

THE INTEGRATION OF THE VIDEO IN THE TEACHING OF
ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE: A THEORETICAL
PERSPECTIVE

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OPSOMMING

Titel: Die integrering van die video in die onderrig van Engels as 'n tweede taal: 'n teoretiese perspektief.

Die gebruik van 'n tegnologiese medium soos die videomasjien in die onderrig van Engels as 'n tweede taal, is betreklik onbeproof. Die doel om in 'n tweede taal kommunikatiewe bevoegdheid te bereik, kan moontlik bevorder word deur die didakties-korrekte aanwending van die video in die klaskamer. Daar is egter nog nie genoegsame empiriese data, of 'n geskikte teoretiese grondslag in die gebruik van die video as 'n opvoedkundige hulpmiddel, om vir die onderwyser as riglyn te dien nie.

Alhoewel verskeie taalteorie geskikte metodes en tegnieke bevat vir die aanbieding van 'n videoles, is daar geen enkele teorie wat die veelsydige eienskappe van die video in taalonderrig omvat nie. 'n Leemte het dus ontstaan wat moontlik deur 'n eklektiese benadering tot tweedetaalonderrig gevul kan word.

'n Tentatiewe, eklektiese taalteorie gegrond op vyf erkende benaderings tot tweede taalonderrig, word hier voorgestel. 'n Raamwerk waarin die gebruik van die video met verskeie lestipes geïntegreer word, word verskaf.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 The problem defined

The use of instructional media can be successful only if it has as basis an adequate theory of research (Muller, 1985:171). Most of the work done in the field of education media has lacked a theoretical framework to guide researchers. This has made it impossible to generalize, to compare and link different studies, and to encourage further experiments which could enhance and develop the theory and generate new hypotheses (TOD Handleiding, 1986:4).

Researchers tend to consider all technological education media as being functionally equal because the unique qualities of each medium being studied are ignored, so that content and instructional style for all media are similar and only the technology is different (Muller, 1985:174). As a result the unique physical properties of the video, which can be used to great advantage in the teaching of a second language, have not been utilized sufficiently and successfully in language acquisition (Jones & Bignall, 1992:125). Although the use of the video in language learning/teaching is still in an experimental stage, it is an innovation which stirs up interest and motivation and therefore strengthens the link between educational principles and practice

(McGovern, 1983:69).

Education media have not yet been integrated into curriculum and syllabus design, one reason being the lack of a reliable underlying theory of teaching and contradictory results in education media research (Rushby, 1987:237 & 239). The teacher therefore has no guideline in the use of sophisticated technological media and no access to an extensive infrastructure and an educational support system. Rushby (1987:79) states that "our existing educational models and theories of media do not accommodate the features characteristic of the electronic media now available."

The language "revolution" caused by the linguist Noam Chomsky between 1957 and 1965 was largely responsible for the many new approaches to language (Greene, 1973:15). From this emerged, eventually, the sociolinguistic school of thought and the communicative language approach which have as their main aim the achievement of communicative competence in the learner. The emphasis placed on linguistic proficiency, competent social interaction and the conveyance of meaning in the acquisition of a second language has called for a reconsideration of teaching methods (Yalden, 1983:10).

Could the video, with its unique physical properties, be of use in the acquisition of communicative competence and facilitate the teaching of a second language?

1.2 The aim of this study

The aim of this study is to provide a tentative theoretical framework for the integration of the video as an education medium in the second language classroom.

In order to attain this aim a theoretical perspective must be given on the following aspects of second language teaching and education media:

- * approaches to language teaching and learning
- * the video as an education medium
- * the video in language teaching
- * the use of the video in language teaching
- * an eclectic approach to language teaching on which a framework for the integration of the video in different lesson types, will be based

1.3 Method of research

As the aim of this study is to supply a theoretical perspective on the integration of the video in ESL, research consists mainly of a study of the literature available both locally and abroad.

1.4 Programme of study

Five approaches to second language teaching and learning which serve as a

basis for an eclectic approach to language teaching are discussed in the second chapter. In Chapter 3 education media in general and the video as an education medium in particular are discussed and Chapter 4 centres on the video as a medium in language teaching. The study is concluded in Chapter 5 in which an eclectic approach to English second language teaching is discussed and a framework for the integration of the video in the teaching of different lesson types, is provided.

Chapter 6 summarizes Chapters two to five and recommendations for further research on the integration of the video in language teaching are made.

1.5 Conclusion

It has become clear that the video is not exploited to its full potential in language teaching. By providing a framework and by the skilful use of the various techniques that the video makes available, language teachers can choose to present video materials to learners in the most suitable way to facilitate successful language acquisition.

CHAPTER 2

APPROACHES TO SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

2.1 Introduction

Many different schools of thought, or approaches, for the teaching of a second language exist, and each has its own underlying principles, practices and concepts (Stern, 1986:23 - 26). This abundance of approaches is an important feature of the teaching of a second language today. It not only reflects the soundness and vigour of language teaching but unfortunately also causes confusion in making decisions and choices (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:vii).

There are different reasons why new approaches are adopted. In some instances it is because an authority prescribes it, in others because teachers accept the rationale offered for it, another being the general dissatisfaction with the current state of affairs, but the most compelling reason is probably that the approach has proved itself to a certain extent and has therefore become fashionable (Chick, 1989:31). These reasons are not adequate and only a good theory can provide a rationale for language teaching approaches and methods, for it can help the teacher to understand why the changes are important and if the classroom activities could really promote communicative abilities.

In this chapter different approaches in language teaching will be discussed. These are the Audiolingual Method, the Situational Method, the Audiovisual Method, the Communicative Language Teaching Approach and Krashen's Natural Approach. Each of these approaches has distinctive features which, if eclectically combined, could possibly contribute to form a theoretical language teaching framework into which the video may be incorporated in a theoretically justified way in the teaching of a second language.

2.2 Theories of language

Anthony (1972:5) defines an approach as "a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language and the nature of language teaching and learning. An approach is axiomatic. It describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught. It states a point of view, a philosophy, an article of faith - something which one believes but cannot necessarily prove." An approach may be realized in a method provided it has developed a design for an instructional system in which objectives, content selection and organization, teaching activities, education media and the roles of the teacher and learner are set out (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:16-20).

Richards & Rodgers (1986:16 & 17) identify at least three theoretical views of language which influence approaches and methods in language teaching : the structural view, the functional view and the interactional view.

2.2.1 The structural view of language

In this approach the outward form and structure of the language is emphasized and the doctrine of empiricism is largely accepted in learning (Brumfit & Roberts, 1983:209). The mastery of phonological units, grammatical units and operations and lexical items is its aim and the pupil has to learn the language system (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:17).

According to Stern (1986:163) the " structural linguist brought to language teaching the skill of isolating, closely observing, and analysing specific linguistic patterns." From the methods of analysis of structural linguistics grew the technique of pattern practice and language drills. The audiolingual method is an example of a language teaching approach which emerged from this view.

2.2.2 The functional view of language

The functional view concentrates on communicative competence based on the needs of the learner and the situations in which he will use the language (Erasmus, 1984:27 & 28) and language is seen as a vehicle for the expression of functional meaning (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:17). This view was developed by David Wilkins in the 1970s at the request of the Council of Europe and has as its framework the basic categories of meaning which include notions of time, space and quantity as well as functions such as informing, greeting, requesting and what else will be needed to communicate in the target

language (Stern, 1986:109, 112 & 132). The semantic and communicative dimensions of language are emphasised and the learner tries to understand and convey messages and ideas in the second language from the very beginning (Marton, 1988:34).

Focus is placed on the functions of language, and Van der Walt (1984:21) explains that:

We must include in our teaching (of a language) the ability to do things with language and to express meanings in the language. Language must be seen as interpersonal communication, used for a whole range of purposes and in a wide variety of situations. This means that we must place as much emphasis on meaning and use as on form in our teaching.

The functional-notional view of language learning has added both a novel as well as a challenging approach to the teaching and learning of a language (Van der Walt, 1984:26).

2.2.3 The interactional view of language

Social interaction, such as interpersonal relationships and social transactions between people, is the aim of this view of language. Richards & Rodgers (1986:17) maintain that "interactional theories focus on the patterns of moves, acts, negotiation, and interaction found in conversational

exchanges." Interaction opens up and maintains social contacts and serves to mark role relationships (Stern, 1986:225). Both CLT as well as Situational Teaching have elements of the interactive view to language teaching underlying their respective approaches.

These three theoretical views (or variations on them) provide the general principles and theoretical framework that can motivate a particular teaching method (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:17). They are, however, insufficient on their own and must be complemented by theories of language learning.

2.3 Theories of language learning

Learning is a process which modifies behaviour in the fields of action, skills or knowledge and it is an individual experience for each person (Kemp, 1980:14). Language learning, as defined by Stern (1986:20), is "the development of bilingualism, and the learning of linguistic variations within a language. Some learning is stimulated by teaching, but much of it may be independent of any teaching."

Learning theories can be classified under two major categories, the behaviourist group (or so-called S-R theories), also known as the empiricists and the Gestalt theory, or cognitive approach to learning, whose proponents are known as rationalists (Stern, 1986:305 & 307). Behaviourism is based on experiments concluded mainly on animals under conditions of rigorous control and manipulation, where observable responses are made to specific stimuli,

and the conscious thinking, planning and internal processes of the learner are ignored. The view is that language is a set of habits which is imitated by children in learning. They learn "correct" language by being rewarded for "correct" behaviour and by being punished for "wrong" behaviour. This view was strongly opposed by Chomsky who believed that a child is born with a biologically conditioned predisposition to acquire language when he is exposed to it (Kaplan, 1985:2). The cognitive approach to learning embraces innate organizing principles in human perception, purposeful learning, cognition, insight, sensorimotor skills and social conduct as the basis of learning.

Knowledge can be obtained directly through our own experience, or indirectly by being given information by others. These two ways of learning are also known as inductive and deductive learning respectively (Corder, 1966:1-3). Sensory impressions gained through experience become knowledge when they have been organized to form concepts which can be applied to further learning and this kind of learning is better than deductive learning and more easily retained. Learning through information and experience are not in contrast to each other but usually complementary in the language classroom.

2.4 Approaches to second language teaching

2.4.1 The Audiolingual Method

The audiolingual method is the first method of which an analysis of the

psychological basis of the underlying teaching theory has been made (Stern, 1986:324; Langacker, 1968:4). The audiolingual theory emerged from the views of the American structural linguists who opposed the traditional grammatical approaches to the study of language, and who favoured a more practical interest in the teaching of a language (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:48). They accepted the view of the behaviourist psychologists who called for a scientific and objective investigation of human behaviour (Rivers, 1970:33). Audiolingualism emphasizes "the ability of the human nervous system to acquire new speech habits through physical practice, and to analogize from existing habits so as to create new behaviour on the basis of old, well-established behaviour" (Stevick, 1991:133).

2.4.1.1 Approach

Language is seen as a system consisting of related elements of phonemes, morphemes, words, structures and sentences which are linearly produced and governed by rules. The learning of a language comprises the mastering of the elements of the language, learning the rules which combine the elements, and applying them syntactically (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:49).

In structural linguistics speech was the most important aspect of language (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:49) and therefore had a priority in language teaching. On this assumption the audiolinguists focus on mastery of speech and introduce writing quite late in the language learning process.

Richards and Rodgers (1986:52) state that "in practice this means that the focus in the early stages is on oral skills, with gradual links to (the) other skills as learning develops." The oral skills are nevertheless dependent upon fluency in the grammatical structures of the language.

Skinner's behaviourist theory, which is based on a sequence of stimuli and responses which are immediately reinforced by confirmation of the correct responses, formed the basic concept for the audiolingual approach in the sixties (Stern, 1986:307). The behaviourist theory adopted a descriptive approach to the study of language and this led to research to establish how the native speaker really uses his language as opposed to how traditional grammarians profess it ought to be used (Rivers, 1970:33 & 34). Language was regarded as "a living, evolving thing, not as a static corpus of forms and expressions."

Rivers (1970:37-41) makes four basic assumptions concerning the audiolingual method:

- * Second-language learning is a mechanical habit-forming process: reinforcement strengthens habits; correct responses form habits; language is behaviour.
- * Language items should first be presented in spoken forms.
- * Analogy, rather than analysis, should be the foundation for second-language learning.
- * The meaning of the words can be learned only in cultural context.

As the skills of listening and speaking are predominant in this approach the movement has become known as the "audiolingual method" (McArthur, 1983:100).

2.4.1.2 Content

Audiolingualism is based on a graded, structural syllabus containing the key items of the phonological, morphological and syntactical structures of the target language. A vocabulary of basic items is usually specified (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:53). Priority is given to the skills of listening and speaking in the teaching sequence, but a knowledge of grammar, although not emphasized, is not forbidden completely (Stern, 1986:464). The approach is synthetic.

2.4.1.3 Method

In the audiolingual method learning to understand and speak some of the language are taught before developing the reading and writing skills. There should be oral mastery before the written form is introduced (Rivers, 1970:37).

Speech is produced by imitation based on models or patterns which are memorized and structural differences between first and second languages are taught (Lado, 1964:50 - 56). Grammar is considered as a means to an end and a detailed analysis is regarded as an advanced study but not necessary where the aim is to use the target language in communication (Rivers, 1970:39). The

intellectual, problem-solving approach in teaching is not accepted and the method of conditioning and habit forming is used (Stern, 1986:464).

Models in the form of dialogues are used to contextualize key structures. Situations in which the target language can be used as well as certain cultural aspects can be demonstrated and elucidated by the use of the dialogue (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:51 & 53). The meanings of words must be learned in a linguistic and cultural context and never in isolation.

