily concerned with language 'maintenance or promotion' thus not application and outcomes. Thus, despite efforts on curriculum development, the problem has never been adequately addressed up today.

English has been in existence as a second official language and lingua franca in Lesotho since the nineteenth century. At glance, English is one ancient commodity in the colonial and western civilisation package in Lesotho (McCrum, 2002:93). Richards (1992:143) states that in the context of Lesotho, English is 'widely used as a medium of communication in socio-economic collaborations'. Thus, English by far remains a dominant medium of instructions in Lesotho. McCrum (2002:113) notes that proficiency in English has come to be regarded as one more generic skill, much like any other that would be on par with others like computing skills or numeracy. Thus, English remains as important as ever, even on the internet.

Graddol (2006:112) vehemently shares similar sentiments and goes further to articulate the fact that the role of English has shifted from that of being regarded a ' neo-imperialist project' to that of being the power determinant in the new dynamics of the global village. In the modern context, English has grown and its use is becoming an essential necessity in the workplace. Therefore, the majority of countries exert their utmost efforts in ensuring that their citizens achieve adequate competence in English in order to compete equitably and have a shared knowledge with the rest of the people around the world.

In post-colonial countries like Lesotho, English still remains the language of power and prestige. Even after the end of colonisation, English remained the preferred medium of instruction and learning in education. In Lesotho, English is considered a compulsory subject. It remains the most important language that is a "pass" prerequisite in all phases of schooling (Murray & Lamb, 2010:187). So, in Lesotho this is the language that has to be considered in earnest in all its facets if the nation has to gain much out of it. If there is lack of seriousness in the teaching and learning of English, then it is essential to review the country's language policy, teaching approaches and methodologies. Otherwise, everything in the teaching and learning of English will just be a mockery.

Lesotho has adopted the curriculum that was generically developed by high status agencies based in countries and realities where English is the main home language. The curriculum presents the rationale behind its existence, the aims and objectives, and

skills to be covered so that the curriculum will have been covered. In this case however, this curriculum is intended to meet the needs of different people for whom English is not a first language (Adger, 2002:25).

Given the fundamental function that English language has been assigned in the Lesotho context, as in many other states, it is therefore a priority that citizens acquire and demonstrate English skills and competencies. However, and contrary, Fowler & Mankelow (2012) point out that numerous English language skills challenges confront professionals in the context of Lesotho. The authors are of the opinion that the professionals exhibit poor competence and performance in the English Language. Fowler & Mankelow associate this problem with poor acquisition from schooling. One of the problems which the authors identify is quite low proficiency that manifests in syntactic errors and inappropriate selection of words in the use of English. The authors hold a strong view that the problems associated with English need to be adequately addressed. Fowler & Mankelow further note that English as Lesotho's second official language is utilised in most official arenas ranging from media to law.

Besides, there have also been reports tabled from benchmarking exercises like external examiners and moderators regarding written English at the National University of Lesotho (NUL), Lesotho College of Education (LCE) and other education institutions in the country. These have all pointed to the general concern that the standard of English in Lesotho is very low. The examiners and moderators specifically presented examples of poor performance in English at the National University of Lesotho and Lesotho College of Education (National University of Lesotho, 2009). The moderators strongly maintain that professional English users fail to achieve satisfactory levels of competence in the language of instructions when they embark on and during career life.

It is also a general belief that someone who is in a professional office will possess the required English knowledge and skills. However, research has disclosed that proficiency in English still remains such a hard nut to crack in the context of Lesotho (Seotsanyana, 2009). If neglected, professional communicators will continue to demonstrate shocking errors and incompetence in the desired target language. The results of the survey will address the issues surrounding poor standard of professional English among selected

government and private organisations in Maseru, especially those that render services that require proficiency in English language.

It is a generally acknowledged fact that the use of English as a medium of instruction has inherent cultural, political and educational implications in all realities where there exists a different first language. The internationalisation of education system and the need to compete in the global sphere has necessitated the growth of English as a vehicle and an indispensable tool for sustainability in the new economy around the world. It is seen as a means to modernisation and development within a country. It is an international language of business, tourism and education. English is also the lingua franca in many societies, including Lesotho (Madileng, 2009).

However, numerous challenges confront professional Basotho users of English. The problems are generally acute and manifests in different situations. English users exhibit poor competence and performance in the language (Seotsanyana, 2009).

As eluded earlier, Lesotho has designated a unique position for English in the linguistic landscape of the society. It is the second official language; and not only that, it is also the most important communication medium in government, business and education, to name but a few domains (Maseko, 2007). While English plays such a critical role in context of Lesotho, there is however a general concern that the education system in the country produces graduates who are extremely incompetent in both oral and written communication (Maseko, 2007).

The acquisition of an adequate oral and written communicative competence in English language constitutes one of Lesotho's professional context's main challenges. Professionals, in their respective areas, do not demonstrate satisfactory competence in spoken and written English. Moyo (2007) is of the opinion that one language problem is low proficiency that manifests in syntactic errors and inappropriate selection in the use of English). English users need to learn and grasp the structure of English.

English users need to attain communicative competence in order to remain efficient in the corporate context. Communicative competence according to Coulthard (1988: 147)

is composed of four areas of knowledge and skills. These involve grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competences.

Unclear or poor language communication does not only result in inaccuracies and lack of synergy in the workplace but can also contribute to other work related negative outcomes like low employee morale and poor job performance. When required progress and felt change cannot be made, new ideas poorly communicated can only exacerbate existing difficulties (Fowler & Mankelow, 2012).

Geluykens & Kraft (2003:40) opine that existing research undertaken cross cultural-communication competence has overlooked the critical role of language proficiency. Indeed, language proficiency is of crucial importance as ethnically diverse team members may encounter barriers stemming mainly from the level of language proficiency. Yet, most studies on workplace diversity management usually focus on issues of race, gender and class when the recognised barriers may occur as a result of lack of understanding of the meaning and symbols that are being communicated in each case. Geluykens & Kraft also concur that the area of language proficiency in ethnically diverse teams is under-studied and the language proficiency factor is often discounted. The role of language competency is thus always understated in interpersonal interactions which take place through language. The authors therefore conclude by demonstrating that teams that operate across languages can rise to challenges and resolve tensions that can affect team work and relationship building at a faster pace than those to whom language is a barrier.

### **1.3 PURPOSE OF STUDY**

This study examined aspects of oral and written communication in relation to workplace interactions. The aim of the study was to find ways of enhancing communicative competence with the view to ensuring proficiency in the language of corporate interactions in the context of Lesotho.

The thesis aimed to demonstrate that poor language proficiency skills, especially the language of communication has a negative impact on the industry. The central motive for this study emanated from the language and communication needs and related

research. Language needs' analyses have been carried out since the 1970s, yet not explored in-depth such that their findings could inform better future studies, language policy makers and language program planners as well as related continuous curriculum content designers.

Language and communication needs' analyses have managed to amass data about language demands in business and industry, yet their proactive and restorative measure undertaken in response to these felt needs are hardly visible in language policy making. Of critical importance was also to note that a significant amount of research done in Lesotho had left the issue of language analysis needs in the industry aside (Seotsanyana, 2009). This amount of research done in Lesotho had only concentrated on the teaching and learning of English in the school context. Thus, the national language resource in Lesotho is not developing in the direction requested by business and industry. According to Bachman (1990:193), books and journals are rich in reporting on needs analysis findings, yet relatively little attention is paid to needs analysis itself. Bachman further argues that needs analysis literature, with few exceptions, is reminiscent of writing on language pedagogy'. In a nutshell, the author declares that there is an urgent need for a serious research program focused on methodological options. This study examined language needs analysis methods and their applicability to identifying the language and communication needs of various stakeholders who contribute towards professional communication.

#### **1.4 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

The use of English as a language and medium of instruction is itself attributed to cultural, political and educational implications in most cases where another language that is the first language is other than English. Nonetheless, internationalisation of education system and the aspiration not only to succeed but flourish in the 21<sup>st</sup> global village has catapulted the growth of English medium instruction in the world. It is not only perceived as an approach to modernisation but advancement within a country. English has become a designated international language of most spheres of the commercial and corporate as much as it is also the lingua franca in many African societies, including Lesotho (Seotsanyana, 2009).



However, numerous English language challenges confront professional Basotho users in the corporate context. The problems are generally acute and manifest in different situations. English users exhibit poor competence and performance within the civil society in the context of Lesotho (Moyo, 2007). Moyo attributes these phenomena to a number of issues, alongside inadequate training while at the same time remaining very vocal that there could be numerous contributing factors.

Lesotho gave English a unique position in the linguistic landscape of the society. It is not only the second official language but also the most important communication medium in government, business and education, to name but a few domains (Seotsanyana, 2009). Whilst English holds this central role in the context of Lesotho, there is however a general concern that the education system in the country produces graduates who are extremely incompetent in both oral and written communication (Seotsanyana, 2009).

The acquisition of sufficient oral and written proficiency in English language remains one of Lesotho's industry challenges. Employees in their respective fields do not possess satisfactory competence in spoken and written English. Moyo (2007) is of the opinion that One language problem is low proficiency that manifests itself in syntactic errors and inappropriate selection in the use of English. The forms or varieties are mistakes or errors, which can be corrected by effective language teaching. English users need to learn and grasp the structure of English.

English users need to acquire communicative competence in order to remain efficient and competitive in the corporate context. Communicative competence according to Coulthard (1988: 147) is composed of four areas of knowledge and skills. These involve grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competences.

Incorrect or inappropriate language use does not only result in negative outcomes both in output and processes but can also affect other related team work and team building arenas such as morale, motivation and sense of belonging. When any idea cannot be successfully communicated, a breakdown in that communication is bound to ensue. (Fowler & Mankelow, 2012).

## **1.5 DEFINITION OF TERMS**

The terms which are defined in this text are concepts that will be used throughout the study. These should be understood by the readers in general without any confusion. In order to facilitate understanding a precise meaning is provided for each term.

### **1.5.1 An official Language**

An official language is the language that is not native to a country but is widely used as a medium of communication in education or in government with another or other several native languages (Richards, 1992: 143).

### **1.5.2 Communicative Competence**

Communicative competence has been defined, among others by Yano (1999:34) as a 'synthesis of knowledge of basic grammatical principles, knowledge of how language is used in social settings to perform communicative functions, and knowledge of how utterances and communicative functions can be combined according to the principles of discourse.

### **1.5.3 Language Proficiency**

Language proficiency according to Bachman & Palmer (2010: 16) entails knowledge of syntactic structures, vocabulary, and underlying rules governing language usage.

### **1.5.4 Grammatical Competence**

Grammatical competence refers to the acquisition of phonological rules, morphological rules, syntactic rules, semantic rules and lexical items (Yano, 1999:34).

### **1.5.5 Target Language**

A target language is a foreign language which is aimed to be learned or acquired (Yano, 1999:34).

### **1.5.6 Medium of instruction**

The medium of instruction is the language used by the teacher to teach. Teaching the language, or educational content, through the target language increases the amount of exposure the learner gets to it, and the opportunities they have to communicate in it, and therefore to develop their control of it (McCrum, 2002:93).

## **1.6 RATIONALE**

Varied researchers' studies, including that of Seotsanyana, the external examiners evaluation work at the National University of Lesotho, Ester Pineiro and others, serve as eloquent testimonies that there is a need for further investigation as a matter of urgency. These investigations give a wake-up call to other language and communication researchers. It is through adequate exposure to previous research work on language and communication for professional purposes and careful assessment of language use in a practical situation by some private and government department employees that this study became inevitable. After 12 years of serving in the education sector, the realisation of the gap in the national education policy in Lesotho had become a magnified billboard.

This study concerns the need for language and communication by human and social science professionals using a second language in the domain of business and industry and their yield to stakeholders. There are two main points of interest: what is this particular language and communication needed for professional purposes, and how have language and communication needs analyses been used to yield knowledge about language and communication in business and industry. The study also examined the extent to which the language needs of industry and business are taken into account in national language education policy in the Lesotho context.

## **1.7 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

This study intended to answer the following critical questions:

- Are language needs analysis methods used to examine language and communication needs of industry and business in Lesotho?

- Are the industry and business language needs considered in Lesotho national language education policy?
- What barriers prevent English language proficiency in the corporate context of Lesotho?
- Are there initiatives in place on staff development in the corporate context?
- What role does English play in the corporate context in Maseru?

### **1.8 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

The objectives of the study are:

- To establish if different language needs analysis methods are used to examine language and communication needs of industry and business in Lesotho.
- To investigate if the industry and business language needs are considered in Lesotho national language education policy
- To identify any other possible barriers that prevent English language proficiency.
- To identify if there are any initiatives in place on staff development in the professional context.
- To evaluate the role of English proficiency in the corporate context especially for language and communication professionals.

### **1.9 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

This study is significant to all relevant stakeholders, namely language policy makers, higher learning centres, education administrators and curriculum development officers. The research project examined the difference between institutional and professional perspectives of language ability. It is hoped that the project provided more insight especially for language policy makers. The study further added to the existing work of previous research which had investigated second language acquisition and increase in proficiency. It is vehemently believed that this research study made a significant contribution towards development of English education curriculum.

From the light shed by this study every one of these stakeholders is aware that there is low level of performance in both written and oral English. Consequently, attempts are needed to execute everything in their power to improve the situation in order to uplift performance in English specifically and throughout the education system in general terms.

Finally, the study findings are beneficial to educators, education administrators, training managers, social policy makers, government and private organisations and professionals. The findings of this study are relevant to the education planning, especially for professional development.

## **1.10 METHODOLOGY**

The scope of this study was limited to two main objects: language needs analyses and how they benefit language and communication for professional practice purposes for stakeholders such as the national language policy makers and industry managers. The explored language needs concern the setting of industry and business, and the supply of language skills was scrutinised also in relation to the supply of national language education policy. The units of analyses in this study were the individual language and communication professionals from selected government departments and private organisations in Maseru, the capital of Lesotho.

## **1.11 STUDY PARADIGMS**

The present study was conducted within the qualitative and quantitative paradigm. Bless & Higson-Smith (2013:112) support this method by stating that in some cases quantitative measures would be meaningless to other research projects. Whether data is qualitative or quantitative it is very important since it determines how data can be utilised. This study used a survey method which involved selecting a representative and unbiased sample of subjects drawn from the group that was studied. Goddard & Melville (2001:34) are of the opinion that it is often not practical or possible to study an entire population. The study also adopted a case study method where the researcher had an opportunity to study the subjects.

Sampling is defined as a method of selecting specific research participants from the target population and can be done in many ways (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2013:101). The target population in this study was the industry language and communication practitioners who directly and indirectly contribute in the use of language for professional purpose. The participants were only the residents of Maseru, the capital city of Lesotho. The sample size in this study was 384 participants. There are guidelines to determining a sample size. A larger population is usually represented by a smaller percentage of the population, as opposed to a smaller population; (ii) sampling is not really necessary for very small populations ( $N < 100$ ); (iii) about 20% of the population should be sampled if the population size is around 1500; and (iv) for any population beyond 5000, a sample size of 400 is enough (Gay, 2014:125).

Leedy & Ormrod (2013:199) explain that probability or random selection means choosing a sample in such a way that each member of the population has an equal chance of being selected. Probability methods are simple random, stratified random, cluster and systematic random samplings.

Leedy & Ormrod (2013:206) state that in non-probability sampling, the researcher has no way of forecasting or guaranteeing that each element of the population will be represented in the sample. Non probability methods are quota, purposive, sequential and snowball samplings.

Cluster probability sampling, which allowed the researcher to divide the population of Maseru community into different groups in different organisations, was used. According to Bless & Higson-Smith (2013:84), population is the entire set of objects or people which is the focus of the research. The target population in this study was human and social science professionals from private and government departments in the city of Maseru. Data was collected by means of a comprehensive literature review and through the administration of in-depth questionnaires. These questionnaires were tested by the supervisor and other professionals in the fields of communication and language, to ascertain whether the instrument will adequately test what the study intended to achieve (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2013:117).

Scheduled and non-scheduled interviews with language and communication practitioners and other relevant stakeholders were conducted. Non-participant and participant observation of social behaviour of local inhabitants when interacting in the corporate context was also used as suggested by (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2013:115).

To conceptualise this study, the theoretical approach used the communication model for development (Rampersad, 2004:11). The model permits a heuristic approach to evaluate the different components of the communication process including the analysis of the communicator, analysis of recipients, analysis of message (s) and the signs and symbols of the coding process, interaction between participants, media used in the process, interpretation and expressions of messages, the socio-cultural circumstance of communicators and recipients in the broader context.

Onyancha (2002) defines data analysis as an act of transforming data with the aim of extracting useful information and facilitating conclusions. The responses from closed-ended and open ended questions were analysed by using tables, graphs, charts, frequencies and percentages. Qualitative analysis method was also used.

Content analysis method was specifically used to analyse qualitative data. According to Berger (2013:26), content analysis is an indirect way of making inferences about people instead of questioning them. The author explains further that content analysis might also be used to compare and contrast two different professional communicator's opinions. Content analysis was therefore used to when analysing qualitative data.

Onyancha (2002) defines data analysis as an act of transforming data with the aim of extracting useful information and facilitating conclusions. The responses from closed-ended questions were analysed by using tables, graphs, charts, frequencies and percentages. Qualitative analysis method was also used.

## **1.12 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS**

Data collection is the collection of data required to achieve the research objectives. It is a systematic process that enables statistical analysis. Various research instruments are used to collect desired data. These techniques include tools like questionnaires,

interviews, observation, and record reviews. Marshall & Rosen (1995: 104) state that the key principle of collecting research data is that the instrument used for this purpose must be appropriate for the type of information to be collected. The research techniques must be efficient, practical, feasible and ethical. They have to enable the researcher to conduct a detailed, in-depth study. As stated previously, the survey research method was chosen to collect data through questionnaires. Data for the purpose of this study was done through questionnaires and direct interviews. Data from questionnaires was analysed using a statistical programme while content analysis method analysed data from interviews.

### **1.13 SUMMARY**

This chapter attempted to provide an outline of the basis of the study. The section has also provided an outline of the study objectives, problem statement as well as the study significance. The study further provided the methodology and study limitations. Critical questions to be answered were also provided. The subsequent chapter discussed literature review.

### **1.14 DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY**

This summary gives an overview regarding organisation of the study. It is organised in to five chapters respectively. Chapter one provides the study orientation and general background. Critical questions, study aims and proposed research methods are also discussed in this chapter. The part also attempts to explain data collection as well as analysis techniques.

**Chapter two** is the next chapter of the study. The chapter provides an in-depth discussion of the related literature. The chapter gives the perspective and sets parameters within which the research problem and research questions are investigated. More importantly, an overview of all concepts and theories applied in the study is given in this chapter. In doing so, the chapter basically touched three areas respectively. These are language and communication as concepts, theoretical perspectives and language policy planning.

**Chapter three** outlines the research methodology to be utilised in detail and justification thereof. The chapter provides insight into how the study was conducted and managed. **Chapter four** details the research findings. Conclusions are then drawn from amassed data and implications of the findings related to theory at hand. Statistical techniques were also included to deal with quantitative data. The chapter also includes content analysis method for qualitative data.

**Chapter five** provides a summary of the objectives that initiated the study. The chapter further outlines the research findings but more importantly discusses the findings and all other factors thrown up by the study as it progressed in order to align it to all the recommendations and conclusions to be reached. It ends by general conclusions based on objectives and findings. A detailed summary of the thesis is also provided here. Results obtained are further emphasised as well as the contribution made by the results. finally, recommendations are made for further studies.

## *Chapter 2*

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter presents a review of literature on the subject of proficiency in English language, more especially proficiency in English Language for employment and professional practice. According to Randolph (2012: 9), literature review provides an account of the published work by the scholars and researchers in various fields. Leedy & Omrod (2005: 64) are of the opinion that the review of literature explains theoretical perspectives as well as previous research work which investigated similar challenges. Leedy & Omrod further note that the role of review of literature is to gain insights into work done by previous investigators on the problem at hand. Ideally, prospective researchers should take further the work of previous researchers. This chapter therefore commences by presenting language and communication issues relating to the research. It will also sum up varied studies that set parameters of this study and evidence the above assertions in relation to language proficiency theories, planning policies as a central frame work to it all.

#### **2.2 LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION AS CONCEPTS**

Language is a code system and the fundamental tool through which beings, especially humans, convey ideas. Language as a system consists of unique sounds, individual words, patterns formed from words and ultimately phrases used in the process of communication. Mersham & Skinner (1999:19) define language as a system comprising words and grammar. The very words and grammar are then organised into one that is referred to as a linguistic code. Thus, this code can be used in conveying any feeling. For Steinberg (2007:114), the concept language involves the entire body of words and the ways by which combining them are used by different societies. The author shows that language gives human beings permission to describe and assess objects, emotions and ideas. Steinberg concludes that people have a propensity of taking this vital tool for granted, yet, it plays a very pivotal role in our existence. Harley (2008:55) maintains that

a more precise definition of language is that language is a combination of an artificial system of signs and codes, with rules for forming comprehensible messages for consumption like in a workstation structure. Thus, some order and audience presupposes the use of anything that can be referred to as language.

Anderson & Stageberg (2012:26) opine that three key functions can be highlighted as far as language is concerned. Firstly, language precipitates the communication of information. This occurs in the formulation and affirmation of intentions. Language used to affirm or deny propositions, or to present arguments, is said to be serving the informative role. In this background, we make use of the word 'information' to include even misinformation. Thus, we also include false and true propositions, correct as well as incorrect arguments. The explanatory dialog is used to illuminate the world, and to debate about it. It does not matter whether the alleged facts being described are of importance or not, general or particular. In any case the language used to describe or report them is being used informatively.

Anderson & Stageberg (2012:27) present the second functional role of language as expressive function. In the same manner that science provides us with the clearest instances of informative discourse, the poetry on the other hand furnishes us the best typical examples of language serving the very expressive functions. Thus, language serves the expressive function whenever it is being used to vent or communicate feelings or emotions. Nonetheless, it is also imperative to note that not all expressive language is poetry. We can also express a feeling of sorrow and enthusiasm by shouting. Expressive discourse as expressive is neither true nor false. Expressive discourse is actually used either to demonstrate the speaker's feelings or to induce certain feelings on the part of the listener. In some cases, it can be both.

On directive as another function of a language, the authors opine that language serves the directive role when it is used for the purpose of causing overt action. A typical example of directive discourse is a command or a request of these processes. It is also of importance to note that the difference between a command and a request is a rather subtle one, for almost any command can be translated into some form of a request by

adding the word 'please' or by suitable changes in tone of voice or even expression of a face. Anderson & Stageberg (2012: 29) further states that in its nakedly imperative form, directive discourse is neither true nor false. For instance, the instruction that one must close the window cannot be true or false. Nevertheless, the reasonableness or propriety, the unreasonableness or impropriety of commands are properties somewhat analogous to the truth or falsehood of informative discourse.

For Harley (2008: 5), a number of steps are involved when we communicate with others. The author offers the analysis of psychological factors that are involved whenever we are communicating with fellow human beings. Harley holds that the take off point for any of these processes however lies in the assumption that the individual possesses the rather essential genetic hardware. For human beings, there is a requisite for the speech apparatus that will enable a person the right sort of sounds, as well as a brain to select what to pronounce, how to say it and have all the words come out in an acceptable order. Harley goes on to state that humans require a language complex enough in order to transfer any possible message. Thus, there is a need to master the words as well as how to put them in the right order. The author notes that young children somehow acquire this language. Finally, Harley has it that language users need to be aware of the social context in which these different messages are produced and grasped. Thus, it is of paramount importance that we are aware of the knowledge and beliefs of fellow human beings, and have some idea of how they will attach interpretations to our messages.

On communication, Williams (1992: 11) asserts that communication is an activity, not a "thing". The manner in which people communicate is of critical significance in their lives. Human beings have communicated as early as the very beginning of times. A huge proportion of time is dedicated more to communicating than to any other human behaviour. Communication is therefore extremely vital to the development of personalities, personal and professional achievement.

According to Steinberg (2007:39), in the scientific study of communication, there are two basic views of communication: a technical view and a meaning-centred view. Steinberg

(2007:39) states from a technical point of view that, communication can be defined very simply as “sending and receiving messages”, or the transmission of messages from one person to another. In accordance with Steinberg (2007:39), this second view of communication, which is regarded as “more complex view of communication”, states that in addition to the transmission of messages, it involves their interpretation and meaning. Steinberg further states that this view considers communication as a human phenomenon and the central aspect of human existence. A more staid look at communication is provided by Mersham and Skinner (1999:2) which says that most people agree that the verb to communicate means to exchange thoughts, feelings, and information; to make known; to make common; and to present something that somebody else understands. Language has a central part in all human activity and in human interrelationships. Language is most certainly man’s primary form of communication.

According to Atkinson (1991:23), humans use signs and symbols to convey a thought, feelings, or an idea. How humans communicate is greatly significant in our lives. Humans spend most of their time communicating with each other. They develop, maintain and end relationships through communication. Communication influences the experiences and the happenings in an individual’s environment.

### **2.3 COMMUNICATION BY OBJECTIVES**

The communication-by-objectives approach is a method of communication that breaks the message development process into three major steps (Rico, 2010). These steps include planning a message, composing a draft, and completing a message. Each communication by objectives includes four specific objectives. These objectives are important because they serve as a benchmark of communication in any medium. Stanton (2004: 1) maintains that whether we are writing or speaking, trying to persuade, inform, entertain, explain, convince or educate, or to achieve any other objective behind a particular communication activity in which we are engaged, there is always one or a combination of four general objectives in our minds. The objectives thus include the

message being received in one form or another, being understood, being accepted, as well as changing the behaviour or attitude of the recipient.

## **2.4 COMMUNICATION CODES**

According to Saundra & Weaver (2007: 13) a communication transaction is not only about the physical act of communicating, but also a psychological act. The authors argue that impressions are being formed in the minds of the people who are in the process of communication. They state that what people think and know about one another directly affects how they communicate. Transactional communication basically involves three important principles: Firstly, people engaged in communication are sending messages continuously and simultaneously; secondly, communication events have a past, present, and future; and thirdly, participants in the communication process play certain roles (Saundra & Weaver 2007: 13).

## **2.5 VERBAL AND NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION**

Communication, according to communication scholars, comes into forms. These are verbal and non-verbal communication. According to Steinberg (2007: 41) verbal communication entails the use of spoken or written signs called words which make up a particular language, such as Dutch or English. Steinberg (2006: 58) on the other hand, describes non-verbal communication as the term that incorporates all human interaction that is not written or spoken. The author states that non-verbal communication involves a wide range of human actions such as body movement, eye contact, and facial expression, as well as the use of touch and space, and tone of voice. Non-verbal communication plays an important role in all human encounters.

## **2.6 EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION**

Effective communication is said to occur in a twofold manner; the message transferred must be expressed succinctly and the person receiving it should also be able to interpret it such that misunderstanding can be minimized. When it is a communication process, two parties need to be on par as to the subject under discussion, for the

process to be labelled effective communication. (Saundra & Weaver 2007: 17). Thus, in an ideal communication scenario the message is understood the way it was meant to be. Due to the nature and outcomes expected of specific communication, effective communication is always central to any organisation's efficiency and productivity.

## **2.7 COMMUNICATION AT WORK**

The very nature of our social, cultural and economic world is organisationally centered, hence the need for one to be a competent communicator in organisational settings. Organisational communication practices according to Pearson *et al.* (2006: 241) can enhance or diminish one's role in charting a better future and ensuring some degree of control over one's work environment. Pearson *et al.* (2006: 242) state that workplace communication occurs in the context of an organisation, and each of us belongs to a number of different organisations. Organisational communication is defined as the ways in which groups of people maintain both their structure (organisation) and order through their symbol-based interactions and let individuals have the freedom to achieve their goals.

## **2.8 COMMUNICATION CONTEXTS**

According to Tubbs (2006: 18) human communication occurs in the following contexts:

- Intrapersonal communication
- Interpersonal communication
- Intercultural communication
- Small-group communication
- Organisational communication
- mass communication
- digital communication

### **2.8.1 Intrapersonal communication**

Intrapersonal communication is the process of finding within oneself the meaning of messages from one's prior knowledge base. This kind of communication occurs within one's own mind - it occurs when one revisits and analyses the interactions that occur between one and others, though it is not limited to such instances. It also includes activities such as solving problems internally, dealing with internal conflict, making future plans, and reflecting on oneself and one's relationship with others (Pearson *et al.* 2006: 18-19). Intrapersonal communication may occur before and during the other forms of communication.

### **2.8.2 Interpersonal communication**

This refers to communication that comprises of two or more people. Pearson *et al.* (2006: 19) define interpersonal communication as the personal process of finding a meaning from a conversation between at least two people in a manner that gives mutual opportunities for both speaking and listening. The authors further state that similarly to intrapersonal communication, interpersonal communication occurs for different reasons, which include solving problems, resolving conflicts, sharing information, improving others' perception of oneself, as well as fulfilling social needs such as the need to belong or to be loved.

### **2.8.3 Small-group communication**

According to Steinberg (2007: 97) a group refers to a collection of individuals who see themselves as belonging together, interact verbally and non-verbally and co-operate in playing certain roles to achieve a definite goal. Thus, the group works towards achieving a specific objective, like solving a problem or partaking in a decision-making process. Examples of small groups are committees and a family. Small-group communication begins with a similarity of interests.

#### **2.8.4 Public communication**

According to Williams (1992: 210), this is communication that is typically intended for large groups of people, hence the label 'public'. Steinberg (2007: 53) states that public communication refers to situations where a communicator, like a lecturer or an entertainer, does most of the talking while several people listen. Groups of people being addressed in a public-speaking context are much larger than in a small-group context. The result is that interaction between the members is severely limited, or even impossible. However, the relatively face-to-face nature of public communication allows the recipients to actively participate in the communication process through their occasional responses and facial expressions. This allows the communicator to make on-the-spot changes to the message.

#### **2.8.5 Organisational communication**

Mersham & Skinner (1999: 4) state that organisational communication refers to all forms of communication that an organisation's members engage in, and this is also referred to as internal communication. Organisational communication is a necessary communication that takes place as an attempt to achieve a common understanding of an organisation's goals and purpose. This form of communication occurs in large co-operative networks and incorporates almost all aspects of both interpersonal and group communication. Organisational communication involves, among others, the following: keeping records, writing notices, participating in group discussions and completing in reports.

Mersham & Skinner (1999: 148) further point out that organisational communication operates largely in levels, hierarchies and networks. Organisations generally implement hierarchical structures to foster effective communication. The levels of communication include intrapersonal, interpersonal and small-group forms of communication.

## **2.9 THE STRUCTURAL FEATURES OF MODERN ENGLISH LANGUAGE**

The linguistic aspects of a language basically explore the mental lexicon structure in which words are organised according to their phonology, syntax, and semantics. This also explores some other non-linguistic aspects of a language. The mental lexicon manifests in every linguistic communication encounter. Some dimensions are learnt in terms of their linguistic disciplines namely phonology, syntax and semantics. Others on the other extreme are studied in terms of disciplines such as social, emotional and context interaction (Radford et al. 2009:78).

According to Booij (2005:24), morphology refers to the study of the internal word's structure. It deals with the forms of lexemes (word-formations) and with the manners which these lexemes are formed. New words are formed on the basis of patterns of form-meaning correspondence between existing words. Booij introduces the structural features of linguistic morphology as phonology, syntax and semantics. The author further states that morphology is an inquiry into the nature of linguistic systems, and hence into human natural language. For Radford (2009:1), grammar is 'traditionally subdivided into two varying but rather inter-related areas of study'. The areas involve morphology and syntax respectively. Radford shares the view that morphology is the study that focuses on the manner in which words are formed out of smaller units. These sub-units are referred to as the morphemes. The author further notes that syntax on the other side is concerned with the manner in which words can be joined together to form phrases and sentences.

In terms of the traditional division of grammar into morphology and syntax, Hudson (2010:65), maintains that morphology is the study of the formation and interpretation of words, whereas syntax studies the formation and interpretation of phrases and sentences. Hudson therefore concludes that morphology is half of the grammar, thus, the half that explains changes within a word. The author also points out that syntax on the other extreme is the ways in which words join together with other to produce phrases and sentences.

### **2.9.1 Phonology**

Combinatoriality within a particular word includes taking some stretches of phonology from the lexicon that already possess a particular meaning or role, and placing them in sequence to form words. The minimal units so put together are referred to as morphemes. The study of morphemes and their coming together is called morphology (Hall, 2005:134). Mesthrie & Bhatt (2008:118) are of the opinion that the term phonology is 'the science of speech sounds involving the history and theory of sound changes in a given language or in two or more languages whose structures are the same'. Mesthrie & Bhatt further opine that phonology concentrates on the basic sound system of a language. Thus, phonology in a language system deals with the very pronunciation of individual words that can be broken up into smaller units known as segments or phoneme. The structural features of a language for Hall (2005:154) can best be summarised by the work of the American linguist, Naom Chomsky. In accordance with Chomsky's work, phonology joins together different sounds with the lexicon; the lexicon and morphology mediate between sound, syntactic patterns and meaning; and semantics connects the lexicon and syntax with meanings in conceptual systems (Hall, 2005:154).

### **2.9.2 Syntax**

Syntax experts usually raise an argument that their linguistic area is at the very core of human language. This is because it is the very component of our mental grammar which directly interfaces with neither sound nor meaning. Syntacticians study the ways in which users of language can arrange words on-line into larger units, involving complete statements with a verb and subject. At glance, the study of syntax ranks along with the structure of DNA as an example of enormous subtlety and power in naturally – occurring complex systems (Hall, 2005:155).

In accordance with Radford *at al.* (2009: 314), syntax in a language system draws a distinction between language internal and language external syntactic categories. The authors share the view point that syntax refers to the set of rules, principles, alongside the processes that govern how the structure of sentences in a given language are

determined. In language syntax, people construct full sentences. Syntax governs the ways in which individual words can be brought together to make complete language sentences.

### 2.9.3 Semantics

Mesthrie & Bhatt (2008:131) share the opinion that semantics refers to the branch of linguistics and logic concerning meaning. There are a couple of branches as well as sub-branches of semantics which include formal semantics. The authors maintain that formal semantics deals with the logical aspects of meaning. Semantics therefore studies the relationships between signs and symbols and their representation. For Radford *et al.* (2009:176), semantic learning concentrates on the connections between the name of an object and the object itself. Semantics in a nutshell refers to the study or science of meaning in a language.

### 2.9.4 Pragmatics

According to Hall (2005:197), Chomsky was the first linguist to cause some commotion among linguists, social anthropologists, psychologists as well as philosophers. He caused disturbance by drawing his distinction between linguistic competence knowledge of language and linguistic performance. The study of linguistic pragmatics attempts to demonstrate some of the ways in which prepositions mediate linguistic structure and the non-linguistic perceptions, intentions and beliefs. Pragmatics can directly be attributed to the concept communicative competence. Pragmatics moves further beyond just the deployment of words in sentences, to study the meaning of texts and discourse (Hall, 2005:199). Figure 1 below provides a summary of aspects of a language.

ASPECT	DESCRIPTION
Morphemes	the smallest unit of meaning (e.g. dog
Phonology	the study of sounds and how they relate to languages; phonology describes the sound

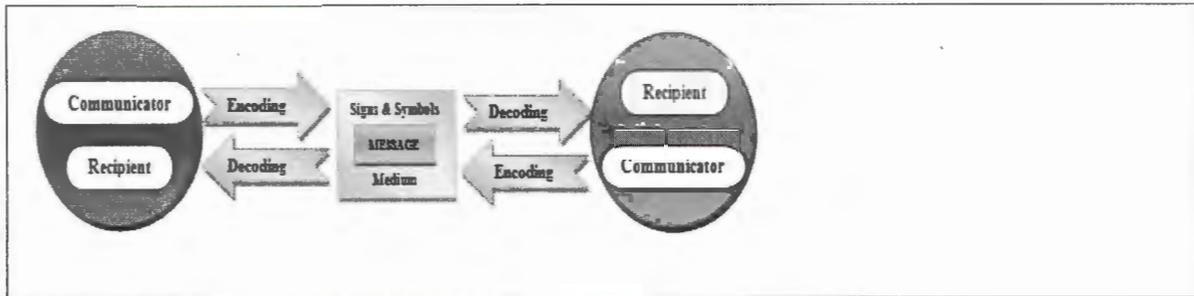
	categories each language uses to divide up the space of possible sounds
Phonetics	the acoustic detail of speech sounds and how they are articulated
Pragmatics	the aspects of meaning that do not affect the literal truth of what is being said; these concern things such as choice from words with the same meaning, implications in conversation, and maintaining coherence in conversation.
Morphology	the study of how words are build up from morphemes
Syntax	The rules of word order of a language
Semantics	The study of meaning
Source: Harley (2008: 5)	

Table 1: The different aspects of a language



## 2.10 STRUCTURE OF COMMUNICATION PROCESS

According to Sandra & Weaver (2007: 13), a communication transaction involves not only the physical act of communicating, but also a psychological act. Thus, impressions are being formed in the mind of the people who are actually in the process of communication. The authors state that what people think and know about one another directly affects their communication. The figure below demonstrates human communication process.



Source: Mersham & Skinner (1999:10)

Figure 1: Communication process

Transactional communication basically involves three important principles. First, people engaged in communication are sending messages continuously and simultaneously. Secondly, communication events have a past, present, and future. Thirdly, participants in the communication process play certain roles (Saundra & Weaver 2007: 13).

### 2.10.1 The powers necessary in the act of communication

For a person to become a good communicator, he must learn some basic principles that will make him to be more effective in communication. Mersham & Skinner (1999:18) state that if one learns the secret of encoding, decoding, interpretation and feedback one will become much more knowledgeable and effective in communication. Encoding, decoding, interpretation and feedback are called the powers of communication.

### 2.10.2 Encoding

Dominick (2005:5) states that encoding refers to activities that a source goes through to translate thoughts and ideas into a form that may be perceived by the senses. Steinberg (2007:16) also points out that encoding is the process of taking the ideas in one's mind and transforming them into verbal and non-verbal signs, so that they can be transmitted as messages to someone else. The author also adds that encoding is the transmission of inner thoughts, beliefs and feelings into external material signs.

### **2.10.3 Decoding**

Dominick (2005:6) is of the opinion that decoding process is a direct opposite of the encoding process which consists of activities that translate or interpret physical messages into a form that has ultimate meaning for a recipient. Mersham & Skinner (2002:18) also opine that decoding is the transferring of raw data into meaningful information.

### **2.10.4 Interpretation**

Mersham & Skinner (2002:18) expound interpretation as the recipient's conception of the received message. The authors again opine that the communicator encodes his or her ideas and transmits them within a medium. The recipient subsequently receives and decodes them, but the real turning point of communication is the recipient's interpretation of the message.

### **2.10.5 Feedback**

Dominick (2005:7) regards feedback as that subsequent responses of the receiver that is shaped and changed by the interpretation of the received message. The author further explains that in the feedback process, it is then the receiver that becomes the original source of the new message and the original source becomes the receiver. Dominick further notes that communication scholars have over time, identified two different kinds of feedback- positive and negative. Dominick (2005:8) also adds that in general terms, positive feedback from the receiver usually encourages the communication behavior in progress while negative feedback usually changes the communication pattern or even terminates it. Finally, the author asserts that feedback can be immediate or delayed. Immediate feedback can only occur when the reactions of the receiver are directly perceived by the source.

## **2.11 LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY**

In accordance with Jandt (2010:28), language proficiency entails a set of symbols utilised by any given community to express meaning. In essence, this is typical of a communication code. People tend to make varying assumptions concerning words, grammar, and ultimately ideas and the motive behind choice of words we use. As

individuals from different cultural backgrounds, we have different assumptions regarding the appropriate use of language. As for Stewart *et al.* (2003), diverse cultures give treatment differently to men and women. Thus, men and women acquire different education on how to make use of oral language and non-verbal cues. Harris & Sherblom (2010) extend the argument further by noting that, in order to hear and understand each other well we should stop educational and racial codes of language use.

Language proficiency is in general terms viewed as the ability to make use of fluent speech in such a manner that it efficiently disseminates the initial ideas of the message. This involves the notion of grammar mastery and communicative competence. This should as well take into consideration the varying levels of learner's language development (Magocha, 2002:454). At glance, language proficiency is interpreted in relation to the concepts such as achievements in language, competence in language alongside performance.

In addition, language proficiency is an extremely crucial skill which should be taken into consideration in the corporate context where working teams influence and get influenced by fellow members or peers. Language serves as a significant tool which makes it possible for the communicative interactions particularly in ethnically diverse teams. Language plays a critical role here because members of the teams will not be able to share issues of common concerns and essential business projects. If not addressed earlier, language can result in the creation of complications as different team members possess different abilities or mean to interpret and grasp the shared meaning. Inevitably, as a result of this situation, there will be communication gap among members in the ethnically diverse teams (Chen, Geluykern & Choi, 2003).

## **2.12 COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE**

The concept communicative competence entails know how of the basic socio-linguistic rules, or appropriateness of the utterances. This in a nutshell is attributed to mastery of the rules of grammar. Communicative competence according to Savignon (2001:235), entails knowhow of socio-linguistic laws, the suitability of utterances and knowledge of

the rules of grammar. In a nutshell, the term is given its interpretation from the perspective of language to refer to the ability to 'negotiate meaning in order to successfully bring together knowledge of linguistic, sociolinguistic and discourse rules in situations of communicative interactions'. The author goes on to say that communicative competence applies to both forms of language use, verbal and transcribed language, in both formal and informal environments. Savignon furthermore makes a remark that an individual has attained communicative competence when they can demonstrate language knowledge and skill of grammatical rules of language in order to make correct sentences. In addition, one must as well master the when, where and to whom to use the sentences. Communicative competence in real life situation does not only need a speaker to construct a grammatical sentence, but also, of critical importance, to consider the situation or background in which utterances are made. Thus, the concept basically deals with language knowledge and ability to use the very knowledge in the right setting and environment.

For Richards & Rodgers (2001:151), 'communicative competence is the ability to use the linguistic system effectively and appropriately'. Communicative competence deals with more than just a sentence level-grammatical competence. The concept also concentrates on social encounters, the real communicator-listeners who are involved in interpretation, expression and negotiation of meaning in various contexts. This therefore implies that communicative competence entails knowledge of the use of language for a range of varying intentions and functions. These variations are in terms of the setting and the participants. Richards & Rodgers also attempt to draw a distinction between communicative competence and grammatical competence. They point out that communicative competence refers to 'capacity relating to the rules of language use while grammatical competence simply refers to the rules of grammar.