The audiolingual method is teacher-centred and the pupil does not produce creative or novel utterances because sentences are based on models and patterns (Marton, 1988:60). At first written work is also based on models and consists of transcriptions and substitutions. Only when the pupil has acquired confidence in using basic structures, the writing of short compositions will be encouraged (Rivers, 1970:43).

2.4.1.4 Techniques

The most characteristic technique which is used is the repetition of dialogues and grammar drills in order to memorize the former and to achieve automaticity in responding to the latter (Stevick, 1991:137).

The teacher uses dialogues, models and patterns for drills as basic techniques and the pupil practises or is drilled during most of the learning time

(Richards & Rodgers, 1986:55 & 57 ; Lado, 1964:56). Learning starts off with choral repetition which is followed by small-group practice and then individual response (Rivers, 1970:42).

Mimicry-memorization, mostly of dialogues, and pattern drilling which enables the pupil to master structures and to manipulate them, are used to instil language habits to a point of automatic response (Rivers, 1970:38).

A textbook is not used initially, only an aural input via the teacher, tape recorders, radio, records, teaching machines and language laboratories (McArthur, 1983:100). Listening and speaking, with emphasis laid on simple and active practice, become the centre of learning (Stern, 1986: 464 & 465).

2.4.2 Situational Language Teaching

Situational Language Teaching emerged in the 1920s and 1930s from the work of British linguists who wanted to develop a more scientific basis to teach English as a foreign language with an oral approach (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:31). A systematic study of principles and procedures by which the content of a language course could be selected and organized, was done by them. Language had to be taught not in isolated words and patterns but in relation to what people do in real life situations (McArthur, 1983:101).

2.4.2.1 Approach

Situational language teaching has as its underlying theory of language a "type of British 'structuralism'." Structure is seen as the heart of speaking ability with speech as its foundation (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:35 & 36). The oral practice of structures linked to the context and situations in which they would actually be used, became one of the distinctive features of this approach. Its theory of learning is based on behaviourism, but the learner has to deduce the meaning of words and structures from the situation in which they are presented rather than by explanations given by the teacher. It is expected of the learner to transfer language learned in the classroom to similar situations outside in real life. Language at all levels should be studied in its context of situation to emphasize meaning: therefore speech has to be studied both in relation to the language items surrounding it as well as in relation to the nonverbal elements such as people, objects and events (Stern, 1986:138).

An extensive vocabulary is considered to be one of the most important aspects of foreign language learning as it greatly assists the skill of reading which was at that time an important objective in foreign language learning in some countries (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:32).

2.4.2.2 Content

The situational syllabus focuses on language as a social medium (Erasmus, 1984:27). It is closely related to the topical or thematic syllabuses and has situational need as its starting point (Yalden, 1983:34 & 35). There is, however, disagreement as to whether the situational syllabus can be classified as basically semantic and therefore closer to the analytic approach, or as structural and therefore closer to the synthetic approach. Yalden (1983:34 & 36) maintains that it lies "somewhere on the continuum from synthetic to analytic", depending on how it is treated.

Grammatical structures are graded from the simple to the more complex and arranged in accordance to their presentation and a word list is supplied to supplement the sentence structures and their practice (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:37). Because structures are arranged around specific themes, grading cannot always be adhered to rigidly and some structures which would normally be taught later will sometimes be used at an earlier stage if it fulfils the learners' needs (Yalden, 1983:37).

2.4.2.3 Method

Having an oral approach as basis for language teaching the situational teaching method presents material orally before reading and writing are attempted. Language items which are to be taught are presented in the target

language and always in situation. Easier grammatical structures precede the more complex ones and the inductive approach to the teaching of grammar is adopted (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:36).

The teacher makes use of both situational teaching which includes the classroom and everything in it, and the textbook and drill materials which constitute the formal part of the learning process (Corder, 1966:60). Formal and situational teaching are therefore combined. Since language in context cannot be limited to a single language component, situational teaching centres around a topic of interest and relevance, such as the barber's shop. Stern (1986:222 & 223) explains that the situation as seen by the participants may direct their verbal action and practice and in a given situation "participants select a particular variety of speech, dialect, language, code, or register, which is likely to depend on the situation and the relationship between the participants or the topic."

The situational teaching method is teacher-centred and the teacher directs and manipulates in order to get correct responses from the pupils who use the language more actively in the practice phase of the lesson (Richards & Rodgers 1986:38 & 39).

2.4.2.4 Techniques

Techniques in situational language teaching will differ in accordance to the level of learning the pupils have attained. A move from controlled language

practice to freer language use is always the aim (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:39).

Visual materials and actual objects like clippers, combs and mirrors in the case of the barber's shop, would advance the situational layout in the classroom (Corder, 1966:61 - 68). Discussion, questions and answers, dialogues which are practised - and substitution-drilled, group work and role-play are some of the more common techniques. Completion and substitution exercises are used for written work.

Controlled practice techniques consisting of repetition and substitution activities are used initially. Chorus repetition, dictation and oral-based reading and writing tasks are common (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:38).

2.4.3 The Audiovisual Method

The audiovisual method was developed in France in the 1950s and was originally intended to serve adult language learners in the United Kingdom. Adapted programmes were also used in America and Canada. The method was also applied to programmes for young children (Stern, 1986:466).

2.4.3.1 Approach

The audiovisual method like the audiolingual method, has a structural and linguistic basis, but it emphasizes the social and situational aspects of

language learning (Stern, 1986:468). Language is absorbed through the ear in the context of a visual presentation to facilitate learning. Visual aids are applied to simulate the social context in which language is used.

The Gestalt psychology underlies the learning process in the audiovisual method and analysis and explanation are supplanted by understanding (Duminy, 1972:155). Grammatical units are not broken down and learning should take place in a meaningful context (Stern, 1986:468).

A cognitive and active approach is adopted where the learner is guided and encouraged to make his own conclusions about the language and to participate in the language activities (Stern, 1986:322).

2.4.3.2 Content

The audiovisual syllabus derives its content from descriptive linguistics based on psychological principles (Stern, 1986:467 & 468). Grammatical and lexical items are presented in a strictly graded order. Topics which are of interest to the learner and relevant to his social needs can be used as teaching materials. Various activities are integrated in a specific theme and structures and vocabulary are taught to better understanding and communicating when necessary (Wright, 1976:11).

2.4.3.3 Method

The audiovisual method attempts to simplify language learning by placing it in a social context, to use it in meaningful communication and to replace the printed text by audiovisual education media (Stern, 1986:466 & 467). This visually presented matter encourages the learner to participate in classroom activities as the teacher points out, demonstrates and uses games and the language laboratory in teaching.

Language learning is divided into three stages. The learner is first introduced to everyday language and has to become familiar with it. He can then start to use the language on more and relevant topics to suit his needs, and then to read more widely in the second stage. The last stage is based on specialised discourse and personal interest (Stern, 1986:467).

2.4.3.4 Techniques

Audiovisual teaching is usually associated with the use of education media such as slides, film strips and motion pictures as visual stimuli, and sound tracks, records, tape recorders or the teacher's voice as audio stimuli (Lado, 1964:214).

The lesson is a well-planned and an orderly sequence of events which begins with a film strip and tape presentation. The visual image and the sound

presentation complement each other and together supply a meaningful unit (Stern, 1986:467). The teacher explains by demonstrating, pointing out, questioning and answering and by the pupils' selective listening.

Grammatical drill, memorizing and modifying dialogues and models, and practising patterns, form the application stage of the lesson and all these features should be taught in meaningful context (Stern, 1986:467 & 468).

2.4.4 Communicative Language Teaching

The communicative approach originated in the seventies because of the need in second language teaching to attain communicative proficiency, rather than to master the grammatical rules of a language as had been traditionally done in the past (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:63 - 66). **Notional Syllabuses** (1976) had a great influence on Communicative Language Teaching (CLT).

2.4.4.1 Approach or underlying theories

The aim of this approach is communicative competence and it sets out to develop procedures for teaching the four language skills that take into account the interdependence of language and communication. No single communicative approach model, text or authority is universally accepted and therefore communicative language teaching has a "rich if somewhat eclectic, theoretical base " (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:66 & 71).

McArthur (1983:102) names three important elements which underline CLT.

- * the individual needs and interests of the learners must be taken into account in the teaching situation.
- * meaning in real-life context must have preference above grammar in the teaching of language.
- * language is to be used, not studied as a structure.

Richards & Rodgers (1986:71) mention that the most important units of language are the categories of functional and communicative meaning as demonstrated in discourse. Yalden (1983:47 & 50) supports the belief that "language is primarily a social function and should therefore be studied as a social phenomenon." Knowing a second language is seen as neither acquiring a set of linguistic facts nor as acquiring a set of habits - it is efficient interaction with people. There is an emphasis on the relationship between sentences and meaning but, more importantly, between discourse and life (Stevick, 1991:134).

2.4.4.2 Content

To determine what language functions should be included in the syllabus the needs and interests of the learner should be established. Van der Walt (1985:79) affirms that "The concept of needs analysis has become a central one in communicative syllabus design. The starting point of any course aimed at communicative competence is an analysis of the learner's needs." The

communicative syllabus is an instrument by which to ascertain what the learner needs rather than a statement of what is to be taught (Blunt, 1987:46 & 48). The syllabus could include important communicative functions, notions and uses, as well as structural items.

The functional-notional syllabus as devised by Wilkins (1976) specifies a list of notions and functions (Van der Walt, 1984:22, 23 & 26). The syllabus is learner-centred and has a psychological base.

2.4.4.3 Method

Learning activities must incorporate meaningful and authentic language use rather than automatic pattern drills (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:72). To attain this the classroom must be seen as a "language-using community in which learners can themselves experiment with the language and are encouraged to use it to communicate what they genuinely want to communicate, however inadequately at first" (Brumfit & Roberts, 1983:87). Communicative activities are central to this method.

Language learning is done in specific situations such as visiting a city or arriving at a hotel, and speech items which are frequently used, like enquiring, asking permission or giving reasons and explanations are analysed (Stern, 1986: 260).

Variation in materials, content and situation is a central concept in order to

maintain interest and encourage intrinsic motivation (Richards & Rodgers, 1983:69). It is expected of the learner to try to understand messages produced by other speakers and to produce his own utterances from the very start of the learning process (Marton, 1988:34).

Spontaneous exchanges in unplanned discourse and other speaking activities, always in the target language, make up most of the class time. Learners' errors are not corrected directly but in an oblique way which Marton (1988:39) calls "expansion." The teacher is not the central figure in the didactic situation but only guides and assists. The negotiation of meaning is paramount.

2.4.4.4 Techniques

Problem solving, simulation, role play and even drilling exercises may be used (Stern, 1986:26) but whatever the technique may be, it must be used in a sociolinguistic context in a practical and meaningful situation.

Richards and Rodgers (1986:67 & 68) consider dialogues centred around communicative functions, and translation, acceptable techniques if used communicatively and in a social context. A lesson could consist of a theme, a task analysis, a practise situation, a stimulus presentation, comprehension questions and paraphrase exercises (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:80). All the language skills are therefore integrated in one lesson.

Interaction through pairs or groups, with other pupils or through writing, could be used in learning, and the teacher could listen in and provide help if necessary. Recreational activities such as games, information and problem-solving activities are used in language teaching (Marton, 1988:41).

2.4.5 The Natural Approach

The Natural Approach grew from the second language teaching experience of Tracy Terrell, and its underlying theory of second language acquisition was elaborated by Stephen Krashen in the late seventies (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:128).

Krashen's five hypotheses about second language acquisition caused great interest among linguists (Stern, 1986:331), and drew renewed attention to the dispute about whether conscious, grammatical control is more important in language learning than the unconscious, less deliberate ways of learning, as in the learning of the mother tongue.

2.4.5.1 Approach

The Natural Approach can be viewed as being an example of the communicative approach since it considers communication and the teaching of communicative competence as primary aim (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:128).

Krashen (1985:4 & 92) maintains that the fundamental principle underlying second language acquisition is a comprehensible input. If the learner's affective filter is low enough to absorb this input, acquisition will be inevitable. Communicative competence and grammatical accuracy are acquired by listening and reading for meaning and can only be obtained indirectly.

Krashen's language acquisition theory consists of the acquisition/learning hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis, the input hypothesis and the affective filter hypothesis (Krashen, 1982:1 - 10). A language according to Krashen, is acquired when a learner/user subconsciously absorbs it without being aware of the rules or grammar. Language learning is understood as learning which is structured and organized in the context of formal instruction (Brumfit & Roberts, 1983:195). An acquired language system initiates and generates utterances in communication, while learning acts only as a "monitor or editor that checks and repairs the output of the acquired system." (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:131 & 132).

Krashen states, in addition, that there is a certain predictable order in the mastering of grammatical structures in the acquisition of languages which do not occur in language learning (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:132), and that the acquisition of a language is directly related to the exposure to the input of a language. The learner's emotional state or attitudes act as a filter that can pass or prevent input (Krashen 1982:31).

Stevick (1991:135) maintains that, because acquisition rather than learning is emphasized, both the learner and the teacher are freed from immediate and continuous concern with the correct production of individual grammatical features and pronunciation.

2.4.5.2 Content

The Natural Approach syllabus will vary according to the needs and interests of the learners (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:135). To attain the set communication goals, both oral and written, the syllabus must be seen as a suggestive rather than a prescriptive guideline. A list of situations, functions and topics is supplied although functions are considered to arise naturally from topics and functions.