### **2.12.1 Components of communicative competence**

Richards & Rodgers (2001:99) carry on by noting the four areas of communicative competence respectively. These areas according to the authors are grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence as well as strategic competence. The authors also explicate each of the four areas: Grammatical

competence concentrates on sentence level grammar. It is concerned with whether or not we possess knowledge of some basic knowledge of rules of the syntax, semantics, phonology and morphology. Grammatical competence is again attributed to our understanding of the literal meaning of utterances. Next, discourse competence deals with the relationships between individual sentences. Mastery of the discourse allows us to join sentences in stretches of discourse. Thirdly, the sociolinguistic competence has connection with socio-cultural rules of language but is not restricted to the literal meaning of words. Our ability in this competence allows us to make use of language appropriately in varying social settings. Lastly, is the strategic competence. This entails competence underlying our mastery to form repairs, to cope with knowledge not perfect, also to sustain message sharing through paraphrase, circumlocution, repetition, hesitation, avoidance and guessing. In sharing similar sentiments, Penny (2008) defines an outstanding English user as “someone who has full mastery of the lexical and grammatical forms of an internationally accepted form of variety of the language, and a clear and comprehensible accent; who has intercultural competence and well-developed communication skills.” Penny vehemently maintains that when one has achieved adequate English language abilities, it does not really make a difference whether a person is, presently, or was, previously, the original native speaker of any of the English dialects.

## **2.13 THE GLOBAL ENGLISH**

The rise of English language according to Mesthrie & Bhatt (2008:9) can be studied from different perspectives. These perspectives involve English as a topic in historical linguistics; English as a macro-sociolinguistic topic; English as a topic in the field of language contact; English as a topic in political and ideological studies; English as a topic in applied linguistics; English as a topic in cultural and literary studies. When taking the discussion a little further, Mesthrie & Bhatt hold the opinion that the study of English from historical linguistics provides a highlight on the history of one language within the Germanic family and its constant fission into regional and social dialects. On English as macro-sociolinguistic, the authors elaborate the ways in which English and similar languages attributed to colonisation have altered the linguistic ecology of the

globe. Continuing with the analysis, Mesthrie & Bhatt note that English as a topic in the field of language contact examines the structural similarities and differences amongst the current varieties of English. Moreover, analysis of English as a topic in political and ideological studies focuses on how relations of dominance are entrenched by, and in language. English as a topic in applied linguistics by the authors concerns the role of English in modernisation, government and education. Lastly, the authors provide an elaboration of the nature of English as a topic in cultural and literary studies. Here, they point out that English study concerns the impact of English upon different cultures and literatures. This as well includes constructions of new identities via bilingualism.

### **2.13.1 History of English**

The history of English language is attributed to three distinct periods respectively. First, there is the earliest stage which involves the arrival of the English in Britain down to about 1100. This is usually known as the Old English (O.E.) or Anglo-Saxon period. From the period 1100 to the period approximately 1500 there is what is known as Middle English (M.E.). Lastly, there is Modern English (Mod.E.) stage from the period 1500 to the present moment. Although the actual migration of the English people from the continent of Europe took place mainly in the fifth and sixth centuries, however, quite few records of anything written in English before 700 are available (Anderson & Stageberg, 2012 :54). The authors indicate that the outstanding literary work of Old English stage is the epic poem *Beowulf*, written about 700. The most vital Middle English work is the poetry of Chaucer, who passed away in the year 1400. In Modern English period, beginning with Spenser and Shakespeare in the sixteenth century, there is a continuous series of great writers down to our present moment.

When taking the discussion further, Anderson & Stageberg (2012:55) narrate that one should not think the change from one period to the next was abrupt and sudden. The process itself was rather like passing from one country to another when travelling. There is not much at any particular moment to show the change, but after a time one finds oneself in a new region. The development of a language was all the time gradual and just as imperceptible as it is at the present moment. In any age it is possible that a considerable overlapping occurred between old and new, older generation, more

conservative, retaining the earlier forms of speech, the younger adopting innovation. Even in the very work of an individual writer, the authors maintain that we are likely to find a mixture of old and new forms.

Moreover, Anderson & Stageberg point out that English is not the original language of England but, like the English people themselves, were coming over from the continent of Europe. Infact, it is not clearly established as to what was the first language in England. The answer to this can emanate from prehistory periods. However, it is commonly known that before the arrival of English people and their language, there had existed for several centuries a tongue which belonged to quite a different family of languages. This tongue belonged to the Celtic group. This was actually spoken by the ancient Britons. During the times of Roman occupation of Britain, around 43-410, Latin language is possible that it was widely used.. The turning point in the history itself could be in the middle of the fifth century, when the invading Teutonic tribes from the very continent started to conquer the Britons. They also imposed on the country their own speech and social organisation. It was at this interesting period that the history of the English language in England began (Anderson & Stageberg, 2012:55).

NAME OF PERIOD	TIME OF PERIOD
O.E. (OLD ENGLISH)	700 – 1100
M.E. (MIDDLE ENGLISH)	1100 – 1500
Mod. E. (MODERN ENGLISH)	1500 – 1900
Source: Anderson & Stageberg (2012:55).	

Table 2: The three distinct periods in the history of English

According to Kirkpatrick (2006: 28), the discussion of international English on academic arena has gained massive attention among language practitioners and researchers. The analysis of the concentric circles model is the results of what has come to be known as the role of 'Englishes' of the world. The author identifies the 'three circles' model which is attributed to the ever spreading role of English around the globe. The model is unique in a sense that English as a language becomes more than just one English. Kirkpatrick goes further by saying that in the inner circle, English plays the role as the native language. On the other hand, the outer circle deals with the colonial history of English. The expanding circle concentrates on English as a foreign language. Nonetheless, the author does not overlook the amazing function of global English in the expanding circle societies like Lesotho and many other parts of the world.



Source: Kachru (2005:16)

Figure 2: The three concentric circles of English

## 2.15 THE ROLE OF ENGLISH INTERNATIONALLY

Language, especially language spoken by the once colonial masters, has been a good and reliable friend of empire. When colonisation had to be brought to an end by the new struggle for independence, the colonial masters' language remained an official language of the countries colonised. These statements are true of English.

Kumaravadivelu (2006:12) asserts that modern English has played the role of a world empire. According to Graddol (2007: 112), 'the promotion of English around the world has long been seen as a neo-imperialist project but it is time to understand the new dynamics of power which global English brings'. English in present climate is ever growing, and its role has become an extremely importance skill in the corporate context. Van der Walt (2006:170) observes that 'if we look at the reasons why African children ought to learn English, it is surely not to ask for stamps at the local post office.' The author notes that the purpose of teaching English to pupils is solely to make them ready to learn and continue with further training and development in English.

According to Chang (2012:2), English language educators are strongly encouraged to use communicative language teaching in order to assist develop students' English abilities. Thus, building strong language ability among children will be in the best interest of their survival in the turbulent environment. Chang shows that it is of critical importance to acquire English language skills at an early stage. The author goes on to show that English is the 'most widely spoken language globally'. The power and dominance of English is seen in every sector of the economy. Thus, at glance, English is the language widely used in different areas like science, technology and business.

Many countries around the world are currently doing their best to ensure that their people acquire the necessary competence in English. This will be in the best interest of citizens as they will be able to compete in the international market. In sharing similar sentiments, McKay (2004:11) states that at present, many countries around the globe are being confronted by a mammoth task to learn and master English as a matter of urgency. This situation is indeed serious and requires attention. In a rather sincere attempt to respond to this global challenge, a considerable number of international corporations are encouraging their staff to develop their English abilities by providing English training on the job. Proficiency in English has received a lot of attention and its demand is gaining a lot of momentum around the world, including China. The demands of English skills have been receiving more attention in Asia, particularly during the periods 2008 Olympic Games in Beijing. Besides teaching English in schools, there are also English training courses in China (Lin, 2002: 8). Lin says that the government of

South Korea has made English learning and teaching one of the national priorities. Lin also shows that a lot of Universities in Taiwan now offer courses that develop integrated English skills or specific topics that enhance proficiency. The author sees proficiency in English language as an international need for business, technology and travel. English has become an essential skill for communication, especially communication for professional practice. Hence, 'governments have responded by establishing English as the first foreign language in most education systems' (Brumfit, 2006: 30).

Nevertheless, these governments' initiatives are apparently unjust to speakers of other languages because the aim to compete implies that speakers of other native languages are denied an opportunity to take part and meaningfully share life with fellow participants. The speakers of English in this case have an advantage that they need not learn other languages. Kumaravadivelu (2006: 16) vehemently maintains that "the issue is one of the difficulties and discriminations encountered by non-native speakers of English as well as the power of privilege enjoyed by native speakers of English". Apart from that, vernacular languages are denied an opportunity to be utilised and be developed. The central concern in a situation like this is that as long as interacting parties get on well in English, there is no need in communicating in other languages because English is performing the very role of bringing them together. The situation itself creates a hierarchy in languages which culminates in leaving the non-native speakers in a rather fishy situation. The hopeless speakers of other languages, other than English, mealy struggle to express themselves to the same extend of complexity, mastery and persuasiveness like they would do in their home language (Kumaravadivelu, 2006:16). This can all finally translate to linguistic and cultural genocide against humanity in education which is equivalent to peacetime war crimes against humanity in the scramble for survival in the global village.

As Savignon (2001:19) notes, the widespread of English has culminated in varieties of English evolving around the planet. Savignon says that English as universal language is instructive. Thus, the English language wide adoption in both international and intranational settings has emerged considerably unprecedented. Savignon offers a

highlight of various regions of the world of English users. These according to the author involve:

- those who dwell in societies where English is a primary language (the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand,
- those who dwell in places where English is an auxiliary, intranational language of communication (Bangladesh, India, Nigeria, the Philippines, Tanzania ; ) and,
- those who primarily use English in international contexts (China, Indonesia, Japan, Saudi Arabia and Russia).

In view of these varying regions of the world and their exposure to the language, it is extremely important to consider the kind of English to use while at a certain part of the world. It is of utmost importance in the teaching and learning processes to begin by identifying the variety of English to be used in particular region. The process is executed in view of the context and learners' needs. Matsuda & Friedrich (2011:334) offer their take on the debate by stating that there are technically three alternatives an individual can pick from. These include an international variety, an established variety as well as the speakers' own variety of English. When taking the discussion on local varieties further, Van der Walt (2006: 171) notes that local varieties of English deal with teachers to scrutinise their own prejudices in relation to their accent as well as non-standard form. They ought to examine again cherished notions which determines proper and right kind of English. In a situation where teachers of English reject adoption of local varieties, there is an alternative of standard English, no matter what varieties are being used by learners. Savignon (2001:20) asserts that the use of English language in today's world has been so widespread, to an extent that some scholars share their views not only on English varieties, but also on world Englishes. World Englishes in this context means the varieties of English spoken in the international context.

According to Jenkins (2009:18), the instrumental model of the spread of English is the one proposed by Kachru. The model organises World Englishes into three main categories, namely the 'inner circle, the outer circle alongside the expanding circle'. The

three circles correspond directly to the distinction among English users as stated by Savignon in 2002. For Jenkins, these three circles stand for the types of spread, the patterns of acquisition, as well as the functional allocation of English in diverse cultural backgrounds. Brown (2001:111) is of the opinion that two main centres have been established in the USA where intellectuals are busy with research studies on World Englishes in different parts. Brown says that some of the scholars who have produced a lot of published work in this discipline have arrived in some of the centres and have gone back to teaching job in the entire world. This therefore implies that what the prospective researchers learnt, they then go out to impart this knowledge to others. Therefore, in the light of these researches work, the number of world Englishes is in numbers especially as different English users make use of it in their own setting for their varying needs. In accordance with Widdowson (1994:383), it is a general acceptance that societies that are characterised by professional fields should be granted the right to own and be allowed to fashion the language to suite their unique requirements and specific purposes. In essence, a language programme should be designed in such a way that it is able to address the needs of a certain group of people, especially a group that shares same knowledge. However, Widdowson (1994:385) cautions that, the standards of communicative effectiveness should be met with consistency. The language as a commodity should be shaped in accordance with the needs of people. The very people, in return should reach agreement on common knowledge as well as conventions in order for the standardisation be maintained.

## **2.16 THE ROLE OF ENGLISH IN SOUTHERN AFRICA**

It has been demonstrated by some scholars like Brown (2001:108) that these are the days for a paradigm shift in linguistic research and pedagogy. These also take into consideration the ever changing roles and functions of global English. Although new ideas seem not easy to grasp and adopt, some point out that there is a need to be taken into consideration in order for the paradigm shift in English teaching to speakers of other languages becomes a success. The points, as a matter of consideration, include availability of texts and level of difficulty, access to supporting materials, learners' answers in course work, as well as workshops and short-term courses for instructional

methods. Brown (2001: 114) further asserts that lack of teaching of English as foreign language specific materials could be an outcome of a feeling that many of English as foreign language teachers need to be non-native speakers of the language. This general feeling emanates from the belief that many of the materials for teaching are in native language of a teacher. This of course, excludes English.

For Widdowson (1994: 393), English teaching and learning is far from needing an individual to be a native speaker. All that matters a lot here is English language knowledge and training which encompass theories, techniques of research, alongside various approaches and methods in language teaching. Thus, it is incorrect to assume that only the native speakers of English can be effective trainers provided they possess and apply instructional methods, approaches in language teaching, research, training and techniques. In essence, this is typical of a reflection of the shift in perspective from vernacular language user as the desired teacher of one's own language. This is an implication that those people whose first language is not English should take an initiative by expanding and extending their horizon of literacy in English. These individuals should abandon the attitude of mind and perception that the teaching of English language needs one to be the native speaker. It is now the moment all of us, native and non-native speakers, to take responsibility of mastering the teaching of English (Widdowson, 1994: 383). The initiative of dedicating a lot of effort to mastering issues surrounding English language abilities could also imply Africanising curricula for nations of Africa. Thus, the curricula should be designed in such a way that it responds to the local African context and circumstances.

When considering the Botswana Literature in English Syllabus, in a study on Literature in English as a subject in Botswana, Sanoto (2003:14) notes that it has become obvious that African authors' literature is not included in the curriculum. For Sanoto, this is absolutely wrong in as far as developing literature in English local background is concerned. The author indicates that students succeed in English literature and understand concepts quite possibly if many of the texts for African were prescriptions. The situation is also likely to be the same in other African countries with language curricula that are not designed to address local context.

## 2.17 THE ROLE OF ENGLISH IN LESOTHO

English language inevitably dominates as the language of high status in the mountain kingdom of Lesotho. It is the official language, the medium of instructions as well as the language of teaching and learning at all levels of formal education. English plays a similar dominant role where it serves as the language of prestige and power in other Southern African states such as, to name a few, Zimbabwe, Botswana and Swaziland. Kumaravadivelu (2006:120) is of the view that “even when the colonial masters are forced to leave the occupied land, their tongue still lingers on”.

According to Fandrych (2003: 17), English is the second official language in Lesotho, the first official language of course being Sesotho. Lesotho as a sovereign state is typical of a bilingual society. English language plays a number of other crucial roles in the mountain kingdom of Lesotho as Fandrych observes. Thus, besides serving as one of the official languages, English also plays a pivotal role in the administration of public affairs, in courts, commerce and industry, in education and partly in the media. English plays an extremely important role in the education sector. English functions as the language of learning and teaching. It is also used across the curriculum from primary school to tertiary education (Fandrych, 2003:17).

According to the Lesotho Curriculum Assessment Policy Framework (LCAPF) (2008:7), the mother tongue (Sesotho) is employed as a language of teaching and learning only up to grade 3 level. Thus, English is used as the language of learning and teaching from grade 4 upwards. Another functional role played by English in Lesotho is that it is a pass prerequisite for the primary school leaving examination. From primary education, learners will subsequently spend 3 years in the junior secondary school. English still plays a functional role of a pass prerequisite even in the junior secondary school. From junior secondary, the learner proceeds to the last 2 years of high school which on successful completion, a learner is awarded Cambridge overseas School Certificate. From there, learners go to tertiary institutions. Just like other certificates, English must be included in the subjects in order for an individual to qualify for Higher learning centre education. When sharing their observation on the role of English in the Lesotho context, Muzvidziwa & Seotsanyana (2002:9) note that ‘English remains the most important

subject that learners are expected to pass before proceeding to tertiary education'. Thus, in a situation whereby a learner has achieved good exam grades but has failed English, such a situation is interpreted as a fail and a learner falls in the category of failures.

English plays an essential role as the major subject in Lesotho secondary education curriculum. The language is used in the curriculum to present concepts in other subject areas. In a nutshell, English serves not only as a subject, but as well as a language of teaching and learning. In accordance with the education system, Sesotho language serves as the language of learning and teaching only up to grade four. From there, English takes over. There is however, the concern of code switching which practically manifests in the Secondary School in relation to these issues surrounding English (Kamwangamala & Chisanga, 2006: 298). In their vehement opinion, Kamwangamala & Chisanga stress that "in most southern African countries English is the language of the elite and is held in high esteem compared with local languages". As a southern African state, Lesotho is not different from other countries of the sub-region.

## **2.18 ENGLISH AS THE OFFICIAL CORPORATE LANGUAGE IN FINLAND**

According to Penny (2008), English is the most dominant language in the corporate context as well as the lingua franca of global business, and this ideology is ever gaining momentum. Due to its significant role as the language of international business, the overwhelming numbers of non- English organisations, alongside some in Finland; have ultimately adopted English as their official business language. International companies have realised that translating from one language to another is associated with extra costs and time consumption. This realisation is an eloquent testimony why English dominates in the international market. Penny further contends that corporate communication in the international system occurs in English. In the various sectors of the economy, the professional terminology is in English. Thus, the language inevitably becomes a matter of choice in daily collaborations. In the corporate context, all interactions and communication are entirely in English, thus, accommodating counterparts and business partners from other parts of the world to get on with one another. English is glamorous and simple in terms of its structure. In a nutshell, Penny

(2008) opines that 'there is a linguistic inter – culture created by the interlocutors in communities of practice of this kind'.

Nevertheless, the use of a language in a corporate environment which is not one's first language is still associated with some difficulties. Welch *et al.* (2001) observe that our perceptions as human beings greatly change the flow of information in intercultural settings. The adoption and use of one language of the corporate context therefore is likely to hinder the flow of information and the very crucial communication within the business. This situation comes about as a result of labour force having to come across the challenge of communicating in non-native language in internal communication.

According to Bergroth (2007), a series of studies have been conducted in Finland in a quest to establish how the Finns make use of English in their occupations. Generally speaking, the foreign speakers of the corporate language who work for multinational companies with English as the language of communication are not opposed to language choice in this regard. Bergroth however states that, the native speakers apparently struggle quite a lot with motivation and attitude woes. The non-native speakers of English further show proficiency as well as certain specific linguistic difficulties. Of utmost interest in this case, will be to observe the manner in which English as lingua franca approach fits in this situation. It will be very interesting to ascertain whether these people can be said to have an English lingua franca speaker identity.

In many cases, this category of people is exposed to working through the medium of a language that is still being learned. Firth (2008) in his utterances has it that 'they learn as they go'. Firth also notes that speaking mainly concentrates on fluency as opposed to grammatical accuracy. For the author, those learning develop this ideal fluency by making use of English to share messages for varying motives. In essence, this is more similar to language acquisition, not the type of learning which is enforced. May be we may wonder if the focus is on grasping, clarity and mutual intelligibility partly since other goals are not possible to attain. Firth is again of the opinion that "there must be situations in business negotiations, for example, when the non-native speakers would actually benefit from greater fluency in English to be fully able to participate in

discussions. The author realises this as a challenging issue to explore because it is not possible for one to realise the importance of something which one does not possess.

The linguistic exchanges in an organisational set up in many cases possess certain features in common. These are speech events which in practice appear to provide the language users with more information in the context. The speakers usually possess similar frame of reference. They are aware and knowledgeable of what they are going to communicate about. All these have the capacity to minimize the danger of miscommunication or other associated forms of disturbances in the communication process (Mawer, 2007:114).

Vollstedt (2002:100) points out that problems that manifest in the use of language can produce a number of outcomes. First and foremost, language problems have direct financial costs resulting from the impaired flow of information. This can thus mean several frustrations like delay, wrong or inexact information, misunderstanding, and eventually poor cooperation among counterparts. Secondly, the rather inevitable corporate practice of social relationships among cow workers, suffers great blow if a situation where one does not possess the vital language skills. The third argument is that workers who are obliged to communicate in a foreign language in a business environment are in most cases not sure of themselves. On the same issue, Vollstedt (2002:101) holds that 'they are lacking those verbal tools of expression available to native speakers'.

## **2.19 CORPORATE ENGLISH TRAINING**

Currently, numerous on-the-job language training strategies are being carried out by the schools of business language. Of greater importance is to note that the approaches regarding pedagogical contents as well as proficiency targets of such business schools differ to a greater degree. Again, diagnostic assessments are executed continuously. The tests are neither very advanced nor basic. Nevertheless, research studies have revealed that companies require the training which is individually oriented and accurate. The trainers of the language themselves should therefore make evident high level of professionalism. The language trainers should be in a position to adjust their teaching

approaches to different backgrounds. Specialists like expert teachers are other requirements of the corporate training. These professionals can play an imperative role in teaching of advanced students. Corporate language demands are broad and need attention. In the context, one must have achieved adequate professional vocabulary. In addition, an individual should get to master varying speech genres. The educator plays a critical role in this case. The work of the teacher should be to motivate as well as make the learner experience a sense of success (Sajavaara & Salo, 2007: 239-243).

Sajavaara & Salo further their discussion by providing a highlight on the concept 'English as the lingua franca'. For the authors, English as a lingua franca studies is an attempt that responds to the current and global nature of modern English. One major concern in this case is whether English lingua franca can assist students by motivating them to learn it. At present moment, the tendency in corporate English training, at least in Finland, is that the local non-native speakers of English present the basics of grammar and the native speakers of English teachers are usually needed by the customers to accomplish the rest (Sajavaara & Salo, 2007: 244).



### **2.19.1 English and employment**

Scientific research on employment and English language abilities are extremely vital instruments in the labour market. There is a direct relationship between proficiency in English language and its influence on the labour market performance, advantages and failures. Scientific research has been conducted by various researchers on the very debate that focuses on the association between migrants' language ability and their income in the host countries. From these explorations, it has emerged that the language competence has a positive result on the earnings (Dustmann & Fabbr, 2003).

According to Lindly (2002), there is apparently a noticeable difference between the sexes and classes of English fluency in Great Britain as it determines their status quo. It has been proven that the earnings on average of the minority categories of men and women are to a large extent affected by lack of language fluency. What appears rather evident is the fact that there is an economic cost to English language deficiency in different occupations. Lindly furthermore opines that English language deficiency is

actually costly in terms of earnings and occupational mobility. Schellekens (2001) shares similar view by stating that lack of English language proficiency seems to be an obstacle to the very market of employment. This implies that when candidates are employed, they are actually hired at a level below their experience and qualification. Casale & Posel, in this debate, point out that in developing contexts, it was found that those who excel in reading and writing, alongside tertiary education earn a great return. As a typical developing context, Lesotho is not an exception to this trend. Language has become a human capital. Proficiency in language, especially an important language like English, serves as a determinant of earnings and inevitably plays a focal role in the earnings of foreign born ethnic groups. In addition, language proficiency for Casale & Posel (2011), impedes the opportunity for getting jobs which completely recognise an individual's proficiency in English language and employment. In a nutshell, Casale & Posel maintain that the occupational advantage and success are indeed dependent on English language mastery, especially in today's competitive corporate context.

For Dustmann & Fabbri (2003), it is a concern that cannot be overlooked that proficiency in English language has an immense impact on the job market. This phenomenon is particularly serious in the contexts like Lesotho where English is the dominant language. In many countries, fluency in English language is directly attributed to higher earnings at the end of the day. English language aptitude functions as one of the significant determining factors to get the crucial employment, to get a higher salary, and eventually get different advantages of the employment market.

A number of research studies dealing with employability and English skills have been conducted in various countries. However, not much focus has been given to these studies regarding English ability of international students alongside immigrants. What remains unclear is how English language mastery plays a role in the employment mechanism for a context-specific non-English immigrants and international students in an English speaking context (Dustmann & Fabbri, 2003). A typical example of English speaking context is Lesotho. The authors firmly maintain that the significance of English proficiency is perceived and interpreted with regard to articulation with individual trajectories in the Australian corporate context.

## **2.20 AN OVERVIEW OF THE AUSTRALIAN JOB MARKET**

Karunaratne (1999) highlights that due to the liberalisation of trade barrier, decontrol of monetary market place, development of new information technologies and an overall decline in transportation charges, Australia is believed to have stepped into the globalised society. Ranking second in the United Nations 2010 Human Development Index, Australia presently follows a laissez-faire free market economy. The market economy ranked third in the Index of Economic Freedom in 2010. The state of Australia completely depends on raw materials and rural products. Like any developed and industrialised state, Australia experiences post-industrialisation and globalisation challenges (Karunaratne, 1999). Among other things, Australia enjoys the membership of United Nations, Commonwealth, G20, OECD (Organisation for Economic Corporation and Development) as well as the World Trade Organization.

According to Lansbury & Wailes (2004), well-built economic growth and a decline in real wages makes labour market bigger and also cuts the woe of joblessness. The rate of unemployment in mid 1990s was estimated to be 8.11% per cent. However, the percentage dropped to 6.7% in 2001. Lansbury & Wailes further note that regardless of the global financial crisis in 2009, the rate of unemployment was greater in December 2009, and again in 2011. Nonetheless, the situation has dramatically changed recently, with the decline of full time permanent jobs and expansion of different types of non-standard forms of employment. This has taken place because of an increase in casual work, part time jobs, outsourcing, as well as the use of agencies and other labour market intermediaries (Lansburg & Wailes, 2004).

Chowdhury (2008) is of the opinion that because of relatively steady sound economy as well as dominant trends of recent transnational migrations, Australia has made it to one of the choices for international students and migrants. The author shows that the number of international student and immigrants visiting the country keeps on increasing. Beside all time settlement migration, there are also about eight major categories of temporary migrants, lengthy stay business, short-stay business and many others. For Chang (2012), the impact of temporary migrants is quite huge, thus, equivalent to more

than 400,000 full-time jobs. Such a flow of work force to the context of Australia has become a growing debate.

### **2.20.1 The nexus between English language skills and employability in Australia**

The labour market is completely dependent on different indicators. One unchallenged argument is the fact that employers' first and foremost preference is the graduate's profession-specific skills. In addition to this, employers look for personal characteristics, alongside attributes. Of course, English language proficiency is also the employer's important requirement (Arkoudis, *et al.* 2009). Taking the discussion to another level, Syed & Murry (2009) maintain the opinion that English language proficiency is a prerequisite for many jobs in the context of Australia. The authors reveal that English language mastery plays an extremely important role in getting employment as well as succeeding in the job performance. The observation of the authors is that 'the better the English, the higher the participation rate'. For Arkoudis *et al.* (200) employees with high levels of qualifications and English language skills earn better outcome with regard to the crucial employment, earnings and occupational status over those with lower level of such human capital attributes.

According to Stevens (2005), lower English language abilities 'works as a barrier to labour market achievement and success.' This situation can at times cause the loss of job. The author also shows that recognising such inextricable relation between English language mastery and employability, the government of Australia has indeed taken important steps to carry out projects that address the very issue of English language proficiency. Syed & Murry,s (2009) opinion regarding this language proficiency debate is that the employment results of English speaking as well as non-English speaking is not similar. Thus, when comparing migrants from English speaking context with non-English speaking, the first cohort is a better achiever regarding employment results. This situation cannot only be understood in terms of employment outcomes but also in terms of occupational status and use of qualification.

## **2.21 ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES AND ITS CHARACTERISTICS**

There are about three assumptions regarding English for specific purpose as a concept. The first assumption holds the view that English for specific purpose is a method in the teaching of a language whereby the instructional methods are solely determined by those who are learning. The second assumption has the opinion that in English for specific purpose approach, material and syllabi are ideally in accordance with the communicative needs of those in the learning process. The last assumption involves those who believe that in the teaching of English for specific purpose approach, the learners acquire knowledge from their field of study. Of critical importance, nevertheless, is that the three approaches acknowledge that the needs analyses are extremely essential to curriculum design, assessment of learners and writing of materials (Hull 2008).

For Graddol (2007), the differences in terms of attitude regarding English for specific purposes and general purpose English itself brings about extensive research studies in English language teaching. Gaining more insights into the controversial concepts, Graddol attempts to explain English for specific purpose by providing in-depth interpretations in terms of 'absolute' and 'variable' characteristics. The author concludes that these two characteristics are typical of what English for specific purpose comprises and does not comprise.

## **2.22 COGNITIVE LANGUAGE ABILITY AND INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS**

Mawer (2007: 153) makes a distinction between two types of language mastery which can be seen as varying in some ways. These two involve basic interpersonal communication abilities as well as cognitive language skills. Cognitive language ability is the area of proficiency in language which related to cognitive and academic abilities. The academic abilities grow during exposure to formal learning. Basic interpersonal communication skills on the other hand entail fundamental skill needed for oral speaking and socio-linguistic aspects of abilities, which naturally develop (Mawer, 2007). When offering one's take on the concepts, Penny (2008) asserts that basic interpersonal skills

allow students to talk effectively and fluently in the various contexts that demand a lot. Cognitive language abilities on the other hand allow the learner to grasp without much effort concepts presented in the academic environment. This will consequently put a learner in a position to execute operations requiring someone in tertiary education.

According to Venzke (2002:16), Interpersonal communication skills make a student to be in a position to talk more fluently and effectively in a natural context that rather demand a lot from a learner. The background itself in which communication takes place gives a lot of content regarding the meaning. Cognitive language ability on the other hand allows those involved in the learning process execute complex cognitive tasks which require someone in the higher learning institution. Venzke further advises that we should avoid at all costs evaluating the proficiency of a learner in the second language upon the proficiency in basic interpersonal communication skills. The author state that the reason behind this advice is that learners are at times able to express themselves well in natural setting but academically fail to demonstrate outstanding language skills.

### **2.23 LINGUA FRANCAS**

A Lingua franca (LF), also known as a language of wider communication is utilised as a second or traditional language for communication by people in linguistically diverse backgrounds. Usually, in such situations, a language is regarded as a stable standard language. It is used by a community of speakers in at least one country for a full range of social roles. The use of this lingua franca language for various purposes and its prestige distinguishes it from creoles and pidgins that are rather used to bridge language barriers. Pidgins and creoles, as mentioned, are utilised for few aims. For instance, they can be used in education and government administrative issues (Bock & Mheta, 2014: 367).

Lingua francas have spread from being used by a particular speech community in a particular geographical territory, to other neighbouring territories or to geographically dispersed speech communities. The ever spreading lingua franca usually accompanies some form of dominating influence (Bock & Mheta, 2014: 368). The dominant influence may involve the following:

- military or colonial conquest (Greek, Latin, English)
- faith-based influence (Arabic, Latin)
- economic (English, as a result of the dominant political economy of the US and Western capitalism)

### **2.23.1 English as a Lingua Franca**

Macmaster (2004) provides a list of some of the concepts that are closely associated with the concept English as a lingua franca. These include international English, world English, global English as an international language. In addition, world standard spoken English adds up to the list, as shown by Macmaster. The concept has become very popular and takes centre stage for a growing debate among researchers and experts of language. The concept is interpreted differently by varying scholars and language professionals. For Macmaster, English as a lingua franca draws attention to communication in the international arena, thus, emphasizing the part English plays as a medium of communication of the world. This concept is ever being used in research studies and therefore a well-established term.

### **2.23.2 Defining English as a lingua franca**

English as a lingua franca according to Kirkpatrick (2006:155) refers to the language of communication among the speakers of other native languages. The concept is again defined precisely as the language of contact among people who do not share in common native language, culture. English as a lingua franca in this case implies that it (English) is used as the chosen foreign language of communication. Jenkins (2009:2) takes the discussion a little further by highlighting that English as lingua franca interactions take place among communicators of varying languages, of which none of the interacting parties speak English as a mother tongue. Kirkpatrick defines English as a lingua franca in terms of a communication medium available for speakers of different tongues. Jenkins on the other hand is of the view that English as lingua franca is currently seen as 'an emerging English that exists in its own right and which is being described in its own terms rather than by comparison with English as a native language.

When sharing similar sentiments regarding the concept, Seidlhofer (2007) states that English as a lingua franca explains a 'linguistic phenomenon in its own right'. In as far as the concept and authors' viewpoints are concerned, Jenkins believes that the strength and ability of the phenomenon that multitudes of language users successfully use in their daily lives is still underestimated. Jenkins (2009) and Seidlhofer (2007) are in entire agreement as they realise a mismatch between theory and practice. The authors opine that an extensive amount of research work on English as a lingua franca ought to be reflected at practical level as well.

While quite a bulk of scholarship exists on the concept English as lingua franca, some other scholars, on the one hand, are critical of the concept's definition. They are critical that the definition has some problems. The critics' view is that there are, apparently, high possibilities of the misinterpretation of the concept English as a lingua franca. Jenkins (2009) acknowledges that there are some misconceptions about English as a lingua franca. Saraceni (2008), on the other hand, postulates that there appears to be an inconsistency in the very definition of the concept. Saraceni therefore associates this with the problem observed in the very definition of the concept. The author raises a number of confusing issues that can be identified in the definition itself. Saraceni highlights that it is not clear what we are specifically referring to by English as lingua franca. Thus, we are not sure if we are referring to language variety, a set of varieties or the role of English itself by English as lingua franca. It is not very clear whether English as lingua Franca entails global variety, many local varieties or all varieties. Different interpretations are offered here. Saraceni (2006) further points out that there is confusion of whether English as lingua franca research study offers some pedagogical implications.

While some concerns arise regarding English as lingua franca, some scholars offer their opinions in an attempt to address the many worrying questions. For instance, Meierkord (2007: 199) states the difference between two varying kinds of lingua franca use. The author cites the two lingua franca kinds as intranational use such as English spoken in India as well as international use like English used in between Germans and Japanese. As far the concept is defined in differing senses, one is inevitably bound to

make a broader picture of it. When taking on the same controversial issue, McArthur (2008) maintains that 'all varieties exist within a continuum and not in neatly labelled sociolinguistic boxes.' Nonetheless, the boxes sometimes assist the genuine picture and associated difficulties.

Under normal circumstances, as Hulmbauer (2008: 7) observes, the context of the situation and constellation of English communicators is different one dialogue to another. In evaluating the forms of English as a lingua franca, it is of importance to understand the parameters of the context. In sharing similar sentiment, Firth (2008) is of the opinion that English as lingua franca encounters depend on situations and are quite dynamic. Firth further opines that speakers of English as lingua franca see it as a shared resource despite the fact that speakers themselves have spatial distance to each other. The author is again of the view that language users appear to activate a mutually identifiable set of behavior, forms, as well as conventions which makes sure of an effective communication in English as a lingua franca.

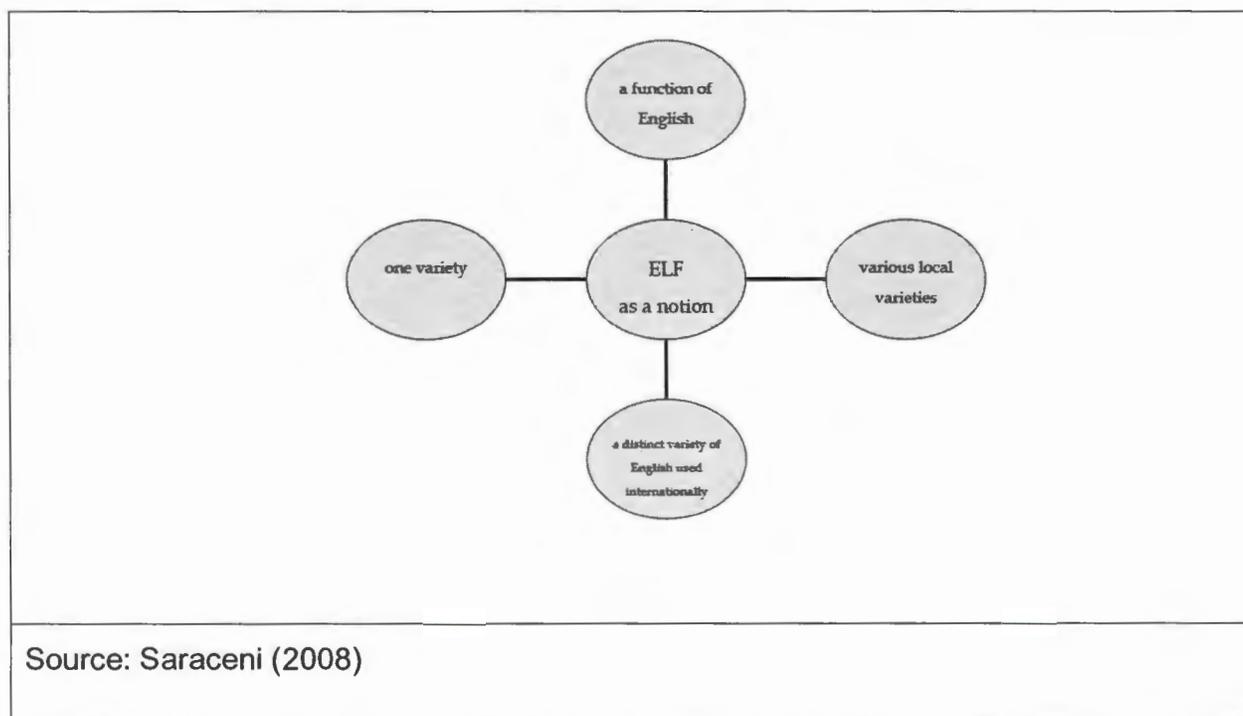


Figure 3: The notion of English as lingua franca and its possible interpretations.

According to Seidlhofer (2006), the English as lingua franca approach involves a lot of controversial issues. These discussions mainly provide a highlight of what English as lingua franca entails, including what is not correct about the concept. For Seidlhofer, English as lingua franca approach makes a claim that linguistic standards need not conform to the model of a native speaker because there is reduced code that is enough for the motive of intercultural communication. The approach as author continues, is based on finding out the possibility of an international language English which is discussed to reach consensus and as well developed by the very English as lingua franca speakers rather than the native speakers. When offering a different opinion on English as lingua franca discussion, Jenkins (2009: 36), utters that the concept is never meant to be mono-centric, and it is neither the goal of the concept to show out one lingua franca norm to which entire speakers in varying backgrounds conform should. On this issue, Seidlhofer (2006), nevertheless enjoys seeing English as lingua franca as a notion providing learners of the language with some options, often native speaker based rules.

### **2.23.3 Main goals of English as lingua franca approach**

Seidlhofer (2002) notes that the primary motive behind English as lingua franca is to bring to an end prejudice against English speakers of other native languages. Prejudice in this case can manifest in different ways and can result in downgrading general attitude and discrimination in employment. When offering a take on the subject, Jenkins (2007) has it that one controversial issue is whether varying first languages of English as lingua franca speakers begin to influence English language and the general standard counted in numbers. Thus, it becomes apparent that one's first language has greater influence. Many of the English as lingua franca authors are of the argument that people should rather focus on English as lingua franca users instead of conceptualising those participating in interaction. Seidlhofer (2007) further concurs that speakers in the English as lingua franca situations should speak with an accent which ensures that the interlocutors are to comprehend one another in an optimum fashion. This has a potential to overcome miscommunication. Jenkins (2007) has observations that numerous difficulties apparently take place in the pronunciation act.

#### **2.23.4 Main challenges of English as lingua franca**

For some authors like McMaster (2008), English as a lingua franca is so far not adequately developed as a concept and model. This therefore makes it not possible for the practitioners concerned with the concept to make a clear follow up and practice. McMaster further provides visible reasons behind the difficulty. The author notes that, because of the diversity of the communicative medium, the concept English as lingua franca apparently is inter-subjectively constructed in different backgrounds of interactions. Canagarajah (2007: 925) agrees with the reason by firmly maintaining that 'the form of this English is negotiated by each set of speakers for their purposes'. Another concern is that it is not clear the speakers of English as a lingua franca if they require the 'what' to be clarified for them from the outside. Thus, the speakers of English as lingua franca need no model but rather awareness of other goals as well as new attitude.

According to Kirkpatrick (2006:37), people will need to face a conundrum if there is a concern to achieve standard world Englishes. This therefore is an implication that English speakers have different models which have internal differences. Saraceni (2008) shares common view on the issue by highlighting that English as a lingua franca is beyond our control. The author vehemently stresses that 'the evolution of languages and the way people negotiate their use on a day-to-day basis are completely outside the control of academia'.

Apart from that, Saraceni (2008) states that English demands are forever increasing. As this happens, a considerable number of learners will ultimately acquire 'broken, deficient' forms of the language. These deficient forms of English will be sufficient to the degree that they will allow the communicational functions for which they were learnt. Another concern for the author is the manner in which English is stifling other European languages. Kirkpatrick (2007:14) shares the opinion that the linguistic prejudice performs a pivotal part in how people assess languages and differences. Thus, our fight is far from over but rather at its early developmental stage.

Moreover, changing the attitude of people is apparently a huge concern. For Mauranen (2008) the teachers and educators in general have proven to be receptive regarding the concept English as a lingua franca. However, it has not been a smooth journey for the linguists to accept this concept. At glance, English as a lingua franca takes place in a real life situation. Extremely interesting about the teachers in this case is that they live in different regions of the world, yet they reveal similar attitude towards this concept. Even Jenkins (2007) agrees that teachers have shown a conservative attitude towards English as a lingua franca concept.

### **2.23.5 Accent**

Jenkins (2007: 78) states that all language speakers speak with an accent. This also includes those with a standard variety of English language. Jenkins says that accent is technically restricted to the explanations of pronunciation aspects. The issue of pronunciation is able to indicate one's identity in terms of region and social context. However, the author cautions that pronunciation should not be confused with dialect.

According to Orvomaa (2007), English as lingua franca literature has established that accents are rather prominent to English as lingua franca communicators and hearers than language use between English native speakers. However, Jenkins (2007:79) states that an extensive amount of research had already been done on the subject accent attitude. In accordance with Jenkins, United Kingdom and United states accents are more preferable in many respects.

Hall (2005:251) is of the opinion that our communicative purposes and the social conventions of language use we have internalised, do not account for all the diversity within a single language. Much more apparent, and perhaps of more social significance to us more than registers and styles, are the different dialects and accents that we continue to hear from our colinguals. The reason behind this situation is that the manner in which we sound as well as the words used are perceived as makers the very makers of our social identities.