No grammatical structures are prescribed as they are to be acquired by a regular, interesting and need-based input and the task-based activities of the learners (Ellis, 1984:206; Richards & Rodgers, 1986:135). Therefore the course design could be seen as being analytic (Yalden, 1983:33).

2.4.5.3 Method

The Natural Approach does not make a rigid distinction between acquisition and learning and they should be visualized as a continuum, because second language learners benefit from input as well as formal teaching (Stern, 1986:393). It

must be kept in mind that different pupils perceive, process and react in different ways to the input of either of these learning conditions.

Basic personal communication skills, both oral and written and academic learning skills, also oral and written, are the typical goals which the Natural Approach seeks to attain in terms of situations, topics and functions (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:135). Listening to announcements in public places, the writing of personal letters and taking notes in class are examples of some of the skills to be mastered. Activities are not based on a grammatical syllabus since a sufficient input will automatically imbed the necessary language structures.

Input should be comprehensible, interesting and relevant, not grammatically sequenced and dominated by rules (Krashen, 1982:128). A great amount of input is desirable for the best results. Krashen points out that recent method comparison research has shown that methods which provide a great deal of comprehensible input are superior to grammar-based and drill-based methods (Krashen, 1985:14 & 15).

The classroom should have a relaxed and friendly atmosphere and although learners must respond to instructions they need not talk until they feel ready and at ease to do so.

The Natural Approach "is the use of familiar techniques within the framework of a method that focuses on providing comprehensible input and a classroom environment that cues comprehension of input, minimizes learner anxiety, and maximises learner self-confidence" (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:136).

2.4.5.4 Techniques

Interaction among learners is one of the foremost techniques, either in pairs or groups and they should be actively involved in supplying input (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:137). Activity-oriented interactions give the pupil the opportunity to initiate the speech act more often and communication becomes part of the learning process. A variety of communicative games such as word bingo, puzzles, hangman or any other problem-solving activities which trigger communication are popular techniques used in the Natural Approach (Ellis, 1984:112).

Interaction contributes to learning because "it is the means by which the learner is able to crack the code" (Ellis, 1984:95). This happens when the learner understands by inference what is being conveyed even though the linguistic item used are still not part of his competence.

2.5 Conclusion

In the five theories which have been discussed it has become apparent that there are a certain number of similarities in approaches, methods and

techniques. The question now arises if success in teaching could be improved by adopting an eclectic approach based on certain aspects of these theories. Linguists have begun to be less critical about the merits of one method and the demerits of others, and a kind of eclecticism has begun to emerge and to be accepted (McArthur, 1983:101 & 102). A choice can now be made from methods and techniques, available to attain a specific objective. Marton (1988:88) maintains that eclecticism can lead to successful teaching if theories of learning and teaching is taken into account and if an assessment is made of the particular techniques and procedures in relation to their contribution to second language acquisition. An eclectic model will be proposed in Chapter 5.

In the next chapter education media in the didactic situation, their classification and determinants in their selection will be discussed. The unique properties of the video as they could be applied in the teaching of a second language will be looked at. The purpose is to design a framework for the use of the video in the eclectic approach to language teaching.

CHAPTER 3

THE SELECTION OF EDUCATION MEDIA WITH SPECIFIC REFERENCE TO THE VIDEO

3.1 Introduction

Educative teaching involves the whole human being, has moral values, and produces behaviour acceptable to society. It may be regarded as " the conservation, transmission and renewal of culture" (Yule & Steyn, 1986:1). Education takes place when the adult guides, shapes and influences the child in order to lead him to maturity, selfreliance, responsibility and vocationalrealization (De Wet , Monteith & Van der Westhuizen, 1981:3 - 7).

In guiding the learner to his full potential every possible moral means should be applied to facilitate learning. In reaching this goal education media can play a key role in the design and use of systematic instruction. According to Gerlach, Ely and Melnick (1980:241) "every medium is a means to an end or to a goal." For example, a diagram of the Government of the United States of America is a medium which represents, in abstraction, real people and their relationships to one another.

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss educative teaching briefly, to define education media and establish their role and advantages in the

didactic process. A classification of education media and their importance will be given and the didactic determinants concerning their selection will be discussed. The video as a technological education medium will be looked at and an attempt will be made to point out that many of the categories of both intrinsic and extrinsic mediation which appear separately in different education media are collectively and integratively present in the video as an education medium.

The unique properties of the video and its advantages in the classroom will be listed and some important didactic principles in relation to the video as a pedagogically sound education medium will be discussed.

3.2. Definition and role of education media in general

3.2.1 Definition of education media

An education medium is anything which can help the learner in his acquisition of knowledge, skills and attitudes. Gerlach et al. (1980:241-243) define education media as "the graphic, photographic, electronic or mechanical means for arresting, processing, and reconstituting visual or verbal information." A distinction must be made between materials and equipment. For example, a still picture, shown on a projector, is the material and the projector the equipment. Together they form the medium.

Marais, Calitz and Van Wyk (1983:3) give a more detailed definition by saying

that an education medium is anything which is used by the teacher to teach and anything which is used by the learner to learn.

Reiser and Gagné (1983:5) see instructional media as " the physical means by which an instructional message is communicated." Education media can vary from extreme simplicity to extreme complexity and are used to facilitate learning and represent reality (Yule & Steyn, 1986:2). To this can be added that they must assist the teacher in the attainment of a set objective (Freysen, Briel, Potgieter, van Graan & van Niekerk, 1989:2). If the teacher makes use of a still picture of a male peacock to point out his attractive colours, the picture should obviously not be in black and white or else the objective will be lost.

An education medium can thus be seen as anything which is morally justifiable to facilitate, accelerate and enhance the conveyance of information in order to instruct and educate the learner.

3.2.2 Role of education media in the didactic situation

Education medium have a specific place and role in an intentional educational situation (Marais, 1985:27). They can facilitate the learning process and contribute towards developing the learner to his full potential. Marais (1981:11), however, emphasizes the fact that a medium as such can make no contribution to learning. It is merely an instrument of learning and not the lesson itself. Successful learning will depend on how creatively media are

incorporated in overall lesson design. Clark (1983:445 - 452) points out that "it is what the teacher does - the teaching - that influences learning." Education media are merely vehicles through which instruction is delivered and enhanced: the means to attain didactic communication forms, together with media didactics, a mere sub-division of educational technology (Freysen et al., 1989:4). Thus they serve the teacher as aids in the didactic situation but do not lessen or take over his role.

3.3 The classification of education media

The phenomenal increase in scientific knowledge has brought about significant implications which have influenced the field of education at all levels. The task of the teacher has become more demanding and complex. In addition, he is required to compete against the dynamic communication media which the pupil encounters daily in his community. Individual needs, differences in abilities and personalities of pupils in a heterogeneous group must be taken into account and provided for. But a major problem is that the instruction time available has not increased (Du Toit, Pretorius, Rosenblatt, 1989:11 & 12). It is therefore imperative that the most effective instruction possible should be provided to the pupil so that successful learning can be achieved.

The large variety of forms of mediation has caused confusion in selecting the most suitable medium for formulated lesson objectives. This problem can be solved by a reliable education media classification. If the teacher is familiar with such a classification system it will become possible to

integrate instructional aids more successfully in the didactic situation (Marais et al., 1983:68 - 70). The reason for this is the assumption that a specific medium can best present a task which has a similar classification (Reiser & Gagné, 1983:13 & 14). For example, a visual medium could best convey a visual meaning and an auditory medium could be more effective in the teaching of listening. Education media differ in their ability to facilitate learning (Reiser & Gagné, 1983:5 & 7) and there should be a systematic means of making a choice. It is for this reason that a classification of media is required.

Until recently there has not been a scientifically determined media classification system and education media were classified under diverse categories. A recent classification based on justified educational principles and subjected to certain empirical criteria has, however, been made by Marais (1987:2 & 3), and this will now be discussed.

3.3.1 Marais's approach to education media classification

Marais (1987:1 & 2) designed and implemented an interaction-analysis-observation instrument to prove that when student teachers were guided by an empirically-grounded classification system of education media, their lessons were more successful (see Tables 1 & 2 on p. 40 - 43) Marais categorizes mediation under two headings, namely "Intrinsic" and "Extrinsic". He stresses the fact that these categories should not be seen in isolation, but that they overlap interdependently (Marais, 1989c:77 & 78).

In the next subsection these two categories will be looked into.

3.3.1.1 Categories of intrinsic mediation

Marais (1987:4) states that "the largest component of events within teaching is probably the personal, and often literal bodily participation of those involved." Intrinsic mediation includes methods such as lecturing, dramatization and demonstration. These methods represent the ostensive facet of heurostentics in teaching. The assignment, another intrinsic method, represents the most dominant heuristic facet, and conversation lies at the centre of these two facets. The following are the categories of intrinsic mediation:

3.3.1.1.1 Lecturing

Lecturing is the most one-sided teaching method but remains one of the most widely used. It includes narration, explanation, description and reading.

3.3.1.1.2 Dramatization

In dramatization the pupil is most actively involved, individually or in groups. Imitations, performance, gestures and excursions are examples of this method and flow naturally from the lecture.

3.3.1.1.3 Demonstration

Demonstration includes all illustrations and experiments to elucidate and facilitate learning and can be both heuristic and ostensive.

3.3.1.1.4 Conversation

The two main forms of conversation are class discussions and teacher-pupil discussions. This method is heuristic as well as ostensive and includes activities such as the forum, chat groups, the brainstorm and combined effort discussions in which pupil-pupil conversation are featured.

3.3.1.1.5 Assignment

The assignment is predominantly heuristic and it enables the pupil to develop his own creativity and independence with guidance from the teacher. This category can be divided into open assignments and closed assignments. In the open assignment the pupil is given guidelines only and more initiative is expected of him in the choice and execution of the task. The closed assignment has a more specified topic and the pupil is therefore more restricted.

3.3.1.2 Categories of extrinsic mediation

Extrinsic mediation includes all the education media, material as well as

equipment, used for teaching. Marais (1987:9) selects the following five categories for extrinsic mediation.

3.3.1.2.1 Realia

Everything associated with reality such as objects, living creatures, direct experiences and events are included in this category.

3.3.1.2.2 Pictures

All verbal presentations, such as written and printed media, graphic representations like charts, sketches and diagrams as well as still pictures fall under this category.

3.3.1.2.3 Sound recordings

Tape and video recordings, records and sound tracks of 16 mm films are included here.

3.3.1.2.4 Programmes

This category includes any sequence such as the slide sequence which has been compiled with the intention to teach. The video could also be mentioned under this category.

3.3.1.2.5 Simulation

Role playing, computer simulations and educational games are some of the representations designed to simulate reality.

3.3.2 Conclusion

Marais (1990:13) points out that his classification of education media (see Tables 1 & 2) should be used by the teacher as a "menu" to assist in the choice and integration of education media in lessons.

Successful mediation, however, does not depend solely on the selection of a correct medium. Success in the classroom will also depend on a thorough analysis of the didactic situation (Freysen et al., 1989:30), which is discussed under 3.4.

Table 1. Forms of intrinsic mediation.

INTRINSIC MEDIA (I)

LECTURING (1.1)

1. Lecture (factual conveying of content).
2. Explanation and formulation.
3. Narration.
4. Description.
5. Colourful narration.

6. Detailing (accurate verbal description of objects and events).

DRAMATIZATION (1.2)

1. Imitation of an accent, for example German.
 2. Imitation of gestures, for example to dance like Bushmen.
 3. Physical gestures and facial expression.
 4. Performance with musical instruments.
 5. Staging of a play.
-

DEMONSTRATION (1.3)

1. Illustration of how certain actions should be executed.
 2. Other.
-

CONVERSATION (1.4)

1. Class discussions.
 2. Teacher-pupil discussions.
-

ASSIGNMENT (1.5)

1. Open assignments.
 2. Closed assignments.
-

(Marais 1990:13)

Table 2. Forms of extrinsic mediation.

EXTRINSIC MEDIA (E)		
REALITY (E1)		
1. People	5. Events	8. Domestic objects
2. Animals	6. Demonstration apparatus	9. Laboratory equipment
3. Species	7. Tools and equipment	10. Excursions to real venues
4. Samples		
PICTURES (E2)		
1. Chalk board	12. Pictures/drawings	22. Photographs
2. Text books	13. Catalogues	23. Magnetic board
3. Work books	14. Almanacs	24. Flip chart
4. Dictionaries	15. Pamphlets	25. Flannel board
5. Atlases	16. Wall charts	26. Single slide projection
6. Encyclopaedias	17. Job charts	27. Single strip projection
7. Instructional manuals	18. Graphs	28. Overhead projection
8. Courses	19. Diagrams	29. Episcopes projection
9. Magazines	20. Posters	30. Epidiascope projection
10. Newspapers	21. Charts	31. Micro-projection

11. Clippings

SOUND RECORDINGS (E3)

- | | | |
|-------------------|------------|-----------------|
| 1. Taperecordings | 2. Records | 3. Sound tracks |
|-------------------|------------|-----------------|
-

PROGRAMMES (E4)

- | | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------|
| 1. Motion pictures | 3. Filmstrip programmes | 7. Video programmes |
| 2. Slide programmes | 5. Computer programmes | 8. Radio programmes |
| 3. Language lab. programmes | | 6. Photo essays |
-

SIMULATION (E5)

- | | | |
|-------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Educational games | 4. Models | 7. Dioramas |
| 2. Role playing | 5. Terrestrial globes | 8. Exhibitis |
| 3. Computer simulations | 6. Relief representations | 9. Sandbox presentations |
-

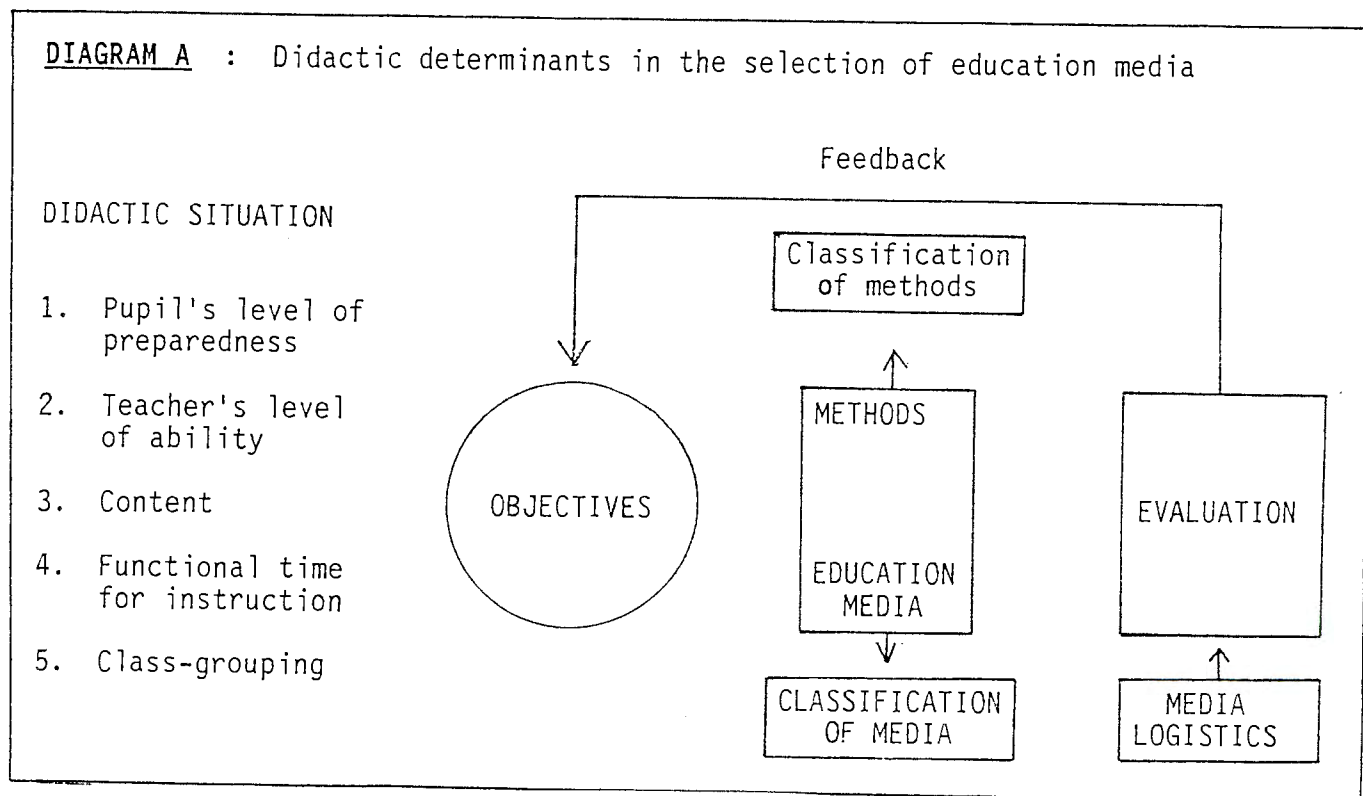
(Marais 1990:13)

3.4 Determinants in the selection of education media

Because different media have different abilities to present the various events of instruction, their selection will be of the utmost importance to attain specific objectives (Reiser & Gagne, 1983:6). An important factor which must be kept in mind is that all education media can instruct and that learning can be facilitated by virtually any medium (Salomon, 1978:37, 42). Education media however, remain cultural factors that affect human behaviour and deserve judicious selection.

The following determinants will influence the selection of media in a lesson.

DIAGRAM A : Didactic determinants in the selection of education media



(Marais, 1990:7)

3.4.1 Didactic determinants

Gerlach et al. (1980:250) state that "a medium of instruction must be selected on the basis of its potential for implementing a stated objective." The lesson, being the centre of all didactic processes, will begin with and develop around an objective (Marais, 1989b:4 & 5) and relate to an aim. The T.E.D. syllabus for English Second Language (1988:3) prescribes that "TEACHING BY OBJECTIVES should be the cornerstone of all aspects of language teaching." The objective will relate to certain didactic considerations which will have a definite influence on the choice and integration of education media. A motivated objective in lesson design leads to the choice of the correct medium as well as the correct didactic method in order to achieve success in the ultimate aim (Marais, 1990:10). Diagram A on p. 43 provides an overview of the selection and integration of education media in the didactic situation as a whole.

Marais (1990:6 - 10) discusses the didactic determinants which influence media selection as follows:

3.4.2 The pupil's level of maturity

The cognitive and affective development of the learner is influenced and formed by his interpersonal relationships and the dimensions of the world in which he lives. Personal factors such as his intelligence, age, sex, foreknowledge, personality traits and milieu will have to be taken into

account in media selection. As the child's cognitive ability progresses from the concrete to the abstract the teacher should start off with supplying realia as education aids before moving on to less concrete objects which lead to the higher plane of abstract thought.

3.4.3 The teacher's ability

Factors which can influence the teacher's choice of education media could be his personal characteristics, creativity and enthusiasm or motivation. Experience in teaching, the level of his training and his didactic abilities would also be of consequence.

3.4.4 Content

The kind of subject matter as well as its complexity will determine the manner of its presentation. Content matter which is to be memorized differs from that which is to be understood and therefore a judicious selection of education media should be done to ensure optimal retainment and understanding in the learner.

3.4.5 Functional time for instruction

A lack of sufficient time results in the neglect of utilizing education media and in preparing mediation for specific lessons. Teaching can nevertheless be more efficient if use is made of the correct education media and this can

actually lead to the economical use of time.

3.4.6 Class-grouping

Even if a reasonably homogenic group is being taught in the same classroom the teacher will have to consider differences such as sex, class activities and learning assignments among the pupils before selecting education media. Physical conditions in the classroom will also determine media selection.

3.4.7 Media logistics

Media logistics refer to all physical aspects which will influence the effectiveness of education media (Marais, 1989a:1). Different aspects of the planning, co-ordinating and handling of material and equipment are included in the term as well as the purchase, production and maintenance of material, equipment and facilities.

3.4.8 Some other considerations in the selection of education media

Reiser & Gagné (1983:82) consider as important the fact that education media should be able to be produced in time for a specific lesson. The costs of production, maintenance and operation must be affordable and the medium must be compatible to existing policies and practical to use in the intended situation.

3.5 The Contributions made by extrinsic education media to teaching

There are many recognized contributions extrinsic education media can make when used as an integral part in lesson design (Kemp, 1980:6). Marais (1989c:33-35) points out the following advantages in the use of extrinsic education media:

3.5.1 Motivation

Education media advance motivation in the learner and to encourage motivation is the teacher's main task (Marais, 1989c:33). Because a teaching aid can elucidate, magnify, clarify and make concrete, it will enhance the learning situation and create interest, understanding and motivation. Motivation qualifies the learner's total attitude towards his work and is the motive which provides the energy in gaining his ultimate goals (De Wet et al., 1981:211-222; Meunier-Cinko, 1992:149).

3.5.2 Productivity

Teaching aids can make education more productive by accelerating and enriching learning. The production of software will automatically result in improved lesson planning and control and will ensure an economical use of time.

3.5.3 Individual needs

Individual needs can be provided for with a variety of sources to suit both the pupils as well as the teacher.

3.5.4 Scientifically based instruction

Instruction can be given a more scientific base as education media improve and systemize the presentation of the lesson, the planning of objectives and evaluation.

3.5.5 Immediacy of instruction

With the use of teaching aids learning can be made more immediate by bringing the world outside into the classroom.

3.5.6 Equalizing educational experiences

Access to educational experiences can be made more equal by using the same mediation for different groups.

3.6 The use of the video in second language teaching in relation to the categories of intrinsic and extrinsic mediation

It seems that the video, when used as an education medium in the second language classroom, could encompass most of the categories of both intrinsic and extrinsic mediation.

3.6.1 Intrinsic mediation

A lecture given on video could include narration, explanation, description and reading which could all be done by presenters who are native speakers of the language being taught.

The teaching of literature, specifically, could be facilitated by making use of a drama presented on video. This method of teaching literature comes second only to a live performance which does not allow the didactic benefits of pause, focus, explanation, repetition and discussion which the video presentation can provide.

Conversation accompanied by everything which can enrich and clarify it, such as social setting, situation, facial expressions, spatial relations, intonation, pronunciation, the conveyance of meaning as well as authentic language in use, could be demonstrated by the video par excellence.

An assignment could be done during or preferably after a video presentation in

the form of a questionnaire, report or essay.

3.6.2 Extrinsic mediation

The video includes categories of extrinsic mediation in its sound, visuals in motion, still-pictures (when using the pause button), simulations of any situations and programmes which could be stopped whenever necessary. It is considered by many as being the best means available to us to bring the "real world" into the classroom (Allan, 1984:23).

3.6.3. Conclusion

Not all the objectives in second language teaching can be attained by using the video, for example in the silent reading lesson or in reading comprehension. It can, however, be exploited successfully in relation to the above aspects of second language teaching if it is judiciously applied. As a technological education medium the video has unique properties and advantages which could possibly be applied to different teaching techniques. These will be looked at in the following section.

3.7 The video as a technological education medium

The main challenges facing second language teaching are the development of an integrated educational system consisting of a communicative approach, refined

knowledge and skills for teaching purposes, and the promotion of the pupils' personal and social development as individuals (Hill, 1981:148-149). To attain this goal the potential of education media technology, especially the use of the video, should be assessed.

The apparatus in education, however, should not be seen as the main feature in learning. Shepherd (1990:2) maintains that the word technology "conjures up visions of piles of gadgets and machines invading the classroom and dehumanising the classroom situation." This, however, is not the case; Conradie and Du Plessis (1980:140) agree by saying that educational technology is "essentially a way of looking at the total process of teaching and learning in a systematic way."

Briel (1990:1) singles out technology as being one of the essential means which develops, preserves and transfers all the aspects of culture. As such it will exercise an influence on all the subjects contained in a curriculum and therefore on education. In accordance with this view Yule and Steyn (1986:1 & 2) also regard educative teaching as transmitting, conserving and renewing culture.

How can the teacher introduce the important aspects of the culture of the language to the learner if the learner cannot be brought into direct contact with reality? The technological revolution has made profound changes possible in foreign language teaching and the living language can now be brought into the most remote classrooms to complement regular language

instruction (Crouse & Noll, 1980:391). The combination of sound and vision as represented by the video can bring an air of reality into the classroom as well as convey the atmosphere of other cultures and paralinguistic aspects of communication to the learner (Lonergan, 1983:69; Edge, 1993:58).

Since video recording was made possible in 1956 the ephemeral quality of television has no longer been of consequence (Dranov, Moore & Hickey, 1980:3). The restriction of time limits and the difficulties concerning replay and pause were removed. Non-broadcast video was launched as an education aid with an impact and reach which has never been seen before.

At first the video was seen as a substitute film projector or TV set but its unique properties and specific advantages has set it aside from these two media as a much more versatile and useful medium (Allan, 1986:31). In considering the use of any new piece of technology its physical properties should be known. What the machine can do will determine what the teacher can do with it. In the following section certain aspects of the properties which are unique to the video will be discussed. The application of these properties as pertaining to the lesson will be mentioned only briefly as they will be elaborated on in Chapter 5 in their relation to the techniques of the underlying language theories which were discussed in Chapter 2.

3.7.1. The unique physical properties of the video

In making use of the video in the language classroom the teacher hopes to give

a "lift" to methodology with the intent to further interest and motivation, extend teaching techniques and add an extra dimension to course design (MacKnight, 1983:2). The unique properties of the video as compared to other education media cannot be denied. According to Allan (1984:21 & 22), the video could have revolutionary implications for the design of materials for classroom use. The following properties unique to the video, could prove useful in the presentation of a lesson.

3.7.1.1 Motion : play, fast forward, rewind, pause, replay, stop

The stop-and-start buttons as well as the rewind control are essential features of all video recorders (Lonergan, 1984:122 & 123). A picture search can be done by running forward or backward to any point at speed. In the preparation of a lesson, in doing repetition work and in explaining a point by making use of a pause, these properties can be extremely useful. (Kramsch, 1993:197).

A learner will look and listen with more concentration if he is viewing for a purpose. Therefore, by setting previewing questions and using the pause button at strategic points, certain selected aspects of language use can be highlighted (Allan, 1986:31 & 38). By using the machine without stopping it the learner is given practice in listening comprehension and receives input which could be both enriching or entertaining and motivating (Pike, 1984:202); Edge, 1993:19). This helps the learner in gaining a general idea of the content (Allan, 1986:36).

The tape can be stopped momentarily but it is important not to keep the pause button down too long because this can damage the tape. A belt of static interference could appear on the screens of some monitors but this can usually be moved to the top or the bottom of the screen (Pike, 1984:202). The freeze frame can retain a frozen picture on the screen without interference.

The video allows the pupil to perceive natural movement, slow motion, spatial relations, true models and three-dimensional presentations all of which can facilitate language teaching by conveying meaning (TOD Handleiding, 1986:4).

3.7.1.2 Volume control and sound

Volume control allows the separation of the picture from the sound and in the second language classroom this could have great potential as focus could be placed on the visual aspect of a lesson. This could assist especially in conveying meaning. The technique of working with the visual only is known as silent viewing (Allan, 1986:32). Sound-effects, music, and the authentically spoken word could all aid the pupil in learning.