### **2.23.6 Idiomaticity**

According to Jenkins (2007), the ability to use idiomatic language, slang, proverbs and the like are all not relevant if ever English as a lingua franca concept is to take place successfully. Apparently, English as a lingua franca thrives without its speakers demonstrating knowledge of the amazing skill which the native speakers possess from birth.

According to Prodromou (2007: 38), in the situation when one speaker's idiomatic expression is not comprehended by the listeners, this situation creates misunderstanding. The author therefore regards this problem as an opportunity for further research. The author notes that it is crucial to re-call that our receptive skills as people are quite better than our productive skills. The situation is also applicable to other areas of linguistic skills. In the context of English as a lingua franca, the interlocutors are not displaying the kind of shared knowledge assumed on the part of other interlocutors. Another observation in accordance with Prodromou in this case is that idiomatic expressions are not used often because the speakers are likely to come across pragmatic failure and misunderstanding. In the light of this situation, the role of teachers will play a crucial role. Thus, teachers and all educators should ensure that they demonstrate to their learners how to master the skill in an appropriate manner. This has to be done together with strategy instruction in general.

### **2.23.7 A native Speaker**

The majority of speakers of any first language can communicate with ease in the said language. The term native speaker appears rather controversial and ambiguous. For Jenkins (2007), for one to be a native speaker is an issue of 'self-ascription and objective definition'. To show the ambiguity of the concept, Jenkins maintains that 'bilingual native speakers are possible in terms of linguistic competence but not in terms of communicative competence'. Even the native speakers are not the same among themselves in as far as their communicative competence is concerned. Thus, native speakers are not similar yet they share a common language. Jenkins (2007) also states that the communication process that occurs between native speakers is ambiguous and

not complete. For the author, a lot of misinterpretations occur as well where native speakers are in a communication process.

The majority of English native speakers are bi-dialectal as well. They speak their local native English side by side with more standard variety. Davis (2003) is of the opinion that we have what we refer to as the ideal native speaker alongside the human native speaker. Davis maintains that the term native speaker deals with socio-linguistic studies. Some attributes can be associated with someone called a native speaker. In the first place, any native speaker should intuitively 'know' another member who is also a native speaker. Secondly, a native speaker should be able to demonstrate knowledge of creating potential additions to language. In a nutshell, Davis refers to a native speaker as one who speaks a standard language.

While Davis holds unambiguous views on the concept native speaker, some other scholars have a different view point from his. For instance, Cook (2002) highlights that 'one can never be a native speaker of a second language and the best one can aim for is to become bilingual'. In view of Cook's opinion, Davis makes a suggestion that there appears to be a need for the development of an operational definition of minimal native speaker mastery to get rid of the current situation.

## **2.24 LANGUAGE PRACTICES AND LANGUAGING**

The conventional way of referring to language is as if it were just an object. Nevertheless, linguists have for a considerable time observed and investigated what they identify as a range of language practices used in contexts where people from different language backgrounds communicate and interact in the making of meaning (Bock & Mheta, 2014:371).

Bock & Mheta furthermore go on to say that people in either bilingual or multilingual contexts frequently mix their languages or engage in language activities such as code-mixing as well as code switching. The authors again note for a period of about just over 10 years, linguists have come to observe that when people think about language as a noun, they are actually unable to capture and explain a host of activities that apparently

occupy place when people converse. One alternative means of thinking about has emerged. Here the focus is on the active and dynamic nature of language. In other words, it is to view language as action. The term languaging itself suggests dynamic activity.

### **2.24.1 Language and power**

Linguists of a critical approach have discoursed on how language can be utilised as a tool for creating hegemony by ruling powers and governments. At glance, people who have access to a language of high prestige value are likely to have more power and an effect on people than those who do not. People who only have access to a minority language or a language of low prestige value are likely to have less power as well (Bock & Mheta, 2014:377).

In a similar manner, there are many species of plants and animals in the biological ecology of the world, so are the many varying languages and language practices in the linguistic ecology of the global context. The rise in nation-states culminated in changes to the ecological balance of languages across Europe between the late 18<sup>th</sup> and late 20<sup>th</sup> centuries. Of critical importance is also to realise how this balance changed and what happened to languages, how they were maintained or lost, and how they gained strength or became endangered (Bock & Mheta, 2014:377).

## **2.25 AN OVERVIEW OF APPLIED LINGUISTICS**

Applied linguistics entails exploiting to the fullest what is known about a certain language, how that language is learned and how it is used, in order to attain some goals or solve some social real world difficulties. The goals themselves are quite numerous and different. Applied linguistics according to Wilkins (1999:7), refers to 'an increasing understanding of the role of language in human affairs and thereby with providing the necessary knowledge for those who are responsible for taking language-related decisions'. These language decisions might be whether the need arises in the classroom environment, workplace, court of law, or in the laboratory. Wilkins continues by identifying a range of language use goals. Thus, a range of 18 topic areas are illustrated. The 18 topic areas are listed as:

- language and its acquisition;
- language and assessment;
- language and the brain;
- language and cognition;
- language and culture;
- language and ideology;
- language instruction;
- language and interaction;
- language and listening;
- language and media;
- language and policy;
- language and reading;
- language and research methodology;
- language and society;
- language and speaking;
- language and technology;
- language and translation/interpretation;
- language and writing.

Nonetheless, out of these varying areas, the dominant application is the teaching and learning of a second or foreign languages. This ideology has gained momentum around the global context, and the vast majority of people in some areas, speak more than one language. Besides, in some other countries, second language mastery has become vitally essential skill. At glance, English is the main second language being studied in our world at present. It is further estimated that approximately 235 million people of the world populations learn English as a second language. Although figures regarding the numbers of people using second language can be only be rough estimates, however,

they still provide some idea of the impact that applied linguistics can have on the world (Schmitt, 2002:2). In a nutshell, the primary concern of applied linguistics has always been second language acquisition theory, second language pedagogy and the interface between the two.

### **2.25.1 The development of applied linguistics**

Interest in languages and the teaching of language has a long history. The history dates back at least as far back as the ancient Greeks. The two Greek philosophers, namely Plato and Aristotle contributed to the design of a curriculum beginning with good writing. This was typically grammar. From writing, then the design moved on to effective discourse. This was rhetoric in essence. The eventual outcome of the exercise was the development of dialect to promote philosophical approach to life in general. If our focus is on English in this case, then, major attempts at linguistic description started to take place during the second half of the eighteenth century (Howatt, 1999:618).

This early history was also marked by other developmental milestones. Schmitt (2002:3) narrates that, in about 1755, Samuel Johnson published his English language dictionary. The dictionary quickly became the unquestioned authority on the meanings of English words. It also had the effect of standardizing English spelling, which until that period had been relatively free. The author again opines that, about the same time, Robert Lowth published an influential grammar. This was typically a short introduction to English Grammar. The ultimate result of the history was that English, which is a Germanic language, was described by a linguistic system that was borrowed from Latin. The process of prescribing, rather than describing, has left us with English grammar rules. Schmitt concludes by showing that Lowth's notions of grammar were quickly adopted once in print as the rules of correct English.

### **2.26 SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION**

According to Schmitt (2002: 115), second language acquisition research focuses on the 'development of knowledge and use of a language by children and adults who already know at least one other language'. This area of enquiry has both theoretical and practical significance. The author illustrates that the theoretical importance is linked and

related to our understanding of how language is represented in our minds, and whether there is a difference between the way language is acquired and processed and the manner in which other kinds of information are acquired and processed. The practical importance as the author observes, arises from the assumption that an understanding of how languages are learned will lead to more effective teaching practices. Thus, a broader context, knowledge of second language acquisition may assist educational policy makers set more realistic goals for programmes for both foreign language courses and the learning of the majority language by minority language children and adults (Schmitt, 2002:116).

## **2.27 LANGUAGE SKILLS AND ASSESSMENT**

### **2.27.1 Listening**

Listening entails making sense of spoken language. Normally, this is accompanied by other sounds and visual input. Prior knowledge assists in decoding new contexts that are being listened to. Listening, however has never been a unilateral single process; but a multiple source related one. It involves not only the sound uttered by the speaker, but also the intonation patterns, and the interpretation of what is being said on the topic as well as configuring an expected response to it all (Ohta, 2000:54). The author goes on to say that we are, however, usually unaware of these processes in own languages. Important also to note, is that achieving comprehension seems relatively effortless unless one comes barriers to hearing and speaking. The observation here is that under more demanding conditions, people become more conscious of listening. The same thing applies in trying to understand a second or foreign language. Listening process takes two distinct forms, namely passive and active.

### **2.27.2 Speaking and Pronunciation**

Language is used to negotiate and achieve meaning in social contexts and can never be separated from those contexts. Speaking is so much part of our daily life which we tend to take for granted. Nonetheless, learning speaking, whether in a first or other language, involves developing subtle and detailed knowledge about why, how and when to communicate, and complex skills for producing and managing interaction. Such

interactions may include asking a question or obtaining a turn. One of the most important aspects of everyday dialogue is that it always takes place in cultural and social contexts (Schmitt (2002:211). Thus, we speak in order to carry out various social activities and, although we may not always be consciously aware of doing so. People attune our language and the meaning we wish to exchange to our specific purposes for speaking in that context. When offering a take on this discussion, Seidlhofer, (2007) opines that every time we open our mouths to utter anything, several things happen all at once that fall within the scope of pronunciation. All these elements together make up the way we sound to our interlocutors, and so are crucial factors in conveying meaning when we talk. Thus, for language teaching this means that every lesson involving the spoken language is also a pronunciation lesson.

### **2.27.3 Reading**

Schmitt (2002:233) notes that since all read for a variety of purposes, the cognitive processes and knowledge resources that are utilised often vary. Therefore, it is not straight-forward to identify one purpose for reading as the one way interpret what is meant by reading. These various reading purposes, although drawing on the same cognitive processes and knowledge resources, do so in differing combinations and with differing emphases on these processes and resources. For instance, when information from a particular source is needed, a search for such information will be a combination of scanning for key terms and skimming small segments to realise if one is in the right area of the text. For Urquhart & Weir (1998:22), second language readers in academic environments most often need to develop 'reading for understanding' and 'reading to learn. Thus, reading remains a process of receiving and interpreting information encoded in language form via the print medium. The analysis itself, on the other hand, does not indicate the many components of the required cognitive processing or the knowledge bases being integrated during the reading process. Urquhart & Weir point out that the very definition of reading needs some recognition that a reader engages in processing at the phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic, as well as discourse levels. Moreover, these processes are carried out by the integration of activated process and resources under intense processing-time constraints.

#### **2.27.4 Writing**

Writing has always formed an integral part of applied linguistics. The writing process remains one of the least well-understood subjects in applied linguistics in general. One notable factor is the ambiguity of the term writing, which has been used in referring to 'orthography, written discourse and the prevalence of the definition of writing as mere orthography in linguistic science during the last two centuries' (Weissberg, 2002). Another problematic assumption, as the author's view, is that, writing is decontextualised. This view assumes that written communication never takes place in the presence of the writer and the reader. Even in more conventional types of written communication. Writing is far from decontextualised because every writing task is situated in a rhetorical context, involving complex interrelationships among various elements of writing.

#### **2.27.5 Language assessment**

According to Davies *et al.* (1999:11), in the context of language teaching and learning, assessment entails the act of collecting information and making judgments about a language learner's knowledge of such a language. The assessment also focuses on the language learner's ability to use it. Thus, the assessment process basically evaluates a learner's overall mastery of a language. The authors make a highlight that we often use testing and assessment interchangeably, as though they mean exactly the same. Davies *at al.* however say that, many people use the latter term in a broader sense to include both formal measurement tools which produce quantifiable scores and other types of qualitative assessment. Such assessments include observation, journals and portfolios. What in actual fact unifies the variety of tests and assessment is that they all involve the process of making inferences about learners' language on the basis of 'observed performance'.

McKay (2000) offers a take on the subject by saying that, despite this common feature, assessment practices differ according to the purpose for which assessment information is required. McKay indicates that one purpose-related distinction is conventionally made between 'proficiency assessment', which is concerned with measuring somebody's general ability. Thus, this is typically for gate keeping decisions and achievement

assessment, which concentrates on determining what, has been learned as part of a specific programme of instruction. This is usually for assigning scores. In language programmes, McKay identifies a number of assessment purposes:

- assessment for curriculum;
- assessment for communication
- assessment for accountability

According to Schmitt (2002:268), the purpose of assessment is closely linked to 'stakes' attached to testing, and it therefore governs the type of assessment tool that is used and the resources that are invested in its development. In 'high-stakes' situations where the results of assessment may have a significant effect on test-taker's lives, it is imperative that the instrument should have been developed with great care by suitably qualified professionals and subjected to rigorous piloting and validation. The author goes further to show that in this and other testing contexts, the majority of stakeholders are involved in language assessment, test development agencies, curriculum developers or as consumers of assessment information. Thus, these groups are likely to have different and, sometimes, conflicting perspectives on the role and purpose of assessment in language programmes. The programmes, of course, can lead to a disproportionate emphasis on assessment for accountability. For this reason, it is a suggestion of many scholars that the process of test development needs to include a wide range of stakeholders in order to ensure fairness to all. The author however, cautions that, the ideal of involvement needs to be balanced against to be balanced against the realities of implementation and the need for tests and assessments in order to demonstrate acceptable levels of validity and reliability.

#### **2.27.6 Fundamental issues in language assessment**

The learners' language capacities knowledge according to Schmitt (2002:268), are assumed to be responsible for their language performance on a test. Test performance is, in turn, quantified by assigning it a score which will provide summary of the quality of the performance. The test score is used for specific purpose. The purposes may be to

make decisions about examinees or to classify participants for research on second language acquisition. Schmitt notes that language performance takes place within the context of a 'test method' that have been specified to elicit a particular type of performance from the examinee. The author provides an illustration of the relationships assumed to apply in the process of test interpretation and use. Figure 6 below is a depiction of the components:

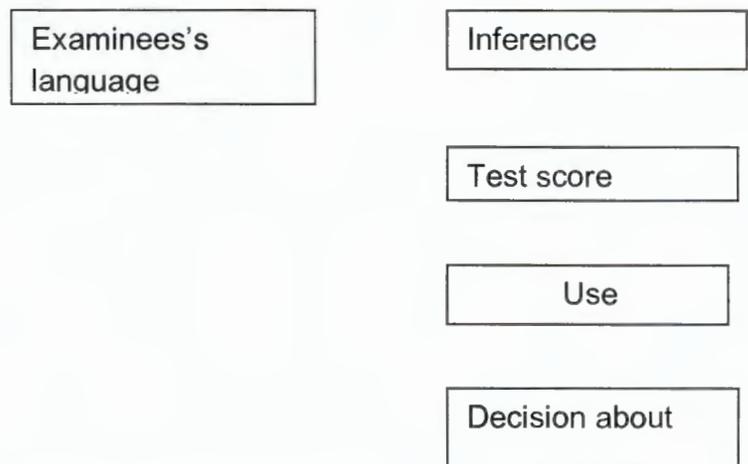


Figure 4: Fundamental components of testing

Source: (Schmitt, 2002:268)

## 2.28 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

According to Onyango (2003), after identification and formulation of research questions and objectives, it is of critical importance to ascertain the ideas and theories which exist in relation to the researcher's subject at hand. Thus, a good theoretical framework establishes scientific grounds of justification for a research study. Onyango opines that a framework indicates that a research study at hand is not just coming 'out of blues,' but such a study is indeed grounded in and based on scientific theory. Different models are used to provide explanations regarding applied linguistics, proficiency in language as

well as language planning. Applied linguistics refers to a branch of linguistics which concerns practical application of language studies.

## **2.29 THEORIES OF APPLIED LINGUISTICS**

Theories of applied linguistics are closely associated with English for specific purpose. Linguistic theories according to Haigh (2010) can best be studied when following great works of pioneers in the field such as the work of the American linguist namely Naom Chomsky. Haigh states that a linguistic theory primarily deals with or concentrates on an effective speaker-listener in an absolutely homogeneous speech community. The speaker in this context possesses broad knowledge of the language and as such, cannot be affected by concepts like grammatically irrelevant conditions, any shifts in terms of attentions and interest, as well as short-coming in which usually manifest when one demonstrates knowledge of language. Theories in applied linguistics for Davis (2007:19) offer a description of an effective communicator and at other times recipient, hence communication is transactional in nature. The efficient speaker's mastery of grammar aspects is an essential part of his language in varying situations. In a nutshell, Davis is of the opinion that the central focus of linguistic theories is to unearth the underlying concepts in relation to what makes an efficient speaker in varying backgrounds. The author concludes his view point by maintaining that grammar in a language system purports to be an explanation of an effective speaker and listener intrinsic abilities. Kaplan (2002) is of the view that applied linguistics is problem oriented in nature. Thus, linguistic theories are grounded in language driven practical social problems and incorporate field knowledge beyond just linguistics.



### **2.29.1 Needs analysis theory**

Needs analysis practices according to Haigh (2010) is a subject which was made popular by Mumby in 1978. Needs analysis practice can be described as a tool to identify the student's deficit for better material adaptation, adoption or improvement in the learning and teaching processes. The author asserts that needs analyses approach is a practice of identifying problems and standard frameworks through observation; interviews as well as questionnaires from those taking part and playing certain roles in a particular context. For Koster (2004:5), needs analysis evaluation studies a systematic

exploration of the manner in which things are and the manner they should be. Needs analysis methods in essence establish part of the know-how of a course. This preceding interpretation concentrates on the methods and content of a course of study. In joining the discussion on the subject, Bayrak & Parlac (2006: 61) are of the opinion that strategies and procedures for the gathering of data to be utilised in a syllabus design are typical of needs analysis methods. A rather precise definition of the concept is provided by the authors. Thus, for Bayrak & Parlac, needs analysis practices concentrate on 'A specific language needs, such as the special kind of reading comprehension training that foreign students need in order to study a particular subject.' This definition point out that the language is eminently left to the language learning needs of the learners themselves.

For Haigh (2010), needs analysis practice is particularly utilised as a method to help in teaching languages for a particular purpose or for analysing the needs of a language in order to shape national or local language policy. Needs analysis can therefore be utilised for numerous purposes. The various means by which needs analysis methods can be utilized include the following: i) improvement and innovation of foreign language curricula in education ii) determination of foreign language teaching objectives with respect to in-company language training iii) development of in-company language training programs iv) drawing up of national policy for foreign languages, and v) for establishing the link between foreign language skills and training performance skills with a view to initiating research in the discipline.

The conceptions of needs appear rather varying. This is because the definitions are taken from varying writings as well as education practitioners in area of language teaching. The central focus of definitions however, is on leveling: the fields of study, the methods of information collection and the contents in English for specific purpose. In a nutshell, all definitions point out to one direction. Thus, every need analysis is designed in order to develop a rather better syllabus which effectively addresses the learners' both subjective and objective needs (Haigh 2010).

### **2.29.2 Overview of needs analysis practice**

Needs analysis practice commenced in the 1960s and is an approach that was adopted by the English for specific purpose ideology. The belief of English for specific purpose became popular during the moment the demand for specialised language programs became larger. Needs Analysis has seen developmental milestones over time and inevitably, has become a sophisticated undertaking. Needs analysis methods began during different times in different parts of the world (Koster, 2004:5).

Needs analysis major use in the tradition of English for specific purpose is considered as 'necessary step to be taken before developing the English for specific purpose course which is relevant and as efficiently as possible for the target group. In the broader background of linguistics, needs analysis practices have been utilised for the purposes of acquiring information on both the individual and groups of individuals who are the learn a new language. The individuals are in return required to efficiently make use of the language learnt (Ellis, 2003: 345). Needs analysis methods are therefore typical of establishing learners' specific needs.

According to Brown (2001: 102), needs analysis from the perspective of education refers to 'the systematic collection and analysis of all subjective and objective information necessary to define and validate defensible curriculum purposes that satisfy the language learning requirements of students within the context of the particular institutions that influence the learning and teaching situations.' Brown's idea from the perspective of education points towards the very usage of the knowledge acquired in the design of the curriculum. Practices in applied linguistics have also demonstrated that needs of a language can be explicit or implicit. This can be so because needs themselves can go unnoticed at times.

### **2.29.3 Conducting needs analysis and its rationale**

Although different in terms of outlook, many of the scholars are however proposing the idea of conducting needs analysis in the context of learning a particular field of study for a certain purpose (Canagarajah, 2007). Needs analysis is undertaken with the sole motive of producing information that when processed makes courses better adjusted to

the needs of the learners. Canagarajah further goes on to say that the motive behind conducting needs analysis is to offer different ways of engaging students, educators, labour force as well as those at managerial level. All these concerned groups should be involved in the planning task in order to attain substantial impute regarding design, content as well as language program implementation. The author also explains that needs analysis methods are actually the procedures in which we identify both general and specific language needs of learners to identify suitable goals, aims, methodology as well as the content. Needs analysis is an instrument that also plays central part in curriculum development.

For Haigh (2010), needs analysis should be carried out even before drafting of frameworks so that the students' characteristics and all language needs can be identified. The author maintains that the materials and syllabuses in English for specific purpose are determined by the students' communicative needs. Therefore, it is worth noting that needs analysis identifies the chief aim of learning a particular language; the language type that the learners need to know well; the most effective methodologies; and the possible implementation problems within program itself.

According to Long (2005:1), in an 'era of shrinking resources, there are growing demands for accountability in public life', alongside education. When teaching a second and foreign language, what appears to be one of various outcomes is the ever increasing significance attached to careful studies of learner needs as a prerequisite for effective course design. Long is also of the opinion that successful language learning is extremely important for refugees, immigrants, international students, vocational training, and individuals in occupational environment which requires advanced foreign language proficiency.

#### **2.29.4 Components of needs analysis**

The model of needs analysis components according to Dudley-Evans & St Johns (1998), is more presumably and ideal for, the authors in the model concentrate on English for specific purpose and other related essential concepts. In their model, Dudley-Evans & St Johns focus on needs analysis and needs analysis model from the

perspective of English for Specific purpose. The authors, in their model, therefore demonstrate the main stages in English for specific purpose approach. They identify stages in English for specific purpose: "Needs analysis, course (and syllabus) design, materials selection (and production), teaching-learning, and evaluation.' The different phases are interrelated and also overlap. Again, the authors note that the methods of needs analysis aid professionals to realize possible elements of learning with their associated consequent ways of delivery of the teaching and learning activities. In essence, two crucial issues are disclosed at this juncture. Thus, English for specific purpose is increasingly becoming basic in meeting the interest of learners as well as expectation. Again, needs analysis is in essence a manner to untie numerous difficulties which normally manifest in the teaching-learning activities.

In accordance with Dudley-Evans & St Johns (1998:125), needs analysis in the English for specific purpose context comprises seven components respectively. An adequate analysis of the components according to the authors is demonstrated below. Thus, needs analysis' components in English for specific purpose constitute different components respectively. These are demonstrated below:

- professional information about the learners. This includes the tasks and activities (learners are/will be using) and target situation analysis;
- personal information about the learners. Previous learning experiences, cultural information, reasons for attending the course and expectation of it, attitude to english and wants fall under this category;
- english language information about the learners: what their current skills and language use are (present situation analysis). These allow us to assess the learners' needs);
- the learners' lacks: the gaps between target situation analysis and present situation analysis;
- language learning information: this refers to effective ways of meeting learning needs in order to fill their gaps;
- knowledge of how language and skills are used in the target situation;

- information about the environment in which the course will be run.

The radial organisational chart provides graphical representation of the needs analysis whereby any prospective researcher needs to concentrate on. The kind of the chart of the organisation is determined by the researcher. Dudley-Evans & St John (1998) show case that 'environmental situations' occupy a central position in this regard. In this case, professionals' need analysis makes an essential component. Moreover, apart from the graphical representation of the components, the entire elements are again demonstrated in the work of the very authors. Figure 5 below is a demonstration of the work.

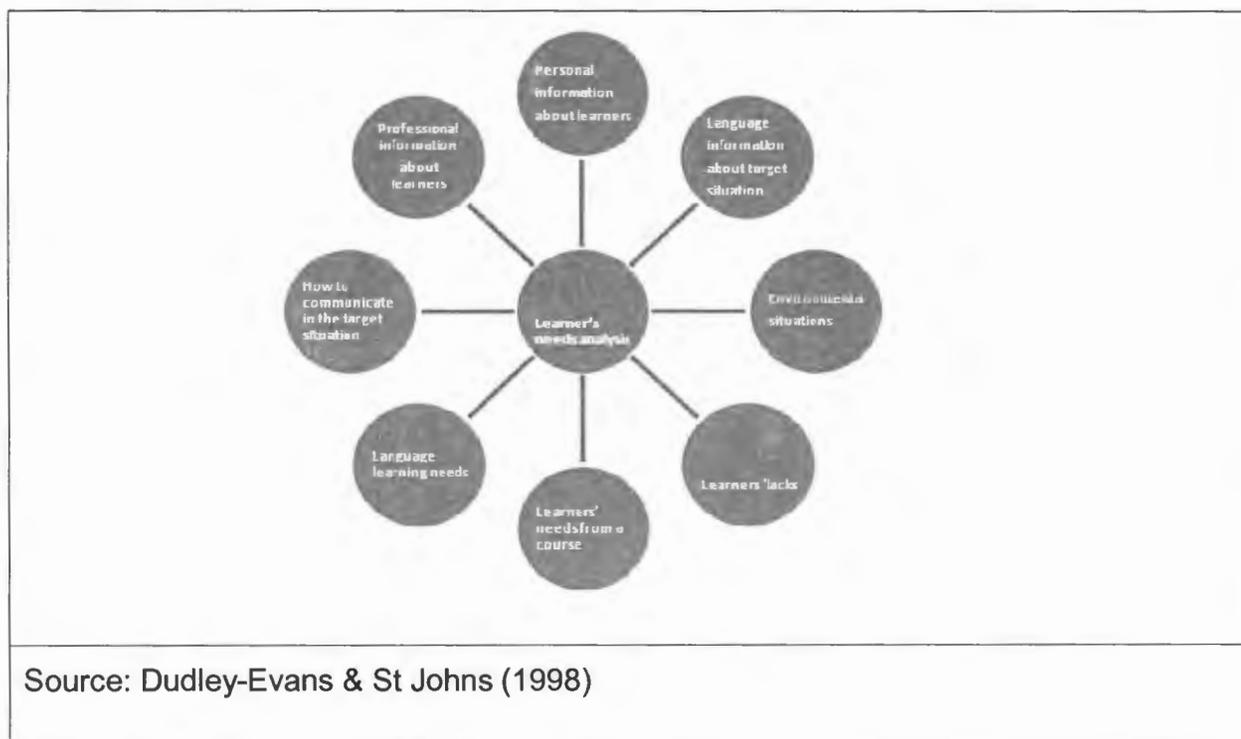


Figure 5: What needs analysis establishes.

A considerable number of scholars have contributed through writing towards communicative needs of learners, needs of teachers and administrative needs. Masuhara (1998:240) obviously states component categories of learners' needs analysis. Masuhara moves on and marks the involvement of teachers, alongside

administrative needs in determining language needs of students. Table below illustrates the subjects, the type of sources of needs analysis.

Ownership	Kind	Source
Learners' Needs	Personal needs	Age; sex;  Cultural background;  Interests;  Educational background;
	Learning needs	Learning styles;  Previous language learning experiences;  Gap between the target level and the present level in terms of knowledge (target language and its culture)  Gap between the target level of proficiency in various competence areas (e.g. skills, strategies)  Learning goals and expectations for a course
	Future professional needs	Requirements for future undertakings in terms of:  Knowledge of language  Knowledge of language use  L2 competence
Teachers'	Personal needs	Age; sax;

Needs		Cultural background; Interests; Educational background; Teachers' language proficiency
	Professional needs	Preferred teaching styles; Teacher training experience; Teaching experience
Administrators' Needs	Institutional needs	Sociopolitical needs; Market forces; Educational policy; Constraints (e.g. time, budget, resources)
Source: Masuhara (1998:240-241)		

Table 3: List of needs identified in needs analysis literature

Needs analysis table is a clear depiction of basic elements of needs analysis which should be focused on collection of data mechanisms that the study employs. Nevertheless, the styles of learning of students have not adequately been dealt with.

### 2.29.5 Language needs analysis at the societal level

Long (2005: 79) shares the observation that at the societal level, the need for language is generally defined within the very social goals like national security, social justice and many more. The objective of associating language with these goals is to motivate policy and planning for language education at national, local level, or at least within the federal language education system. When offering a take on this discussion, Grin (1999) notes

that in an ideal world, every policy and intervention at the level of society should be discussed, based on an explicit cost-benefit analysis of the contribution of the intervention to the societal good. Thus, this would presume a clear specification of the contribution of the specific intervention domain to the societal goal together with the qualifications of responsible implementing agent. Grin maintains that such specification entails an economic approach that involves specific description of the elements involved and the correlation of the cost and benefit.

An economic approach to the language debate treats language as amenable to market analysis which explains its behaviour and provides information to policy makers for their decisions on how to invest few resources. This approach starts from the perspective that there exists a market for language in a given society, one which can be more or less well defined, and which can be influenced by policy interventions from a centralised government body (Breton, 1998:5). When explaining the behaviour of language as a commodity in the United States, Breton says that we operate within the familiar economic concepts of supply and demand. This supply and demand 'represents the very essence of economic reasoning and are the vital ingredients of that essentially economic construct, the market'.

### **2.30 METHODS OF TEACHING IN ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES**

The concept of method is of critical importance in as far as English for specific purposes is concerned. The resources and instruction methods in the English for specific purposes should be specific. Strevens (1998) notes that English for specific purposes should not be an obligation to go for certain methods and techniques that are already in existence in general English. For the author, many classifications are present in English for specific purposes and these require methods and materials that are suitable.

Huckin (1998) raises an opinion regarding the concept 'generalised English for specific purposes.' A variety of methods suggested involve higher order reasoning, team teaching, alongside team teaching. Dudley-Evans & St John (1998) concur that there are a variety of English for specific purposes' methods depending on the students. The authors present in chronological order a list of methods in English for specific purposes.

These include: latent and conscious knowledge; the cognitive and learning processes and the students' learning strategies and styles. Dudley-Evans & St John further suggest that for progressive students, teachers should set tasks and ask the learners to work by providing preparation time prior to performance.

### **2.30.1 Skills in English for specific purposes**

Language skills in English for specific purposes are not imparted, balanced and exercised in similar fashion to general English. Depending of the discipline, the vital activities and four skills in particular field of study are not to be learnt in a balanced way. The skills demand differently regarding different professions (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998:111). The authors make a recommendation that the listening ability to lecture monologue is vitally imperative. For Dudley-Evans & St John, oral presentation abilities are essential. When continuing, the authors state that the most effective seminar/ work is speaking to avert interruptions as well as judging how long it becomes appropriate.

## **2.31 THEORIES OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY**

According to Keck & Kim (2014:10), language proficiency theories in a second language can roughly be categorised into four areas of language. These are the varying areas of language skills, namely listening, speaking, reading and writing. Thus, in order for language users to be able to comprehend the degree to which learners are competent in the second language, such learners should be able to demonstrate second language mastery in the four areas of language skills. Keck & Kim attempt to offer a further discussion regarding the four language proficiency areas.

### **2.31.1 Listening skills**

Listening ability for Keck & Kim (2014:13) is an essential competent performance for learners of a second language. Listening as a process is rather demanding due to the different factors that characterise the speaker, listener, content of message as well as any other associated visual aid. The process of listening is at times regarded as a passive skill and least comprehended language learning process. Nevertheless, this process is rather active. It normally involves choosing and attaching interpretation to the message. Listening can still be approached as a learning skill like speaking, reading

and writing. Thus, language learners can make a remarkable improvement on listening ability if they take an initiative of an effort and practice.

On listening abilities, Thompson *et al.* (1999:135) assert that listening for comprehension is actually a mental activity and is directly observable. Consequently, it is never possible to translate cognitive operation into the behaviours which can be studied. The authors reveal that research has established that about 60-75% of oral language is ignored, not understood or soon forgotten. Quite a low percentage of people are good at listening in general terms. For those of who attempt to listen, they listen at one of the five listening levels. Thus, they subsequently tune out what has been said. They also pretend to hear the message, thus, selectively hear only parts of a dialogue. Thompson *et al.* strongly believe that listening is never a simple stimulus and response interaction. It is rather a circular process which ongoing. This therefore implies that the listeners must begin by been message recipients. From there, listeners must comprehend the content and ultimately be able to re-call what was communicated. The authors go on to provide a list of four sources of listening problems. These factors involve:

- the weak relationship between English sounds and the manner in which they are spelt in written language;
- changes in sounds when they take place in rapid, connected speech;
- the rhythm pattern of English speech, and
- different ways of pronouncing the 'same' sound.

Keck & Kim (2014:13) make a highlight on listening, which takes many of those interested in the debate by rather a surprise. It is indeed surprising that the majority of English learners master it in the written form, while encountering problems in spoken language. Keck & Kim are of the opinion that even the language native speaker is not always certain about the correct pronunciation of a certain word that a speaker comes across in print for the first time. Recognition of words and images involved is key to

effective listening abilities. Besides, assisting learners develop effective listening abilities can also aid them grasp spoken language better.

### **2.31.2 Speaking skills**

A significant amount of scientific literature reveals that researchers have not really shown a lot of interest in speaking skills. Researchers are however, concerned about what has been communicated in the actual message. Consequently, extensive research is dedicated to other language skills, namely reading, listening and writing. The reason behind this might be that it is practically not possible to evaluate one's oral communication skills. Thus, it is not easy to tell how much oral abilities determine language growth and competency. Secondly, language speaking skills are not often assessed overtly since that consumes time. Therefore, that is easily neglected (Keck & Kim, 2014:16).

### **2.31.3 Reading Skills**

Reading will forever remain an extremely powerful manner of enhancing one's second-language mastery. For Pretorius & Ribbens (2005:139), people who read a lot, have a bigger vocabulary; perform better in terms of grammar assessments. Besides, such individuals do better and terms of spelling. A very experienced reader possesses both receptive and productive aspects of language use, and can acquire a high degree of comprehension. Besides, a competent reader has outstanding order skills that are very important for academic success. A poor reader on the other extreme cannot be an ideal writer. The implication is that the two skills complement each other.

When defining reading, Day & Brumfit (1998:12) state that reading entails 'the construction of meaning from a printed or written message'. When students read they are able to associate what they observe in black and white with what is already in their minds. Day & Brumfit define reading as an activity that is rapid, purposeful, interactive, comprehensive, flexible and gradually developing. Central to understanding the complexities involved in reading process, the research community, needs to break the process into components skills that include decoding and comprehension. The authors maintain that reading is receptive and a psychological process which begins with a

linguistic surface representation encoded by the communicator and ends with meaning constructed by the reader. The authors also make an attempt to describe comprehension as a process involved in reading. They define it as the ability to use prior knowledge to construct meaning for a specific given text.

#### **2.31.4 Writing skills**

Knowledge of writing is of very important, especially for second language learners in the academic environment. One may argue that not every second language learner needs to be a competent second language writer. However, the reality is that the majority of second language learners need to develop strong writing skills. Many of these learners may need to write crucial business documents such as memos, business letters and project analysis. Interestingly enough is that, these may be needed in the second language writing (Thompson *et al.* 1999:135). The need to be a competent writer entails collaborative writing and specific occupational genres, alongside careful attention to features of form and usage.

According to Keck & Kim (2014:17), the entire language is produced in the context of use. A significant foundation for theory of writing capable of both informing the first language and second language situation is one which takes strictly the full range of social-context factors that may have influence on writer. A theory of social factors should involve, a situation, performance outcomes and cultural variation between first language and second language. Thus, in an ideal situation, students in this research group are expected to show their writing abilities by writing coherent business letters as proposed in the given language proficiency test based on the given context. Thompson *et al.* (1999:145) provide an acceptable current overview of effective factors that have direct influence on writing skills and their development. Thompson *et al.* therefore review motivation for writing, addressing achievement motivation, intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Apart from creativity and motivation, research in this field investigates factors such as self-image, emotional attitudes, self-regulation, student independence, performance attributions, as well as interest. These, in a nutshell, point out that writing abilities embrace consideration of language features form and usage.

Therefore, great development of writing powers will eventually allow students to write research paper and business correspondence.

## **2.32 THEORIES OF LANGUAGE PLANNING**

There are various models used for explaining language policy and the process of planning a language. Language planning theories attempt to provide explanations behind the initiatives that are taken in order to respond to language challenges. Language planning theories involve accommodation theory, classical language planning theory and rational theory (Onyango, 2003).

Firstly, the accommodation theory was meant for face-to-face encounters. Deumert (2000) notes that the theory is known to be versatile in research on the use of language in the background where power is being misappropriate. In accordance with the accommodation theory, the author asserts that 'language groups have greater ethno-linguistic vitality if their languages have higher status, favorable demographic variables and significant institutional support'. Nevertheless, Onyango on the other side challenges that the accommodation theory is characterised by some visible downsides. Onyango points out that the accommodation theory does not indicate explicitly the fact that the relationship that exists between dominant and subordinate groups necessary includes the critical issues of inequality and power.

Next, is the classical language planning theory. This theory attempts to explain what the planners of language do when they embark on the planning process. The model has been widely acceptable and utilised because it is systematic in terms of approach. However, the model has been widely criticised by other language theorists, arguing that the classical language planning model has a tendency of paying little attention to the vital issue of how language planners reach their decisions in time of the actual process of planning (Deumert, 2000). Therefore, in order to tackle this concern, the rational choice model was developed.

### 2.32.1 The rational choice model

According to Scott (2000), the rational choice model was developed by Max Weber around the 1920s. The model was later on extended to other disciplines such as sociolinguistics. In the field of sociolinguistic, this model has been utilised in Jernudd and Das Gupta Jernudd and Das Gupta. They, three scholars, are of the opinion that similar to economic planning, objectives are identified, the means to attain those objectives are ascertained and results are predicted and monitored in the planning of language. Scott goes on to highlight that the rational choice model recognises language as a societal commodity. In essence, the model attempts to describe how different groups of people or individuals reach decisions. It is actually a means of deciding the best course of action to undertake. Deumert (2000) states that decision-making procedure is guided by some steps. These are:

- identification of the problem and fact-finding;
- specification of goals (development of a language policy);
- production of possible solutions, cost benefit analysis of the alternative solutions and rational choice of solution;
- implementation of the solution and,
- evaluation of the solutions, that is, comparing predicted and actual outcomes.

If the language planning goal is to solve language issues, then, the rational choice model takes in to consideration identification of the problem as the first vital attempt towards attaining this noble goal. Fact-finding is considered a requirement for the model and involves executing sociolinguistic surveys to examine the number of home language speakers, degree of bilingualism and general attitudes in a given context (Deumert, 2000).

In the rational choice theory, it is assured that language planning is an initiative executed by the central authority that is in power and links the activities for attaining an informed and rational decision. The model goes further to explain the alternatives

leading to choices. The alternatives are themselves described by the preferences of the persons making them (Scott, 2000). In the rational choice theories, different people are seen as motivated by the wants or goals that explain their very preferences. Thus, they are seen as rational beings that are consistent in their attitudes and beliefs. While Scott has a strong belief in the model, Azoulay (2005) is rather critical of the approach on the other hand. Azoulay is critical that the rational choice model assumption that all individuals are rational. Azoulay therefore criticises that the assumption itself makes the theory rather questionable for its application to the real world. The author vehemently stresses that the rational choice model lacks the social process which generate and constitute the realities in which actual people find themselves.

### **2.33 LANGUAGE POLICY AND OVERALL PLANNING**

Language skills of students are directly attributed to national education policy. They completely depend on the opportunities which the formal education provides for learners in the education system. In the corporate context, resources in the form of language are the provisions that are likely to meet these language demands. Not only that, but also important are the demands for industry in the society.

Language planning entails both a practical activity as well as an academic field culminating in the implementation and development of precise language policies. Thus, language planning simultaneously involves initiatives to guide individuals and communal behavior with respect to language use and the engagement in the study of such efforts. In as far as the concept is concerned, government bodies and agencies are directly involved. Of utmost importance is also to note that efforts in language planning are typically taken by academics. The duality itself has led to a lot of confusion in the discipline and also to controversial discussion regarding the legitimacy of language planning attempts from different academic as well as political perspectives. The difficulty has been made even more complex by the fact that many schools that are directly interested in language planning and policy studies have also participated in debates, as well as in decision-making process, with respect to national language planning and language policy initiatives (Roberts, 2005). In a nutshell, the majority of us have taken part somehow as language planners and as those who study the very language

planning efforts in which we have been directly engaged. Roberts further notes that the wide variety of conception of literacy, the wide variety of conceptions of the concepts involved used by policy makers, politicians, academics and teachers, make it nearly difficult to present clear and cogent summaries of the nature of the discipline.

Language planning according to Reagan (2010:31) refers to deliberate efforts to influence the behavior of others with respect to the acquisition, structure, or functional allocation of their language codes. Language issues involve some of the attributes of gender. We are all involved in the language issues and inevitably, should be masters of language debates. Every single society has its language and the members of a community make use of a language for different motives. Nevertheless, when people engage in discussions about language, that conversation is associated with some ignorance. Language planning for Kaplan & Baldauf (1997:3) refers to a body of ideas, laws, regulations, rules and practices intended to achieve a planned language change in a society, group or system. Roberts (2005) vehemently maintains that language is the fundamental institution of community, not only because it is the first human institution experienced by member of a society, but more importantly because all other institutions are built upon its regulatory patterns. Roberts therefore opines that when planning the language we are actually planning a society. The concept language policy can be scrutinised at varying levels. It can be from the very formal language planning documents and pronouncements to the informal intent statements.

When attempting to establish the rather complicated and controversial nature of language planning, Schmidt (2006:106) highlights that the concept often makes language practitioners and all involved in language issues rather uncomfortable. By its very nature, language is, after all, a core part of an individual's identity. Consequently, phrases like 'language planning' and 'language policy' have come in to being to suggest an almost Orwellian kind of social control. What is really intended in this discussion is both quite common and necessary. Schmidt therefore provides five questions that should be scrutinised in language planning and policy studies. The questions accordingly are as follows:

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- what is the correct spelling for a word;
- what is the correct pronunciation for a word;
- what does a word actually mean;
- what variety or varieties of a language should be used in formal or official settings;
- what kind of orthographic system should one use to write a particular language.

Reagan (2010:34) concurs that for speakers of other languages like English, French, German, Spanish, or Russian, all have been standardised for quite some time. Thus, the response to the five questions in language issues may appear straight forward. The author goes on to say that in such languages, with only rare exceptions, obviously there are clear-cut responses to the questions in language issues' debates. For the correct spelling, pronunciation and meaning of a word, we make use of a dictionary. The dictionary tells us the socially accepted norms for usage. The dominant variety of a language is purely that language presented to learners in schools. It is also used in government administration and the media. For the writing system to be utilised, we again rely on a socially agreed- upon system. Again, the majority of languages have been written using varying orthographies from time to time (Garibova & Asgorova, 2009). A typical example of this situation is the case of formerly Soviet Central Asia, where the languages have been written in Arabic script, Cyrillic script and Latin script.

### **2.33.1 Language policy and implementation**

Language policy and language implementation are often used interchangeably as though they mean exactly the same in language studies. This is due to the fact that a clear distinction between the two has never been established by language scholars. Nonetheless, Deumert (2000:384) shows that language policy involves the rather general linguistic, political and social objectives underlying the actual process of language planning. This in essence, denotes 'the authoritative allocation of resources to language in general and to the written or printed language in particular'. On the other

hand, Fishman (2006:311) opines that language policy involves two main issues respectively. Thus, it involves a set of measures leading to policy formulation as well as a set of measures to implement the policy. In providing further explanation, Shohamy (2006:45) is of the view that language policy entails a 'the primary mechanism, managing and manipulating language behaviors as it consists of decision of decisions made about languages and their uses in society. Thus, through language policy, crucial decisions are made in relation to languages that should be made legitimate, learned, utilized and taught in terms of where, when and in which background. In addition, Spolsky (2006:45) shares the three essential components of the issues in language policy of speech context. Spolsky therefore presents the three components of speech context as: its language practices, its language beliefs or ideology, as well as any specific efforts to modify or influence those practices by means of any language intervention, planning or management.

When taking the discussion on language components to another level, Shohamy (2006:56) shares the opinion that the component in language issues concentrates on the type of practices which actually occur within a society. The language practices may involve the ones such as when a particular language is utilised in certain parts of our world. A typical example of this is the situation where English is widely used in the majority of the countries. The very component of beliefs has to do with ideologies about language which lie behind language policy issues. This, of course, takes place where nations have a believe that any language can be a unifying factor. Ultimately, the management component has to do with particular measures taken to manage and manipulate language behaviour in a specific context.

A lot of interpretations are indeed attached to the debates in language policy. For Shohamy (2006:47), regardless of varying explanations, the bottom line remains that language policy is an imperative tool whose primary goal is to ensure order in terms of language use. This also can play a vital role in responding to issues like languages that should acquire status and priority. Furthermore, it can help in making legitimate, the revival of marginalized languages, alongside languages that are regarded as more important due to their economic and social status.

According to Reagan (2002:419), language planning typically entails the actual realisation of language real issues surrounding language policy. While language policy is generally a manifestation of intensions, language planning on the other extreme, has to pay a lot of attention to the process of implementation and practice. This in essence, entails intentional initiatives to influence the behaviour of others in relation to acquisition, structure and functional allocations of language codes. Reagan vehemently stresses that the decisions in language policy and planning have social, educational, economical and political significance for society and individual members.

The underlying fact has thus emerged as that a lot of explanations have been suggested for language planning. However, Reagan (2002:419) maintains that language planning results from identification of language problems for those concerned. Of interest enough is also to note that this study is of the argument that the present language practices in Lesotho, especially development of English language efforts, great problems for users of the language. The study also makes suggestions of modifications to the practices through efficient language planning. In as far as Reagan's argument is concerned, the parties involved in language planning should take into account the three facts respectively. Facts to be considered are that:

- -language planning is a conscious and deliberate attempt;
- -language planning is future oriented; and
- -language planning involves choices, and the decision-making process involved in making these choices.

These very features are carefully studied to determine the factors that the language planners take into account during the process of language planning in the context of Lesotho. Language planning process requires care on the part of planners. The planners should first and foremost understand the complexities as well as problems involved in a language itself.

## 2.34 THE PROBLEMATIC NATURE OF LANGUAGE

According to Reagan (2010:35), one of the more compelling intellectual debates of the twentieth century was that which took place among science philosophers and those with interest in gaining insights into the nature and limits of human knowledge. Central to the philosophers' argument about the language problem, is the growth of knowledge. Reagan goes further to say that linguists and other language practitioners have generally viewed language from a perspective that is, at its heart, basically positivist in orientation. Normally, we tend to assume that language is an abstract entity, in a sort of Chomskian sense, exists as just such a knowable and singular object. Again, and even more problematically, people assume that particular languages also exist as knowable entities which can be described and analyzed. The author goes on to share the opinion that our language assumptions and presuppositions are embedded in our discourse and have important implications for any sort of applied language studies. Reagan concludes his take by noting that an excellent starting point for grasping how this objectification of language has taken place, and why this matters, is to consider the meaning of the term language itself.

According to Penny (2002:3), in its most common place and everyday uses, the term language is both ahistorical and atheoretical. The ahistorical part of language presupposes that language is in some sense fixed and static. Thus, it is a singular reality, in positivist terms. An example of this is the case of Spanish. The speech community of Spanish has evolved from varieties of Latin to modern Spanish varieties spoken around the world over the past two thousand years. Penny (2002:4) goes further with his discussion by stating that conceptions of language are not only ahistorical but as well atheoretical in nature. Language varies, as we observe. This is not only over time, but also from place to place, class to class, and individual to individual. One popular in language issues has it that no two speakers of the same language speak alike, nor does the same speaker use his language the same way all the time. Of critical importance is that variation is part of language and language behaviour.

The language boundaries in Africa and many parts of the developing world according to Campbell-Makini (2000:115), are often even fuzzier. This in turn helps to explain why

we are incapable of articulating a meaningful response to the question. In South Africa, for instance, the differences between isiZulu and IsiXhosa are very minimal, at least in their spoken forms. On the other hand, many of the regional varieties of modern German are mutually unintelligible, any yet we speak of 'German' as a single language.

### **2.35 THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF LANGUAGE PLANNING AND LANGUAGE POLICY STUDIES**

The first major publication to deal with language planning was Einar Haugen's work entitled 'Language conflict and language planning in 1966.' The study was the case of modern Norwegian. It dealt with the development of a new standard in Norway after independence from Denmark. Haugen's work was rather historical. Some other works subsequently came after Haugen's work. A lot of publications which subsequently came into being explored more on contemporary language planning efforts (Reagan, 2010: 43). Although some of these early works also explored the historical cases, especially with the Israeli and Irish, most were primarily concerned with more contemporaneous language planning efforts.

Mazrui (1998) is of the opinion that in the immediate post-colonial era, the development and implementation of language policies played a key role in national development in a wide range of formerly colonial countries.. Lesotho is one of the former colonial societies, a British colony for that matter. Decolonisation, particularly in African and Asian societies, created significant challenges with respect to language planning and language policy. Mazrui vehemently maintains that the newly constituted nations have to find answers for the nine questions respectively. These questions involve:

- what language or languages will serve as the official language of government;
- what role, if any, will be played by the language of the former colonial power;
- what role, if any, will be played by indigenous languages in the country;
- what efforts, if any, if any, will be needed to employ indigenous languages in new domains of language use;

- in what language or languages will primary, secondary, and tertiary education take place. How will linguistically appropriate materials for use in education context be prepared;
- what language or languages will be used in different media;
- what role, if ever any, will the state play in supporting and encouraging the use of a particular language;
- what role, if at all any, will the state play in discouraging the use of a particular language;
- what language rights will be recognised for citizens of the new nation.

The author further goes on to say that these nine questions have implications for how resources are to be allocated to language related efforts. Language issues, language policy and planning were particularly crucial in the domains of education and government. Mazrui (1998:44) highlights that in some countries, the languages of the former once colonial masters continue to function as official language. The languages also function as the language of education, although this means disempowering the overwhelming numbers of people in the society, mostly as a result of social class and education. Again, as the author notes, in some countries, the government has a specific indigenous language and devoted resources to its overall development.

Language policy is itself a means of disciplinary power. Its success depends in part upon the ability of the country to structure into the institutions of society the differentiation of individuals into 'insiders' and 'outsiders' to a huge extent. The process takes place through the close association between language and nationalism. An initiative to make language a mechanism for the expression of nationalism, the state can manipulate feelings of security and belongings. The states basically use language policy to discipline and control its employees by establishing language-based limitations on education, employment and political participation (Canagarajah, 1999: 207).

Language planning for Ferguson (2006:3) is a resurgent academic field revived by the policy challenges of the late twentieth and early twenty first century global developments. Not only are these the challenges. Besides, policy challenges of the centuries include globalisation, migration, resurgent ethno-nationalisms, language endangerment, the global spread of English and new states. Language planning is nonetheless a different discipline in a number of ways from the early years of the immediate post-colonial period of the 1960s and 70s. In the first instance, there is currently greater skepticism in relation to the efficacy of language planning. Secondly, the much more positive stance toward linguistic diversity, manifested in overall increase in interventions on behalf of regional minority languages, the languages of migrants as well as endangered languages of indigenous people. Closely associated with just the discussion is a direct interest in questions of power, access, inequality, discrimination and disparity. Another concern in relation to this issue is to discover how all these are influenced by language policies (Ferguson, 2006:4).

According to Corker (2006), Language planning and language policy studies are activities of growing importance not only with regard to spoken languages around the world, but also with respect to sign languages. Corker states that the broad framework within which sign language planning and policies are designed and executed is essentially similar to spoken languages. However, the exact details and challenges faced by sign language planners and policy makers are different from those faced by other language planners and policy makers.

## **2.36 THE NATURE AND PURPOSE OF LANGUAGE PLANNING**

Critical questions of national and official languages selection, orthographic selection and spelling standardisation; language use in government, judicial and educational settings; language status and power are rarely made easily. They seldom eschew a bigger degree of controversy and conflict (Ferguson, 2006). The author maintains that language is a key to the intellectual situation in the majority of third world countries. Lesotho, of course, is a typical example of the third world or sometimes known as developing countries. By its very nature, language itself plays a role in the distribution of knowledge, since the medium through which material is communicated determines the

critical issue of accessibility. Another observable and rather interesting concern to note is the fact that the majority of third world nations are multilingual states whereby the questions of language policy are often politically volatile (Ferguson, 2006).

When sharing similar sentiments on language policy debates, Reagan (2010:48) affirms that language policy controversy is common where language policies are primarily concerned with the provision of education. Reagan is again of the view that the language policy controversy should be obvious to us because the close relationship between language use and political power, socio-economic development, national and local identity and cultural values has resulted in the increasing realization of the importance of language policies and planning in the life of a nation. However, and more apparent, there is nowhere language planning is more crucial than in education. Language planning is universally recognized as a powerful instrument of change.

Since the early 1990s, stimulation of interest in language-policy research has immensely contributed to growing awareness that medium-of-instruction policies in education have greater impact not only on the school performance of students and teachers' daily work, but also on various forms of social and economic equality. Since a lot of the daily work which takes place in education involves verbal interaction among learners and educators, the medium-of-instruction decisions play a pivotal role in shaping the learning activities which take place in all classrooms and on playgrounds (Tollefson & Tsui, 2004). The authors moreover opine that because educational institutions play such a significant role in determining social hierarchies, political power and economic opportunities, the medium –of-instruction policies thus play a major part in organizing social and political systems.

For Ferguson (2006), the greater role of language planning as a component of more general social and educational planning and policy analysis is a vital facet of understanding development in general, and education in particular in many nations. Thus, language planning as an element of national development strategy can best be grasped as the deliberate effort to change or in some other way alter the already existing language usage, and this implies resolving different types of language problems

and ever growing debates. As Ferguson notes, language planning is typically an activity potentially deeply involved in both identity construction and conflict management. The author makes a rather vehement conclusion on the concept by saying that 'language planning is the activity of manipulating language as a social resource in order to reach objectives set out by planning agencies which, in general, are an area's governmental, educational, economic and linguistic authorities.

## **2.37 TYPES OF LANGUAGE PLANNING ACTIVITIES**

Language planning activities basically focus on any of the four different kinds of activities. These are status planning, corpus planning, acquisition planning as well as attitude planning. However, also interesting is to note that each of the distinct type of language planning initiatives is separate, and in practice that is quite far from the case (Spolsky, 2004:11). The early studies in language planning actually included only status planning and corpus planning. Acquisition planning as a separate aspect of the language planning efforts was only added later. Spolsky therefore opines that the additional category seems really useful for two reasons respectively. Firstly, a considerable planning is directed towards language spread. Therefore, when language is directed towards increasing a language's uses, it falls within the rubric of status planning. In similar way, when language is directed towards increasing the number of users, speakers, writers, listeners, or readers, then a separate analytical category for the focus of language planning appears to be justified. Secondly, the changes in function and form sought by status and corpus planning are affected by the number of a language's users.

### **2.37.1 Status planning**

Status planning is about efforts by government or institution to determine what language or languages are to be utilised in particular spheres. The identification of a country's official language, for instance, constitutes status planning, as would a decision about what language should be used in schools, in decisions about signage and so on. Status planning decisions are, by their nature very simple and quite less controversial in tradition 'nation states' than in the more common postcolonial multiethnic societies

(Spolsky, 2004:51). Status planning initiatives can and do take place at a different stages. They can occur internationally, nationally or regionally.

### **2.37.2 Corpus planning**

Corpus planning is a result of, and tied to status planning. This refers to efforts to standardise, elaborate, and perhaps, to 'purify' a language selected for use in a particular sphere of language use. While status planning deals primary with extralinguistic concerns, corpus planning is basically linguistic in nature. It specifically focuses on the linguistic features of the target language. Corpus planning includes the following major kinds of planning activities:

- orthographic innovation, including design, harmonization, change of script and spelling reform;
- pronunciation;
- changes in language structures;
- vocabulary expansion;
- simplification of registers;
- style; and
- the preparation of language material (Spolsky, 2004:53).

### **2.37.3 Acquisition planning**

A rather new term in the language planning studies, takes place when the language planning initiative is explicitly focused on language spread, more particularly on the spread of the number of users of the language. As a matter of fact, what is really intended by the term 'acquisition planning' is language education policy. In other words, acquisition planning attempts to address a number of critical issues. These issues involve:

- what should be the medium of instruction in the school;

- if there is to be a change in medium of instruction from one language to another at some stage in the education system, what should that point be;
- at what point are trained on literacy, and in what specific language;
- what additional languages should students study, how should they study them, and what are the objectives of such language study (Spolsky, 2004: 53).

Spolsky shows that the questions to be addressed in the acquisition planning can be attempted in any number of perfectly legitimate manner in any particular background. Nonetheless, there is also a substantial body of very credible research which provides guidance towards decision making process. For instance, it is well known fact that young children learn best if their schooling begins in their mother tongue. This phenomenon may or may not be feasible in a particular setting; however, it is a well document literature from extensive scientific investigations.

#### **2.37.4 Attitude planning**

Attitude planning is all about efforts to change or alter the attitudes of people either towards a particular language. This can either be individuals' own language or that of someone else. Alternatively, it can be to change people's attitude towards monolingualism, bilingualism or multilingualism (Spolskey, 2004:51). Attitude planning rather appears to be an additional kind of language planning activity which plays vital role in many local and global contexts. One typical example of attitude planning for Spolskey is the activity currently taking place in the Republic of South Africa. The author goes on to say that language attitude planning in the context of South Africa has both an articulated and unarticulated aim. The articulated aim is to raise consciousness regarding the multilingual nature of South African context, to increase toleration and acceptance of language differences, and again to encourage the growth of individualism, bilingualism and multilingualism in the country's languages. On the other extreme, the unarticulated planning the modern society of South Africa attempts to respond to the concerns about the future of specific languages in the state.

Reagan (2010:54) shares Spolsky's sentiments by maintaining that indeed, changing common, negative attitude about African languages in the Republic of South Africa is one of the massive challenges faced by language planners. Of course, this has also been a case in many other post-independence nations. Hardly surprisingly, it has been in the educational sphere where such efforts face the greatest resistance. This also has been in the education system where such initiatives face a lot of resistance. The resistance itself comes about as a result of the historical importance of mother tongue learning and the very obvious practical advantage of English, even with respect to the study of other major European languages.

### **2.38 THE FUNCTIONS OF LANGUAGE PLANNING**

According to Shohamy (2006), language planning activities of all types serve a number of varying, although sometimes overlapping, functions. Shohamy identifies about eleven purposes of language planning. These include:

- language purification;
- language reform;
- language spread;
- language revival;
- language standardization
- lexical modernization
- stylistic simplification
- language maintenance
- terminological unification
- interlingual communication and
- auxiliary code standardization.

The author goes further on by indicating that the eleven issues raised are not totally independent and distinct purposes of language planning and policy. The underlying fact to this idea is that the list itself can be condensed into the four major functions. These are language purification, language revival and revitalization, language reform, and language standardization and modernization. Language policy itself is a pure reflection of the political sphere, the judicial sphere, the military sphere, religious sphere, cultural sphere, and interpersonal sphere (Shohamy, 2006).

Language policy in some societies is stipulated in black and white through official documents such as national laws, declaration of certain languages, language standards, curricula, assessments, and through other types of documents. In other nations, the policy is not stated explicitly. However, the policy can be derived implicitly from examining a variety of de facto practices. In these contexts language policy is not possible to detect as it is subtle and more hidden from the public eye. Implicit language policies can also take place at national levels as majority of nations lack explicit policies that are formulated in official documents (Canagarajah, 2005). In the United States of America, for instance, there are no explicit and stated language policies which specify that status and uses of the English language.

On language purification, Shohamy (2006) explains that the concept refers to a prescriptive effort on the part of policy makers in order to delimit 'proper' or 'correct' linguistic usage. Typically, this is often based on beliefs about what constitutes what is generally believed to be the historically pure variety of the language. Linguistic purification involves both spoken and written language. With respect to former concern, concern is typically on phonology or accent, lexical choice, and grammatical usage. Shohamy again shows that in terms of the latter, the focus is generally on spelling and grammatical usage. In both instances, of course, what is really the issue is the promotion of a standard variety of the target language. Efforts in language planning that generally focus on corpus planning, are actually concerned with eliminating foreign usage in both spoken and written speech. These are also commonly tied to other manifestations of might be called 'purist' or ethnocentric ideologies, although they can also be outgrowths of anti-colonialist sentiments and movements.

While language purification deals with linguistic usage, language revitalisation refers to various kinds of efforts intended to promote the status and usage of a language that has been, in some way, previously in decline. King (1999: 111) defines language revitalisation as the attempt to add new forms or functions to a threatened language with the ultimate purpose of increasing its uses or users. Language revitalisation is primarily an example of both status planning and acquisition planning, though elements of corpus planning are also likely to be involved. A growing debate on language revitalisation and revival often deal with the two cases of the revitalisation of Irish in Ireland following the establishment of the Republic of Ireland.

Language purification and revitalisation are not only that matters in the issues surrounding language studies. Besides, language reform is an essential aspect in the process. According to Chen (1999), language reform takes place both formally and informally in many languages given official status in the modern society. This includes lexical and orthographic reform and occasional syntactic reform. In essence, language reform as a type of language planning activity is often, therefore, essentially corpus planning. For instance, a relatively effective language reform is the one that involves written Chinese in modern China. There are also many instances of language reform in the world like the reforms of Ibo as well as other indigenous languages.

Apart from that, Wright (2004:75) raises the point of language standardisation in relation to language functions' issues. Wright opines that language standardisation includes status planning, when it refers to the selection of one variety of a language as the standard language. This can on the other hand involve corpus planning when it refers to the codification of the language in a unified variety. It can again involve attitude planning when it includes altering popular attitudes concerning the very language. Wright cites the selection of Zanzibar dialect of Swahili as the example of the national linguistic norm in Tanzania. The authors maintain that language standardisation is extremely important. Also to note about language standardisation is that it often overlaps both language reform and language modernisation in actual practice. Language modernisation is closely linked to the notion of the nation –state. McCarty (2002:297) concurs that language modernisation takes place as initiatives that are taken to increase a

language's lexicon to permit it to deal with new technological, political, economic, educational as well as social developments. McCarty also shows that these initiatives are necessary because there is a need for a particular language to expand its capacity more quickly than natural developments can accommodate.

### **2.39 ORIENTATIONS AND IDEOLOGIES OF LANGUAGE POLICY**

Language planning efforts and specific language policies do not only perform different roles, but as well fall into different ideological orientations with regard to their underlying hypothesis as well social and educational goals. One beneficial way to look at the aims of language planning and policy, is by scrutinising the three orientations that one might take with respect to how one looks at language, particular in bilingual and multilingual contexts (Spolsky & Shohamy, 2000). The three orientations involve language as-a-problem, language-as-a-right, and language-as-a-resource. Spolsky & Shohamy go further with their discussion on the three language orientations. Firstly, language-as-a-problem orientation concentrate on the complications and challenges that are created by linguistic diversity, more generally in the background of issues of equity, access, education, economics and so on. The underlying idea in this orientation is that language diversity plays a vital function in disempowering people. Not only in taking power from individuals, but also in promoting ethnic divisiveness and even strife. Secondly, the language-as-a-right orientation concentrates mainly on principles of social justice and on the acceptance of the principles that right to language is a fundamental human right. Finally, the language-as-a-resource orientation looks at language linguistic skills as a kind of cultural capital which can and should continuously be developed by the society. Of course, the three orientations are rather distinct and different in approaches.

According to Ruiz (2000:653), in language planning and policy studies, there are four broadly conceived ideologies of language that guide and orient language policies. On the concept itself, Ruiz shares the opinion that language ideologies reflect a means of treatment of one language group with respect to another and ordinarily involve judgments as to what is desired as opposed to what is rejected. Again, ideologies involve frames of reference regarding an ideal social group that will evolve sometime in the future. The ideological aspect related to language status planning is perhaps the

most neglected area of language planning, despite the fact that ideologies underlie all other forms of status planning. In a nutshell, Ruiz identifies four ideologies of language, namely linguistic assimilation, linguistic pluralism, vernacularisation, and internationalization.

When offering their take on the discussion on language ideologies, Spolsky & Shohamy (2000) view linguistic assimilation as an ideology of language based on the assumption that linguistic unity is at the very least desirable in a state, and may actually become necessary to degree. Thus, language policies grounded in this ideology of linguistic assimilation tend to favor monolingual models of societies. An essential component of linguistic assimilation is that advocates of such policies are concerned not merely with individuals and groups acquiring competence in a specific, common language, but also with the rejection and replacement of other languages in a society. The authors are also of the opinion that the ideology of linguistic assimilation also, in practice, encourages a belief in the superiority of the dominant language in a society. This also often results in the denial of language rights to speakers of languages other than the dominant language. In the third world countries, language policies based on the ideology of linguistic assimilation were very common during colonial periods. The authors also state that in the context of education, language policies grounded in the ideology of linguistic assimilation most often entail formal learning in the selected national language.

Apart from linguistic assimilation, linguistic pluralism on the other hand emphasises the language rights of some minority groups. Generally speaking, this ideology does not accept, but rather support language diversity in societies. The practical aspect of linguistic pluralism exists in a variety of forms, ranging from relatively weak toleration of diversity to much stronger support for multiple languages. This often includes the recognition of official status for multiple languages in a state (Spolsky & Shohamy (2000)). An example of a country in which such status is granted to two languages is Botswana. Quite a small number of countries are officially trilingual. Although policies of linguistic pluralism are often politically the easiest solution for third world countries, such policies involve economic and political trade-offs.

Closely associated with the ideology of linguistic pluralism is vernacularisation. This ideology entails the selection of one or more indigenous language in a society in order to serve in an official capacity. The selection of that manner always includes considerable language engineering. The engineering itself should concentrate on the educational sphere, with the production of textbooks, curricular materials, high school leaving examinations and so on. Moreover, vernacularisation can focus on one indigenous language (Reagan, 2010:81). In a nutshell, Reagan maintains that this ideology involves the restoration of an indigenous language and its adoption as an official language. There are also several processes of vernacularisation that include the revival of a dead language.

On internationalisation, Canagarajah (1999) asserts that this ideology involves the selection of a language of wider communication for use as the society's official language. A typical instance of language of wider communication will be the role of English language in the context of Lesotho and many other parts of the world. The selection of that nature has been and continues to be quite common in the entire developing societies of the world, and nearly always reflect the colonial past of a country. This therefore implies that the division between Anglophone and Francophone Africa to a larger extent is a reflection of differences not only in official languages but as well as in terms of the colonial past. Internationalisation as an ideology rather remains highly controversial in many contexts. It is obviously tied to the concerns about issues of linguistic domination and linguistic imperialism (Canagarajah, 1999). The table below provides an illustration of the four ideologies.

<b>Ideology</b>	<b>Formulation</b>	<b>Explanation</b>	<b>Examples</b>
Linguistic Assimilation	$A+B+C+D=A$	Where A is the dominant language	The role of French in France
Linguistic Pluralism	$A+B+C+D=A+B+C+D$	when a society opts for high degree of official	Contemporary South Africa's multilingual

		multilingualism	language policy
Vernacularisation	$A+B+C+D=C$	Where C is an indigenous language	The use of Kiswahili in Tanzania following independence
Internationalization	$A+B+C+D=E$	Where E is a 'language of wider communication	Francophone, Anglophone, and Lusophone countries
Source: (Spolsky & Shohamy, 2000)			

Table 4: Ideologies of language planning

**2.40 THE LANGUAGE PLANNING PROCESS**

The process of language planning can be conceptualised in two varying ways respectively. These entail the critical approach and the traditional approach. The latter approach is positivist in essence. The language planning process basically consists of four interrelated, and to a greater degree overlapping components. The components are: (1) the initial fact-finding phase; (2) the establishment and articulation of goals, desired outcomes, and the strategies to be employed in achieving these goals and outcomes; (3) the implementation process; and (4) the evaluation of all aspects of the language planning process (Reagan, 2010:82). The four phases in the planning process are indeed distinct and involves varying activities.

When taking the discussion further, Shohamy (2006), notes that during the first stage of the language planning process, information about the context within which the language policy is to be implemented is collected. Obviously, the more information available to the language planner, the better. On any occasion, two sorts of information must be gathered if the language policy is to yield positive results. The first of these is a clear

understanding of the sociolinguistic context in which the language policy to be implemented; especially important in this context are the common patterns of linguistic usage. The next sort of necessary information is that which would provide a proper understanding of other social, economic and political processes and developments (Shohamy, 2006). Thus, it is only with combination of the two kinds of information that the language planners can a realistic perspective on need determination and evaluation of needs and wants.

The second stage in the process involves the determination and articulation of goals, strategies as well as outcomes. The process takes place on varying levels and requires a variety of skilled personnel. The goals to be attained in linguistic and extralinguistic are set, based on the careful evaluation of needs and wants determined earlier in the information-gathering phase. Of course, these are all within the parameters made possible by the political and socioeconomic background. These goals, will in turn serve to explain and delineate the expected outcomes of the language policy to be implemented. The strategies for attaining these results are normally seen as primarily a technical matter (Shohamy, 2006). This also, will provide the basis and direction for the implementation of the language policy.

The third stage in the planning of language is in a number of ways, which is the key focus of much of the language planning literature. The phase involves the mobilisation of resources, general finance and personnel management, motivation and supervision of those concerned both with the management of the language policy program and with its target population (Shohamy, 2006).

The last step in the process of language planning is that of evaluation. The evaluation of the language policy has to take place in two senses respectively. These two are an integral and a final sense. An integral sense typically entails an ongoing component of all phases of the planning of a language process. On the other hand, the final sense of the process involves cumulative examination of the achievement and failures of the very language policy. In as far as the predicted results are considered valid, the real results

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ought to be, as a result of evaluation, brought continually closer to the articulated goals of the language policy (Shohamy, 2006).

According to Reagan (2010:84), language policies and associated language planning decisions are frequently made on the basis of short-term political expediency, misguided assumptions and beliefs, as well as a range of extralinguistic factors. One apparent fact about language policy issues as the author's observations is that, language policies and language planning efforts are quite often unsuccessful. The reason behind this failure is due to the manner in which they were designed and implemented.

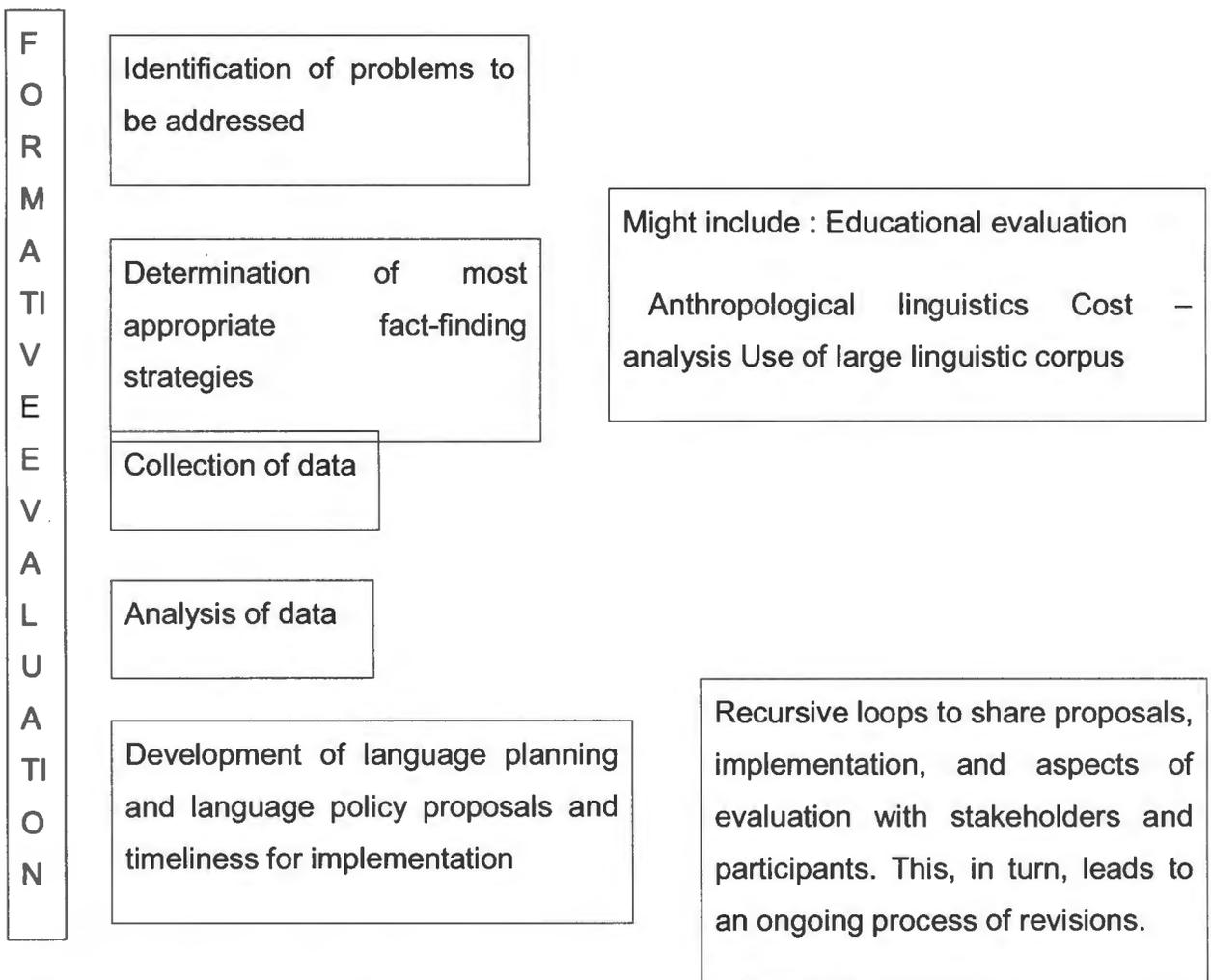
For Errington (2008), there is an additional issue which needs to be made with respect to the traditional way in which the process of language planning is conceptualised. This point has directly to do with what might be referred to as 'directionality' of the process itself. Errington shows that language efforts in language planning, especially the earlier language planning initiatives, tended to be 'top-down' in nature. The author asserts that such policies, although at other times reflecting the people's will often did not do so. Consequently, such initiatives were ultimately doomed from the very start. Thus, efforts in language planning and language policies, like other social policies, are most efficient when they are in fact 'bottom-up' in nature. In that way, they will directly be involving the people whom they are meant to impact most directly. They will as well impact all stages of the entire process of planning the language. Errington is also of the observation that when language planning initiatives are in the 'bottom up' nature, this inevitably leads us to a critical approach to conceptualizing the language planning process. Not only does the critical approach require that people focus on a more 'bottom-up' orientation, but it also seeks to drive us from an overreliance on ideologically informed 'expertise' to a more individual and community-based orientation.

Central to the whole debate in language planning is what Shohamy calls a one way to think about this distinction in the planning process. While language planning refers to control, it does not leave anything to decide. The governing body determines not just what the person will know. The body also determines how one will arrive there. This is where language planning is combined with practice. The language policy itself attempts

to be less interventionist and to refer mostly to principles with regard to language use. This therefore implies that language policy may as well include statement that a number of languages should be learned in a given country or that indigenous groups should have the right to maintain their language, but often does not go into which groups or which languages or how this should be implemented. With the increase of less interventionist approach, the role of planning is subsiding and policy is becoming the bonafide. Of utmost importance to note in this case is that, it should be noted that the boundaries between planning and policy are not yet clear (Shohamy, 2006).

Corson (1999) provides a framework for critical policy-making by suggesting the four stages in policy development and implementation. More importantly to note, is that, the stages are not those of the traditional, positivistic orientation. Corson goes further and provides a summary of the four stages. In the first stage, there must be identification of real problems. Three basic factors are involved here. These include the problem situation, the role of expert knowledge as well as the actual problems. The second stage involves the trial policies. This in essence is the views of stakeholders. Here, two basic factors are involved, namely policy guidelines and controllable changes. The latter are the views of stakeholders. Stage three of the framework involves the issue of testing policies against the views of participants. The issues involved in this stage are testing policies by trial applications and testing policies by research. The last stage is policy implementation.

There are also several crucial issues to stress in as far as the four stage summary is concerned. Firstly, is the emphasis that should be made on the stakeholders in the policy-making setting. The second is the concern with the actual participants in the context. The participants in this setting should not overlap with the stakeholders. The reliance on research is as well very key because it is the actual focus on trial experiments and policies. These must all be assessed by all of those concerned. Such an approach to policy-making is, then, basically distinct from that of the more traditional language planning process. The process of planning a language goes through a series of stages and activities. The figure below provides a demonstration of the process.



Source: (Reagan, 2010:83)

Figure 6: The language planning process

## **2.41 THE EVALUATION OF LANGUAGE POLICIES**

Language policy as an applied sociolinguistic task has the capacity to function either as a tool for empowerment and liberation or as a mode of oppression and domination. Language planning and policy activities often involve both implicit and explicit goals and objectives. The nature of such tasks is that they are fundamentally political and ideological. Of course, language policy can be used for either good or ill. Evidence shows that there are abundant cases of both sorts of uses of language policy and planning (Wright, 2004).

Language planning as an initiative, involves public decisions about language, its use, status and development. It involves decisions that have overwhelming social, economic, educational, as well as political significance for the society. The process itself cannot be separated from such concerns, nor, would it be suitable to attempt to do so. Efforts in language planning are inevitably ideological and political in nature. Thus, they must be taken into consideration in other for us to gain more insights into them (Pennycook, 2000). Pennycook moreover, makes a suggestion of the four tests that any ideal public policy must pass. Namely, the tests include the desirability test, the justness test, the effectiveness test and the tolerability test. The desirability test involves the goal of the policy, one that the entire community believes to be desirable. The second policy test is an assessment to ascertain if the policy is just and fair. Thirdly, is the effectiveness test whose key role is to measure the effectiveness of the policy. Lastly, is the tolerability test whose function is test if the policy is resource-sensitive. It also evaluates if the policy is viable in the context within which it is to be effected. Pennycook again opines that these four tests are extremely useful in assessing language policies, and they as well serve as a working model for analyzing different language planning processes as well. Thus, they are capable of providing us with some important questions to question in judging both the process by which varying language policies are designed, and the eventual results emanating from such policy designs.

## **2.42 LANGUAGE PLANNING, LANGUAGE POLICY AND LANGUAGE RIGHTS**

Language planning and policy designers have recently demonstrated quite some interest in the issue of language rights. The past century has seen not only challenges to

abrogation of human rights, but as well as a growing awareness and articulation of such rights. This in reality has been an important facet of language planning and language policy studies. The Second World War was attributed to numerous human rights violation. Following the period of upheaval, rights then played a vital role. The right to use one's own language has recently gained acceptance as a basic human right (wright, 2002). Wright goes on to show that the contemporary period has seen a further shift in their fortunes and they provide an accepted international currency for moral and political debates. In many parts of the world, regardless of cultural or religious traditions, poverty or power are debated. The argument is very often conducted in terms of rights and their violation.

According to Errington (2008), debates about language and language policy present the fundamental challenge of attaining balance between the competing goods of social unity and access on the one hand and toleration of diversity on the other. The author's observation is that the question that policy designers are trying to respond to in such controversies is the degree, and what ways, are language rights human rights. A number of questions in relation to language rights should be addressed in the case. Thus, the responses to the question about language should attempt to establish whose rights are directly involved in language rights. It should therefore be obvious whether this refers to the rights of individuals, group or community.

When taking the discussion even further, Pennycook (2002: 59), is of the opinion that violations of language rights takes place in a wide variety of settings and take various forms. Underlying different violations of language rights are the assumptions tied to ideologies of linguistic imperialism. Linguistic imperialism for Pennycook is not language-specific; virtually any linguistic community could utilise its language to dominate others and hence, promote linguistic hegemony. In our world today, rather few language communities have the political, economic, cultural and military power as well as a status to engage in issues of linguistic imperialism. At the glance, the role of English in present day global context is often cited as the typical instance of linguistic imperialism. The author maintains that 'the dominance of English is asserted and maintained by the establishment and continuous reconstitution of structural and cultural inequalities between English and other languages.' As a matter of fact, it is the very success of English which

makes it such a threat to many minor languages. Nevertheless, English is obviously by no means alone; the same sort of linguistic imperialism. It again, colors the relationships between French and indigenous American Indian languages in Latin America.

In an attempt to share similar sentiments, Sebba (2006), opines that the desire for a common language for intercommunication is never itself evidence for linguistic imperialism. Linguistic imperialism itself goes beyond such needs, as it either explicitly or implicitly encourages linguistic assimilation to the dominant language and contexts within which certain languages function. Thus, linguistic imperialism has at the core the exploitation of dominated language communities in favor of the dominant language community. Sebba therefore indicates that the selection of a language for use in any given setting is attributed to a number of factors. An important fact to note here is that, whether the communicative situation is an informal one between two communicators or a matter of government policy, in any setting where bi-or multilingualism exists, the selection of a language to be used is at least in part a political choice.

Closely associated with linguistic imperialism, Reagan (2010:91) brings to our attention the concept linguicism. Linguicism refers to the linguistic aspect of racism, sexism, ageism, and so on. The term has come into being to refer to ideologies, structures and practices that are utilized to legitimate, effectuate, as well as a reproducing an unequal division of power and resources. The author goes further to share that the effects of linguistic imperialism and linguicism on the other extreme stage can be observed in ever growing number of languages whose existence is threatened. What takes place in reality is not merely language death, but is in fact linguistic genocide.

According to Grin (2005), one important point to note, is that although less number of languages of wider communication are seen as dominating and suppressing other languages, the tables can however be suddenly turned. To establish the truth of this utterances, Grin maintains that we ought not to 'idealise minorities, or to forget that today's underdog may be tomorrow's power-crazed bully.' The debates surrounding language rights and oppression apply to all individuals and groups. They should also do so equally if they are to have a real sense of meaning.

While language rights and violations of such rights is such an important subject of discussion, language responsibility is also another area that needs focus. It is imperative as well to concentrate on the language responsibilities of the individual and society. If people have access to the right to education in their home language, such people also have huge responsibility to learn the socially dominant language in their society. For instance, people of Lesotho must realise the huge responsibility to master English language, which dominates the affairs of the society. In the same manner, if a society is certainly within its rights to legislate an official language, it must therefore recognise that it has the related obligation to provide the educational support necessary to make sure that all its members have access to the very language. The underlying fact in this case is that language rights are associated with profound obligations (Baker, 2001).

### **2.43 LANGUAGE PLANNING AND ECONOMICS**

A lot is said about language planning debates and apparently possesses an economic base. However, there is a general concern among language planning specialists that the language national planners do not pay an adequate attention to language challenges as they should do when developing what they believe will be economically efficient (Grin, 2005). For Grin, a language needs to be regarded as a resource at the national level, alongside other more usual resources. Thus, with regard to policy planning, economic ideas are indeed seen to be vital and useful. For instance, the very ideas will provide essential guidelines for predicting the likelihood of language maintenance or language shift, given the economic condition of the context or nation and its existing language situation. The discipline of economy in this case serves in numerous ways as input to language planning efforts.

According to Harold (2006), language can be seen as a societal resource. When looking at language in this manner, we might as well consider it as an imperative tool. This therefore implies that people normally find themselves working around with language, by means of language, and on something else. When showing the economic value of language, the author points out that we are a linguistic community which somehow appears a market. In personal utterances, Harold maintains that ' a linguistic community

appears as a sort of immense market, in which words syntagms and sentences, used as verbal messages, oscillate in the same way as commodities do’.

According to Canagarajah (2005:62), when looking at language from the perspective of economy, we rather appear confronted right away with the problems and also the possibilities of implementing economic methods to understand. Economic analyses for the author can be helpful in helping solve language difficulties and guiding language change. Since language planning entails making decision, certain concepts the economic studies of decision making are of paramount importance. When sharing similar sentiments, Grin (2005) notes that people devising language plans ought to have knowledge of available alternatives. The concept economics itself has the element ‘opportunity cost’ which in turn ‘expresses the loss of opportunity by doing one thing rather than another, by selecting one course of action at the expense of another’. In the eyes of economists, a decision is defined as a choice of an alternative that has been valued better than another alternative. The language planner might profitably look at decisions regarding language choice from the perspective of opportunity cost. This in essence is from the perspective of a cost benefit approach. Grin points out that cost benefit analysis, in all spheres, concentrates on the change process. Thus, with respect to language, it can be used to evaluate the outcomes of the process of language change.

When offering a take on language and economy debate, King (1999) states that all the results of language change need to be related to the preferences of the nation or society for whom language planning is being executed. The concerned group of people will perceive some outcomes as costs while other outcomes as benefits. Of course, some of these consequences are intangible while others are tangible. King’s conclusion in this case is that planners in language debates are advised to take a comparative look at societies when they seek to evaluate the likely effects of one type of deliberate language change over another.