After a presentation of a sequence the sound can be turned off and dubbing or role play can be done by the learners (Crouse & Noll, 1980:392). To aid the learner or to do correction unobtrusively, the sequence could be rewinded and played again with the sound switched on. A first viewing without sound could also be used.

3.7.1.3 The zero counter and remote control

In mastering the use of a video tape the zero counter is of enormous value. It can be compared to the pages of a book. A uniform zero point should be maintained so that numbering could start at approximately the same place each time the machine is used (Allan, 1986:33). Remote control is extremely useful and convenient as the operator need not be near the machine to control it (Lonergan, 1984:123). This allows the teacher to move about freely among the pupils. It also makes it easier to start and stop at exactly the right moment, a factor which can lend a more efficient and professional touch to a lesson. The modern learner has grown up with television and the video and has acquired a degree of sophisticated taste which must be satisfied in the classroom by professional handling of the medium (Ingraham & Emery, 1991:328).

To exploit the video fully the recorder must be under the direct control of the teacher, and the main reason why successful use of the video is as yet obstructed, is the lack of technical equipment in each classroom (Hill, 1981:152 ; Ingraham & Emery, 1991:324).

3.7.2 The advantages of the video

As the video complies with all the requirements of an education medium except easy accessibility in the classroom as yet (cf. 3.7.1.3) it is an extremely

suitable aid in language teaching provided that the material which is being used is morally and pedagogically justifiable. The video has the following advantages:

3.7.2.1 Simple to use

The video is easy to use technically because it is simple to start, rewind and stop with comparative accuracy and can be used in the ordinary classroom setting with the room fully lighted (Willis, D., 1983:18).

3.7.2.2 The "real life" situation

Learning can be made more meaningful by basing material on situations which represent real life (Normand, 1980:51; Meunier-Cinko, 1992:149). It is not always physically possible to move the pupil into the realities of the social and other situations which he will encounter in the outside world and it is here that the video could be used to bring a simulation of a situation into the classroom (Botha, 1990:7). McGovern (1983:59), Law (1980:122) and Allan (1984:23) make the claim that the video can do this more effectively than any other education medium.

3.7.2.3 Material is re-usable

Videotape can be used many times and can be updated with relative ease (Elliot, 1984:12 & 13). Material can be edited or copied, copied off-air or

home-produced (Willis, D., 1983:18; TOD Handleiding, 1986:4). Some video machines can play back two audio tracks and this makes it possible to have programmes in two languages. Commentaries on the same set of pictures or documentaries can then be used in two languages (Allan, 1986:33).

3.7.2.4 Enjoyment

By using television programmes (video) in the classroom teachers will be able to increase their range of resources significantly while at the same time increasing enjoyment and satisfaction for their pupils (Lewis, 1983:195; Lonergan, 1984:11). Learning could then be more fun and less of a drudge.

3.7.2.5 Movement

The popularity of the video as an education aid could be ascribed to the moving visual component (Willis, J., 1983a:30). Most pupils find video tape easier to understand than audio tape because the visual aspect can help to clarify a language situation. Corder (1960:24) states that static scenes are less effective in the learning situation while the impression of "people doing things actively" is essential. Information of any kind can be rendered more vividly and memorably by presentation on video (Elliot, 1984:12).

3.7.2.6 Paralinguistics

The video can enhance language teaching by presenting both the contextual and

the situational aspects of discourse (Meunier-Cinko, 1992:151). Features such as inter-personal relationships, socio-cultural aspects and paralinguistics make the video an advantageous education medium. Facial expression, lip movement, easy identification of the speakers, gestures not accompanied by utterances and body language can help the learner in his understanding of the lesson (Law, 1980:120; Jones & Bignall, 1992:136 & 137).

The video can only be appreciated fully if its advantages are compared to some other education media such as the film, tape cassette and picture slides. As a combination of these media the video incorporates all their properties and advantages in a compact and easily handled medium (Willis, D., 1983:18 - 19).

In addition, the versatility of the machine makes it easily adaptable to use in conjunction with other education media and various support materials can be integrated successfully in a video lesson (Lonergan, 1984:5).

3.7.3 The video as a principled education medium

There are sound pedagogical reasons for using the video as an education aid because it is a versatile medium which lends itself remarkably well to accepted and tried teaching methods as well as to experimentation and innovation (Crouse & Noll, 1980:391 & 392). Its versatility also enables the teacher to use different teaching aids, methods and techniques eclectically. During the past years many changes towards the approaches to and methods for

the teaching of second languages have been observed, but the responsible teacher will not discard the old for the new without having sound reasons for doing so.

Teaching should neither be the mechanical performing of traditional techniques nor the injudicious acceptance of the latest, without constantly considering the basic didactic principles which form the foundation of all sound classroom procedures (Duminy, 1972:23). Not all didacticians are in agreement on which principles should receive priority, but in some situations certain principles are more important than in others (Yule & Steyn, 1986:6). Of these five can claim universal recognition and they are all applicable to the video as a suitable and responsible aid in learning.

3.7.3.1 The principle of individualization

Each learner is an individual and has unique qualities, different needs, interests and abilities (Yule & Steyn, 1986:). In choosing an education aid these differences must be allowed for and here the video is pre-eminently suitable. Brumfit and Roberts (1983:143) say that there is no reason why the video could not be used for diversification and individual instruction in one part of the room while other pupils carry on with their individual activities in another. The set could also be used for or by small groups in a secluded spot without causing disruption or inconvenience (Willis, D., 1983:18). Viewing can take place at any time, even at home in the event of pupil absences (Elliot, 1984:12; Edge, 1993:9).

3.7.3.2 The principle of totality

Every individual is a totality with various dimensions which can be distinguished but never separated (Duminy, 1972:24 - 27). This concept has inspired a move towards integration in education, and it emerges in second language teaching in that the learner must use and understand the total communication system (Santoni, 1975:235). Lonergan (1984:4) singles out the video as the one medium which can present a complete communicative situation shown in visual, aural, social, cultural and paralinguistic context. This "total" multifunction medium could prove to be invaluable for presentation and for the synthesis of a total act of communication as behaviour in context of situation is being portrayed (Law, 1980:120).

3.7.3.3 The principle of activity

No learning can take place without the learner's participation, whether mental or physical. Yule and Steyn (1986:8) maintain that "The more actively involved the learner becomes in the situation, the greater the level of achievement." During the video lesson the pupil need not necessarily be involved in overt activity, but in covert participation which is not mere passive listening : he may be thinking, arguing and evaluating and, together with worksheets, preset questions, repetition of phrases, words or information, and discussions while the pause button is used, be actively involved in an application of the four language skills (Burke, 1971:83).

3.7.3.4 The principle of perception

Perception will be discussed in detail (cf. 4.6) and it need only be said here that perception can be increased and intensified by the sound, movement and settings which a video programme can reproduce (Elliot, 1984:12).

3.7.3.5 The principle of motivation

As this aspect has already been discussed (cf. 3.5.1) it need only be added here that McGovern (1983:59) states that the video has increased motivation in learners by enhancing and varying classroom activities. Video programmes have been used as part of a campaign to influence attitudes, and according to Elliot (1984:13) the results have been impressive. A learner's attitude could encourage or impede learning, and a learner with strong motivation will generally gain more success (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:129).

Van Zyl (1991:13), in a research project on effective video utilization, states that, according to teachers involved in the project, pupils were motivated to pay attention and to learn when they watched video programmes.

The conscientious teacher will not be satisfied by knowing only what to teach, he must also have insight into why his teaching and organization should be conducted along certain lines and not along others (Duminy, 1971:22). It is for this reason that all meaningful learning situations should have underlying didactic principles and theories.

3.8 Conclusion

The greatest advantage of the video lies in the fact that a variety of properties can be applied simultaneously in a single lesson, the most important being the visual, the aural and motion. In the teaching of a language this could be especially helpful in establishing a contextual social setting in which a language is heard and experienced in action. Green and Wallat (1983:164) accurately state that conversations "are more than random strings of words whose purpose is the simple verbal exchange of ideas, opinions, observations, and sentiments. Conversations are complex social phenomena that include nonverbal and social properties of an interchange in addition to, or concurrent with, the verbal characteristics of the exchange." Could a language be learned more easily, naturally and in a more interesting way if a conversation is presented on video as an introduction to a lesson?

As in the use of all education media, especially the new technological media, it will be important not to use the video for its own sake regardless of its suitability, but to use it as an instrument by which to attain specific objectives or aims. In any didactic situation the role of the video must be defined by reference to its unique properties and its advantages while keeping in mind that the two are not the same.

CHAPTER 4

THE VIDEO IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

4.1 Introduction

Much more research will be necessary before it would be possible to designate the roles of different education media accurately within an integrated learning system (Hill, 1981:147 & 151). Researchers have tried for many years to pinpoint a specific medium with which best to gain a set objective, yet no definitive results have been obtained. Rushby (1987:80) maintains that researchers have not always exploited the distinctive attributes of the media they are investigating.

In this chapter some of the main factors in second language teaching and learning which could be conveyed pre-eminently by the video, will be discussed. Aspects such as teaching language in context and situation, input, conveying meaning, authentic language material and perception will be looked into and related to the use of the video recorder.

4.2 Presenting language in context and situation

McArthur (1983:30) says that "any expression of language is bound by time and space. It relates to a linguistic, a situational and a sociocultural

context." Isolated items of language have no function: a setting and a system give them meaning and function. Languages are usually referred to as being general systems but they are always used in a social context and without reference to that context they cannot be fully understood. Wilkins (1976:16) suggests that we should make an assessment of the needs of the pupil and predict the situations in which he is likely to use the language. The language that is necessary for linguistic performance in those situations should then be taught. Wilkins (1976:16) states that "these features (of situations) include the physical context in which the language event occurs, the channel (spoken or written) of communication, whether the language activity is productive or receptive, the number and the character of the participants, the relationships between them and the field of activity within which the language event is taking place."

The meaning of a single element in an utterance such as a word, an idiom, a tense or a mood would become clearer in a number of contextualizations of utterances (Corder, 1966:21 & 30). In situational teaching the different meanings of a single word like "Go!" can be simultaneously taught as being an imperative verb form, a lexical item or a sentence in grammatical context. The word "Go!" gets its meaning formally from the linguistic context and situationally from the situational context.

Corder (1966:15 - 18) distinguishes between context and situation. Context is the setting of linguistic items in which an element occurs, as when a word is surrounded in a sentence by other words. This is called a linguistic or a

formal context and gives rise to formal meaning which is of importance to the linguist. Situation is the setting in which linguistic items occur. It is a non-linguistic setting and includes the people, events and objects in which language is used. An eavesdropper will not immediately understand a conversation he hears without having perceived the relationship between the speakers, not because the language is unrelated to the situation. He will have understood the formal meaning but not the situational meaning. In order to understand meaning the following situational features must be relevant : the participants in the conversation and their actions, verbal or non-verbal, which precede or follow the conversation (Corder 1966:21). Educational material in language learning must have meaning not only in relation to isolated words and patterns but also to what can be done with the material in real life situations (McArthur, 1983:101). Corder (1966:17), says "language does not simply happen in a 'vacuum'. It is the very complicated response of a speaker or writer to his environment."

Language learners are often able to achieve reasonable accuracy and fluency in the second language in the classroom, but make errors when using it outside the classroom in terms of the situation in which they find themselves because different social situations require different language use (Lonergan, 1984:45). By using a video presentation the teacher can present examples of language in use which incorporate every aspect of communication in the context of natural settings which add to the understanding of the pupil (Markham, 1993:183). The logical conclusion is that "we now have the best means offered us so far of bringing the 'real world' into the classroom" (Allan,

1984:23). Tudor (1986:19), agrees with the preceding statement when he says that the video has the ability to contextualize spoken language input in a way that no other medium is able to.

Tape recorders are widely used to present authentic language material to the pupil but they cannot provide the support of clear contextualization and paralinguistic features which help to make language meaningful, such as the video could contribute (Wilkins, 1976:80).

4.3 Grasping and conveying meaning

Since the 1970s linguists in Britain and other European countries have favoured and advanced a more communicative approach to language and as a result interest in linguistic theory focused more on discourse analysis, speech act theory, sociolinguistics, pragmatics and semantics (Stern, 1986:177 & 178). There was, however, no existing theory to meet the practical demands of a communicative approach to language teaching until Wilkins (1976) subsequently outlined a taxonomy of concepts for a communicative syllabus.

Wilkins (1976:70 & 77) proposes that the semantic dimension of the syllabus be given the highest priority and that meaning should be its central part because "the success of our teaching should be judged by whether or not our pupils are able to communicate meanings appropriately." The essential framework of the syllabus should therefore consist of the basic categories of meaning. Wilkins

(1976:21 - 23) distinguishes three types of meaning that can be conveyed in a sentence. The first is the semantico-grammatical category with which semantics has been traditionally concerned and where meaning is conveyed through grammatical systems. The second type expresses the attitude of the speaker towards his perceptions and experiences and lexical, grammatical and phonological devices are used to express meaning. This category is known as modal meaning or modality. The third category, that of communicative function, conveys meaning in the larger context in which the utterance occurs. Yalden (1983:71) explains the latter as being part of the interactive process and it indicates what the speaker is doing with the utterance, and not what is being reported. She says that "meaning has been taught but it has been primarily the meaning of words and sentences as isolates, and not their meaning within stretches of discourse" (Yalden, 1983:27). When interaction takes place the learner can infer or deduct what is being said even though his linguistic competence has not yet reached the level of the linguistic items which are being used in the discourse (Ellis, 1984:95).