### **2.43.1 Language and economic development**

Social scientists of various persuasions regard development studies as part of an interest in addressing questions of regional and national development. Apparently, there is well articulated awareness that a number of issues in development are language issues. Spolsky (2006:66) is of the opinion that, for economic development to take place, it is necessary to establish a type of linguistic infrastructure so that in areas where many vernacular languages are in use, a common language of wider communication is also available. The language of wider communication is used to ensure that everyone in the developing area can understand the goals of the development process.

### **2.44 THE DEVELOPMENT PROCESS**

Emerging language policy theory also owes a huge debt to development research for its conceptual framework. Spolsky & Shohamy's (2000:52) observation is that as countries develop, they tend to become more centralised. This centralisation leads away from linguistic heterogeneity and linguistic homogeneity. Spolsky & Shohamy provides a list of the development assumptions of language planning. The assumptions involve the following:

- in developing countries, people with language skills are favored over those without;
- in a developing area, population increases via birth rate or migration affect the relative strength of languages or speech varieties;
- in a developing context, a quality increase as well as a quantity increase in per capita growth requires an expansion of linguistic knowledge;
- in developing areas, people need to be aware of, and know how to use different language features;
- in developing areas, international trade requires people to be able to use and have access to language of wider communication;

- in developing areas, linguistic homogeneity adds to the ability of people to cross occupational, industrial, and status lines.
- in developing states, where the spread of modern economic growth is sequential, modern linguistic growth is also sequential.

## **2.45 LANGUAGE POLICY IN AFRICA**

After independence, African countries were confronted with a mammoth challenge in relation to a language policy. Post-colonial Africa had to come out with their own language policies, different from those of their colonial masters. Within this new framework of designating official languages, there has always been a problem of which language to choose in the new sovereign state (Spolsky, 2004:137). In analysing this dilemma, Spolsky moves on to indicate that the then post-colonial Africa had three choices regarding a new policy. In the first instance, African states had an opportunity to reject the metropolitan language and proclaim a policy to come out with their own chosen national language as the official language. Secondly, the countries could aim to keep the metropolitan language as official language together with their own mother tongue. Lastly, the states had an option to recognize the hegemony of the colonial language.

In sharing similar sentiments, Wright (2004) states that in some other African states, the first alternative, as indicated by Spolsky, would have been ideal step. The reason behind this observation is that the ever ongoing use of the language of colonial masters brought with it the sense of continued inferiority complex. Nevertheless, the author's observation has been that the overwhelming majority of countries in the black continent eventually ended up approaching this by rather opting for the third pattern. Wright shows that although African nations really wanted to break with the current post-colonial period, they could not completely reject the languages of their colonial masters. In an attempt to provide a reason behind this utterances, the author maintains that in these societies 'heterogeneity appeared to allow them no other solution than the language of the colonial power that had brought them together and their espousal of nationalist ideology meant that the pressure to find a single national language was strong'.

Spolsky (2006) substantiates his view point by quoting some of the African countries and the patterns they have chosen. To start with, Ivory Coast is cited as an obvious example of the third pattern. Ivory Coast as an African state, decided to keep the colonial master language, French, as the only official language for government and education since 1966. Spolsky sees this as of particular interest since the country enjoys approximately seventy-five indigenous languages, the majority of which are mutually intelligible. The author goes on further to cite other examples of countries that have maintained the hegemony of the colonial language. These involve Malawi and Namibia respectively. On the part of Malawi, the country decided to retain English as the only official language as well as the medium of instructions at most levels in schools. The only exception in this country, as Spolsky notes, is the first years during primary schooling. During this level indigenous languages are used a bridge to acquiring English skills. Besides, even though over twenty languages are spoken in Namibia, the 1990 constitution accommodates only English as the official language. Mozambique of course, decided to keep Portuguese as the country's official language.

While some African states have retained the hegemony of the former colonial master languages, other on the other hand chose the second pattern. These states adopted the colonial master's language as the official in the new independent country. However, these African countries did not leave behind their own languages. Thus, their native languages also became part of the official languages of the country. Examples of countries which adopted this pattern include Swaziland and Botswana in southern Africa. The countries on the other side did extremely well to promote their home languages by promoting them to official languages (Sigcau, 2004). As an eloquent testimony of this situation, Lesotho promoted Sesotho language to official language in 1966 at the time of independence. Similarly, the Republic of South Africa elevated the nine African languages to official languages in 1996. What is more interesting in this situation is that though African languages have been raised to official languages, their colonial language counterparts still have greater economic impact on African states. Thus, they still dominate the economic, educational and social affairs of the sovereign states.

According to Wright (2004), even in the absence of European languages, Africa itself has an immensely complex linguistic picture in the world. This complexity results from varying factors, different roles assigned to different languages spoken within the same country. Wright goes on to narrate that at the time of attaining independence, the majority of African states men 'saw a pressing need to unite their populations and mould a more homogenous citizenry'. The leaders and their governments became obsessed with the very idea of 'one people, one language, one nation. In accordance with Wright's observations, multilingualism was something unfeasible to the states men. There were reasons behind this. In the first place, an attempt to promote cultural and linguistic diversity was seen as pandering to tribalism. Secondly, multilingualism was regarded as a threat to development and economy.

Another view on language policy is presented as a matter requiring some attention. (Smith 2000). The scholar opines that language policies in Sub-Saharan African societies are characterised by one or more problems. Some of the observable challenges in these African countries are avoidance, vagueness, arbitrariness, fluctuation and declaration without implementing. For Smith, the avoidance challenge of language policy is obvious as it states that there is no clear-cut statement on policy.

Vagueness is seen as the second difficulty facing African language policy. According to (Miti, 2008), a vague policy is the one which is given in general terms that allows itself to be described in a more flexible manner. As a result of this situation, implementation is never a concern. For instance, in some of the African states, alongside Lesotho, English and some chosen African languages have been accorded official language status. Nonetheless, it is the very English which is entirely used in crucial domains. There is a reason to this. Thus, the policy does not precisely indicate terms in which domain each language should be utilised.

Miti (2008) goes further to present arbitrariness as the third challenge confronting African society's language policies. Miti describes an arbitrary policy as the one which is drafted without prior consideration of its feasibility. For example, in countries like Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi and Swaziland, the 'African' language is official language

alongside English. In essence, the African language is subordinate to English. This therefore shows that, in each of these countries, English is the medium of instruction above fourth Grade level.

Fluctuation or change is presented as the fourth challenge confronting African language policies. Fluctuation in terms of language policy has to do with changes in state administration or party policies. This entails the development of current ideas or practices which are suggested by inquiry commissions. In countries like Malawi, the language policy changed in 1996 after the rise to power of Dr Bakili Muluzi. In the apartheid South Africa, there were only two official languages, namely English and Afrikaans. However, that number has risen to eleven languages in post-apartheid society (Kayambazinthu, 2004). An increase in the number of official languages is an ideal initiative in relation the implementation of multilingualism.

The final problem in accordance with Onyango (2003) is the declaration of policy without implementation. Onyango identifies three ways in which this can occur. Firstly, a policy can be declared in situations where it cannot be practically implemented. Besides, a policy can also be declared, but without realistic clauses that provide it with ground for non-implementation. Lastly, a policy may be declared but with no specification of implementation procedures. The Lesotho national language policy is typical of the third kind of non-implementation situation. The country of Lesotho has accorded Sesotho language the status of official language alongside English. However, English is by far dominant in socio-economic collaborations (Onyango, 2003).

## **2.46 LANGUAGE POLICY AND LANGUAGE ATTITUDES**

When dealing with language policy debates, it is practically inevitable to exclude attitude issue since the barrier between language policies and their eventual implementation emanates from diverging attitudes on the part of both planners and those responsible for the implementation process. A situation of this nature has a potential to place attitude among the factors that are of greater importance in language in education policies' debates (Dyers, 2004:205). Dyers makes a highlight of a difference among the effective, cognitive and readiness for action parts of attitude. Thus, the cognitive

component is linked to the beliefs and thoughts of the people concerning the language they master. Effective component on the other hand has to do with the manner in which people feel about the very language. The readiness for action part comes as the third attitude and entails an action plan regarding language. This third attitude involves what is that people are intending to do with a language. The attitude that nations demonstrate towards a language has a direct influence on the way people undertake initiatives to deal with such language issues. This eventually has profound impact on the overall language policy.

According to Crawford (2005), a number of factors trigger language attitude. Such factors include language status and the power the language itself is given to have over other languages as well as the status of any given context. When looking at the greater social force that attitudes have in determining the choices of language planners, there is eminent need for the study of this nature to ascertain the attitudes of Lesotho language and language in education policy makers towards language of wider communication. For Dyers (2004), it remains extremely imperative for the processes of language policy making and implementation to consider the context's existing language attitudes. The attitudes of decision makers are particular important in this case.

## **2.47 LANGUAGE PLANNING AND LANGUAGE POLICY IN EDUCATION**

Issues surrounding language policy do not take place only at national and international levels. Language policies exist on all levels of society. Of course, one of the places in which they are most powerful is the school environment. Different schools have language policies. Nonetheless, the policies in the context of schools are either implicit or explicit. All the school teachers are in turn, involved in the implementation of these language policies (Corson, 1999:84-85).

School policies for Corson are seen by the majority of the people in education as an integral and necessary part of the administration and curriculum practice of schools. As Corson observes, a language policy identifies areas of the school's scope of operations and program where language problems exist that need the commonly agreed approach offered by a policy. A language policy in any context sets out what the school intends to

do about these areas of concern and involves provisions for follow-up, monitoring and revision of the very policy (Corson, 1999:1).

In the context of school, the decision regarding the language to be used as the medium of instruction, is a language decision. It is a policy decision because there are decisions about what other languages are to be taught, how language will be taught, the relative importance of different languages in the school. This, for a foreign language teacher, means that our existence as professionals depends on language policies. Thus, a high demand for students to study a foreign language as a component of their general education is, then, part of the language policy discourse and practice in any school (Corson, 1999:143).

In a further discussion, Corson (1999:144) says that beyond our direct concerns regarding language issues, language policy should also be of greater importance to educators in terms of our efforts to promote critical language awareness in students. The author then provides the key concepts that critical language awareness approaches seek to convey to students. Thus, the approaches attempt to convey the following to students:

- people have the capacity to shape the conventions that underlie discourse, just as much as any other social practices;
- even though we tend to accept the way language is, and the manner discourse works, they are always changing;
- forms of discourse receive their value according to the positions of their users in systems of power relations;
- struggles over the control of discourse are the main ways in which power is obtained and exercised in modern societies.

In a further discussion on the subject, Pennycook (2001) is of the view that language policies can and do serve a variety of quite different ends. The policies are capable of serving as a tool for empowering different groups of people. They can create and

strengthen national bonds and ties. Language policies can maximise educational and economic development. Again, and more importantly, language policies can be used to maintain and perpetuate oppression, social class discrimination, as well as social and educational inequality. When sharing similar sentiments, Skutnabb-Kangas (2000) opines that language policies, if they are to be defensible, they must entail the active involvement and participation of those for whom they are intended. The author concludes that it is only when emerging in such a context can language policies contribute to the creation of more just, human and legitimate social and educational policies.

According to Shohamy (2006), debates in language policy and language implementation inevitably involve education policy. Due to the vital role of education in a society, the education sector receives an enormous attention in language planning discussions. This implies that now that language policies had to change in the new independent Africa, language in education policy inevitably had to change as well. The reason for this is that language in the education policy serves as a mechanism for carrying out national language policy business. Shohamy makes it clear that while language policies focus on government decisions pertaining languages and their uses in countries, language in education policies concentrate on translating into practice these decisions in certain educational contexts. For example, the schools at varying levels. The author proceeds by further noting that presently, language in education policies in many African countries are doing their best to implement a multilingual approach to education. More emphasis is made on the variant of multilingualism. The approach itself as the author observes, accommodates linguistic diversity of students and thus, advocates the use of a number of languages as medium of instructions. As far as the study is concerned, bilingualism is utmost importance since it considers the best approaches in education of linguistic minorities.

### **2.47.1 Bilingualism and bilingual education**

According to Henrard (2003), two types of bilingualism exist. These are additive and subtractive bilingualism. The author also makes a clear distinction between two types. An additive bilingual model adds language to a learner's repertoire, while at the same

time there is no loss of access to or skills in the language. This implies that pupils 'come to school speaking their mother tongue, and then the second language is added. In accordance with this model, pupils' home languages are completely considered, respected and adequately used throughout their learning. Consequently, students will not be discriminated due to their language background. On the other side, subtractive bilingualism is a model whereby the second language is the medium of instruction. The second language is in many often the language spoken by the majority. Henrard also observes that the process of transition to the second language normally occurs rather early during the life circle. The author again, and importantly, clarifies that it is during this stage 'the natural cognitive development in the mother tongue is brought to an end and the child's cognitive development is abruptly broken off'. Mesthrie (2000:372) is completely in agreement with this view by attesting that 'the learning of a socially dominant language leads to a loss of skill of the home language'. There are quite many reasons provided in support of bilingual education. The reasons are classified by Henrard into social, psychological and cognitive.

Closely associated with bilingual education is also the issue of first language medium of instruction. A much growing debate on the first language medium of education emphasizes the mental, cultural, psychological and educational desirability of initial education in the native language. The cognitive growth and subject learning is the best attained through teaching in a language that the pupils master well (Sigcau, 2004). The author again points out that bilingualism is implemented in different ways by different countries. What remains the point of fact is that language in the context of education policies in many of the African nations acknowledges the significance of bilingualism in education and linguistic diversity. These have a potential to continue the logic of colonial policies.

## **2.48 LESOTHO LANGUAGE POLICY**

Fleischer (2005) points out that Lesotho does not have an explicitly in black and white overall language policy document. This situation is not abnormal for the author because language policy should not only be seen as 'the explicit, written, overt, official and top-down decision-making about language, but also the implicit, written, covert, grass-roots,

and unofficial ideas and assumptions, which can influence the outcomes of policy-making just as emphatically and definitely as the more explicit decisions’.

According to Harold (2006), Lesotho’s language policy is generally known, inferred and referred to in the constitution drafted in 1993. In accordance with the constitution, the country’s official language policy is stipulated in Article 1 of the Constitution. Thus, the section has it that both Sesotho and English shall be the official languages of the Mountain Kingdom. Nyika (2007) takes the discussion further by noting that the co-existence of English and Sesotho as the country’s official languages can best be studied by looking back at times of missionaries and colonisation. Sesotho and English languages were used by the missionaries in the 18<sup>th</sup> century as a means to preach Christianity to the natives. Nyika opines that the ability to read and write in English and Sesotho played a vital role in studying bible, church’s spiritual teachings and general participation in Christian community.

The period of other European communities in Lesotho also played significant role in the process of formulating and shaping the country’s language policy. At the advent of colonialism, English language ability was a prerequisite in addition to Sesotho. The colonial masters did not demoralise the use of Sesotho language in private domains and functional literacy. However, English was accorded high status in significant domains like education. The eventual purpose of the colonial masters was to ensure pride position to the language of the colonisers. Very unfortunately, this was attained at the expense of indigenous languages, which were being perpetually marginalised (Nyika, 2007).



## **2.49 MINORITY LANGUAGES IN LESOTHO**

The Lesotho constitution does not say anything about the country’s minority languages. Nevertheless, the presence of some tribal clans in the country is an eloquent testimony of the inevitable presence of other minority languages. There are tribal clans, for example, like Baphuthi, Batlokoa, Basia, Matebebele and many others. The Batlokoa for instance, speak Setlokoa, Baphuthi speak Sephuthi, and so on and so forth. The minority languages are actually the first language for members of the tribal clan. These

are distinct languages, quite different from Sesotho. The languages are distributed according to the country's regions (Molomo, 1999). Nyika (2007) concurs by showing that, regardless of the differences that manifest with regard to language and backgrounds in terms of ethnicity, the Basotho nation is known as a more monolingual and homogeneous society.

Molomo (1999) reveals that the misconception that the kingdom of Lesotho is a monolingual context has again culminated in lack of focus in language issues for those are in the forefront. The author indicates that even the only academic language body in the country, does not enjoy any form of aid from the state. Consequently, none of the language planning initiatives are being implemented by any regime.

## **2.50 PRE-COLONIAL ERA EDUCATION**

Back in the days, before colonial times, Lesotho had a rather informal and less organised indigenous system of education. A long period ago, before exposure to any Europeans influence, the learning process was geared towards a system of education which inculcated moral and cultural knowledge (Seotsanyana, 2002). Nyaba-nyaba (2002:21) says that the actual process of teaching was done by leaders from the local context. Besides, medicinal doctors were also involved in the teaching process. In a further narration, Nyaba-nyaba shares that girls and boys separately learnt cultural values, responsibility, family and personal accountability. This then implies that this informal traditional learning made huge contribution towards attainment of personal and cultural development. Alongside this informal system, Seotsanyane (2002) highlights that the Basotho nation had also done well in the establishment of the formal education system. The latter exists until the present day. This formal system for the Basotho nation is provided through initiation school. Nyaba-nyaba (2002:21) offers a summary of the education for Basotho boys and girls. Thus, girls and boys attended different initiation schools whose primary goal was to formalise their knowledge of personal responsibility and values of the culture. At that stage, girls had already acquired essential skills in duties like cleaning the home, drawing water, collecting wild vegetables and many more. Boys at this point in time become familiar with manual work

like looking after herds and flocks. They learn how to look after a farm. The kind of education provided in initiation schools was done through the counsel of wise elders. It was basically providing knowledge of starting and maintaining a family.

In accordance with the observation of Nyaba-nyaba (2002), only the Basotho boys and girls from initiation school are regarded by both themselves and society as real men and women. However, when missionaries came in the 19<sup>th</sup> century, those from initiation did not enjoy good treatment from those who have converted to western beliefs. The missionaries encouraged local inhabitants to abandon their primitive cultural practices. The missionaries were critical of these practices, saying that the practices were not compatible with Christianity. Keeping the ball rolling, Seotsanyana (2002) asserts that unlike the former education type, the current education was carefully planned to bear Christian values and enhance Christian characters.

## **2.51 COLONIAL PERIOD EDUCATION**

In 1868 Lesotho became a British protectorate. The then, colonial government continued providing support to the education of missionaries. It was at this juncture that churches received some financial aids to run the schools. In an effort to streamline education in about 1909, a central board of advice was started. The board was made up of director of education and some representatives from government. Subsequently, there was the appointment of secretariat of education whose role was to coordinate activities of schools and the government (Seotsanana, 2002). Two major developments were attained around this period. Firstly, there was the formulation of the comprehensive Education Act. The act was defining the function and responsibilities of government and the churches in school's management policy. Secondly, there was the establishment of central and district advisory committees. Their duty was to provide for education policy for the chiefs, government and churches. The revised framework of efforts prompted the need for a standard syllabus and school system inspection. This subsequently brought about the new standard examination for primary and levels beyond primary education (Seotsanyana, 2002).

Nyaba-nyaba shares similar sentiments by pointing out that the curricula and subject content in those days was modelled along the lines of the Cape Town province of South Africa Department of Education. The model itself had to advance white supremacy and respond to the white's interest. However, and rather unfortunate, the model proved irrelevant to the Basotho learners. It appeared less relevant to their educational needs. The turning point in this history could be in 1953 when South Africa introduced the Apartheid-inspired Bantu Education. Ever since that time, Lesotho alongside sister countries have managed to design their own syllabuses (Nyaba-nyaba, 2002). Lesotho's sister countries involve Botswana and Swaziland respectively.

## **2.52 POST-COLONIAL ERA EDUCATION**

Nyaba-nyaba (2002) states that ever since the attainment of independence from Britain in 1966, the Lesotho education system has always been a collaborative effort three role players. These include the community, government and the different churches. The churches in this case enjoy the biggest ownership. In a nutshell, the Nyaba-nyaba refers to this type of ownership sharing as 'three-legged pot'. Also to note is that many of the government schools were initially established by the communities but later on inherited by the government. The graphical representation of this type of ownership is illustrated in table 5.

Seotsanyana's confirmation is that even during post-colonial period churches still play an instrumental role of owning about 90 percent of the schools. The government owns only 10 percent. Ever since independence, varying successive governments have in vain attempted to centralise education of Lesotho out of power of the churches. However, until the present day schools' management is still to a larger extent in the hands of churches. The development of curriculum and syllabi is on the other hand under the Ministry of Education and Training through the National Curriculum Development Centre. Churches own buildings and the land while government plays a role of subsidising fees as well as paying teachers. This indeed is a proof of the essential role played by churches in education. They also have control of amount of fees to be paid in their respective schools. This situation has lasted too long as the

author observes, and this is likely to remain so until another system of education is introduced in the Mountain Kingdom ( Seotsanyana, 2002).

According to Seotsanyana (2002), the post independent regime had done quite terrible in as far as educational developments are concerned. Thus, when the new regime came to power after independence, it kept on inheriting a school system that was missionary inspired and also not related to the development skills and aptitudes needed. These needs were in the best interest of economic development and improvement in the standard of living. Seotsanyana is particularly critical that the Lesotho education system typically prepares student to proceed to the next level but does not prepare them for employment. Subsequently, Seotsanyana (2002) highlights that in an effort to provide a more relevant education, the government established the first national Five-Year Plan. The main objectives of the plan were outlined. These include:

- to gear the development of the education system to the needs of the manpower for economic development by lessening the academic bias of the system;
- to improve the efficiency of the educational system regarding numbers and the quality of its output in relation to money spend on it;
- to use scholarship as a way of channeling people into those fields of training needed for economic growth; and
- to strengthen government control and supervision of education through suitable educational plan.

<b>Name of Proprietor</b>	<b>Number of Primary Schools</b>	<b>Number of Secondary Schools</b>
Roman Catholic Church (RCC)	505	73
Lesotho Evangelical Church (LEC)	476	61
Anglican Church of Lesotho (ACL)	173	32
Other churches	56	13
Government and Community Schools	30	16
<b>Total</b>	<b>1240</b>	<b>195</b>
Source: Nyaba-nyaba (2002)		

Table 5: Lesotho schools ownership trends

When five year term came into end, it became evident that there had been little progress made by the plan through the Ministry of Education and Training. Subsequently, the First Five Year Plan came to an end and was replaced by the Second Five year, which retained many of the objectives which were contained in the previous plan (Nyaba-nyaba, 2002). When comparing the two national initiatives, the author is of the opinion that it became quite obvious that only objective which did not appear in the first plan was the emphasis on improving science and mathematics subjects in the secondary school. What also remains obvious as the author observes, is that aims are formulated in all national plans but the ways of attaining them are never clear. Subsequently, the system of education finds itself in a dilemma of similar challenges now and then. A very critical question of relevance in the national education system cuts across the entire plans. For instance, in what came to be known as the Fourth Five Plan, later on, the general education problems were identified. Nyaba-nyaba once again, outlines them in this manner:

The education system of Lesotho suffers from the woes of declining standards from time to time. The system also lacks relevance with regard to social and occupational

realities. What becomes obvious also is the rate of drop-out and repetition. Besides, the education system is characterised by poor facilities and staffing at primary schooling. Moreover, the education system is characterised by high costs to both parents and the state. One visible and rather shocking downside about the education of Lesotho is its incompetent management and professional supervision. Last but not least, the education system does not provide effective quality control owing to the nature of assessments and lack of other means of determining learners' achievements (Nyabanyaba, 2002).

### 2.53 THE CURRENT STRUCTURE OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM IN LESOTHO

As it transpires in many parts around the world, the education planning in the context of Lesotho is executed by the Ministry of Education and training.

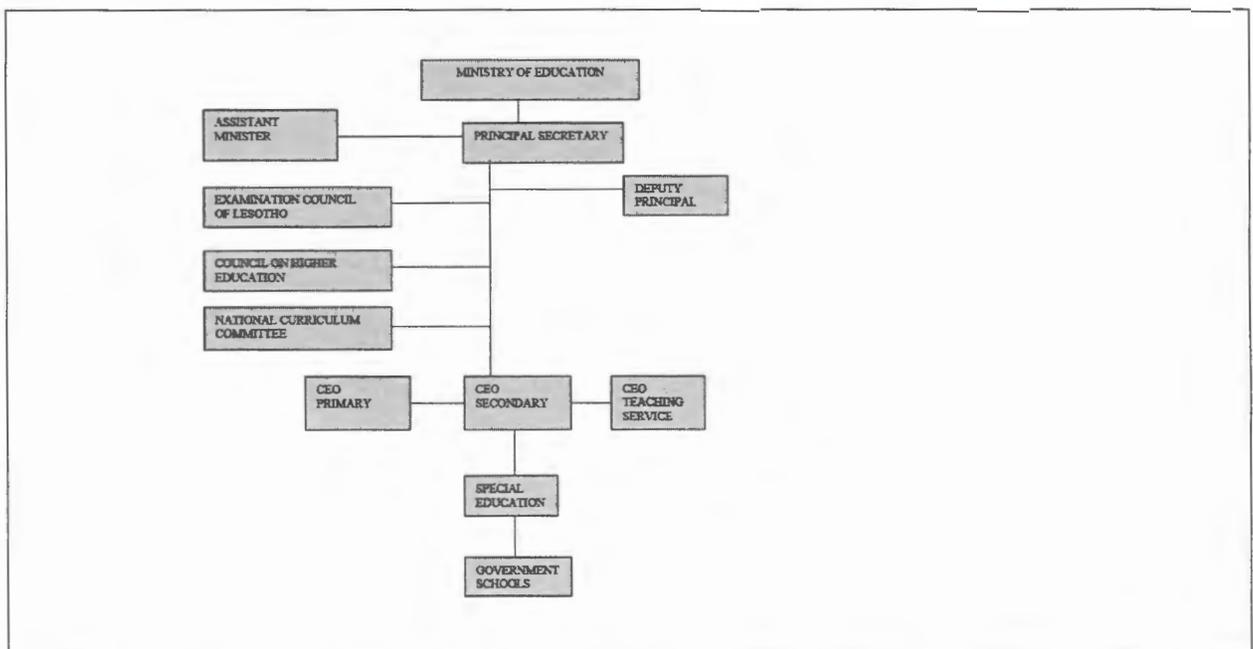


Figure 7: Organization structure of the Ministry of Education and Training

Source: Nyati-Ramahobo (1999:56)

Figure 7: Organization structure of the ministry of education and training

Similar to the case of Botswana, the process of planning in education in Lesotho regarding responsibilities and role players is done at the highest level in the hierarchy before it moves down to the level of implementation. The ministry of education plays an instrumental role in this regard. Thus, it is responsible for managing and providing regulation of education and training in the country. The Ministry is led by a minister and assistant minister of education. Directly under these officers, there is the Principal Secretary whose primary duty is to serve as the administrative head and chief accounting officer in the ministry. The principal secretary is being assisted by deputy principal secretary; five Chief Education officers who are responsible for elementary, junior secondary, teaching service, curriculum services and tertiary education. Besides, role playing also involves two directors. One director is solely responsible for vocational and technical education while another looks after training and planning. All these accountable officers have departments comprising programmes that make up operational units of the education ministry (Nyati-Ramahobo, 1999:56).

The Ministry of Education Report (2004:4) takes the discussion further by noting that the secretary principal's office in collaboration with the planning unit, assume the daily duties of the ministry. The ministry provides professional advice and also helps departments in ascertaining the viability and feasibility for projects. As its primary duty, the office is given the role of making sure that the entire plans for the ministry are in harmony with the national plans.

Ever since independence in 1966, Lesotho has always placed education and further training among priority areas. This has always been in the best interest of economic growth and people empowerment. The ministry's policy was to ensure a visible reform of the education system of Lesotho. In accordance, the reform was supposed to include improvement of the management of education, improvement in terms of quality and efficacy, supply of basic facilities and upgrading of the teaching force (Ministry of Education and Training Report, 2004:7).

The desire to provide basic primary education for all Basotho Children eventually led to introduction of Free Primary Education in the year 2000. The government did not only

see this initiative as a step towards attaining education for all, but also as a major step in reducing poverty. By removing fees from parents was a key commitment to providing equitable basic education for all (Avenstrup *et al.* 2004).

The Ministry of Education and Training Report (2004:17) emphasises the imperative requirement for Lesotho to cement the idea of access to education and develop curriculum which adequately addresses the national development priorities. This in essence promotes entrepreneurial, life, technical and vocational skills. The report also shows that about three main cycles exist within the education system in Lesotho. The first of these consists of primary education that addresses seven years of primary education. The second involves the secondary education. The last has to do with the final level at tertiary education.

## **2.54 CONCLUSION**

Proficiency in English language has indeed become an essential stipulation in the modern global context. English is by far a dominant language in socio-economic affairs in the majority of countries, including Lesotho. Besides, English by far remains a language of wider communication. In the light of this vital role played by English, its teaching and learning remains work in progress and a matter of urgency. This is in the best interest of building the required competence in English language. In order to attain this noble goal of a successful teaching and learning of English language, of critical importance is also to take into consideration the idea that language learning gets evidenced and reflected in the ability to communicate appropriately. It also requires special consideration. This is indeed fundamental for enhancing future professional's linguistic abilities. This will in turn, be a necessity of the competitive world market. Communicative competence is an extremely essential skill at work, in a career, for academic research, business or in socio-economic terms. Enhancing language proficiency through education is the best approach in today's environment. Unfortunately the implementation of this attempt has failed in many countries. This chapter therefore attempted to explore the key concepts in language and communication, which form the basis of this research study. The chapter concluded by exploring language planning and policy debates as well as relevant language theories

as central frame works. The subsequent chapter deals with research methodology and design.

## **Chapter 3**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter mainly focused on how the research was conducted. The research study investigated proficiency in English language and communication for professional practice in Maseru, respectively. The chapter therefore attempted to describe the research methodology used, the target population, the sampling process and sample size, research instruments, data collection procedure, data analysis and problems experienced in the field.

#### **3.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

According to Leedy (1999: 5), research is a procedure by which an attempt is made to find systematically, and with the support of demonstrable fact, the answer to a question or the resolution of a problem. Kerlinger (2002: 8) further defines research as the systematic, controlled, empirical and critical investigation of hypothetical propositions about presumed relations among natural phenomena.

Kerlinger (2002:118), on the other hand, defines research methodology as a philosophy of a research process. This philosophy includes the assumptions and values that serve as the rationale of a study and the standards the study uses for interpreting the data and reading conclusions. Research methodology basically deals with researcher's approach to the entire process of the research. Closely related to the research methodology is the research design. Barbie (1992:89) defines research design as the planning of any research from the first step to the last. The author further states that the research design addresses the planning of scientific enquiry. Thus, research design is part of the entire process of the methodology.

According to Williams (2007: 201) the type of research approach determines the nature of data that one considers to be of value. Williams further notes that the two major types of research approach are thus also referred to as quantitative and qualitative research

approaches. Williams (2007:202) is of the view that quantitative research is typically taken to be exemplified by the social survey and by experimental investigations while qualitative research tends to be associated with participant observation and unstructured, in-depth interviewing. This research study therefore comprised both quantitative and qualitative approaches. In the qualitative phase of the study, a reasonable number of different stakeholders in the form of policy makers were interviewed in a face to face encounter. The quantitative phase did a survey on the population of Maseru community who work in both private and government organisations. Thus, a sample was made to answer questionnaires and findings were analysed using MoonStats. The combination of these approaches provided accurate results from adequate information captured from respondents.

### **3.3 STUDY PARADIGMS**

Qualitative research method was adopted in this study. In this method, data was presented in the form of words and images from documents, observations and transcripts. According to Neuman (2006:151), qualitative research relies on interpretive or critical social science. Qualitative studies apply logic in practice (the logic of how research is actually carried out) and follow a non-linear research path. Qualitative researchers interpret the world through cases and contexts. Their emphasis lies on conducting detailed examinations of cases that arise in the natural flow of social life. Qualitative researchers try to present authentic interpretations that are sensitive to specific social-historical contexts. Dooley (1995:259) defines qualitative research as social research based on field observations analysed without statistics. It is open and flexible in virtually all respects, primarily because the research process is influenced by the respondent. In qualitative research, the researcher maintains direct or close contact with the respondent and uses a dynamic approach while investigating phenomena. Qualitative research is holistic (studies the whole unit) and places priority on studying similarities (Sarantakos, 2007:55).

This study also had a quantitative component. In this method, data was presented as numbers garnered from precise measurement. Most quantitative researchers rely on a positivist approach to social science. They apply reconstructed logic (the logic of how to

undertake research that is highly organised and restated in an idealised, formal, and systematic language), and follow a non-linear research path. Quantitative researchers speak the language of variables and hypotheses. Their focus lies on precisely measuring variables and testing hypotheses that are linked to general causal explanations (Neuman, 2006:151). According to Sarantakos (2007:55), the purpose of quantitative research is to explain social life. It is nomothetic (interested in establishing law-like statements, causes, consequences) and its primary function is to test theories. Quantitative research employs an objective approach and is etiologial (interested in why things happen) and a historical (interested in explanations over space and time). It is a closed approach (i.e. strictly planned) and the research process is predetermined. In quantitative research, the researcher maintains a distance from the respondent. The approach is static and rigid and employs an inflexible process. Priority is placed on studying differences (Sarantakos 2007:55).

### **3.3.1 Content analysis**

Content analysis is a detailed and systematic examination of the contents of a particular body of material in order to identify patterns, themes or biases (Leedy & Ormrod 2005:142; and Neuman, 2006:322). Content analyses are typically performed on human forms of communication, such as books, newspapers, films, television, the arts, music, video tapes of human interactions, and transcripts of conversations (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:142). According to Neuman (2006:323), content analysis is non-reactive because the creators of the content do not know whether or not anyone will analyse it. Neuman believes that content analysis lets a researcher discover and document specific features in the content of a large amount of material that may otherwise go unnoticed.

Payne (2004:51) asserts that content analysis was originally a quantitative way of evaluating written texts. The author explains that this was gradually extended to apply to literature, autobiographies and other documents, with the emphasis shifting to qualitative priorities like interpretation and subjective meaning. As it stands, Neuman (2006:323) observes that there are now quantitative and qualitative versions of content analysis. The author mentions that in quantitative content analysis, a researcher uses objective and systematic counting and recording procedures to produce a numerical

description of the symbolic content in a text. This includes counting how frequently certain words appear in a text. A researcher using content analysis in a quantitative framework employs objective and systematic coding, counting and recording to come up with a quantitative description.

### **3.4 RESEARCH METHOD AND DESIGN**

Methods are tools for data generation and analysis. Practically, methods are the main tools of social scientists and are chosen on the basis of criteria related to or even dictated by the major elements of the methodology in which they are embedded, such as perception of reality, definition of science, perception of human beings, purpose of research, and type of research units (Sarantakos, 2007:34).

This study used both qualitative and quantitative approaches in a survey research method. Survey research sampled a number of respondents who all had to answer the same questions. Through a survey, researchers can measure many variables, test multiple hypotheses, and infer temporal order from questions about past behaviour, experiences or characteristics (Neuman, 2003:276).

The study applied mixed methods because the researcher wanted to get the different viewpoints of the target population. The researcher understood that the qualitative method would provide detailed data which was relevant when soliciting various views from respondents, while also using quantitative method made it possible to solicit information that had not been covered by another method. Furthermore, adopting both approaches ensured reliability in the study. The two methods may counter check each other ofcourse.

According to Neuman (2003:276), survey research enabled a researcher to gather information about the target population without undertaking a complete enumeration (details). This study adopted the same approach; only a sample of the population was studied and the results from this group were used to generalise ideas about the entire population in question. The author goes on and defines survey as collecting information on an object with a spatial scope through observation, to such an extent that potential

changes of the object during the observation are minor. Neuman maintains that survey research is undertaken either with questions in a written questionnaire (mailed or handed out to people) or during an interview, when respondents' answers are recorded. The researcher does not manipulate the situation or variables (as in an experiment) - people simply answer questions. A survey researcher often uses a sample or a smaller group of selected people (e.g. 250 residents) and then generalises the results onto a larger group (e.g. 5,000 residents) from which the smaller group was chosen.

### **3.4.1 Population**

Neuman (2006:224) defines a population as a large pool of cases or elements, such as persons, groups of people, organisations, written documents, symbolic messages, or even the social actions under investigation. The author further defines a population as the abstract idea of a large group of many cases from which a researcher draws a sample and onto which results from a sample are ultimately generalised. Infact, the term universe is sometimes used interchangeably with population (Neuman, 2006:224). Dooley (1995: 133) sees a population as the process whereby researchers generalise from their sample all potential elements. The target population is a concretely specified large group of many cases from which a researcher draws a sample and onto which results from a sample are generalised (Neuman, 2006:224).

This study targeted the community members who were employed by government and private organisations in Maseru, the capital city of Lesotho. The target population for this study was the employees within private and government organisations. These stakeholders contributed in different respects in the communication process.

## **3.5 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

It is the duty of any researcher to consider the basic rights of any participant when they agree to participate in a research study. All human citizens have a right to privacy and protection from physical and psychological harm. The voluntary participation principle also implies that none can be coerced into participation in any type of research. 'Captive

audiences' – in prisons, universities, and places like that, are a point in case in mind here (Polit & Back, 2004:141).

Informed consent as a requirement for research processes is also inherent to this notion of voluntary participation. Fundamentally, this premise is transparency based code of conduct which stipulates that all prospective participants need to be made fully aware of procedures. Prospective research participants must be fully informed about the procedures and hazards that may be contained in the research process, and must give their consent to participate, and be fully aware of the right to exit the process at any point. As part of these ethical standards, researchers are required not put participants in situations where they might be at risk of harm subsequent to their participation. Harm can manifest in a number of ways, either physically or psychologically. There are two standards that are applied in order to help protect the privacy of research participants. Almost all research studies guarantee the participants' confidentiality – they are assured that identifying information will not be made available to anyone who is not directly involved in the study. The stricter standard is the principle of anonymity which essentially means that the participant will remain anonymous throughout the study – even to the researchers themselves (Polit & Back, 2004:141). In this study, all these ethical principles were adhered to.

### **3.6 RELIABILITY**

Reliability concentrates on research outcomes and is directly associated with the research findings. Reliability in research studies describes the degree to which the used is capable of producing similar outcomes on repeated measures. Reliability of measures used under normal circumstances is specific to the context in which the very measures are applied (Welman, Kruger & Mitchel, 2005). The researcher therefore explained the proposed communication skills to the internal publics in various companies. This was done in an attempt to provide better understanding for prospective respondents.

### **3.7 VALIDITY**

Validity in research is crucial. It deals with the findings that should be accurate and most importantly should represent the results of the very research study. In essence, the research tool used to measure the variable must be capable of providing the outcomes that are consonant to the research tool utilised (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005). Validity in the study was therefore projected through the study objectives. Internal public in private and public organizations were questioned in order to ascertain usefulness of English language mastery in their occupations.

### **3.8 COUNTRY OVERVIEW**

The Kingdom of Lesotho is a small landlocked country of 30,355 square kilometres enclosed by the Republic of South Africa. It is situated at the highest part of the Drakensberg escarpment, on the eastern rim of the South African plateau. Lesotho is divided into 10 administrative districts with a population of 1, 8 million (BoS 2006). About 80 percent of the population lives in the rural areas. According to 2002 and 2003 bureau of statistics household survey, life expectancy was estimated at 44.6 years of age (BoS, 2006).



Source: Adapted from Bos (2006)

**Figure 8: Map of Lesotho**

The GDP per person was estimated at one US dollars in 2005 and more than 50 percent was estimated to be living below the poverty line of one hundred and forty nine Maluti and ninety one cents (M149, 91) per month (BoS 2006). There are two official languages in Lesotho, Sesotho and English. However, the usage of English is restricted to urban centers and official use in schools and in businesses.

### 3.8.1 Historical background

The Basotho nation was founded by the great king Moshoeshe 1 during the upheaval periods of Lifaqane (Mfecane). Moshoeshe 1 gathered together various groups of people. These groups of people were quite distinct in terms of culture and language. The various groups of people that Moshoeshe gathered together were people who were fleeing from a series of wars that were happening in the region. The groups that



were fleeing from these wars involved Basia, Basotho, Bataung, Batlokoa, Baphuthi, Bathepu and Basia (Nyaba-nyaba, 2002:15). The majority of these groups spoke Sesotho; hence Sesotho became the official language of Lesotho. It is also likely that around this period, the Basotho had to choose a language that will serve as a national language to represent unity. One controversial issue could also be that an attempt to declare Sesotho a national language inevitably gave higher status to the language speakers over others. Shohamy (2006:26) refers to this situation as 'the public representation of the nation-state'.

During the period 1836, groups of Boers started invading Moshoeshoe's land. The new enemies annexed vast area belonging to Moshoeshoe. Consequently, there was a huge tension between Moshoeshoe's people and the Boers. The tension between Basotho and the new Boers enemies lasted for quite some time until in 1865 when Moshoeshoe eventually appeared to the British for protection. Consequently, in 1868, Lesotho became a British protectorate (Nyika, 2007). Thus, Lesotho became a British colony until October 1966 when she was officially granted her independence. The year 2016 marked a jubilee of 50 years of independence in the mountain kingdom of Lesotho.

### **3.9 SAMPLE SIZE**

As this study was aimed at generalising of the findings, the sample drawn had to be representative of the population of Maseru, the capital city of Lesotho. Du Plooy (2002:231) notes that if one is not aiming at generalising, there are no rules for sample size this depends on what one's purpose is, in some cases a large sample will be wise, and in others a single case, provided it is information rich, is sufficient. Welman, Kruger & Mitchell (2005:72) affirm that much larger samples are normally used in large-scale surveys than in experimental research. The selection of the sample size for this study was based on Gay's (1996:125) guidelines. According to Gay: (i) the larger the population size, the smaller the percentage of the population required to get a representative sample; (ii) for smaller populations ( $N < 100$ ) there is little point in sampling (iii) if the population size is around 1500, 20% should be sampled; and (iv) beyond 5000, the population size is irrelevant and a sample size of 400 is adequate.

### **3.10 SAMPLING**

Bless & Higson-Smith (2000:84) state that sampling is the technique by which a sample is drawn from the population. The authors state that sample is the subset of the whole population which is actually investigated by a researcher and whose characteristic will be generalized to the entire population. According to Leedy & Ormrod (2005:199) the sampling approach can be categorized into two groups; probability and non-probability.