Meaning, discussed under the visual element of language teaching, is the kind that has to do with a non-linguistic situation which includes the participants and their action (Corder, 1966:xi & 16). Corder (1966:21) states that meaning is what we should be concerned with in the teaching of a language. Meaning-giving relationships are "those between language and the relevant elements in the situation in which it occurs as an element itself, and not between the linguistic form and other forms." This is called situational meaning. The goal in language teaching today is not only to exchange words

with the native speakers of the language, but actually to understand what they mean (Kramsch, 1993:34 - 36). To achieve this goal the teaching of a language should occur in the correct cultural, social and situational context.

As the learning cycle advances the focus moves from language as a tool, such as vocabulary, grammatical studies and discourse structure, to the message that the language conveys (Willis, J., 1983b:48). Meaning thus becomes progressively more important. Richards and Rodgers (1986:67 & 71) consider meaning as being paramount in a communicative approach to language teaching and describe language as "a system for the expression of meaning." Prabhu (1987:97) says of his task-based teaching approach that any language which was learnt in the classroom was not learnt because of any specific teaching, but "as an incidental result of coping with meaning-exchange."

New language is easier to understand when it is introduced in a context essentially related to its use and the visual aspects contribute immediately and directly to understanding and communication (Wright, 1976:6). Corder (1966:30) names dramatization as a contextualising technique and the representations of contextualised language such as television (the video) into the classroom to convey meaning in language teaching. One of the main purposes of the video lesson should be to present a context in which the learner can, by inference and deduction, acquire for himself what he needs to know about the language (Willis, D. 1983:23).

For helping learners in their interpretation and understanding of language the

video which combines hearing, seeing and setting, can be the obvious medium and the effective exploitation of the video could improve the understanding of vital differences in non-verbal communication and thus enhance the learner's grasp on meaning (Willis, J., 1983a:29 & 36; Van Zyl, 1991:13).

4.4 Using authentic language material

~~Wilkins~~ (1976:79) maintains that authentic language materials are an important feature in acquiring language competence. By this is meant "materials which have not been specially written or recorded for the foreign learner, but which were originally directed at a native-speaking audience." This will allow the learner to experience the actual (and sometimes deficient) forms used by ordinary people in contrast to the idealized language which is being taught.

During the last fifteen years the use of so-called authentic materials has been one of the most characteristic features of materials design and the shift in favour of authentic materials, as opposed to specially constructed language teaching materials, has been considerable (Clarke, 1989:73 & 75). Communicative theory has been based on the needs of the learner, but needs analysis is seldom considered in syllabus design even though the use of authentic material is seen as an essential component of the communicative syllabus. Clarke (1989:74) says that "it is thus a paradox that although learner needs should be paramount in a communicative approach, the relevance of much authentic material in modern coursebooks does not seem to have been seriously questioned."

When video material is used in the classroom, it has been found that authentic material is often much richer than material designed for English Foreign Language purposes (Kerridge, 1982:112). The educational aims conveyed through this material will have to be carefully selected, well-defined and strictly adhered to, especially when considering the novelty of the medium. Clarke (1989:76 & 77), in discussing the reality factor in authentic materials, mentions "meaningful context and the purposeful use of language" as important in choosing materials. There is a growing awareness of and interest in the existence of a meaningful context in which language activities can take place because language materials are rendered inauthentic when used out of their original contexts. Unpredictability in language use is one of the main elements which is lost in prepared educational materials and this in itself makes material inauthentic. Jensen and Vinther (1983:131 & 133), claim that "genuineness" is a much more important quality in foreign language material than authenticity and that "Spontaneity is ... of the very greatest importance". Spontaneity can be achieved in video texts where the exact words have not been chosen for the speakers but where a general outline of contents has been supplied.

Authentic video material can provide a stimulus for conversation in order to develop fluency in use. It can also teach the learner to recognize and utilize all the non-verbal signs which are provided by the sequence while it improves the learner's ability to express himself clearly (McGovern, 1983:65 & 66).

Language taught by medium of the video is at the same time both the subject matter as well as the vehicle which conveys the subject matter and this could present its own set of problems (Jensen & Vinther, 1983:130). Care should therefore be taken in choosing video sequences for use in the language classroom, and a scene should be able to stand on its own even if it is taken from a longer programme (Allan, 1984:25). Authentic video materials could include plays, TV commercials, news readings and spontaneous language as used in TV interviews (Jensen & Vinther, 1983:131; Meunier-Cinko, 1992:148).

If the material is not isolated from its context, satisfies the needs of the learners and incorporates all which is necessary to attain the set aims and objectives and aims in acquiring proficiency in the target language, then the video could provide an ideal opportunity for the learner to hear authentic language used in context (Sheerin, 1982:122).

A further advantage of the language used in television (video recordings) is that it reflects the actual language spoken by the contemporary society and there is no language control in the applied linguistic sense of course design (Lonergan, 1984:81). This is possibly one of the greatest merits the video can provide.

4.5 Providing comprehensible language input

Until the beginning of this century languages, living as well as dead, were taught by the Grammar-Translation methods and the senses played only an

insignificant part in learning. Learning can take place either directly through our senses or indirectly, as when information is passed on through communication. These two kinds of learning are respectively called inductive and deductive learning. If a learner is put in a situation where he can infer or work out the meaning of a foreign language himself, he will learn better than when the teacher explains the meaning to him.

Krashen (1982:20, 21 & 138) attempts to explain how a language is acquired by means of his input hypothesis and claims that we acquire structure by "going for meaning" first. The learner moves from one stage of acquisition to the next by receiving input which is "a little beyond" his current linguistic competence. In the Natural Approach method most of the class time is therefore spent in supplying comprehensible input for acquisition. (This is discussed in more detail in Chapter 2).

The language learner must be exposed to the target language in order to acquire communicative proficiency "because without a certain amount of meaningful input there cannot be any acquisition at all" (Marton, 1988:34). This input is not necessarily to develop a certain preliminary competence in the second language, but rather, as Marton (1988) says, "some necessary data for the learner to make (his) own hypotheses about the language."

Several factors, such as incomprehensibility of the input, an insufficient number of peers who speak the target language or time to assimilate the language before putting it to use, can limit the benefits of natural input

(Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982:17). On the other hand, the formal educational setting does not always produce speakers who can communicate naturally and proficiently. Corder (1960:51) says there is "an inherent and insuperable conflict between the learner's skill and the contextualization of linguistic material. It is a conflict between comprehensibility and naturalness."

When using the video as a medium for language input the teacher can organize the language experiences according to the learners' command and level of language proficiency. Exposure to the language should be graded, and controlled as to the amount and complexity of the input (Allan, 1984:73). Organized activities and repetition of viewing when necessary are also possible. In this way "stepping stones to real world use of language by giving examples of language in use " can be provided by supplying input by means of the video.

The need to develop communicative proficiency and the tendency to focus more on aural and visual skills to grasp meaning, point to the vital role that the video can play in supplying comprehensible input in language acquisition (Dahl & Luckau, 1985:14). The video facilitates comprehension and retention, by its rich context, and renders subsequent information more meaningful to the learner (Herron & Hanley, 1992:424).

4.6 Improving perception

Perception is the ability of the brain to receive stimuli through the senses

and by interpreting these stimuli to gain understanding (Grové & Hauptfleisch 1984:239). What is perceived during this mental process becomes thought and is stored in the memory. This is the final process in learning.

Freysen et al. (1989:15) mention that the majority of learning theoreticians agree that perception forms the basis of all learning and since the sixties it has been taken for granted that visual methods of language teaching gain more success than methods which depend exclusively on verbal use (Corder, 1966:ix).

The experience of perception is unique to each individual and not alike for any two people (Kemp, 1980:13; Marais, 1989c:9 - 12), although common experiences may result in common thought and actions. When the video is used in a language lesson as equal an opportunity as is possible is given to all pupils in the learning situation and specific aspects of language can be emphasized by making use of the unique properties of the video such as the pause button (Pike, 1984:202; Gerlach et al., 1980:366). Visuals could clarify a great deal for the learner including meaning, context and non-verbal language in action (Meskill, 1987:11).

It is because the situation of mother-tongue learning cannot be reproduced in the classroom that we experience problems in the teaching of a language (Corder, 1966:7), but, by making use of the video, authentic language used in context can now be brought to the learner to aid in acquiring the communicative proficiency aimed at (Sheerin, 1982:122).

4.7 The use of the video

Relatively few teachers make effective use of the video in teaching because they have no immediate access to adequate programmes and lack the knowledge to exploit the video successfully in teaching (Hill, 1980:194). Van Zyl (1991:14) finds in her research on effective video utilization in education that "users of educational technology (still) need advice and support with the acquisition and dissemination of equipment and of programmes."

It would seem then, that the following recommendations for the use of the video in the teaching of a second language could be helpful.

4.7.1 Conditions for use and viewing

To ensure ideal viewing conditions the set should be properly tuned, focused, adjusted and be checked against possible glare (Wittich & Schuller, 1979:259 & 260). Students should be seated comfortably, no closer than 8 feet and no further than 22 feet from the monitor, with a horizontal viewing angle of no more than 30 degrees. The monitor can be placed 4 to 5 feet above floor level.

Programmes should be well recorded with distinct sound and clear pictures (Hill, 1980:194). The teacher who is familiar with the working of the video machine will be more confident in using it (Allan, 1986:36).

4.7.2 Objectives and lesson design

Preparing a language lesson today does not require the rigid, detailed and formal planning which was demanded of the teacher some years ago. This has been due mainly to the expansion of objectives in language learning. Lesson planning nevertheless remains one of the most important factors concerning the didactic situation and it should reflect the new emphasis on the pupils' needs, interests and active participation in the classroom (Kim, 1987:77).

The lesson is the centre of all didactic processes and will begin and grow around an objective (Marais, 1989b:4 & 5). Certain considerations, such as the level of the pupils, content, grouping and size of the class and the time available will influence the objective.

The potential of the video as an education medium has to be realized within the specific context of aims and objectives and closely linked to those of the lesson as a unity (Tudor, 1986:19 & 20). Language teaching objectives should always be kept in mind and should not be lost in the excitement and possibilities of a new medium (Willis, D., 1983:43 & 46). Objectives should be reassessed continuously as each learning cycle is completed.

4.7.3. The video text

The success of a video lesson will not depend merely on the skilful use of the electronic equipment, but also on the kind of material chosen and its correct

management (Santoni, 1975:234).

The traditional method of teaching the speaking skill is to make use of a written text, for example a written dialogue or written substitution exercises (Jensen & Vinther, 1983:132). No teacher, however, can possibly demonstrate all the relevant features involved in oral communication. The video, in teaching terms, parallels the audio tape as well as the written passage and can thus be seen as a text medium on its own (Tudor, 1986:19; Ingraham & Emery, 1991:331).

The teacher needs the correct materials to exploit the potential of the video in full measure and successfully. The sequence should be of the right length in order to correlate with the set objectives. Depending on the purpose of the lesson it could vary between thirty seconds to thirty minutes (Allan, 1984:25). It is generally accepted that at an early stage a shorter unit should be presented (Willis, D., 1983:46).

The length will be determined by the objective, the particular learners and the time available for the lesson (Allan, 1986:18), but most experts agree that an ideal video sequence should last between two and four minutes (Kim, 1987:73; Pike, 1984:202). Allan (1986:18) maintains that an hour of classroom work can be based on a two-minute video extract.

Choosing suitable video material could be difficult both pedagogically as well as logistically, for if the potential of purchased material is not known beforehand it could result in a collection of useless video cassettes (Kerridge, 1982:108 & 109). The video cannot be fully exploited if the teacher does not have the right materials (Allan, 1984:25), therefore video material should contain content variations which should include grammatical structures, a controlled amount of vocabulary and idiomatic expressions as required by the situation which is depicted (Normand, 1980:53). An important factor in the selection of material is whether it can be integrated into the course system and syllabus (Kerridge, 1982:111). The level of the language in the text should correspond to that of the learner and the visual messages must be appropriate, for it is this aspect of the material which will aid in conveying meaning (Allan, 1984:25). It should nevertheless be kept in mind that for adequate input purposes the language should be "a little beyond" the current level of the pupil's competence (Krashen, 1981:103), though this is not always easy to do. Sequences of speaking, for example interactions which have a communicative content, are preferable to exercises like substitution drills given on the video screen (Hick et al., 1982:75). Language drills can be integrated into the lesson by using supplementary material. Herron and Hanley (1992:424) present empirical data which suggest that the retainment of cultural information by the learner is improved when the textbook information is preceded by a related video.

At an advanced level authentic material can be used effectively (cf. 4.4) but it is possible for the teacher to produce his own material for specific needs

(Hill, 1981:156). A video camera can be considered a "do-it-yourself tool" and is not difficult to use, but the end result would have to be viewed with a critical and discerning eye (Allan, 1986:13 & 99). Editing suitable selections from authentic recordings is another way in which to obtain language material to suit the pupils' needs. Editing can be done by simply assembling chunks from various programmes or by editing with the camera while one is making one's own recording.

If recorded material is relevant to the learner, can be broken into short chunks or skits, can be used with many target groups, can be integrated into the language course and are relevant, topical and interesting, it will be suitable for use (Kerridge, 1982:109).

4.7.4 The preparation of the lesson

A video sequence cannot be used effectively without having been viewed by the teacher several times beforehand (Allan, 1986:47 & 23). The second viewing should be without sound so as to pick up visual signals which would fortify the verbal messages and convey meaning.