Leedy & Ormrod (2005:199) explain that probability or random selection means choosing a sample in such a way that each member of the population has equal chance of being selected. Probability methods are simple random, stratified random, cluster and systematic random samplings. Leedy & Ormrod (2005:206) state that in non-probability sampling, the researcher has no way of forecasting or guaranteeing that each element of the population will be represented in the sample. Non probability methods are quota, purposive, sequential and snowball samplings.

In this study, probability sampling based on cluster sampling was adopted. Probability sampling was chosen because it had the advantage of eliminating bias and could also cancel out the effect of venomous variables that can affect the validity of the results. According to Neuman (2006:227), in random sampling a researcher creates a sampling frame and uses a pure random process to select cases so that each sampling element in the population will have an equal probability of being selected. For this study, a sampling frame was drawn from government as well as private organisations, but all made a significant contribution in the communication process.

#### **3.10.1 The sampling frame and the sampling size**

POPULATION SIZE	SAMPLE SIZE
INFINITY	384
500 000	384
100 000	383
50 000	381
10 000	370
5 000	357
3 000	341
2 000	322
1 000	278
Source: Duplooy (2002:104)	

Table 6: Simple random sample size at 95 percent confidence level

### **3.11 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS**

Data collection is a process of gathering research data about the research topic. This is done in a systematic way to enable statistical analysis. Research instruments are the tools used to collect data for a research project. There are various types of data collection/research instruments, such as questionnaires, interviews, observation, and document or record reviews. According to Marshall & Rosen (1995:104), the principle of data collection is that the instrument should be related to the type of information being sought. Such techniques should be efficient, practical, feasible and ethical. They should enable the researcher to study issues in depth and detail. As mentioned earlier, questionnaires were selected as the data collection instrument under the survey research method.

#### **3.11.1 Questionnaire**

The most convenient method of collecting both quantitative and qualitative information from respondents is by asking questions. The questionnaire is a method of data collection and is a flexible tool. However, it must be used carefully in order to fulfill the requirements of a particular piece of research (William 2007: 236). According to Aina (2002:63), questionnaire is a research instrument consisting of a series of questions and other prompts for the purpose of gathering information from respondents. Aina also notes that a questionnaire is generally categorised as closed ended and open ended questionnaire. In this study, a questionnaire with both open ended and closed ended questions was used to obtain quantitative data from respondents.

The questionnaire for respondents consisted of the following sections:

- Section A: requested permission to use responses for academic research

- Section B: probed how English language is utilised in the corporate context in Lesotho, and if there is any importance to achieve proficiency in order to remain efficient and viable in the employment situation.

### **3.11.2 Interviews**

The goal of survey research interviews is to obtain accurate information from other persons. The interview is a short-term, secondary social interaction between two strangers with the explicit purpose of one (the interviewer) obtaining specific information from the other [the interviewee] (Neuman, 2006:304). The main advantage of the interview schedule is that the respondents get time to face the researcher, and thus more in-depth information is likely to be obtained.

In a survey interview, the interviewer asks questions. The respondents share their feelings and opinions to the interviewer. The interviewer is non-judgmental and does not try to change the respondent's opinions or beliefs, although he or she does try to obtain direct answers to specific questions. The interviewer avoids making ritual responses that may influence a respondent and makes every attempt to seek genuine answers. The respondent provides almost all the information. The interviewer controls the topic, direction, and pace by keeping the respondent "on task" and containing irrelevant diversions. The interviewer attempts to maintain a consistently warm, but serious and objective tone throughout. Respondents should not evade questions and are expected to provide trustful, thoughtful answers (Neuman, 2006:305). Interviews can either be conducted face-to-face, telephonically or via email (Neuman, 2006:300).

In this study, interviews were conducted with members of policy makers in government departments. Interviews' time and dates were communicated in advance to the interviewee. According to Neuman (2006: 140), the personal interview method has a number of advantages over mail surveys or telephone interviews. The benefits of this method include the following:

- it is more accurate

- it generates the most amount of data
- obtains the highest data amounts
- it remains the most flexible method
- it provides maximum control over respondents
- it has an optimal questionnaire return rate as opposed to the actual questionnaire tool.

### **3.12 PILOT STUDY**

According to Williman (2001:238), a questionnaire should be pre-tested on a small number of respondents. Williman is of the view that it is best to test it on people of a type similar to that of the intended sample, so as to anticipate any problems of comprehension or other sources of confusion. In this study, a pilot study was conducted to identify if there were any problems or confusion regarding a questionnaire.

### **3.13 DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION**

Once data is collected, it is essential that it is organised in such a way that conclusions may be drawn. According to Sarantakos (2007:313), the process of data processing and of converting raw data into meaningful statements is otherwise known as the analysis and interpretation of data. According to Neuman (2003:156), data analysis is a technique used to gather and analyse the content of text. Content refers to words, meanings and pictures, symbols, ideas, themes or messages that can be communicated. In this research project, MoonStats programme was used to analyse quantitative data. The content analysis was used to analyse qualitative responses.

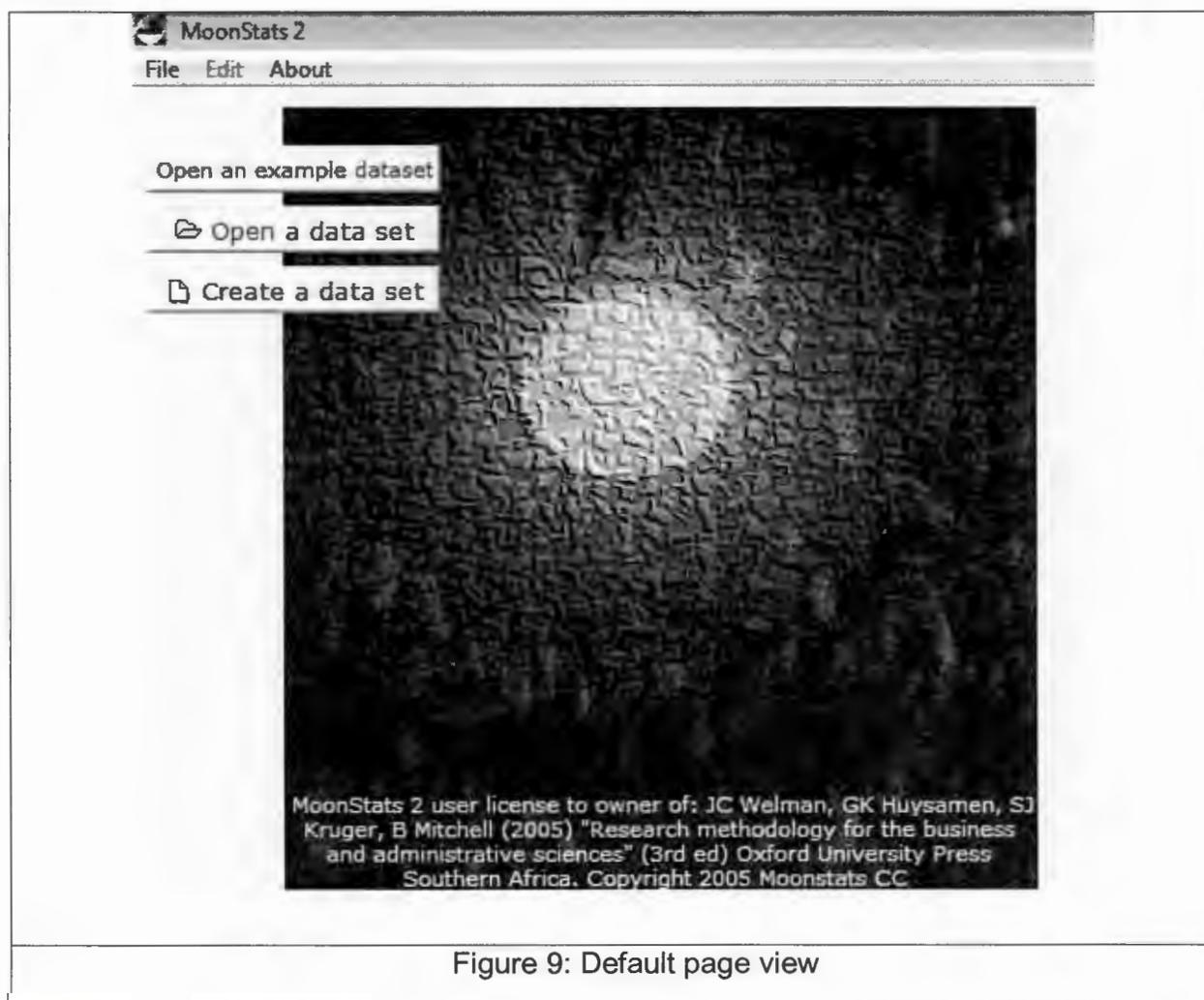
#### **3.13.1 MoonStats**

MoonStats is a stand-alone statistical software program which works in Windows 95 or higher. It is designed for novice and advanced computer users and provides the

statistical tools for data exploration and data description. MoonStats allows for data entry of numeric values into a data sheet of up to 100 variables and 1000 cases (units of analysis) (Welman, Kruger & Mitchel, 2005:319).

### 3.13.2 Setting up the coding parameters in MoonStats

When the MoonStats programme was launched, it immediately opened the default page. The researcher then chose “create a data set” to create a new data set wherein the responses could be captured.



The tab written 'create a data set' was opened and this allowed the researcher to create and save a new data set. Figure 16 below gives an illustration of the snap shot.



Figure 10: File creation window

The new window immediately popped up after the file has been saved. This stage enabled the researcher to code and enter data from the questionnaire. This was done by giving fields names for details that the respondents will provide when answering. Figure 25 below gives an illustration.

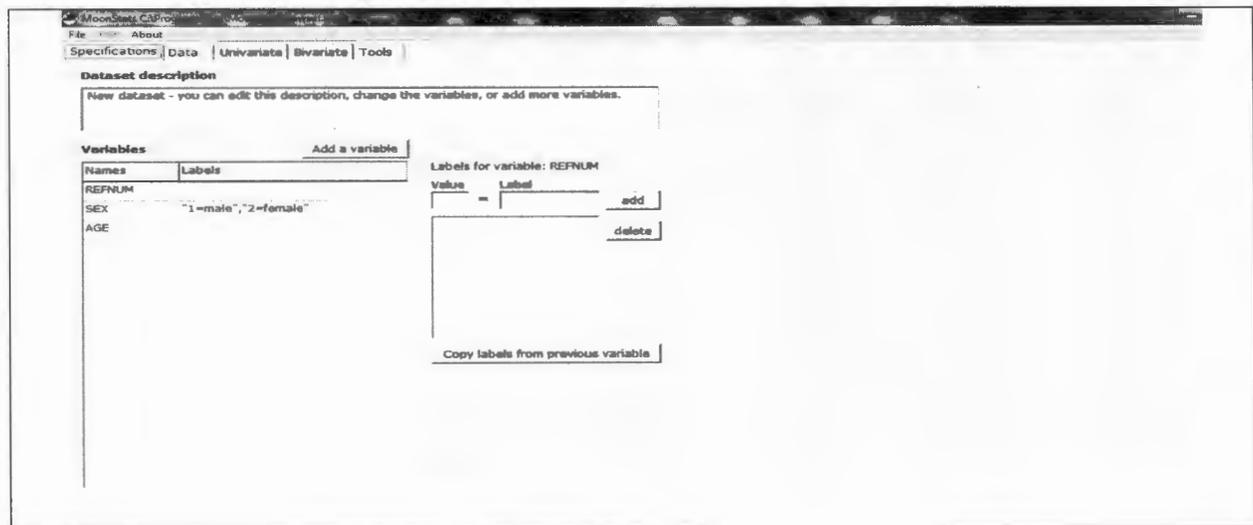


Figure 11: Names and values of variables

The next step was to give the full names and values of the all variables as Figure 12 shows below.

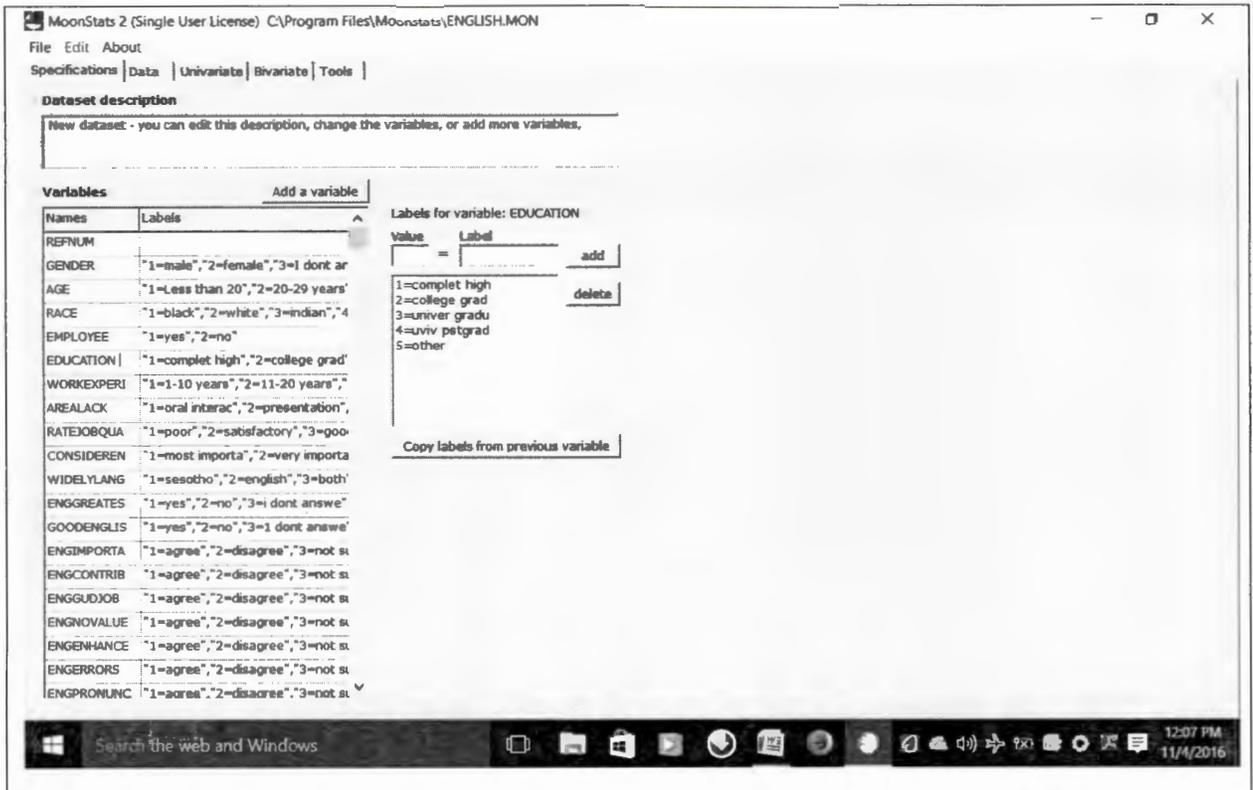


Figure 12: Inserted data

When all required data had been inserted on the data sheet, the worksheet was saved. At this stage, the researcher was able to go to data sheet view where it was possible to cross-check information and made any necessary editions. Figure below demonstrates the data view sheet.

MoonStats C:\Program Files\Moonstats\ENGLISH.MON

File Edit About

Specifications **Data** Univariate Bivariate Tools

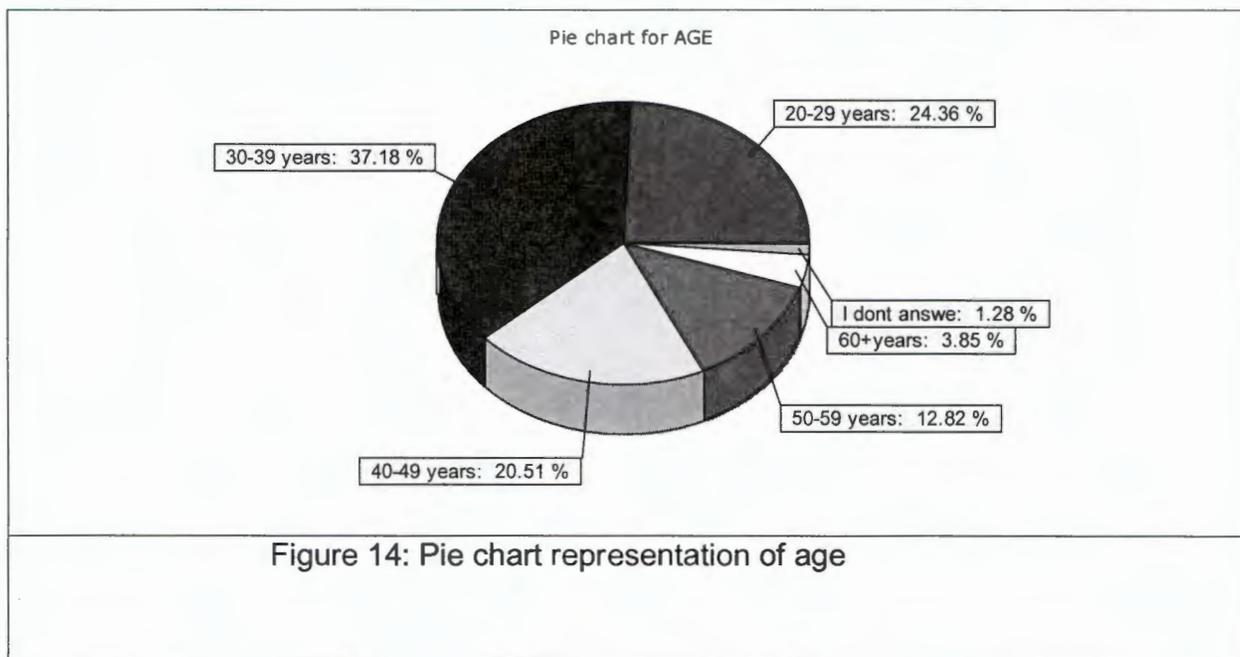
REFNUM	GENDER	AGE	RACE	EMPLOYEE	EDUCATION	WORKEXPER	AREALACK	RATEDORQA	CONSIDEREN	WIDELYLANG	ENGCREATES	GOODENGLIS	ENE
1	2	2	1	1	1	1	5	3	2	3	1	1	1
2	2	2	1	1	3	1	5	4	2	3	2	1	1
3	1	4	1	1	4	3	1	4	3	1	2	1	1
4	1	2	1	1	3	1	5	3	3	3	1	1	1
5	2	5	1	1	3	2	6	3	2	3	1	3	1
6	1	3	1	1	3	1	5	2	2	3	1	1	1
7	3	7	6	1	4	3	5	3	2	1	1	1	1
8	2	4	1	1	3	3	2	3	2	1	1	2	1
9	2	3	1	1	4	1	5	2	3	3	2	1	1
10	2	3	1	1	3	1	5	4	1	3	1	1	1
11	1	3	1	1	4	2	5	4	1	3	1	1	1
12	1	3	1	1	3	1	5	3	1	2	1	1	1
13	1	3	1	1	4	1	5	2	3	3	1	1	1
14	1	4	1	1	3	3	1	4	3	2	1	1	1
15	1	4	1	1	3	2	6	3	2	3	1	1	1
16	2	2	1	1	5	6	6	2	1	3	1	1	1
17	1	2	1	2	1	6	6	1	3	1	1	2	1
18	2	5	1	1	2	4	3	3	2	2	1	1	1
19	2	2	1	1	2	1	5	4	1	1	2	1	3
20	1	2	1	1	2	1	6	2	1	2	1	1	1
21	1	2	1	1	3	1	5	2	1	3	2	1	2
22	2	3	1	1	2	1	6	3	3	3	2	3	2
23	2	2	1	1	2	1	5	2	2	3	1	1	1
24	1	3	1	1	2	1	6	3	2	2	1	1	1
25	3	6	1	1	1	1	1	3	4	3	2	2	2
26	2	2	3	1	2	1	5	2	1	3	1	1	1
27	2	3	1	1	2	1	3	1	1	3	1	3	1
28	2	3	1	1	2	1	1	4	1	2	1	3	1
29	2	2	1	1	3	1	4	3	1	2	1	3	1

print data | restore previous date

Search the web in Windows | 12:10 PM 11/4/2016

Figure 13: Data sheet view

From the data sheet view the researcher was able to click on other tabs to execute any command so that a graphical representation of any statistical information was produced. The presentation of information was in a form of a table, graph, or pie chart. Figure below demonstrates the data view sheet.



### 3.14 CONSTRAINTS

The chosen research method achieved the desired results. However, the researcher encountered some challenges in the process. Prior to going to the field, the researcher was required – for ethical considerations - to seek permission to undertake the study at the targeted departments and ministries, and this step alone took quite some time to finalise.

The researcher also faced some difficulties during the field study. Firstly, some respondents did not honour their appointments when the researcher set out to receive questionnaires or provide clarity on some sections of the questionnaire that they could not understand. The researcher would arrive on time for scheduled appointments, and found out that there was a meeting at the same time as that of the appointments, or some of the respondents were absent from work without informing the researcher. Secondly, the researcher had to print and distribute questionnaires repeatedly because some respondents had lost their questionnaires. Other respondents ‘forgot’ to answer the questionnaires although they were given plenty of time. A number of respondents either lost or did not answer the questionnaire.

### **3.15 CONCLUSION**

This chapter had discussed the data collection methods employed in the study. The targeted population in this study comprised of individuals, government and private organisations (Education and Health departments as well as networking companies) from the city of Maseru. The study utilised cluster random sampling method to select the respondents from this population. Interviews were also scheduled for policy makers, and cluster sampling was used to select the interviewees. The subsequent chapter discussed the analysis and interpretation of findings.

## Chapter 4

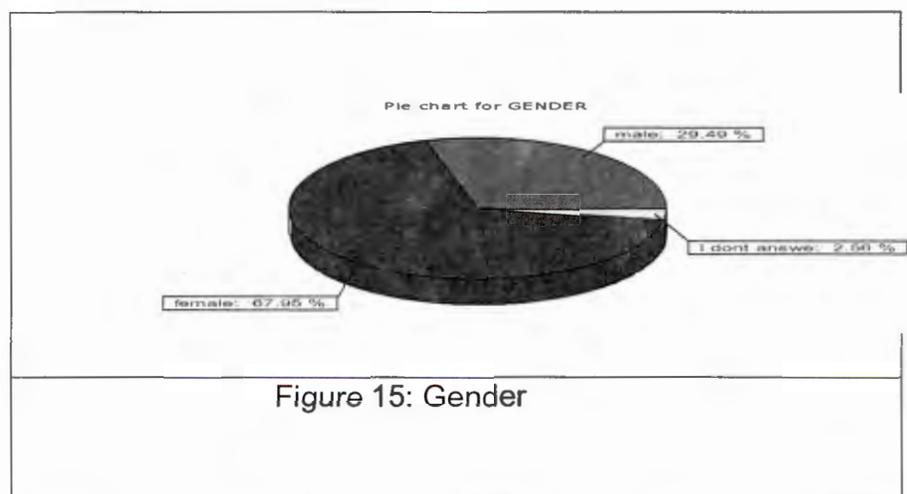
### DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed the methods adopted to conduct the research, and how to set up the MoonStats programme in order to capture and analyse the data. This chapter presented the analysis and interpretation of data from the target population. The aim of the chapter was to analyse and interpret the responses in order to make the data meaningful. The Study aimed to investigate proficiency in English and communication for professional practice in Maseru, Lesotho. Data analysis does not provide entire answers to research questions but it is data interpretation that clearly outlines the achievement of objectives set and provides useful answers. The study targeted the community of Maseru, particularly those who use English as an official corporate language. Statistical and graphical techniques were used in order to make captured data more understandable.

#### 4.2 GENDER

Figure 15 below displays that the survey included both male and female respondents. They were selected randomly using cluster sampling technique and therefore their participation rate varied in terms of percentage.



According to figure 15 above, 29.49% comprising males and 67.95% of females participated and revealed their sex status in the survey. This was achieved through a cluster random sampling technique. However, a proportion constituting 2.56% chose not to reveal their sex status

### 4.3 AGE

Figure 16 below illustrates the various age categories of respondents.

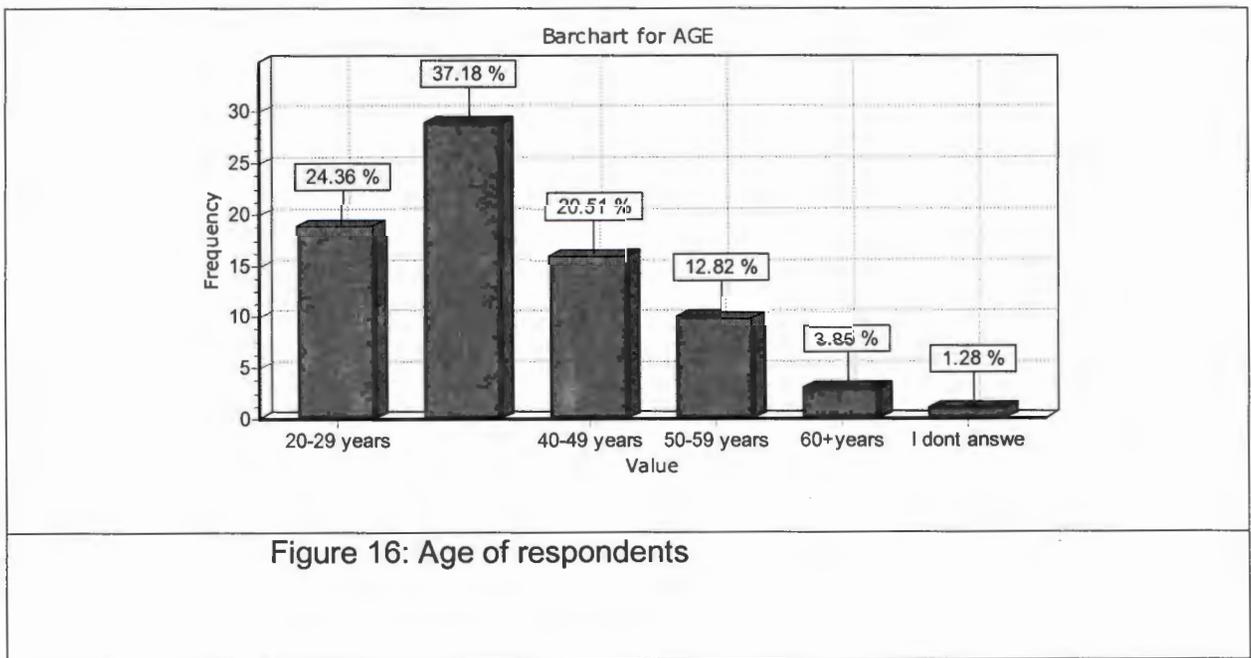


Figure 16: Age of respondents

Respondents in the age categories 30 to 39 made the greatest number of participation (37.18%) in the survey. Respondents in the age categories 20 to 29 followed behind with about 24.36% of overall participation. A portion of 20.51% comprised respondents in the age categories 40 to 49 respectively. Respondents in the age category 50 to 59 years old made up an overall participation of 12.82% in the study. Participants in the age 60 and above constituted 3.85%. Last but not least, a proportion constituting 1.28% respondents chose not to reveal their age.

#### 4.4 RACE GROUP

Figure 17 below assessed the respondents' race group. They were asked to indicate their race group.

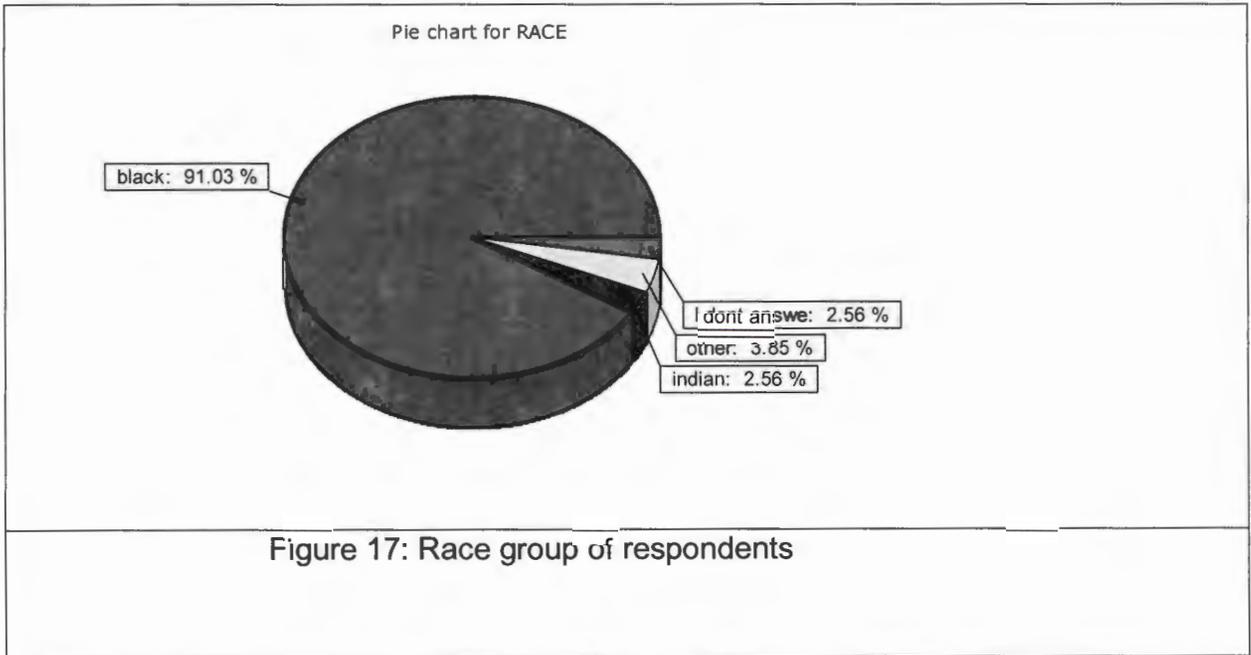


Figure 17 above indicates that there was a considerable imbalance in the distribution of racial groups. Of greater importance is also to note that the study was conducted in a non-multi-racial society. The survey involved 91.03% of blacks, 3.85% of other race groups. Other race group in this context referred to race groups other than blacks, whites or Indians. The survey also included about 2.56% of Indians. Another percentage of 2.56% respondents chose not to reveal their race group.

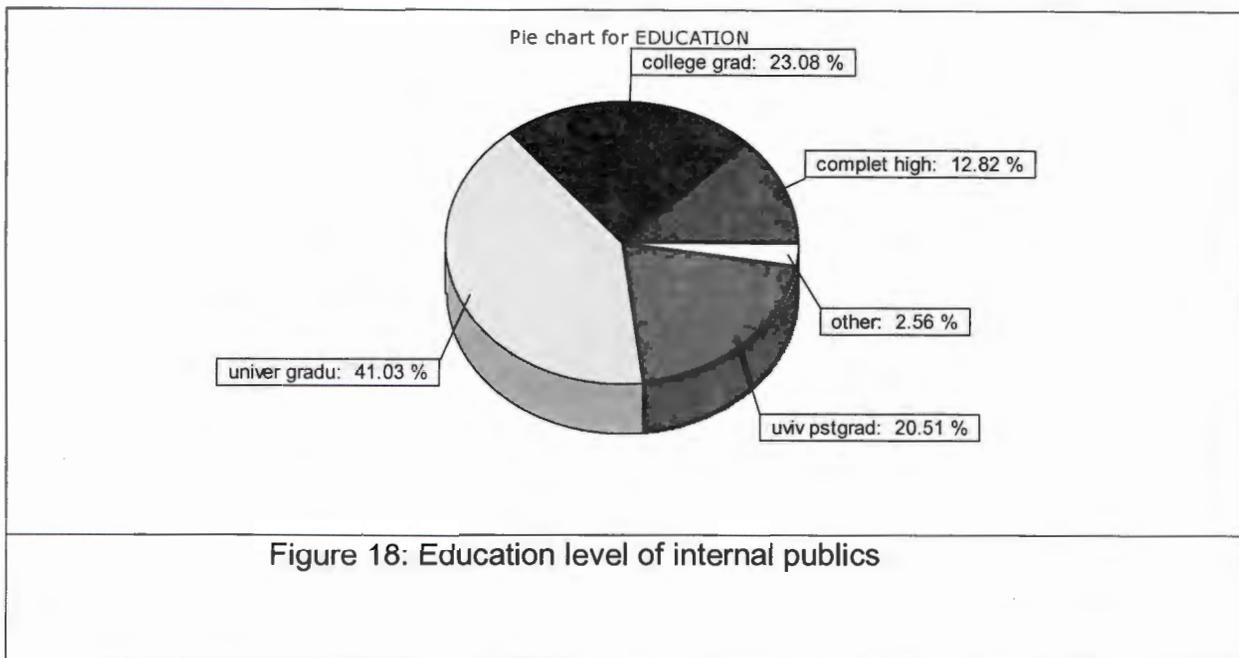
#### 4.5 EMPLOYMENT STATUS

Frequency table for EMPLOYMENT			
Value	N	%	Cum. %
Yes	377	98.06	98.06
No	7	1.94	100.00
-----			
TOTAL	384	100.00	

Table 7: Employment status

This study primarily targeted the community of Maseru, particularly the community members that use English language as their official corporate language. Table 7 above is a depiction of the employment status of the target group. The study employed cluster random technique, which is rather non-selective in terms of approach. The table above therefore reveals findings from the survey. Findings revealed that approximately 378 of respondents were employees while just 7 respondents were not employed.

## 4.6 EDUCATION LEVEL



Education level of internal publics was of greater importance in this survey. Education level in this study was of critical importance because this has direct link to the study's assumption. The study has as it as one of its central arguments that English language abilities appear to be lacking the vital competency at the completion of education and training, thus, prior to joining the corporate world. Figure 18 above shows results of education level of employees in various private and public organisations. The findings showed that the greatest numbers of employees (41.03%) who took part in the survey were university graduates. Of course, one is believed to have gone through some educational training at this level. Findings further revealed that holders of post graduate university degrees were the second in terms of participation. This category constituted about 20.51%. Holders of college qualifications came third with an overall participation of 23.08%. Of course, there are different jobs requiring different skills in any corporate world. About 12.82% of the internal publics involved employees who were holders of high school qualification. The least category of participants (2.56%) were holders of other qualifications. Other in the context meant that this category of workers had no high school, college or university qualifications.

## 4.7 EMPLOYMENT DURATION

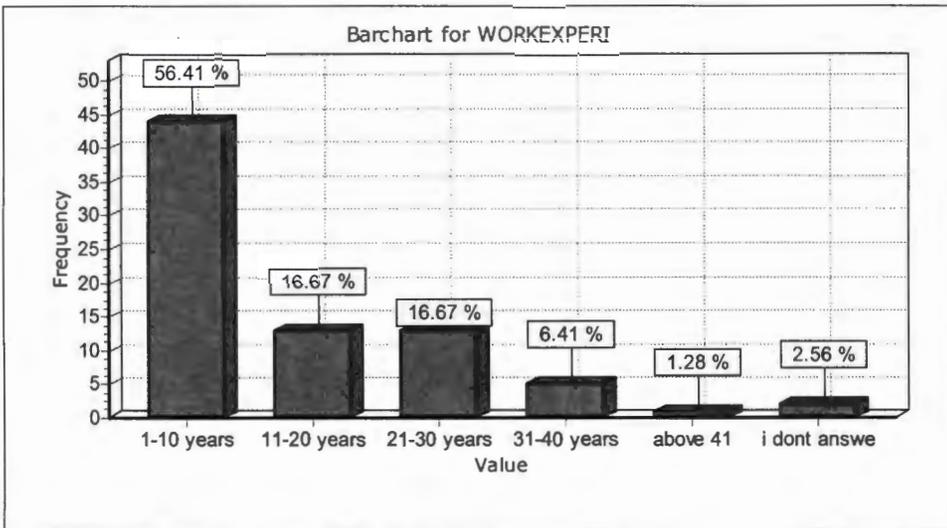


Figure 19: Employment duration

Figure 19 above is an indication of internal publics' working experience. In accordance with the diagram, the majority of employees (56.41%) were those in their 1-10 years of working experience. The next category of workers involved those in their 11-20 as well as those in their 21-30 years of working period with their companies. These two age categories made up an overall participation of 16.67%. Employees in their 31-40 years of working came third in terms of participation. This category of employees constituted about 6.41% participation. Quite a considerable age category of employees constituting 2.56% did not respond to this question. The least category of employees (1.28%) involved the longest serving labour force. These individuals had more than 41 years of work experience.

## 4.8 CORPORATE LANGUAGE SKILLS

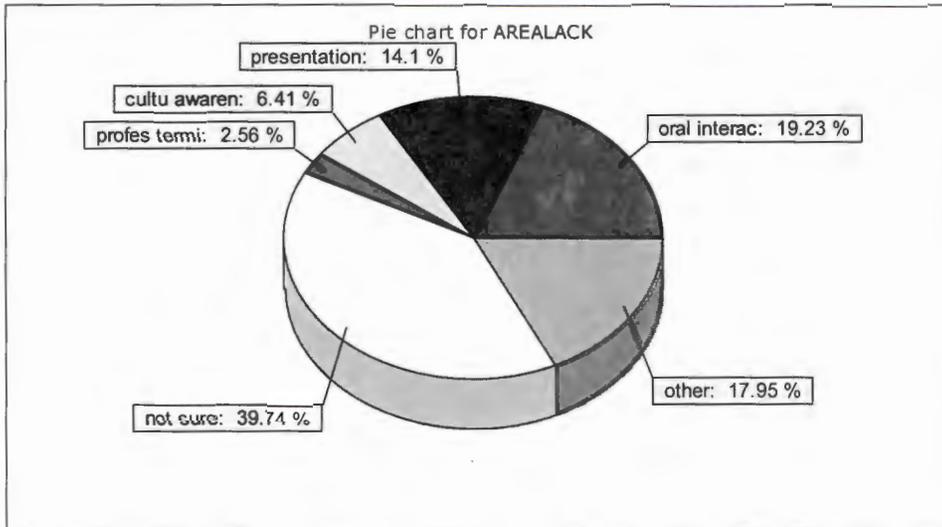


Figure 20: Corporate language skills

Figure 20 above shows responses to the question which asked the employees to indicate the area in which the company personnel were lacking corporate language skills. The majority of employees (39.74%) indicated that they were not sure of the area. The second response rate indicated that the company personnel lacked oral interactions language skills. The third response rate believed that the company personal lacked language skills in other areas, other than all those suggested in the questionnaire. The fourth response rate indicated that the personnel lacked presentation language abilities. The fifth category of responses believed that the company personnel lacked cultural awareness language mastery. This category contributed 6.41% participation. The last response rate of about 2.56% indicated that the company personnel lacked professional terminology in as far as language mastery is concerned.

## 4.9 JOB QUALIFICATION

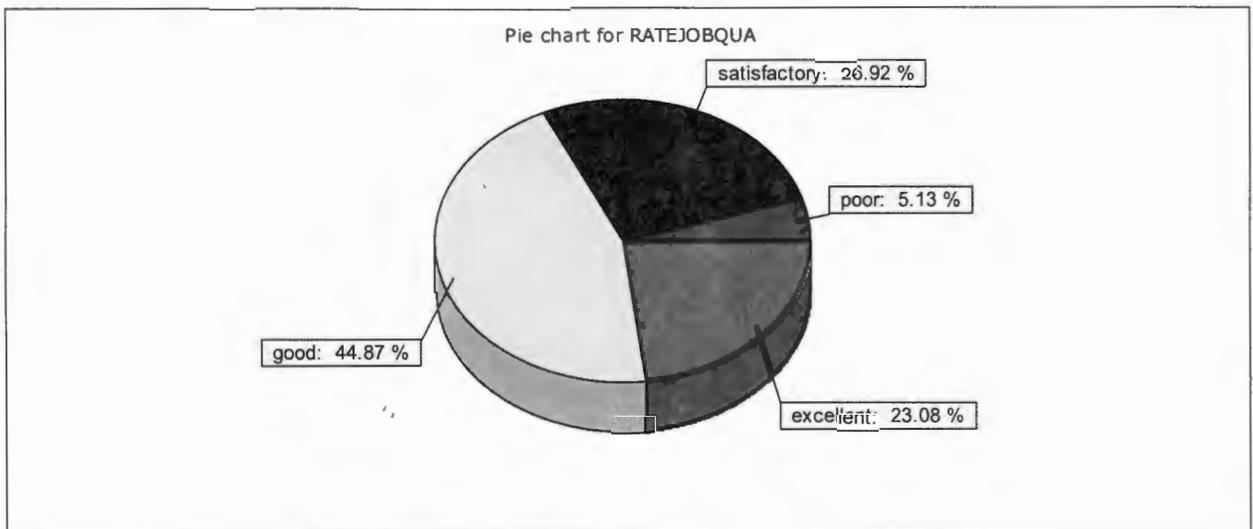


Figure 21: Job qualification

According to Figure 21 above, internal publics were asked to rate their job qualifications. The aim here was to ascertain if people had suitable qualifications for the work they performed. Responding to this question, the greatest number of people (44.87%) rated their job qualification as good. About 26.92% response rate rated their qualification as satisfactory. About 23.08% of employees believed that their academic qualifications were excellent. Lastly, employees constituting 5.13% rated their qualification in relation to their job as poor.

#### 4.10 ENGLISH CONSIDERATION

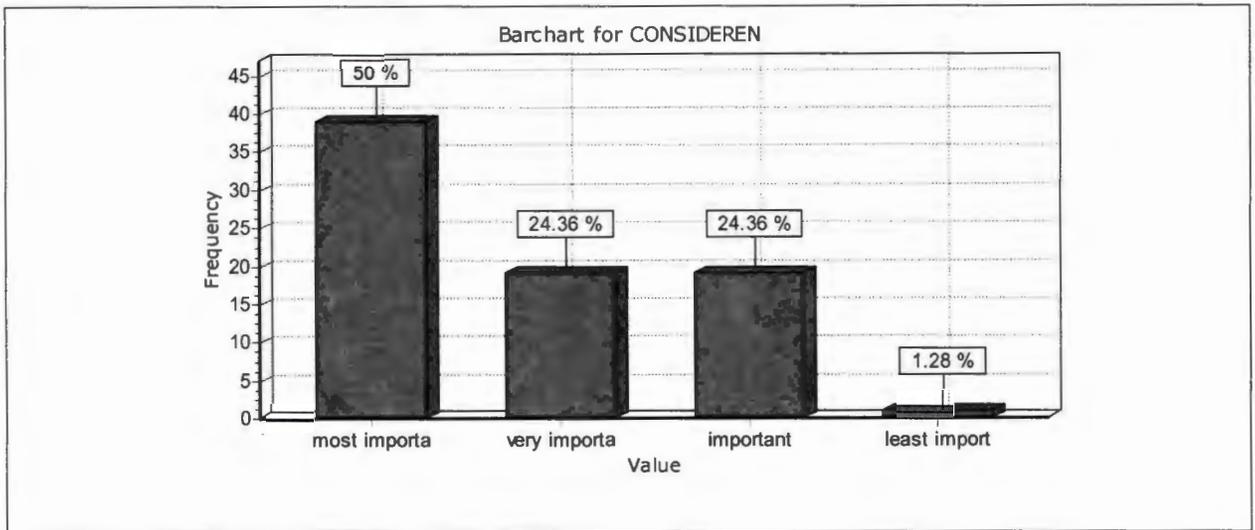


Figure 22: English consideration

Figure 22 above displays opinions of internal publics on how they consider English in order for the employee to be well qualified for the task that one performs. When responding, the majority of employees (50%) were of the opinion that for one to be well qualified in the work, English was the most important. Apart from that, Employees constituting 24.36% believed that knowledge of English in this case was very important. Employees who believed that knowledge of English was just important constituted the same percentage of 24.36%. Lastly, employees constituting about 1.28% believed that to be well qualified in the work that one was doing, English knowledge was least important.