Language learning objectives and the sequence length can be decided on during preparation and notes of specific language items which can be taught, can be made by the teacher. Activities to exploit the sequence, both during and after the viewing, can also be planned (Willis, D., 1983:43). Active viewing worksheets which could integrate reading and writing skills with listening and

watching can be used (Pike, 1984:203). Notes to clarify the cultural aspects of a lesson and to plan discussion by pupils, either in groups or pairs, could be made during this stage. Hints and clues, focus of attention to point out aspects relevant to the learning objectives, and content explanation should be decided on in this phase of the lesson (Kim, 1987:75).

4.7.5 The presentation of the lesson

In research done in Canada to determine how teachers used television segments in the classroom, it was found that they did so in ways that were compatible with their personal teaching styles (Lewis, 1983:190 & 193). Thus the use of the video had no constrictive or limiting effects on their teaching and it was found to be a flexible education medium which could easily be adapted to different teaching methods and suit many styles of teaching (Normand, 1980:55). A video lesson can be presented in numerous ways but its success will depend on the suitability of the text as well as the management of the steps by which it is exploited (Williams, 1982:69). Allan (1986:66) says of the exploitation of the video: "There are as many right ways as there are effective uses of video to assist the learning of a language."

In presenting the lesson the following basic steps could serve as a framework:

4.7.5.1 Precision in timing

A video segment must be commenced at the precise moment and spot and it must end with the same accuracy (Dahl & Luckau, 1985:14). For smooth running the counter numbers of the sequence must be noted beforehand (Kerridge, 1982:112).

4.7.5.2 Preliminary introduction

The learners should be told that it is not expected of them to understand everything that they see and hear at one viewing and that only that which is relevant to the set objective will be exploited (Kerridge, 1982:111). A brief explanation of the subject matter should be given to them to introduce the lesson and arouse their interest and motivation.

4.7.5.3 The pre-teaching period

The learner's level of command of the language will determine the amount and complexity of pre-teaching, if it is necessary (Allan, 1986:73). Theme, structures, functions or vocabulary could be pre-taught and supplementary material supplied (Duke, 1980:14).

4.7.6 Presenting the text material

As no research has been done on the use of the video to prove that one method

is better than another, the teacher can explore the different ways in which to exploit it, and make his own decisions on what is best for him in relation to the success or failure he achieves in teaching (Allan, 1986:66). The following methods of presenting the video lesson in language teaching have been introduced by Williams (1982), Allan (1986) and Kerridge (1982). These methods, and the steps used in their presentation, have all been found to be successful. Integration with the rest of the language cycle is of importance and this should be kept in mind throughout the lesson design.

4.7.6.1 Williams's steps in the presentation of a video lesson

Williams (1982:70) follows seven steps in presentation:

- a. introduce the sequence
- b. play straight through without pause
- c. ask a few general questions
- d. small groups reconstruct sequence in note form (draws out discussion) - each must have a copy
- e. groups report orally
- f. show sequence again with pauses and replay - pupils confirm or correct their accounts
- g. pupils write a "witness" account of the sequence

4.7.6.2 Allan's steps in the presentation of a video lesson

Allan (1986:36 - 42) suggests several techniques with their different stages in the presentation of the video lesson.

a. Viewing straight through:

- * Stage one : previewing activities to introduce topic, vocabulary and to elicit main content points
- * Stage two : play programme
- * Stage three : follow-up with discussion and post-viewing writing task for homework

b. Viewing in sections : set previewing questions for each section, play section, discuss answers. In the final stage the programme is repeated without pauses.

c. Silent viewing:

- * Stage one : prepare class for viewing without sound and set specific questions such as who the people are, where they are, what they are doing, in order to focus attention on the situation.
 - * Stage two : play sequence without sound.
 - * Stage three : discussion in groups to compare answers.
 - * Stage four A : a second silent viewing to focus on language and predict what is being said (this stage could be omitted).
 - * Stage four B : view with sound while pupils check their work.
- Silent viewing allows the visual element to be exploited for quite specific language-learning objectives (Lonergan 1984:73).

d. Listening to sound first

* Stage one : prepare pupils by asking who and where speakers are, what they are discussing and why, what the situation would be (for example a doctor's consulting room).

* Stage two : play section - sound only.

* Stage three : discussion

* Stage four : replay section with both picture and sound

* Stage five : could be further preparation for continued viewing or pupils could compare information gained orally or in writing.

The sound-only technique will not be used often but it could stimulate discussion, place focus on language and the lesson will be reinforced by stage four when the picture is also used (Alan, 1986:43).

The importance of the visual element is to improve understanding and as context is emphasized by this technique it can at first be quite difficult for the pupil (Loneragan, 1984:76).

4.7.6.3 Kerridge's steps in the presentation of a video lesson

The following procedures are used by Kerridge (1982:113) to successfully present a video lesson:

- a. Introduce subject matter
- b. Play with sound and let pupils identify key words
- c. Reconstruct story-line orally by using key words
- d. Second play, followed by general comprehension questions
- e. Third play, preceded by discrete comprehension questions which pupils

can fill in on a worksheet during or after viewing

- f. Replay, if necessary
- g. Additional activities such as role-play or written work
- h. Feedback in the form of a discussion as a class or in groups

4.8 Conclusion

To widen the pupils' sociolinguistic experience and meet their needs, a selection of short video extracts which cover a variety of situations should be made. It should be kept in mind though, that video is not "real life", pupils have to practise after viewing to further their productive skills.

If pupils are made aware of the possibilities the video offers in language learning their visual comprehension strategies will improve and their exposure to more contextualized language situations in which they actively take part, will advance their confidence outside the classroom.

There are many ways of presenting the video lesson and teachers are free to choose from these methods that which will suit their personal styles and requirements, and fulfil in the needs and interests of their pupils.

In the next chapter an eclectic perspective on language teaching based on the previous chapters will be discussed. A tentative theoretical framework for the use of the video in language teaching will be attempted.

CHAPTER 5

THE USE OF THE VIDEO IN LANGUAGE TEACHING: A TENTATIVE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

5.1. Introduction

Technological education media are being used in the language classroom with outdated methods and not with a methodology more suited to them. This is not surprising, since the video was a result of technological development, not of linguistic research (Tudor, 1986:19). Casler (1980:16 & 17) suggests that a valid pedagogic rationale for the use of the video would be based on principles of communicative teaching and learning, which is using language as a means to an end and not as an end in itself. It seems though, that inconclusive research results and differences in findings as well as the lack of a theoretical guideline on how to exploit the video, have deterred its use in the language classroom. The teacher often uses video materials without any such theoretical framework and this can result in ineffective teaching and learning (Muller, Nel & Smith, 1990:224; Ingraham & Emery, 1991:324).

The traditional methods of instruction in the former teacher-centred learning situation have been questioned on the bases of uniformity and learning efficiency (Kemp, 1980:3 & 4; Ingraham & Emery, 1991:321). The solution to these concerns could be new approaches to and organization for learning. An

eclectic approach to the teaching of a second language, in order to acquire communicative proficiency, could be used to help the teacher who would like to make use of the video in the classroom. Nord (1987:73) suggests that "a story in which description and narrative discourse are used primarily would provide a far better base for language display and manipulation with the new media." This approach could initiate a break from the traditional classroom mold and create innovative manipulative options for the language teacher.

The activities that occur during the different stages of language learning should, however, be justified by a specific theory of language teaching (cf. Chapter 2) and in this chapter an attempt will be made to describe a theoretical framework for the use of the video as a commendable and promising education medium in attaining communicative competence in the second language classroom, communicative competence as the modern aim in language teaching, the need for eclecticism in modern-day language teaching and an eclectic approach to second language teaching will be discussed. The receptive and productive phases in language learning, when making use of video material, will also be commented on. The utilization of the video as it could be applied to the teaching of different lesson types will be given in a separate framework.

5.2 Communicative competence : the aim in language teaching

Since the mid-seventies communication or communicative competence has emerged as the key concept in educational linguistics and language pedagogy (Stern,

1986:11). The mastery of language structures made way for the need of the pupil to use language in a functional and communicative way and language teaching was focused on the attainment of communicative proficiency (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:64).

Van der Walt (1984: 20 & 21) describes communicative competence as including grammatical ability, a knowledge of language use, an awareness of appropriate utterances in a given situation, the ability to negotiate meaning and to use language creatively in meaningful discourse. Language must therefore be seen "as interpersonal communication, used for a whole range of purposes and in a wide variety of situations." Communicative competence is achieved when the learner has developed the ability to perform speech acts fluently, correctly and appropriately in real life (Ellis, 1984:196; Ingraham & Emery, 1991:327).

As a result of the emphasis on communicative competence language teachers have become increasingly aware of the importance to teach the use of a language rather than knowledge of a language (Hick, et al., 1982:75). The processes of learning and teaching should be in agreement with the objectives and aims (Lonergan, 1984:1), and the video as a means of input could contribute to promote communicative proficiency by bringing "into the classroom a true model of the target language in sound and in vision and with it the native speaker who provides that model ... in the case of televised material the integration of linguistic, social and cultural contexts is as complete as possible." (Law, 1980:120 & 122; Ingraham & Emery, 1991:326).

In the traditional classroom the pupil is subject to conceptual restraints and has little social interaction, therefore the acquisition of language proficiency is remote. The communication system includes not only spoken words but gestures, sound, facial expressions and other non-verbal signs (Santoni, 1975:235). If the learner is to attain authentic communicative competence, he must learn to use and understand the total communication system. Visual cues can aid comprehension of more than just words as they are indicators of the psychological aspects of communication which is an integral part of language learning (Lonergan, 1984:42).

If a total communication situation could be presented in the teaching/learning of a second language, would it be possible to make use of only one approach or method or technique to lead the pupil to the attainment of an encompassing objective such as communicative competence? Or would an eclectic didactic approach gain better results? Systemic eclecticism will be discussed in the following section in order to provide a possible solution to these questions.

5.3 The need for eclecticism in language teaching

Educational perceptions differ among linguists as well as among teachers, and Prahbu (1987:107) maintains that eclecticism in language teaching could be justified by these differences. As different approaches to language present different perspectives on teaching, teachers should use the techniques most suitable for their purposes in the classroom (Stern, 1986:174 & 478). This would result in what has been called an eclectic approach to language

teaching. Andrews (1983:130) says:

Whereas eclecticism in its ideal form represents the principled choice of the best procedures and techniques from all the well-known language teaching methods for integration into a methodology suited to the specific situation in which one is operating, the reality has often been the purposeless accumulation of a repertoire of unrelated techniques and activities with no guiding principle at all.

Eclecticism is not a clear-cut concept, but it seems as if at least four of its aspects can be identified, namely:

- * it is a combination of different ideas which form a balance although one or some could possibly be inconsistent with the others.
- * it is a search for the safest course where many risks and possibilities exist.
- * it is a belief that there are no irreconcilable alternatives.
- * it allows one to see previous ideas and concepts in a new way and can therefore also be seen as a resolution to a problem (Prahbu, 1987:108).

Eclecticism in language pedagogy has long been popular among practising language teachers as well as some language-teaching theorists (Marton, 1988:86 & 87). Many eclectic methods have unfortunately often been based on intuition and unclear thinking which resulted in inefficient language teaching. Marton (1988:87) says that the efficient teacher's "creativity must be based on a set of explicitly formulated pedagogical principles related

to the fundamental options in language pedagogy." These principles will help the teacher to develop his own method of teaching, suitable to achieve a set objective in a given situation, without leading to methodological anarchy. According to Marton (1988:87 - 88) theoretical eclecticism is an insupportable concept because by reconciling seemingly contradictory aspects of language theories, either a new theory is developed or mere expansion and modification take place. He points out that there is another kind of eclecticism practised in language teaching which could be called systemic:

"It is (an) enlightened and sophisticated eclecticism, and it is supported by many contemporary language educators... It is based on the assumption that, although practical language teaching cannot completely accept each new method or approach that comes into vogue, almost every one of these methods and approaches offers some valuable insight and procedure which should be integrated within the comprehensive system of language pedagogy."

As far back as the 1970s an eclecticism began to emerge in language teaching and choices among the options available were made with a less rigid adherence to a single method (McArthur, 1983:101; Stern, 1986:478). Systemic eclecticism can lead to much success in teaching if it takes into account theories of learning and teaching and if an assessment is made of the particular techniques and procedures in relation to their contribution to the advancement of second language competence (Marton, 1988:88).

To point out how the video, with its unique properties (cf. 3.7.1), can be utilized to help the learner in gaining communicative competence, an eclectic approach and method to second language teaching will first have to be provided.

5.4 Eclectic language teaching

Most approaches to language learning assume that there is one best way of learning a second language and these approaches prescribe a set of principles and procedures which, if followed closely, will result in learning (Ellis, 1990:144) (cf. 2.4). Stern (1986:473), after having analysed several language learning theories, comes to the conclusion that these theories all have two major drawbacks: "they represent a relatively fixed combination of beliefs ... (and) ... they are characterized by the over-emphasis on single aspects as the central issue of language teaching and learning." Nevertheless, almost every one of these theories offers valuable insight and procedures which could be integrated in second language learning and teaching. Marton (1988:88) says that the role of the language teacher can be described as "constantly expanding the system of language teaching by defining the functions that any new procedure or solution can fulfil and fitting it into the most appropriate place or stage of the language teaching/learning process."

Stern advises that overconcern with the fixed method, which he defines as "an

unalterable combination of techniques", should be abandoned and that a broader concept of teaching strategy with a larger number of teaching techniques should be adopted in the teaching of languages (Stern 1986:505). The adoption of a particular method or technique should be justified only when the teacher is sure that there is a close degree of fit between the aims of language learning and that of the method or technique (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:158).