#### 4.11 LANGUAGE WIDELY USED

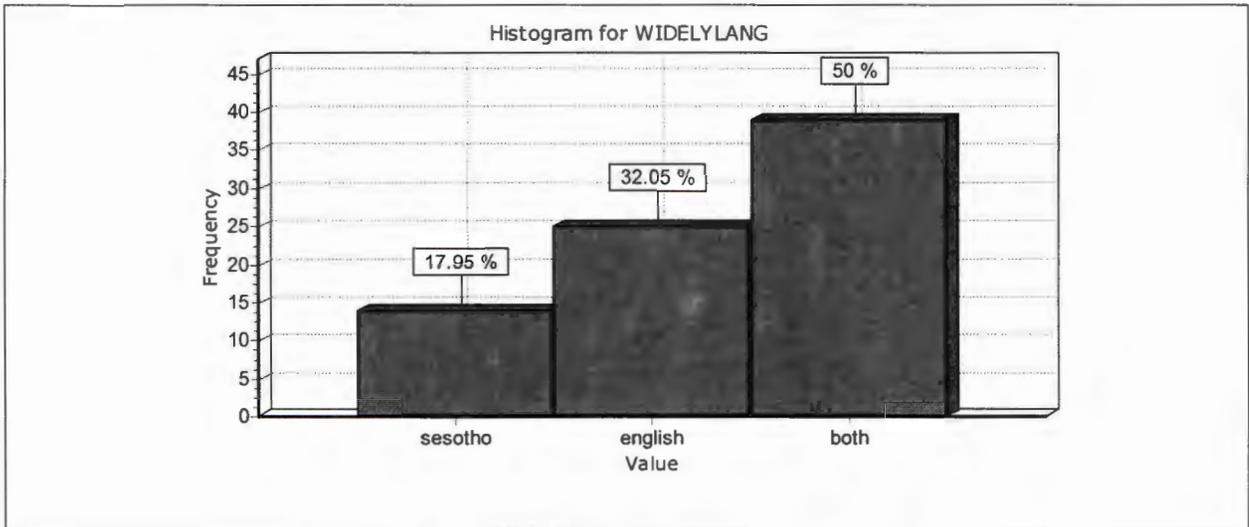


Figure 23: Language widely used

Figure 23 shows responses to the question which asked internal publics to state the language that was widely used for work communication in their companies in Maseru. The biggest numbers of response rate, thus, half of 384 (50%), indicated that both English and Sesotho were widely used in work communication. Of course, in the literature survey, English and Sesotho have been discussed as the official languages of Lesotho. Another response rate of about 32.05% indicated English as the language widely used in work collaborations. Lastly, a 17.95% response rate indicated that Sesotho was widely used in their companies.

#### 4.12 ENGLISH NEED

Frequency table for ENGGREATES			
Value	N	%	Cum. %
Yes	272	70.87	70.87
No	52	13.59	84.47
Not Sure	60	15.53	100.00
-----			
TOTAL	384	100.00	

Table 8: Need of English

Table 8 above illustrates responses to the statement whether the need for English was greatest in the employees work environment. When reacting to this statement, a total number of 272 respondents indicated yes while about 52 employees said no. Nonetheless, 60 employees were not sure about the need of English in their employment.

#### 4.13 ENGLISH ABILITIES

Frequency table for GOODENGLIS			
Value	N	%	Cum. %
yes	261	67.95	67.95
no	34	8.97	76.92
1 dont answe	89	23.08	100.00
TOTAL	384	100.00	



Table 9: English abilities

Table 9 demonstrates responses to the statement whether respondents had good English language communication skills. Reacting to the statement, 67.95% said yes while 8.97% said no. The percentage constituting 89% did not respond to the question.

#### 4.14 IMPORTANCE OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Value	N	%	Cum. %
agree	354	92.31	92.31
disagree	15	3.85	96.15
not sure	15	3.85	100.00
TOTAL	384	100.00	

Table 10: English language importance

Table 10 above shows results of data from respondents. They were asked to state whether knowledge of English language was important in their business. When presenting their opinions, the overwhelming numbers of 354 responses agreed with the statement while about 15 employees did not agree. Another number of 15 employees were not sure whether English language skills were of any importance in the work environment or not.

#### 4.15 ENGLISH CONTRIBUTION

Frequency table for ENGCONTRIB			
Value	N	%	Cum. %
agree	332	86.49	86.49
disagree	10	2.70	89.19
not sure	42	10.81	100.00
TOTAL		384	

Table 11: English contribution

According to table 11 above internal publics had to respond to the statement which stated: *'if an employee is proficient in English he can contribute towards overall business improvement'*. Data from responses showed that the greatest numbers (332) agreed with the statement while on the other hand, the least numbers of responses (10) disagreed. Again, other numbers of (42) responses were unsure about the statement.

#### 4.16 ENGLISH AND JOB OPPORTUNITY

Frequency table for ENGGUDJOB			
Value	N	%	Cum. %
agree	212	55.13	55.13
disagree	74	19.23	74.36
not sure	98	25.64	100.00
TOTAL		384	100.00

Table 12: English and job employment

According to table 12 above, internal publics were asked to respond to this statement 'people with good English communication skills have a chance of getting a good job'. Data from responses revealed that many of the people (212) agreed while the least number of people (74) disagreed. There were also considerable numbers of people who were not sure about the statement.

#### 4.17 ENHANCEMENT OF ENGLISH ABILITY

Value	N	%	Cum. %
agree	69	17.95	17.95
disagree	266	69.23	87.18
not sure	49	12.82	100.00
TOTAL	384	100.00	

Table 13: Enhancement of English ability

In accordance with table 13 above, internal publics had to respond by indicating if enhancing an individual's language ability had any value to their respective business. In responding, many respondents (266) disagreed with this. Thus, they were of the opinion that enhancement did not have value. About 69 employees agreed with the statement. The least number of 49 respondents were not sure.

#### 4.18 GOOD USE OF ENGLISH

Frequency table for ENGENHANCE			
Value	N	%	Cum. %
agree	320	83.33	83.33
disagree	44	11.54	94.87
not sure	20	5.13	100.00
TOTAL	384	100.00	

Table 14: Good use of English

Table 14 above shows responses by internal publics to this statement: 'good use of English language by the employees enhances business efficiency.' When showing their opinions, 320 respondents agreed while 44 did not agree. The least number of employees said they were not sure about English and job opportunities.

#### 4.19 ENGLISH ERRORS CONCERN

Frequency table for ENGERRORS			
Value	N	%	Cum. %
agree	118	30.77	30.77
disagree	128	33.33	64.10
not sure	138	35.90	100.00
TOTAL	384	100.00	

Table 15: English errors concern

According to table 15, respondents were asked to state if there was a concern of English language errors by the employees of the company. On English errors concern, 118 responses were of the conviction that there was such a concern. On the other hand, about 128 opinions were of the belief that there was no English language errors' concern in their companies. On the other hand, the majority responses said they were not sure if there was English errors' concern in their companies.

#### 4.20 ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION PROBLEMS

Frequency table for ENGPRONUNC			
Value	N	%	Cum. %
agree	128	33.33	33.33
disagree	128	33.33	66.67
not sure	128	33.33	100.00
TOTAL	384		

Table 16: English pronunciation problems

In a rather coincidental situation of responses in table 16, an equal number of responses was in agreement and disagreement with the concern of English pronunciation in their companies. Another category of equal response rate was unsure. Thus, a total number of 128 respondents agreed that there was English Language

pronunciation problems by the employees. On the other hand, the same number of 128 respondents did not agree with this issue. Lastly, the same number of 128 responses showed that they were not sure.

#### 4.21 STUDENTS AND ENGLISH

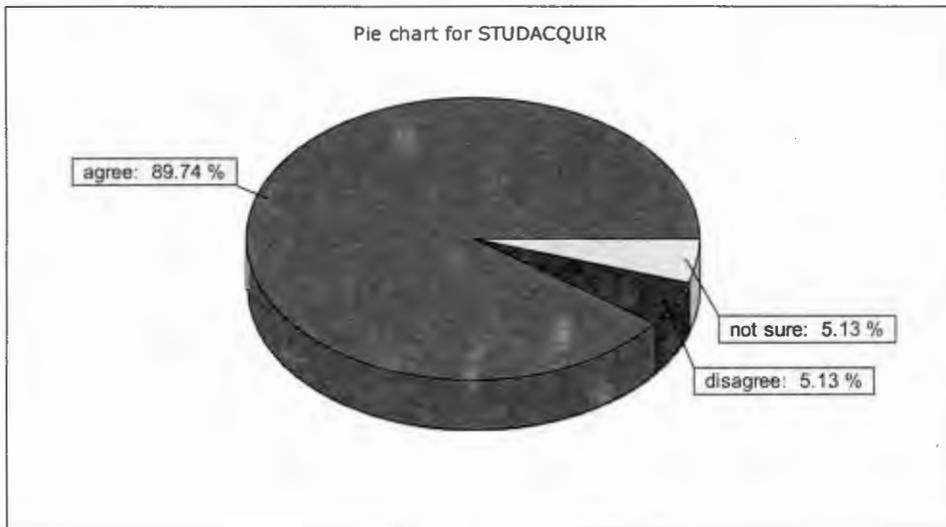


Figure 24: English and students

According to figure 24, respondents were asked to give their opinions on this statement: *'it is good for students to acquire English communication skills to prepare them for employment'*. Results from data showed that the majority of 89.74% response rate agreed with the statement. A 5.13% response rate disagreed while another 5.13% response rate said it was not sure.

#### 4.22 ENGLISH AND STUDENTS PERFORMANCE

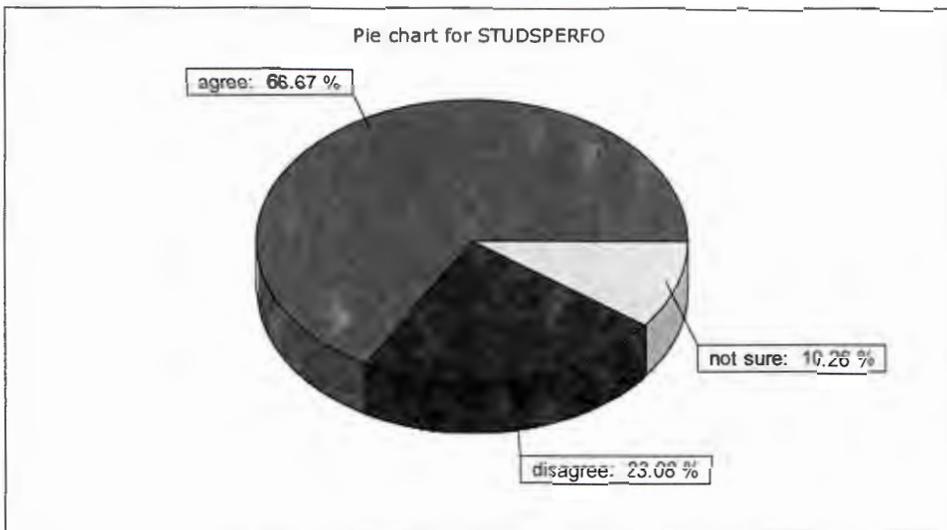


Figure 25: English and students performance

In figure 25 above, internal publics were asked to respond to this statement: '*students who acquired good communication skills in school are likely to perform better in the work*'. The responses showed that 66.67% agreed while 23.08% disagreed with the statement. Another category of 10.26% response rate indicated to be unsure about the statement.

#### 4.23 ENGLISH AND EFFECTIVENESS

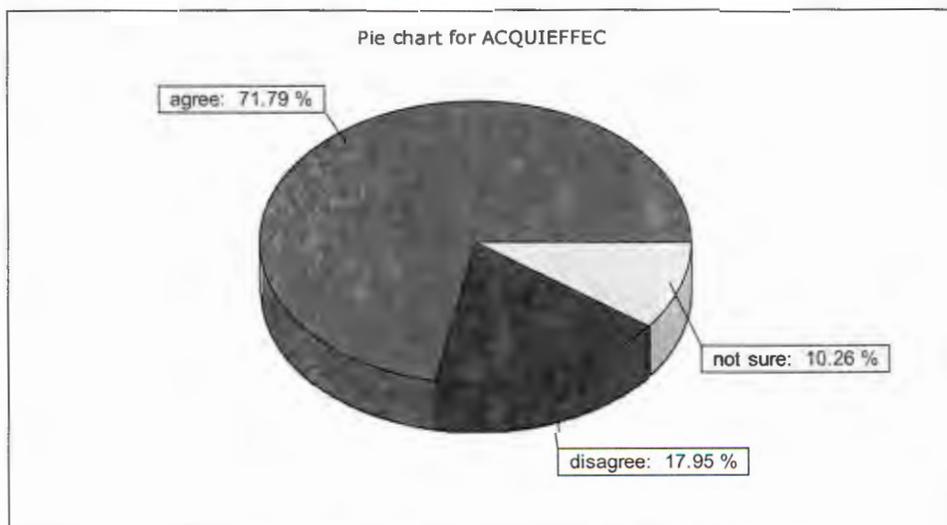


Figure 26: English and effectiveness

In the above figure internal publics had to respond to this statement: '*acquisition of English language skills from school contributes towards an effective worker*'. In response, the majority (71.79%) agreed with the statement while the minority responses (17.95) disagreed. The last category of the least responses was not sure.

#### 4.24 ENGLISH AND UNDESIRABLE EMPLOYEE

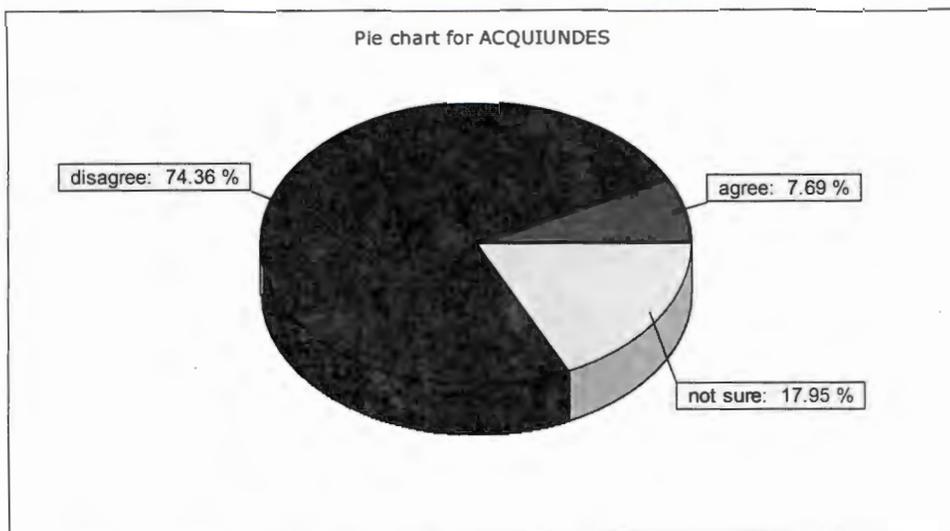


Figure 27: English and undesirable employee

In figure 27 above, employees were asked to indicate if lack of acquisition of English from school made an undesirable employee, thus not ideal worker. The employees, many of them (74.36%) did not agree. Thus, they were of the opinion that acquisition of English rather made an effective worker. In another response rate of about 7.69% respondents agreed with the statement. A considerable number of 17.95% response rate was unsure about the statement.

#### 4.25 JOB PERFORMANCE

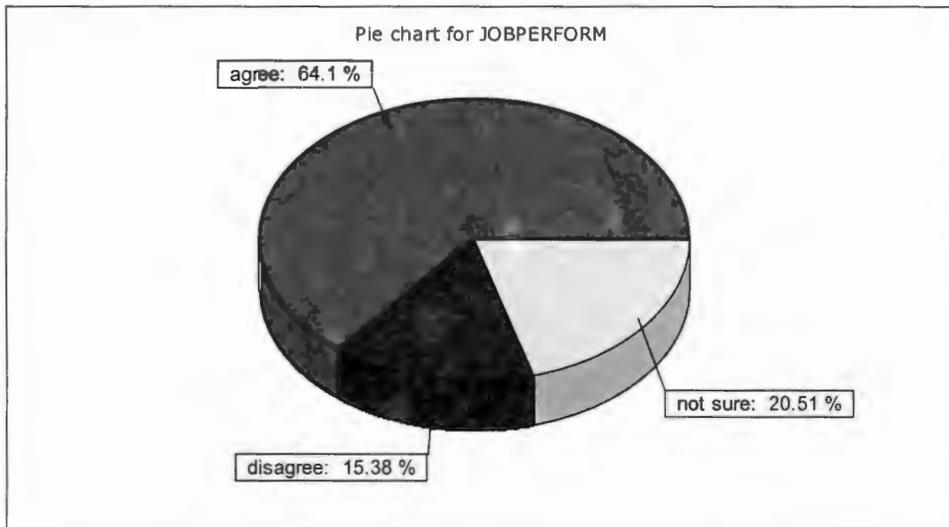


Figure 28: Job performance and proficiency

According to figure 28 above, respondents were asked to respond to this statement: '*job performance can be improved by enhancing language proficiency in the school*'. Data from internal publics revealed that 64.1% of employees agreed with the statement while just 15.38% did not agree. Another response rate of 20.51% was unsure about the statement.

#### 4.26 ENGLISH AND JOB EFFICIENCY

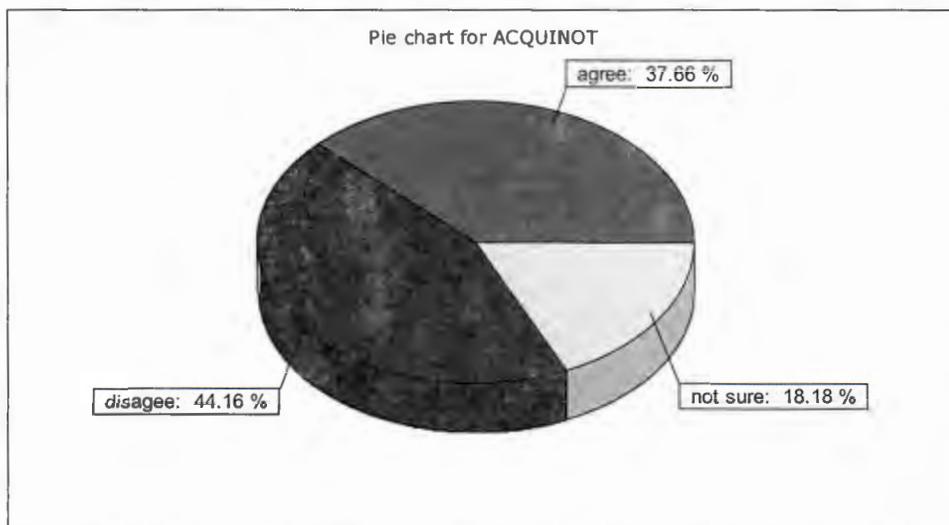


Figure 29: English and job efficiency

In figure 29 internal publics were asked to respond to this statement: 'acquisition of English language skills from school is not associated with efficiency on job performance'. According to data captured, 37.66% of responses agreed while 44.16% disagreed with the statement. A response rate of about 18.18% was not sure about the statement.

#### 4.27 TEACHING METHODS

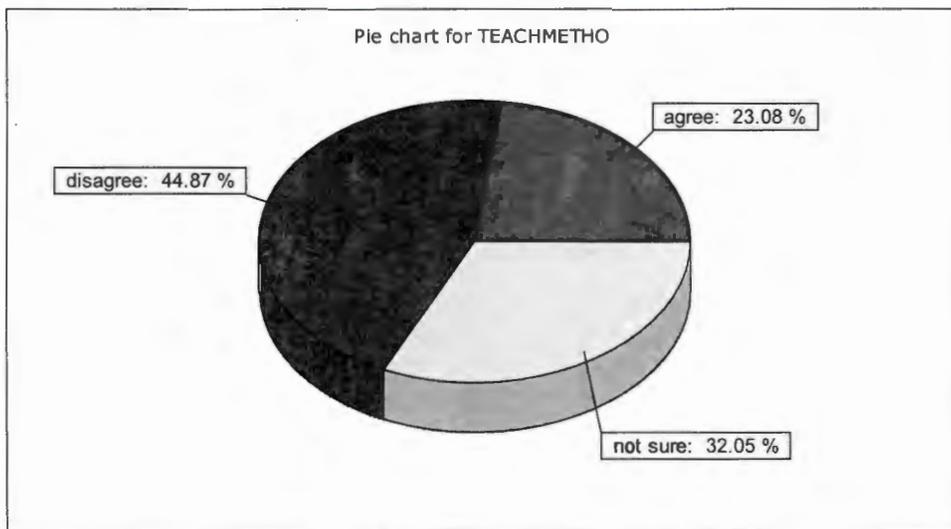


Figure 30: Teaching methods

In accordance with figure 30, internal publics were asked to react to this statement: '*the teaching methods which the teachers employ in school do not help students to acquire the necessary level of English competency*'. In reacting to the statement, data showed that many respondents (44.87%) disagreed with the statement. A response rate of 23.08% was in agreement with the statement. A rather considerable response rate of 32.05% was unsure about this statement.

#### 4.28 LANGUAGE POLICY

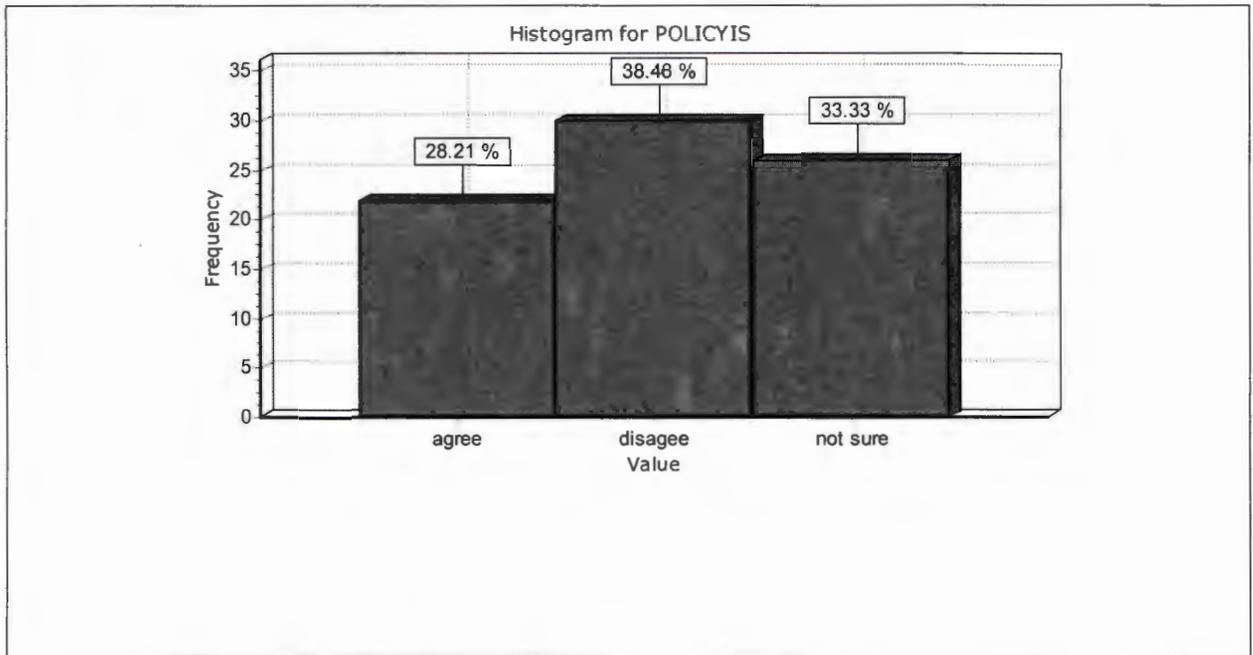


Figure 31 : Language policy

Figure 31 in the above diagram indicates responses with regard to whether respondents knew what language policy entailed. Findings revealed that the majority of people did not know what language policy was, and these respondents' group constituted 38.46%. Next, was a category of employees who indicated that they knew what language policy entailed and this participated at the rate of 28.21%. Another considerable number of response rate of about 33.33% was neither agreeing nor disagreeing with the knowledge of language policy. Thus, they were unsure about status of their knowledge.

#### 4.29 GOOD LANGUAGE POLICIES

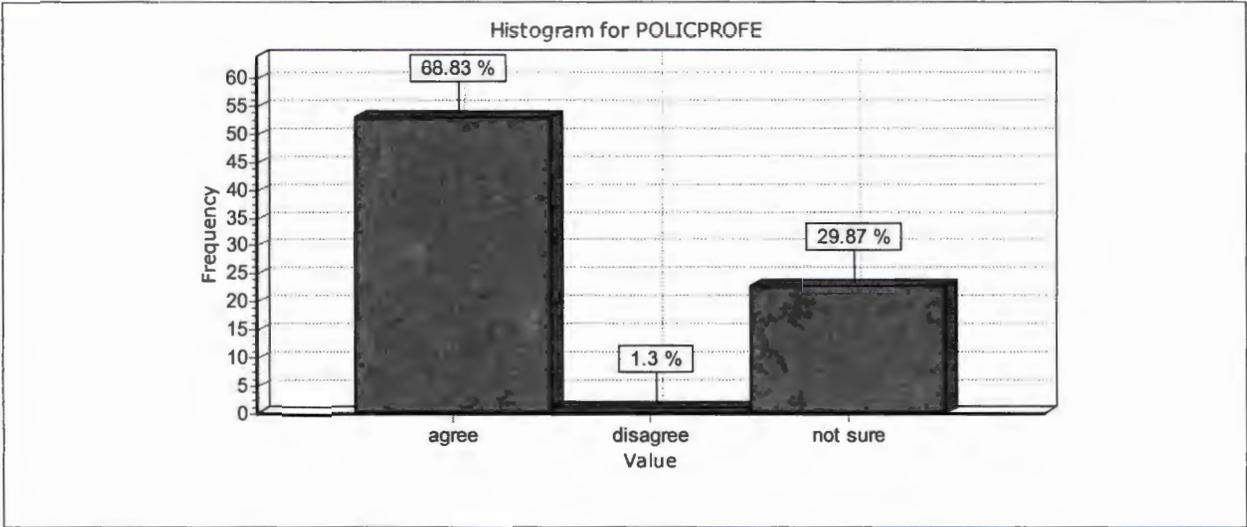


Figure 32: Good language policies

According to figure 32 above, internal publics were asked to respond to this statement: 'good language policies produce good language professionals. When responding, the majority of 68.83% agreed with the statement. Besides, just 1.3% disagreed with the statement. Another bigger number of 29.87% indicated that they were not sure about relationship between language policy and professional or occupational practice.

**4.30 LANGUAGE POLICY AND BUSINESS**

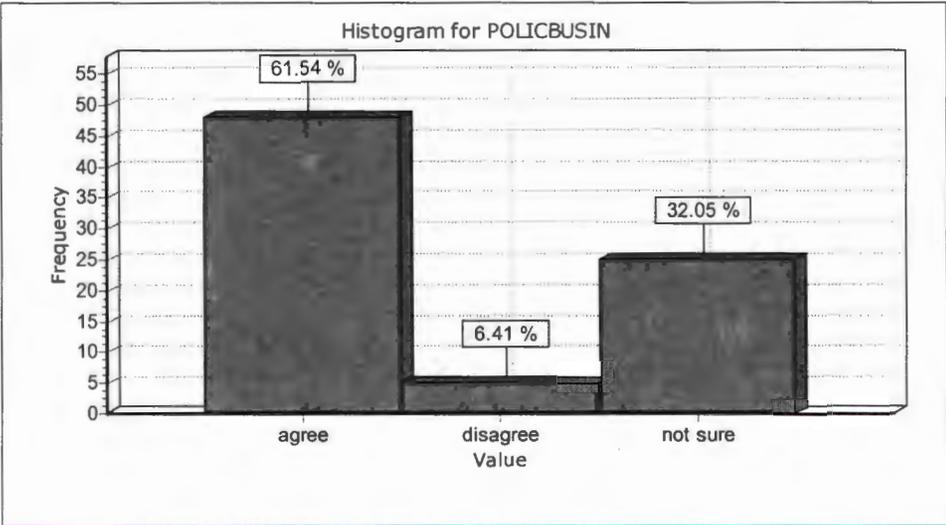


Figure 33: Language policy and business

According to figure 33 in the above diagram, respondents had to react by indicating if good language policy was good for the sake of business. The response rate of 61.54% agreed with this view while a response at the rate of just 6.41% disagreed. A response rate (32.05%), higher than that one of those who disagreed indicated not sure about the connection between good language policies and business.

#### 4.31 LANGUAGE POLICY VERSUS LANGUAGE KNOWLEDGE

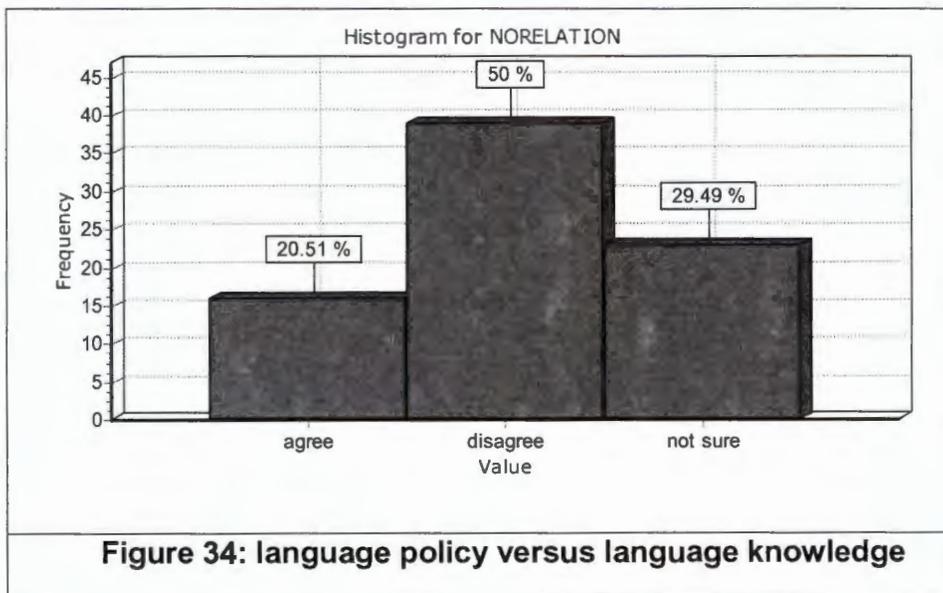


Figure 34: Language policy versus language knowledge

According to figure 34 in the diagram above, the employees in various companies had to indicate if there was no relationship between language policy and knowledge of the very language. Revelations from data showed that many respondents (50%) disagreed with the statement. Thus, they were of the opinion that, indeed, there was a close relationship between language policy and knowledge of the language itself. Few of the respondents (20.51%) agreed with the statement. Thus, they did not see any relationship between the two. Another notable response rate of 29.49% was not sure whether any relationship exists between language policy and knowledge of the language.

### 4.32 LANGUAGE POLICY AND HUMAN CAPITAL

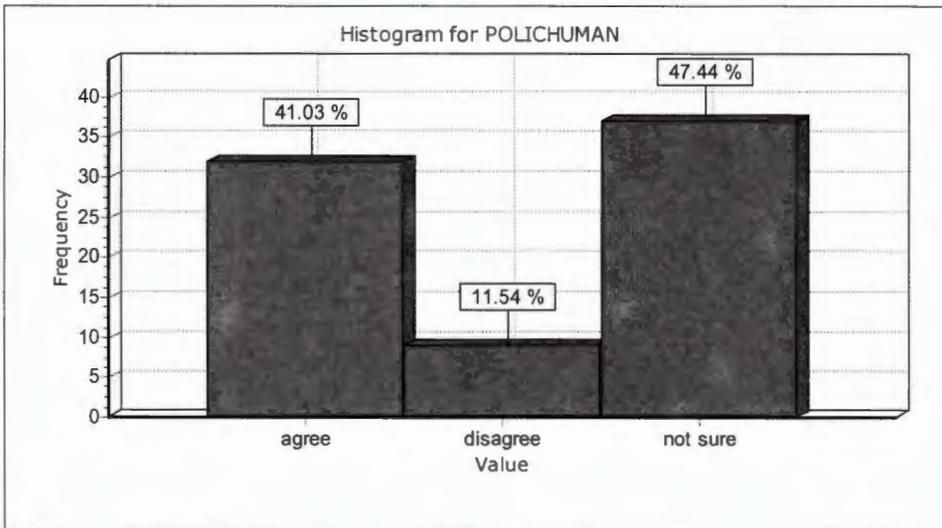


Figure 35: Language policy and human capital

In figure 35 internal publics had to express their opinions by reacting to this statement: *'good language policy is ideal for human capital'*. Responses showed that the majority of participants chose not sure and this constituted 47.44%. The next responses which constituted 41.03% agreed with the statement. Thirdly, responses which constituted 11.54% indicated not sure about the statement.

### 4.33 LANGUAGE POLICY AND WORK

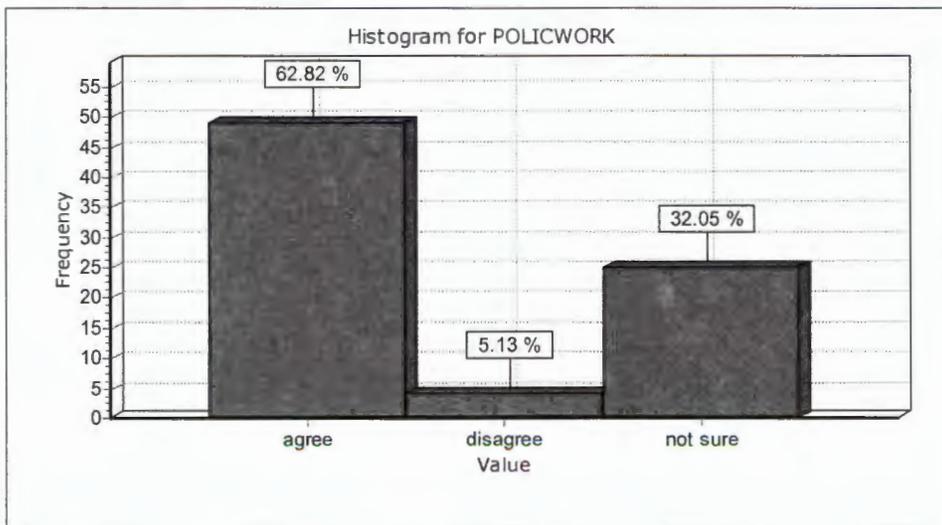


Figure 36: Language policy and work

In the above figure, internal publics in different organisations were asked to respond to this statement: 'good language policy is good for work'. Data from subjects showed that the majority responses of 62.82% agreed while only 5.13% did not agree with the statement. Again, a notable percentage of 32.05% indicated not sure.

#### 4.34 ORAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS

Frequency table for ORALCOMMUN			
Value	N	%	Cum. %
yes	295	76.92	76.92
no	25	6.41	83.33
i don't answer	64	16.67	100.00
TOTAL	384	100.00	

Table 17: Oral communication skills

In table 17 in the diagram above, respondents had to answer by showing if they had the necessary oral communication skills. The greatest numbers of 295 employees said yes, they did. The second number of 25 employees said no. Other notable numbers of 64 employees decided not to share their oral communication abilities.

#### 4.35 WRITTEN COMMUNICATION SKILLS

Frequency table for WRITINGSKI			
Value	N	%	Cum. %
yes	266	69.23	69.23
no	34	8.97	78.21
I don't answer	84	21.79	100.00
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>384</b>	<b>100.00</b>	

Table 18: Written communication skills

In table 18 in the diagram above, respondents had to indicate if they possessed the necessary written communication skills. In responding, the greatest numbers of 266 employees said yes, they did. The second number of 34 employees said no. Other respondents had to answer by showing if they had the necessary written communication skills. The notable numbers of 84 employees decided not to share their written communication skills.

### 4.36 ENGLISH AND BUSINESS GROWTH

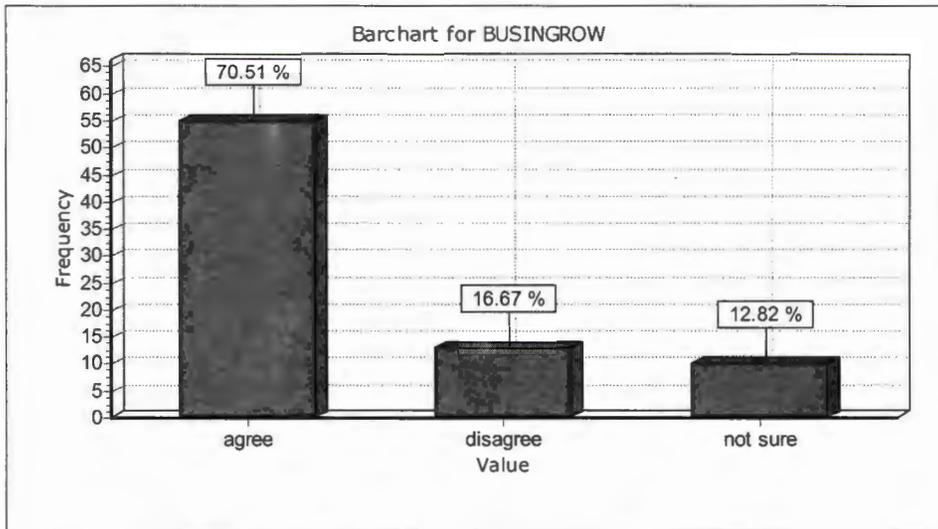


Figure 37: English and business growth

In figure 37 internal publics were asked to answer this statement: *'proficiency in English language for employees contributes towards business growth'*. When answering, data revealed that the overwhelming numbers of 70.51% agreed while 16.67% of response rate disagreed with the statement. The last percentage of 12.82% rate of response indicated not sure about English and business growth.

#### 4.37 ENGLISH AS A MAIN LANGUAGE

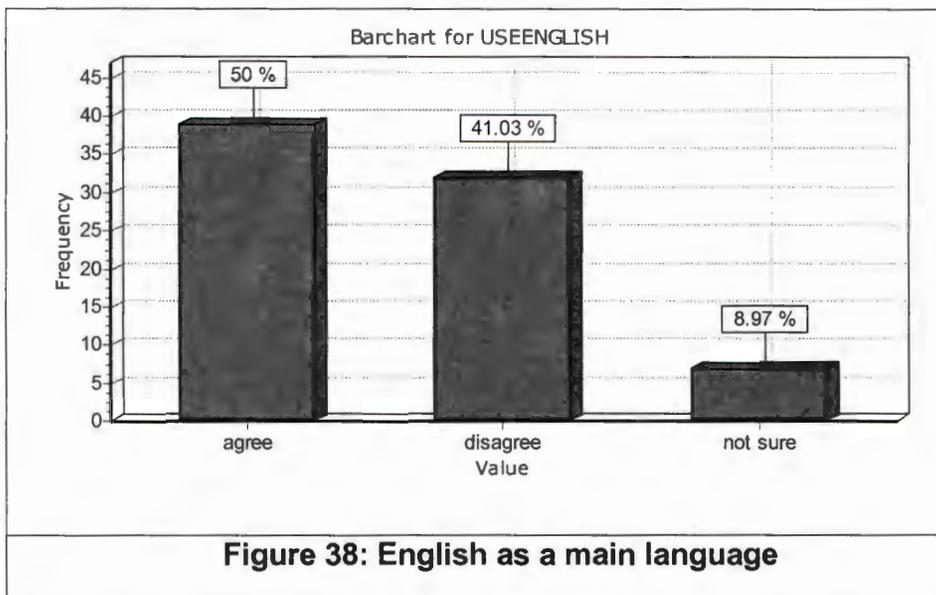


Figure 38: English as a main language

Figure 38 above displays findings on whether employees used English as the main language for work related matters in the context of Lesotho. The findings showed that 50% was of the opinion that, indeed English was the main language used. A 41.03% response rate said no, English was not. Thirdly, about 8.97% response rate appeared to be not sure.

### 4.38 LANGUAGE TRAINING

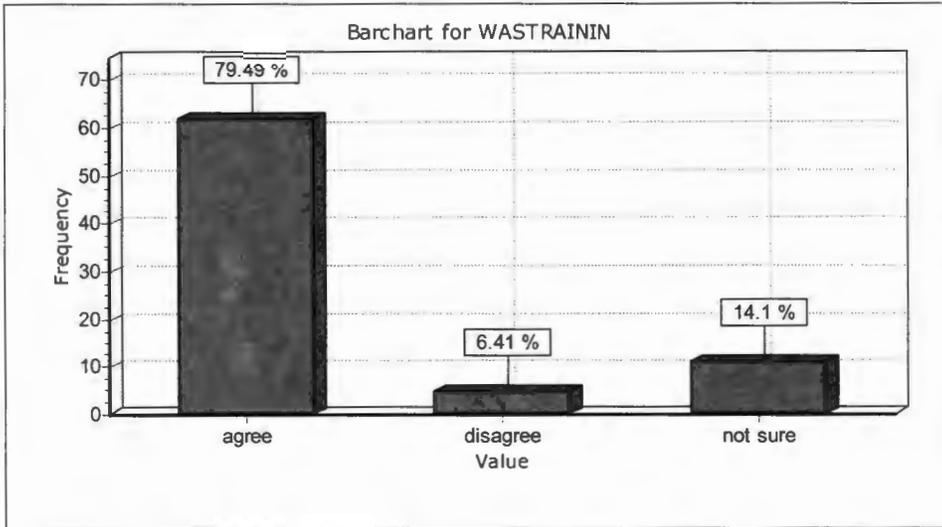


Figure 39: Language training

In figure 39 respondents were asked to provide their sincere opinions in relation to this statement: *'if there was language training in our organisation, I would prefer to attend in order to improve my proficiency'*. Findings from responses showed that the overwhelming majority of 79.49% agreed with the statement while a 6.41% did not agree. A category of 14.1%, higher than those who disagreed, was not sure if they would attend training or not.

### 4.39 WORK PLACE TRAINING

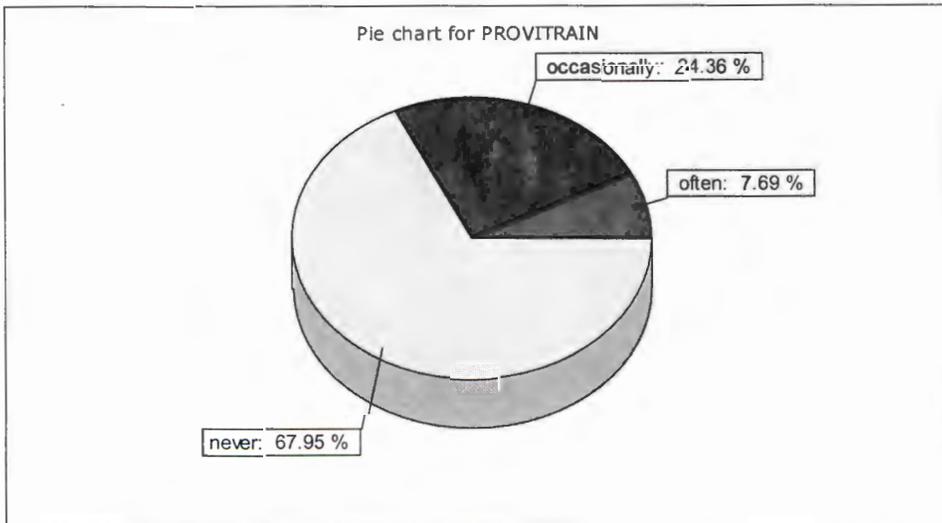


Figure 40: Work place training

Figure 40 was a representation of views on whether internal publics' work places provided training in order to enhance English proficiency. Findings established that the greatest number of responses (67.95) indicated that their work places never provided any such training. The second view of responses (24.36%) said that language training was done occasionally in their companies. The third view of responses (7.69%) said that training was often done in their companies.

#### 4.40 GENERAL STAFF TRAINING

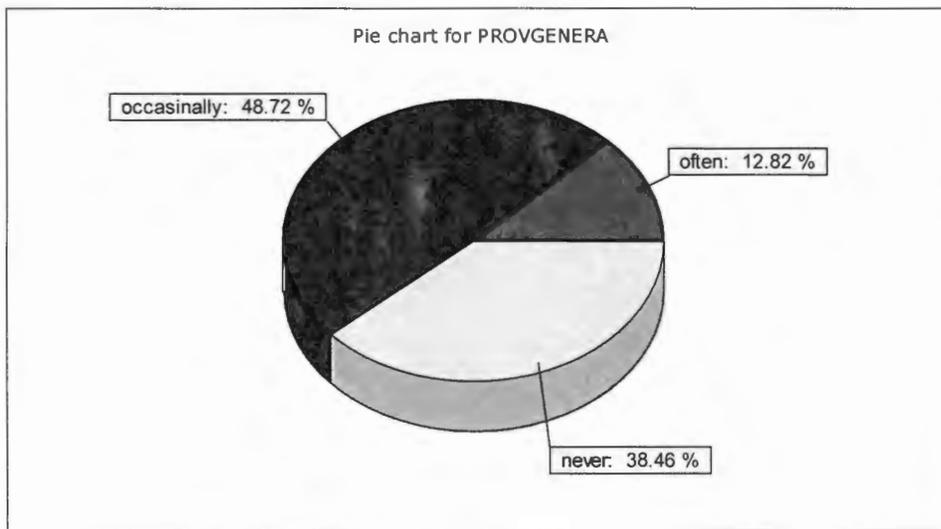


Figure 41: General staff training

Figure 41 is a representation of views on whether internal publics' work places provide general staff activities in order to enhance English proficiency. Findings established that the greatest number of responses (48.72%) indicated that their work places occasionally provided general staff training activities. The second view of responses (38.46%) said that general staff training activities to enhance language abilities was never done in their companies. The third view of responses (12.82%) said that general staff training activities were often done in their respective companies.

#### 4.41 LANGUAGE WORK SHOPS

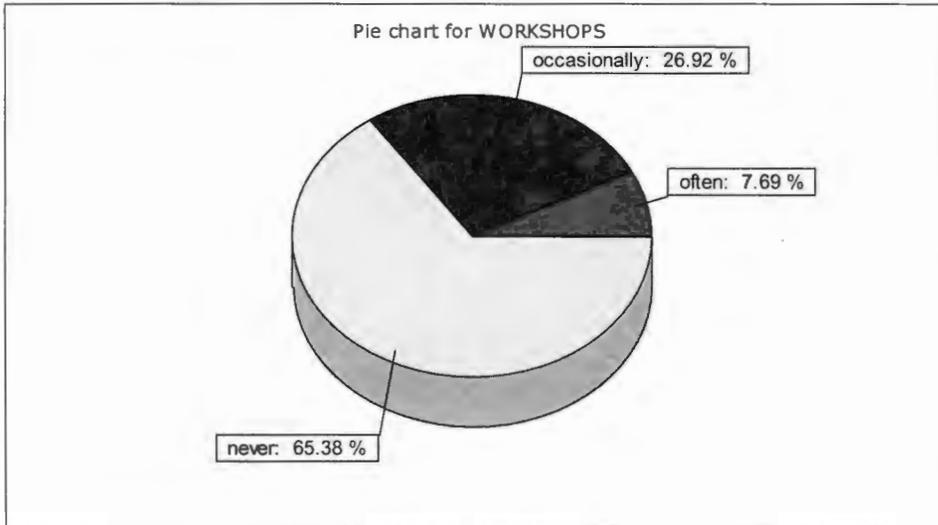


Figure 42: Language workshops

In figure 42 in the diagram above internal publics were asked to provide opinions on this statement: *'my work place conducts workshops on language skills'*. Results from data established that the majority of 65.38% responses indicated workshops on language skills were never conducted. The second reaction of 26.92% response rate indicated that language workshops were occasionally conducted. Lastly, 7.69% employees said language workshops were often conducted in companies.

#### 4.42 EMPLOYEE FEEDBACK

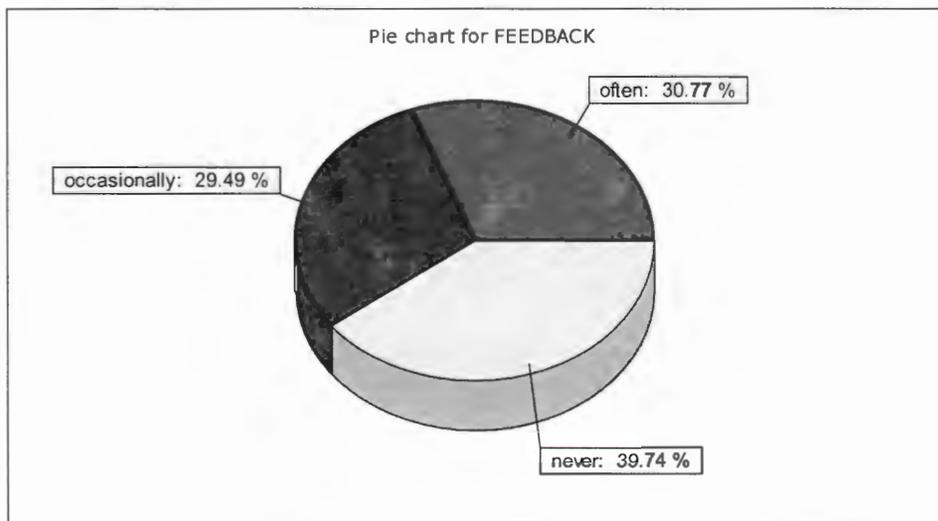


Figure 43: Employee feedback

Respondents were asked to indicate if ever their companies provided them as staff members with feedback in relation to their work performance. Figure 43 above established results of responses. The highest number of subjects (39.74%) indicated that feedback was never given. The second response rate (30.77%) said that feedback was often provided. Lastly, a category of 29.49% response rate indicated that feedback was occasionally given.

#### 4.43 TRAINING AND CORE BUSINESS

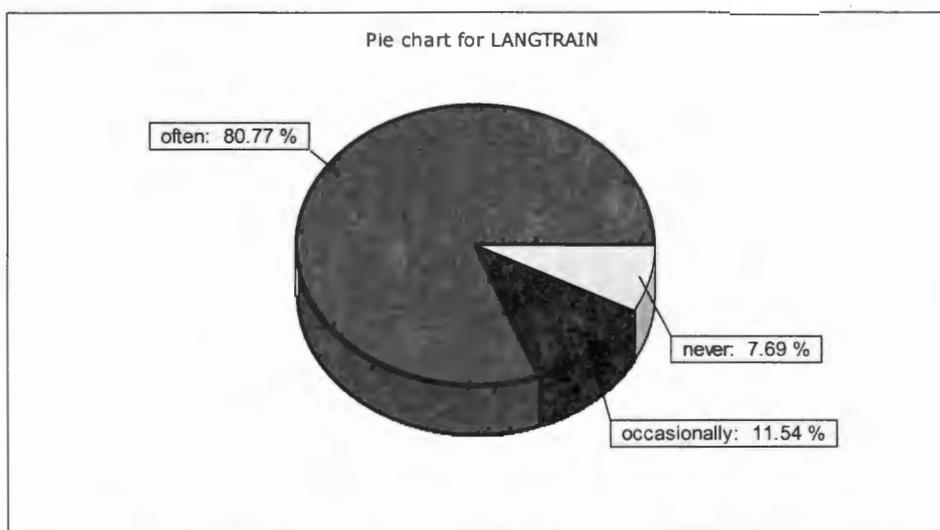


Figure 44: Training and core business

Respondents were asked to react to this statement: '*language training can have a positive influence on the company core business*'. When responding to this statement, the overwhelming majority responses of about 80.77% indicated that this goal could often be attained. The second response rate was of the opinion that the goal could be occasionally achieved. Lastly, about 7.69% response rate was of the opinion that this could never be realised.

#### 4.44 LANGUAGE EDUCATION TRAINING

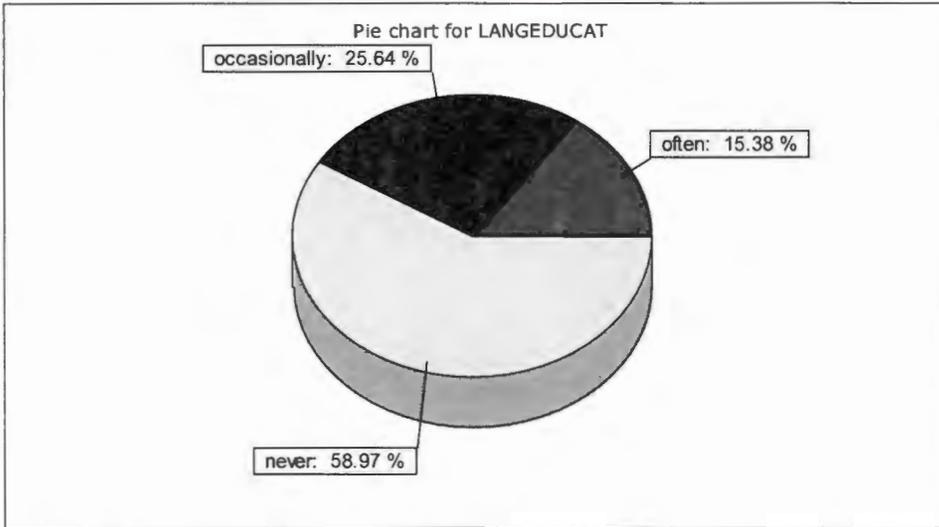


Figure 45: Language education training

Respondents were asked to react to this statement: *'my work place provides language education training that supports aims of the company'*. When responding to this statement the majority responses of about 58.97% indicated that the training was never done. The second response rate of about 25.64% was of the opinion that the training was occasionally done in companies. Lastly, about 15.38% response rate was of the opinion that the training was often provided in the work place.

#### 4.45 ENGLISH FOR INTERACTIONS

Frequency table for ENGINTERAC

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Value	N	%	Cum. %
yes	133	34.62	34.62
no	217	56.41	91.03
not sure	34	8.97	100.00
TOTAL	384	100.00	

Table 19: English for interactions

In table 19 above, respondents were asked to state if they used English to interact with colleagues in their work places. The results in table above established that the majority of 217 employees said no while 133 employees said yes. Results further showed that 34 employees were not sure about English use and work interactions.

**4.46 ENGLISH FOR READING**

Frequency table for ENGREAD			
Value	N	%	Cum. %
yes	300	78.21	78.21
no	49	12.82	91.03
not sure	35	8.97	100.00
TOTAL	384	100.00	

Table 20: English for reading

According to table 20 above, companies’ internal publics were asked to show if they used English as a main language to read essential company announcements. Results in the table established that the greatest numbers of 300 employees said yes while just 49 employees said no. Results also showed that about 35 employees were not sure about use of English and reading purposes in their companies.

**4.47 ENGLISH AND ACTIVITIES PERFORMANCE**

Frequency table for ENGPFORM			
Value	N	%	Cum. %
yes	279	72.73	72.73
no	70	18.18	90.91
not sure	35	9.09	100.00
TOTAL	384	100.00	

Table 21: English and activities performance

According to table 21, internal publics were asked to respond to this statement: '*I mainly use English to perform activities in my job*'. Data from responses to this statement established that the majority of employees agreed by saying yes to this while 70 of this did not agree by indicating no to the statement. A response rate of 35 employees stated they were unsure.

#### 4.48 ENGLISH FOR REPORTS PREPARATION

Frequency table for ENGREPORTS			
Value	N	%	Cum. %
yes	318	82.89	82.89
no	40	10.53	93.42
not sure	26	6.58	100.00
TOTAL	384	100.00	

Table 22: English for reports preparation

In the table above, employees offered their opinions on whether they mainly used English language to prepare reports. Data from employees confirmed that an extremely big number of about 318 employees indicated yes while 40 of the employees said no. 26 employees said they were not sure.

**4.49 WORKPLACE AND LANGUAGE COMPETENCY**

Frequency table for WORKCOMPET			
Value	N	%	Cum. %
yes	214	55.84	55.84
no	70	18.18	74.03
not sure	100	25.97	100.00
TOTAL	384	100.00	

Table 23: Work and language competency

Internal publics were asked to respond to this statement: ‘my work place values language competency for its employees’. Responses to this were presented in table 23. Data revealing results showed that a total number of 214 employees agreed with the statement. Other considerable numbers of 70 employees did not agree with the statement. Another bigger number of 100 people, bigger than those disagreeing, were people who were not sure about their stance.

**4.50 ENGLISH AND STRATEGIES IMPLEMENTATION**

Frequency table for ENGSTRATEG			
Value	N	%	Cum. %
yes	354	92.11	92.11
not sure	30	7.89	100.00
TOTAL	384	100.00	

Table 24: English and strategies implementation

According to table 24, internal publics were asked to respond to this statement: *'proper knowledge of English language is vital in the implementation of business strategies'*. Responses from captured data revealed that the overwhelming numbers of 354 responses agreed with the statement. Another total number of 30 responses indicated not sure about the statement.

#### 4.51 ENGLISH IN PROJECTS MANAGEMENT

Frequency table for ENGPROJECT			
Value	N	%	Cum. %
yes	340	88.46	88.46
no	15	3.85	92.31
not sure	29	7.69	100.00
TOTAL	384	100.00	

Table 25: English in projects management

According to table 25 in the diagram above, internal publics were asked to respond to this statement: *'good knowledge of English language is vital to manage projects'*. Data from the respondents showed that a total number of 340 agreed with the statement by indicating yes while just 15 employees disagreed by saying no. Another total number of 29 employees neither agreed nor disagreed. Thus, they indicated to be unsure about their stance in relation to the statement.

**4.52 ENGLISH IN RESEARCH**

Frequency table for ENGRESEARC			
Value	N	%	Cum. %
yes	320	83.33	83.33
no	25	6.41	89.74
not sure	39	10.26	100.00
TOTAL	384	100.00	

Table 26: English in research

In accordance with table 26, employees were asked to indicate if knowledge of English plays vital role in the exchange of research ideas in the work place. In responding to this, an extremely large number of respondents indicated that English does play an essential role in the exchange of research. On the other hand, a total number of 25 respondents were of the opinion that English had no place in the exchange of research ideas. Another number of 39 employees were unsure about whether English played part in the exchange of research ideas or not.

**4.53 ENGLISH IN TECHNICAL ADVICE**

Frequency table for COMMTECHNI			
Value	N	%	Cum. %
yes	330	85.90	85.90
no	20	5.13	91.03
not sure	34	8.97	100.00
TOTAL	384	100.00	

Table 27: English in technical advice

According to table 27 above, internal publics were asked to indicate if good language skills had importance in providing technical advice. When responding to this, a total number of 330 responses indicated yes while a response number of 20 employees said no. Another 34 number of respondents said they were not sure about English communication skills and provision of technical advice.

#### 4.54 POOR COMMUNICATION SKILLS

Frequency table for POORFRUSTR			
Value	N	%	Cum. %
yes	300	78.21	78.21
no	54	14.10	92.31
not sure	30	7.69	100.00
TOTAL	384	100.00	

Table 28: Poor communication skills

According to table 28 in the table above, respondents were asked to respond to this statement: 'poor communication skills cause a lot of frustration in the work place.' when responding to the statement, the overwhelming numbers of 300 employees agreed with the statement. A total number of 54 workers did not agree while 30 respondents were not sure about their stance.

**4.55 LANGUAGE AND WORK**

Frequency table for LANGNOTH			
Value	N	%	Cum.
yes	108	28.21	28.21
no	236	61.54	89.74
not sure	40	10.26	100.00
TOTAL	384	100.00	

Table 29: Language and work

In figure 29 in the above table internal publics were asked to respond to this statement: '*language ability has nothing to do with work place interactions*'. Data from employees revealed that a total number of 108 employees indicated yes, thus, in agreement with the statement. Another number of 236 respondents indicated no, thus, not in agreement. A total number of 40 people indicated that they were not sure about their stance.

**4.56 LANGUAGE IN MEETINGS**

Frequency table for LANGMEETIN

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Value	N	%	Cum. %
yes	300	78.21	78.21
no	45	11.54	89.74
not sure	39	10.26	100.00
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>384</b>	<b>100.00</b>	

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Table 30: Language in meetings

Internal publics in companies were asked if good English communication skills were vital for staff meetings. Data from respondents showed that the biggest response rate of 300 employees said yes while another category of 45 employees said no. A total number of 39 employees indicated that they were not sure.

#### 4.57 MAJOR IMPROVEMENTS

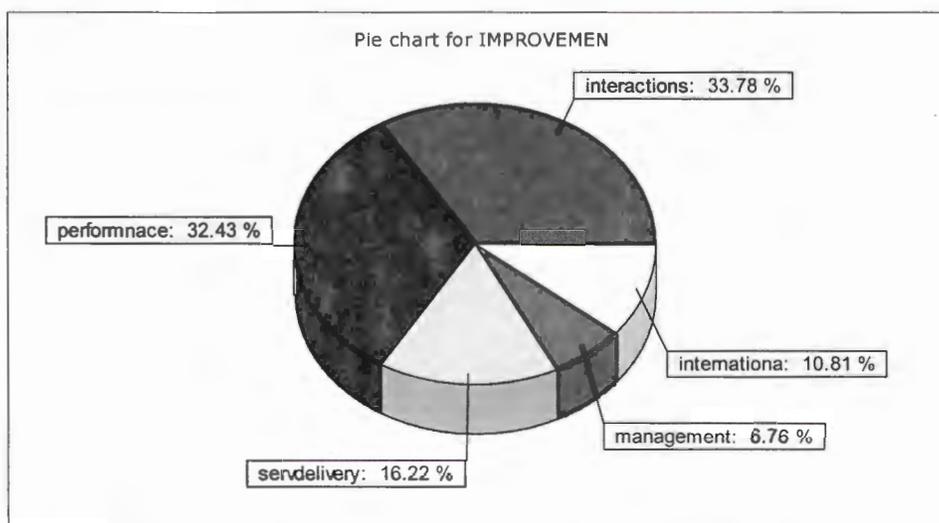


Figure 46: Major improvements

According to figure 46 above, employees were asked to explain the major improvements that were brought to their work by good English communications skills. Various views were offered by the companies' employees. A leading response rate of 33.78% indicated that English has helped in the general interactions at work. A 32.43% response rate has indicated that English communication skills have benefited the organization in the general performance of the business. A 16.22% indicated that English skills have benefitted the company in service delivery. A category of 10.81% indicated that English skills have helped their businesses in international relations. Respondents emphasised that the better the language the warmer the relationships with local and international trading partners. A category Of 6.78% response rate explained that English communication skills have benefited the business overall management process.

#### 4.58 MAJOR PROBLEMS

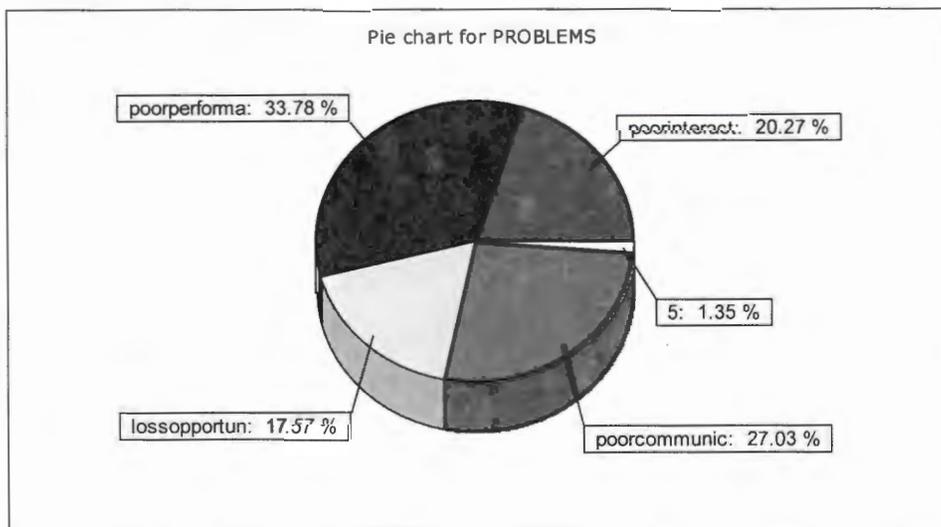


Figure 47: Major Problems

According to figure 47 above, employees were asked to explain the major difficulties that are associated with poor English communication skills. Various opinions were explained by employees. Firstly, 33.78% explained that poor English skills contributed to poor performance of the business in general terms. Poor performance in this case related to

business operations. Secondly, 27.03% explained that poor English inevitably leads to poor organisational communication, hence, poor coordination of activities. Thirdly, 20.27% said that weak language skill was directly linked to poor interaction with fellow colleagues and other business partners from both local and international context. A 17.57% views indicated that poor English is attributed to loss of golden opportunities in the corporate world. A category of 27.035% explained that poor English leads to the woe of poor organisational communication.

#### **4.59 CONTENT ANALYSIS RESULTS**

Content analysis was also utilised in the analysis and interpretation of qualitative data responses in order to ascertain what the views of policy makers from interviews were. The objects and materials of analysis were the views of policy makers. The views of policy makers were specially attained from key stakeholders namely the national curriculum development centre and field inspectorate. However, the results from content analysis seem identical to some responses provided by internal publics in the first part of analysis. The results from content analysis were presented below.

#### **4.60 CURRICULUM AND RESOURCES RELEVANCE**

Policy makers were asked in an interview situation to respond to this question: '*do you think the curriculum and the resources that are being used in tertiary learning are relevant to the professional use of English*'. A total number of 8 policy makers took part in this part of the study. When responding to this question, many policy makers, and rather surprisingly, indicated that they were not sure about the relevance of curriculum and resources. On the other hand, the next category of views from policy makers were of the opinion that the curriculum and resources did have relevance in as far as professional use of English was concerned. The least category of responses shows that the curriculum and resources lacked the necessary relevance.

#### **4.61 THE BRITISH AND BASOTHO LANGUAGE RELATIONSHIP**

Policy makers were again asked to articulate if the relationship between the British and the Basotho during the colonial period has in anyway influenced the language practices in the context of Lesotho. Interview results confirmed that all 8 policy makers were of the same opinion. Thus, the relationship between the two nations has had an immense influence on the language practices. For instance, the policy makers indicated that one way in which this influence minifests, was that, even to the present moment, English still remained dominant in all domains in the Lesotho context.

#### **4.62 SPECIAL TRAINING RECOMMENDATION**

One interview questions further asked the stakeholders to state if they recommended special training to English teachers in tertiary institutions. One of the studies arguments that initiated the study was an argument that tertiary institutions can play a pivotal role in building the ideal language competence. There were mixed feelings of opinions here. Many views pointed out yes while few opinions pointed out that they were not sure. Also to note here, was that, no opinions felt that there was no need for special training.

#### **4.63 SKILLS FOR PROFESSIONAL SPEAKERS**

The stakeholders, specifically, national curriculum development centre, were asked to indicate the specific skills they recommend to professional English speakers. Again, there were mixed feelings of opinions. Many interviewees were of the view that they will recommend specific skills in English. A number of them explicitly indicated that, for professional users of English, they recommended particular training on English for specific purposes. This majority again explained that they will also recommended business English skills. None of the interviewees was of the sentiment that there was no need for any recommendation. Apart from that, a few participants appeared to be unsure about their stance.

#### **4.64 ABSENCE OF LANGUAGE POLICY**

Policy makers were asked to establish if Lesotho was working towards an explicit language policy since the country had none. The views all pointed towards one

direction. Thus, all the stakeholders appeared unaware if there was an initiative in place to have an explicit language policy in the future.

#### **4.65 EDUCATION IMPROVEMENT INITIATIVE**

Policy makers were asked to indicate the manner in which the government intended to improve the education system in general. This initiative should be a direct response to combating the woe of lack of necessary proficiency by the graduates. A mixed feeling of opinions was achieved here. In the first place, some indicated that graduates should be ready to learn at all times. Secondly, others were of the opinion that there should be a monitoring process all the time. Lastly, there should be corrective measures whenever an inaccuracy was identified in English performance.

#### **4.66 EFFORTS ON ENGLISH SKILLS**

The stakeholders were asked to establish if there are any efforts by the government of the day to promote English language skills in more domains. All views were unsure if there were any efforts in place by the government.

#### **4.67 GENERAL CHALLENGES**

Respondents were asked to indicate the general challenges that confront English language education in Lesotho. Opinions here all pointed in one direction. Thus, they were of a strong feeling that there is a challenge of absence of an explicit language policy in the context of Lesotho.

#### **4.68 POLICY AND GOALS**

Interviewees were asked to respond to this interview question: *'if Lesotho was to develop English language skills policy, what do you think would be the goals of such policy'*. In response, two main goals were central to the views. Firstly, respondents indicated that one of the goals of the policy should be to improve the nation in general. Secondly, other opinions felt that the policy's goal should be to address the very needs of professional language users.

#### **4.69 WORK RELEVANT SKILLS**

Policy makers were asked if language teachers do teach other work relevant skills, thus, other than just teaching English as a subject. A mixed feeling from two opinions was attained in general here. Many of the respondents indicated writing as one relevant skill. Some few others felt that speaking was another such relevant skill.

#### **4.70 STAKEHOLDERS**

The last interview question asked policy makers to name the necessary stakeholders in the development of language education in the context of Lesotho. When attempting to answer this, about four stakeholders were indicated. The four stakeholders were namely national curriculum development centre, field inspectorate, special education unite as well as institutions of higher education

#### **4.71 CONCLUSION**

This chapter provided an extensive analysis and interpretation of data which was amassed through questionnaires and interview schedules. These results were further explicated through the use of graphs and tables. The chapter also used content analysis method to deal with qualitative data. The next chapter outlines the conclusion, summary and recommendations extracted from the result of the research findings.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **CONCLUSION, SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

The analysis of research data and information does not in itself provide answers to the research problem. It is thus essential to interpret the data and information gathered from the results to ensure that the research questions have been answered. It is also imperative to interpret and discuss the data to establish whether or not the objectives of the study have been met. The aim of this chapter is therefore to discuss and interpret the findings made from data collected on proficiency in English Language and communication for professional practice in Maseru Lesotho, respectively. In order to achieve the aim some objectives were set. This section presents and summarizes the findings by assessing and re-stating the objectives. Suggestions for further research are also offered.

The objectives were set to break the aim down into more specific, measurable, and timely units. The objectives of this study were as follows:

- To establish if different language needs analysis methods are used to examine language and communication needs of industry and business in Lesotho.
- To investigate if the industry and business language needs are considered in Lesotho national language education policy
- To identify any other possible barriers that prevent English language proficiency.
- To identify if there are any initiatives in place on staff development in the professional context.
- To evaluate the role of English proficiency in the corporate context especially for language and communication professionals.

## **5.2 SUMMARY**

This section provides summary of the findings under each of the objectives of the study. The section serves to illustrate how the research questions and objectives were answered by the respondents.

### **5.2.1 Assessment of objectives**

The first objective was to establish if different language needs analysis methods are used to examine language and communication needs of industry and business in Lesotho. This objective measures the curriculum and resources relevance to professional. With regard to this objective, data obtained from policy makers, through interviews, revealed that language needs analyses for professional English users are apparently not used in the curriculum. Findings from policy makers showed that many of the policy makers interviewed were not sure if curriculum and resources used in tertiary education do address the needs of professional English users. The next category of responses (few) indicated yes while the least number of respondents indicated no. When assessing these responses, it has therefore emerged that the use of language needs in the curriculum is something not explicitly visible in the education system.

The second objective sought to investigate if the industry and business language needs are considered in Lesotho national language education policy. This objective was also achieved through the findings from policy makers in direct interviews. In as far as this objective is concerned, it has become obvious that indeed, industry and business language needs are taken into consideration by English language teachers in the context of Lesotho. Mixed feelings of two opinions were attained in general. Many of the respondents indicated writing as one relevant skill that is considered. Some few others felt that speaking is another such relevant skill.

Thirdly, the survey aimed to identify if there are any other possible barriers that inhibit English language proficiency. Again, this was also achieved through findings' analysis and interpretations. In relation to this objective, data obtained through questionnaires disclosed that lack of explicit language policy, especially for professionals, is a concern. Data obtained from questionnaires indicated that the majority of respondents were

unaware of any language policy and the impact it can have on the very proficiency in the language. Data from the internal publics showed that many of them were not cognizant of the relationship between good language policy and professional use of English.

The study further explored the existence of any initiatives in place on staff development in the professional context. This objective was achieved through questionnaires. In as far as this objective is concerned, findings have established from various opinions that there were no adequate initiatives on staff training and development in many companies. A number of respondents went further to show that their companies lacked training on language education that would address the very goals of the business.

Lastly, the study evaluated the role of English proficiency in the corporate context especially for language and communication professionals. This objective was also achieved through findings from 384 questionnaires administered. Generally, findings illustrate that language proficiency can have a positive influence in the corporate context. Thus, proficiency in English is an advantage to an employee in the performance of the duties. On the other hand, the business activities run efficiently as a result of competent language user, thus, enhancing overall performance of the enterprise.

### **5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS**

These recommendations are based on the results uncovered by the study. The study therefore recommended the following:

- The curriculum and the resources that are being used in tertiary education should be designed in such a way that they directly or indirectly respond to communication needs of industry and business in Lesotho.
- There is an urgent need for an explicit language policy in Lesotho. English language skills policy with clear goals that address the very needs of professional English users will be an ideal initiative.

- The study strongly recommends that training managers should provide adequate staff training, particularly the kind of training that enhances the overall performance in English language skills.
- Lastly, it is recommended that the society should perceive English language skills as the most vital skills in business and industry.
- Finally, further studies or investigations are recommended in order to un-earth some of the unexplored issues on language for development and transformation processes.

#### **5.4 CONCLUSION**

The results of the study generally establish absence of explicit language policy, especially the policy that addresses the needs of professional users of English language in the context of Lesotho. From the findings it is also apparent that Lesotho should generally value English language proficiency. This will be in the best interest of a number of sectors, including the economy. It has been proven that the success of an explicit language policy yields better results for business and industry. This can be demonstrated through visible initiatives in the form of policy.



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## APPENDICES

**APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE TO INTERNAL PUBLICS**



For office use only: Respondent Number: \_\_\_\_\_

*Voluntary questionnaire for the respondents*

## **Proficiency in English Language and communication for professional Practice: A communicative perspective.**

Department of English

North-West University

*Researcher: Lelingoana Benedict Lerotholi (Student Number: 27480232)*

*Supervisors: Dr. Theo Mukhuba and Dr. Mpho Chaka*

### **Note to the respondent**

- I appreciate your willingness to assist in this research, however, please note that you are not compelled to partake in this survey.
- Your contributions to this questionnaire will remain private and confidential. No one will be able to trace your responses back to you as a person.
- Your permission to use these responses is required. This will form the first part of the questionnaire.
- This is a confidential survey and your name will not be linked to your responses. All personal information will remain confidential.

The questionnaire has two parts:

Section A- requests permission to use your responses for academic research.

Section B -asks how English language is utilized in the society and if there is any importance to build the language competency for professional practice.

### **How to complete the questionnaire**

1. Your opinion is required. It does not matter what other people think. I am solely interested in your opinion. Tell me how you feel. Your responses are important to me.
2. Read each question carefully and take a moment to ponder your answer.
3. Please use a pen to mark your responses by placing a tick (✓) or a cross (X), in the appropriate column, or by writing down the appropriate information, where ever required.

4. Please do not change any of your responses afterwards (for instance: do not scratch out or tippex any of your responses).

***Thank you for your participation.***

Contact Details: [lelingoanlerotholi@gmail.com](mailto:lelingoanlerotholi@gmail.com) (00266 63044486), (00266 59871159)

**SECTION A**

Please provide the following confidential information to indicate that you are granting me **permission** to use your responses in my research. *Your personal identity will NOT be revealed when the survey results are published in my thesis.*

1. Your initials and surname

2. Your home address

<input type="text"/>			
<b>Suburb</b>	<input type="text"/>	<b>Postal code</b>	<input type="text"/>

3. Your telephone OR cell phone number

4. Email

5. Your gender

Male   Female   I do not want to answer this question

6. Your age

Less than 20 years	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
20 - 29 years	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
30 - 39 years	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>

40-49 years	4
50 – 59 years	5
60 + years	6
I do not want to answer	7

**7. Your race**

Black	1	White	2	Indian	3	Coloured	4	Other	5	I do not want to answer	6
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**8. I am an employee**

YES  1      NO  2

**SECTION B**

This section deals with exposure, education level, degree of competence and utilization of English language. (Please insert a tick (✓) or a cross (X) on the box that corresponds to your response).

**9. Please indicate your education level**

1	Completed high school	(1)
2	College graduate	(2)
3	University Graduate	(3)
4	University Post Graduate	(4)
5	Other (Specify).....	(5)

**10. I have the following number of years of working experience.**

<b>1 to10</b>	(1)
<b>11 to 20</b>	(2)
<b>21 to 30</b>	(3)
<b>31 to 40</b>	(4)
<b>Above 41</b>	(5)
<b>I do not want to answer this question</b>	(6)

**11. Please indicate the area in which the company personnel lack corporate language skills**

1	Oral interactions	(1)
2	Presentations	(2)
3	Cultural awareness	(3)
4	Professional terminology	(4)
5	Not Sure	(5)
6	Other	(6)

**12.**

How would you rate your job qualification?	<b>Poor</b>	<b>Satisfactory</b>	<b>Good</b>	<b>Excellent</b>
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)

**13. To be well qualified in the work that I'm doing, I would consider English as:**

1	Most important	(1)
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2	Very Important	(2)
3	Important	(3)
4	Least Important	(4)

**14. Which language is widely used for work communication in your company?**

1	Sesotho	(1)
2	English	(2)
3	Both Sesotho and English	(3)

	<b>ENGLISH LANGUAGE SKILLS AND USE</b>	<b>YES (1)</b>	<b>NO (2)</b>	<b>I DO NOT WANT TO ANSWER THIS QUESTION (3)</b>
15	The need for English is greatest in our company			
16	I Have good English language abilities			

	<b>OPINIONS ABOUT PROFICIENCY IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN THE CORPORATE CONTEXT IN MASERU</b>	<b>AGREE (1)</b>	<b>DISAGREE (2)</b>	<b>NOT SURE (3)</b>
17	Knowledge of English language is important in our business			
18	If an employee is proficient in English he can contribute towards overall business improvement			
19	People who are good at English have a chance of getting a good job			

20	Enhancing one's English language ability has no value to our business			
21	Good use of English language by the employees enhances business efficiency			
22	There is a general concern of English language errors by the employees in this company			
23	There is a general concern of English language pronunciation problems by the employees in this company			

	<b>NECESSITY OF ENHANCING LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY IN UNIVERSITY (or tertiary institutions)</b>	<b>AGREE</b> (1)	<b>DISAGREE</b> (2)	<b>NOT SURE</b> (3)
24	It is good for students to acquire English communication skills to prepare them for employment			
25	Students who acquired good communication skills in school are likely to perform better in the work			
26	Acquisition of English language skills from school contributes towards an effective worker			
27	Acquisition of English communication skills from school makes an undesirable employee			
28	Job performance can be improved by enhancing language proficiency in the school			
29	Acquisition of English language skills from school is not associated with efficiency on job performance			
30	The teaching methods which the teachers employ in school do not help students to			

	acquire the necessary level of English competency			
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	<b>LANGUAGE POLICY AND ENGLISH PROFICIENCY</b>	<b>AGREE</b> (1)	<b>DISAGREE</b> (2)	<b>NOT SURE</b> (3)
<b>31</b>	I do not know what language policy is			
<b>32</b>	Good language policies produce good language professionals			
<b>33</b>	Good language policy is good for business			
<b>34</b>	I don't see any relationship between language policy and language knowledge			
<b>35</b>	Good language policy is ideal for human capital			
<b>36</b>	Good language policy is good for work			

	<b>ENGLISH PROFICIENCY</b>	<b>YES</b> (1)	<b>NO</b> (2)	<b>I DO NOT WANT TO ANSWER</b> (3)
<b>37</b>	I have good oral communication skills in general terms			
<b>38</b>	I have good English writing skills			

(Please insert a tick (✓) or a cross (X) on the box that corresponds to your response).

	<b>YOUR OPINION ON BUSINESS AND ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY</b>	<b>AGREE (1)</b>	<b>DISAGREE (2)</b>	<b>NOT SURE (3)</b>
<b>39</b>	Proficiency in English language for employees contributes towards business growth			
<b>40</b>	We mainly use English language to communicate the affairs of our organisation			
<b>41</b>	If there was language training in our organisation, I would prefer to attend in order to improve my proficiency.			

	<b>CORPORATE TRAINING</b>	<b>OFTEN (1)</b>	<b>OCCASIONALLY (2)</b>	<b>NEVER (3)</b>
<b>42</b>	My workplace provides training to enhance English proficiency			
<b>43</b>	My workplace provides general staff training activities			
<b>44</b>	My workplace conducts workshops on language skills			
<b>45</b>	My workplace provides feedback on employee performance			

<b>46</b>	Language Training can have a positive influence on the company core business			
<b>47</b>	My work place provides language education training that supports aims of the company.			

(Please insert a tick (✓) or a cross (X) on the box that corresponds to your response).

	<b>ENGLISH LANGUAGE USAGE</b>	<b>YES</b> (1)	<b>NO</b> (2)	<b>NOT SURE</b> 3)
<b>48</b>	I mainly use English to interact with colleagues			
<b>49</b>	I mainly use English to read crucial company announcements			
<b>50</b>	I mainly use English to perform activities in my job			
<b>51</b>	I mainly use English to prepare reports			
<b>52</b>	My workplace values language competency for its employees			
<b>53</b>	Proper knowledge of English language is vital in the Implementation of			

	regular business strategies			
54	Good knowledge of English language is vital to Manage projects			
55	Good knowledge of English Language plays a pivotal role in the exchange of research ideas in the work place			
56	Good communication skills are important for providing technical advice			
57	Poor communication skills cause a lot of frustration in the work environment			
58	Language ability has nothing to do with work place interactions			
59	Good communication skills in English are crucial for staff meetings			

60. Cite, in order of importance, at least 2 major improvements that are transferred to your work by good English communication skills (feel free to explain)

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61. Cite, in order of importance, at least 2 major problems brought to your work by poor English communication skills (feel free to explain)

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**Thank you. Your co-operation is indeed appreciated**

**APPENDIX B: INTERVIEWS TO POLICY MAKERS**

## INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR POLICY MAKERS

For office use only: Respondent Number: \_\_\_\_\_

### **Proficiency in English Language and communication for professional Practice: A communicative perspective.**

Department of English

North-West University

*Researcher: Lelingoana Benedict Lerotholi (Student Number: 27480232)*

*Supervisors: Dr. Theo Mukhuba and Dr. Mpho Chaka*

#### **THIS SECTION AIMS AT IDENTIFYING LANGUAGE NEEDS OF PROFESSIONAL ENGLISH USERS.**

1. Do you think the curriculum and the resources that are being used in tertiary learning are relevant to the Professional use of English?
2. Has the relationship between the British and the Basotho during the colonial period influenced the language practices in any way in Lesotho?
3. Do you recommend special training to English teachers in tertiary institutions?
4. What skills do you recommend to professional speakers of English?
5. Research shows that there is no language policy at present in Lesotho. Are you planning to have one in the future?
6. Research reveals that government is making an initiative to improve education in general. However, graduates still lag behind in terms of proficiency in English language. How does the government intent to combat this woe?
7. Are there any efforts by the government at present to promote English language skills in more domains than it is the situation at present?

8. In your own view, what do u think are general challenges that confront English language education in the context of Lesotho?
9. If Lesotho was to develop English language skills policy, what do you think would be the goals of such a policy?
10. Are Language teachers teaching other work relevant skills?
11. Who are the necessary stakeholders in the development of language education?

**Thank you. Your co-operation is indeed appreciated.**

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