It is also true, however, that no single approach can underlie the use of a technological education medium in language teaching such as the video (cf. 5.1). An eclectic language teaching approach based on the five approaches as discussed in Chapter 2, could contribute to the solution of this problem and will be discussed in the next section.

5.4.1 An eclectic approach

Any eclectic approach should be communicative and should be supplemented by the principles of learning and teaching which most of the five approaches to second language teaching and learning, discussed in Chapter 2, have in common. In this study it is characterized by selected methods and techniques which are predominantly suited to the exploitation of the physical properties of the video in the teaching of a second language (cf. 3.7.1).

An oral approach should be adopted. The auditory mode is an important means of input because it is believed that meaning can be conveyed more effectively

in a grammatical/social/cultural context (cf. 2.4.1.1; 2.4.1.2; 2.4.3.1; 2.4.4.1; 2.4.5.1). The structural and functional, as well as the interactional aspects of language are considered as being necessary to attain proficiency and should be taught (cf. 2.4.1.1; 2.4.2.1; 2.4.3.1; 2.4.4.1).

In the eclectic language teaching approach perception is an important factor (cf. 3.7.3.4 & 4.6), so too are the individual needs of the pupils which could be served to advantage by using the video (cf. 3.7.3.1).

Clarke (1989:79) says that language skills should be integrated so that one activity would lead easily and naturally to the next. The eclectic approach supports this belief, because integration of the four language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing can be accommodated by the video if it is used together with supplementary and additional education aids (cf. 3.6.1).

To achieve the integration of the four skills it will be necessary to apply an integration of the theoretical views of language. Stern (1986:399) maintains that in his view the four skills which bring about communicative proficiency are best developed concurrently, and to succeed in this the functional, structural as well as the interactional views of language should all underlie the eclectic approach to language (cf. 2.2.1; 2.2.2; 2.2.3).

Richards and Rodgers (1986:50) say that teaching cannot be based on a theory of language alone: it has to consider the psychology of learning as well as

learning theory. Both the Behaviourist and the Mentalist (Cognitive) learning theories are accepted in an eclectic approach to language. It can be argued that the practice of discrete language items and patterns as prescribed by the Behaviourist theory are necessary to attain communicative fluency. Harmer (1984:33), for example, maintains that "students derive great comfort and benefit from some of the repetition techniques that audiolingual methodology used." The video helps learners to retain information because the viewing can be coupled with a related text which results in learners receiving the same information twice, and the benefits of repetition on learner comprehension have been agreed on by many language teachers (Heron & Hanley, 1992:424).

The Mentalist learning theory or Cognitivism, on the other hand, favours learning based on understanding and a "meaningful" input, and emphasises human perception and creativity and even social conduct (Stern, 1986:307).

5.4.2 Aims

The aims of the eclectic approach to second language teaching is in agreement with the aim of communicative competence for personal, social, educational, occupational and academic purposes as set out by most syllabuses. The TED Syllabus for English Second Language Higher Grade for Standards 8 - 10 (1986:2), for example, aims to:

* foster a desire to learn English;

- * encourage pupils to extend their knowledge of, and improve their efficiency in, English as a means of communication in a multi-lingual society;
- * enable pupils to cultivate the habit of attentive listening;
- * enable pupils to speak acceptable English clearly, fluently, confidently, and with a sensitive awareness of audience.

The main aim of this approach is to enable the learner to communicate meaningfully in the second language, but enrichment of vocabulary and a knowledge of structure are also specified. Teaching by setting clear, realistic objectives and learning by being actively involved should be the fundamental policy in the language classroom.

To attain communicative competence the learner will have to perform adequately in all four language skills and therefore the syllabus will have to promote all skills equally.

5.4.3 Content

The content of an eclectic language approach would have to consist of the structural, lexical, situational, functional-notional and sociocultural aspects of language learning (cf. Chapter 2). The syllabus content would have to serve as a suggestive rather than a prescriptive guideline which will vary according to the needs and experiences of the pupils. The syllabus should also make provision for an experimental component involving the use of new ideas or methods (cf. 2.4.5.2). It should lie somewhere on the continuum from

synthetic to analytic, depending on how it is treated (cf. 2.4.2.2). A continuous needs analysis should be done to ensure that the evolving needs of the pupils are met; the syllabus should be an instrument to meet these needs. The "'a priori' syllabus could in many cases be replaced by 'a posteriori' checklists" (Maley, 1982:35). Tasks which are done as the need arises and the situation calls for, will therefore form part of the latter.

In an eclectic approach where the video will serve as the predominant education medium, the attention should be focused "on the content of what is being said ... and not the language form that is being used" (Harmer, 1984:44). If interesting and authentic input is provided at an appropriate level, all the necessary features of language could be derived from it (Maley, 1982:35). Meaning in real-life context must have preference above grammar in the teaching of language and language should be used, not studied as a structure (cf. 2.4.4.1).

5.4.4 Method and techniques

A combination of certain features selected from the five approaches to language (as discussed in Chapter 2) can form a plausible eclectic method for the use of the video in relation to its advantages as an education medium (cf. 3.7.2). In the eclectic method the importance of both the audiolingual and the visual aspects of language learning is acknowledged. The language should be introduced in a truly contextualized, situational and sociocultural context by using a variety of relevant, authentic and meaningful language input.

Teacher-controlled video input could provide this kind of "virtual experience" (Ingraham & Emery, 1991:323).

Various techniques, depending on the physical properties of the video (cf. 3.7.1), will be used to ensure the learning and application of the language skills. Models in the form of video dialogues or discussions are presented and role play as well as chorus repetition, oral drills (with or without sound) and substitution exercises based on these models, can be included (cf. 2.4.2.4). Input done by means of the video, and output initiated by the video, will form the basis in the acquisition of the language skills. A more detailed framework of lesson types which includes the relation of the lessons to the use of the video will be given in 5.6.

5.4.5 Conclusion

A brief outline of an eclectic language teaching approach within a communicative framework has now been given. In the following section the significance of the video in the receptive and productive phases in language learning will be discussed to show how the video relates to and fits into an eclectic approach.

5.5 The receptive and productive phases in language learning

The skills learned in the language classroom can be categorised broadly as receptive and productive (Tudor, 1989:20) or as passive and active (Ingraham &

Emery, 1991:331), and the teacher should create opportunities of involvement and response in receptive and productive activities for the learner so that learning objectives can be achieved (Wittich & Shuller, 1979:260).

5.5.1 The receptive stage

The receptive stage is an important phase of the teaching/learning situation and receptive teaching is particularly appropriate at the commencement of language learning. It can be seen as an introduction to an active and productive way of learning and as paving the way to communication. A little more than one third of a lesson/course should be devoted to receptive teaching, especially in the case of intensive teaching (Marton, 1987:91 & 92). A useful distinction is made by Tudor (1986:19) who divides the receptive stage into a receptive intensive and a receptive extensive mode of input.

5.5.1.1 The receptive intensive stage

The receptive intensive stage of a lesson would consist ideally of a relatively brief video input sequence of two to six minutes (cf. 4.7.3) and is perhaps the most basic mode of video use (Tudor, 1986:20). Learning objectives are clearly defined (cf. 4.7.2) and focus of attention is important but it could be varied, depending on the density of the language activities contained in the videotape (cf. 4.7.3). Predictive skills, extracting information and getting a general idea of the main points are relevant to this stage (Harmer, 1984:144). Video input has been found most helpful in

developing aural/oral skills and to increase awareness of non-verbal signs and appropriate behaviour (MacKnight, 1983:8).

Tudor (1986:19 & 20) points out that contextualized spoken language input by making use of the video, is now generally accepted and that a controlled input within the classroom, without the ephemeral quality of natural spoken interaction, is made possible. In the receptive intensive stage language presented as input must be genuine, relevant and easy to understand - by "easy" is meant a certain quality of the discourse, not of syntax (Jensen & Vinther, 1983:130).

The length and complexity of a video programme will depend on the objective (Willis, J., 1983b:46 & 84) (cf. 3.4.1.). As the learning cycle progresses and the language used becomes less predictable, "focus shifts from language as a tool, that is, lexis, grammar, intra- and inter-sentential relations, and discourse structure, to the message conveyed by the language, i.e. its informational context and its functional use."

5.5.1.2 The receptive extensive stage

The receptive extensive stage involves extensive input with a more global aim in mind (Tudor, 1986:20). This does not include explicit learning but is more in line with the acquisition of language (cf. 2.4.5.1). Input will now consist of longer video sequences to convey meaning which is not bound to syntactical and semantic units (Green & Wallat, 1983:168). This input will

exclude the deliberate teaching of grammar and the memorising of vocabulary and dialogues, but the pupils will receive messages which they understand, as it is assumed that language is acquired when pupils understand what is being conveyed (Krashen, 1982:10). It is similar to first language acquisition where learning is natural and informal.

Extensive input develops the ability to infer opinion and attitude, the deduction of meaning, the extension of the lexicon and the recognition of function and discourse markers (Harmer, 1984:145).

There is no fixed time limit as in the intensive receptive stage and this input calls for a more relaxed approach and the knowledge that a different type of learning (cf. 2.4.5.1.) is involved (Tudor, 1986:20). Learner inference can be aided if language items are contextualized (Willis, D., 1983: 23 & 24) and this is the purpose of the video in language teaching where the learner as an observer and participant can grasp meaning by the context and the situation in which it is presented. Corder (1960:62) agrees that contextual language presentation (as in TV) will minimize difficulties in conveying meaning and that "'meaning' resides in the relationship between linguistic form and the context of situation. The bridge is verbal behaviour."

Exposure to a language is directly related to acquisition and this exposure, or input, should ideally not only be comprehensible but also at a slight degree above the present level of the learner, i.e. $i + 1$, the next level

along the natural order. Fluency cannot be taught directly, it is achieved only in time, when competence has been built up by understanding the input. If input is comprehensible, interesting, relevant and of an adequate quantity, the acquirer's level of competence will be upgraded automatically (Krashen, 1982:20 & 21).

The receptive stage is followed up by language activities which represent the productive stage (cf. 3.7.3.2 & 4.7.3).

5.5.2 The productive stage

Skilful exploitation of the video can promote the degree of involvement to precipitate communication and other language activities in the classroom. (Law, 1980:122 & 128) (cf. 3.7.1). It is not required of nor possible for the pupil to understand the entire content of a video presentation at a first viewing. Most pupils will nevertheless have picked up new structures in the target language or have recognized and confirmed ones already acquired. It is from here that the production stage will commence in using the video as a catalyst which can prompt pupils into different forms of activities.

In the five theories of language which were discussed it was found that all acknowledge the necessity of structural as well as functional aspects of language learning (cf. Chapter 2), although in differing degrees of importance. Rutherford (1987:37) also emphasizes the fact that language has both form and function and that part of the language complex is ascribed to

competence and part of it to performance. Activities would therefore have to cover the communicative as well as the structural aspects of language learning (cf. 2.2.1).

5.5.2.1 Communicative production

Communicative activities initiated by a video input would depend entirely on the objective of the lesson (cf. 4.7.2). If a specific structure is to be mastered, pattern drills and oral repetition would be practised (cf. 2.4.1.4) and the pupil would be guided from controlled practice to freer use of the language (cf. 2.4.2.4) by using the rewinding property of the video with or without sound (cf. 3.7.1.1 & 3.7.1.2).

Once the structure has been confirmed the following stage would be application based on specialized use and personal interest (cf. 2.4.3.3). Communication would now take place in discussion groups and could end in spontaneous, unplanned activities (cf. 2.4.4.3) such as communicative interaction among all the members of the class in which a topic related to the video input and relevant to the lesson, could be discussed (cf. 2.4.4.4.).

During communicative production role play based on the input and games involving problem solving could be used (cf. 2.4.5.4).

Rivers ((1970:199) says that "If the student has a distinct auditory image of what his speech should sound like, he will be able to listen to his own speech

more critically, with a greater possibility of adjusting it gradually to the model of native speech to which he listens frequently." If the models who supply the input are also visible in socio-cultural context and situation, learning could be further promoted and facilitated. (Meunier-Cinko, 1992:147). The usefulness of the video does not lie merely in prompting communicative activities but it should be followed up by written production.

5.5.2.2 Written Production

In the design of the video lesson written work could be included during or after the presentation (cf. 4.7.4) in the form of a questionnaire, cloze test or comprehension test as supplementary education media and the writing could culminate in notes, letters, reports or dialogues. Compositions and assignments, both closed and open, could follow a video presentation. The pupil can benefit in developing his creative abilities because these two activities are predominantly heuristic (cf. 3.3.1.1.5).

Revision, correction and remediation could be done by pupils individually while reviewing a video presentation and using the pause and replay buttons when required.

By making use of the video receptive and productive skills can be integrated in one lesson by supplementing worksheets for doing written work and using the pause and replay buttons to allow for questions, discussions and interaction (Pike, 1984:203).

It should be kept in mind that video skits or chunks should be short, seldom longer than \pm 4 minutes. Relevant "here-and-now" topics are essential for language acquisition (Dulay et al., 1982:4).

5.6 A framework for the use of the video in the eclectic approach to language teaching

In this section a framework is provided to illustrate how input, by means of the video, can accommodate different lesson types (Van der Walt & Combrink, 1992:141 & 142) used in the second language classroom. The possible effects that the video input could have on the learners are also noted.

<u>Lesson types</u>	<u>The use of the video</u>	<u>Possible effects on learners</u>
Introduction to theme.	Show a short video chunk of \pm 1½ - 3 minutes on relevant topic.	Context provided could increase comprehension; interest will be aroused.
Dialogue: formal or informal.	Show a short, formal interview or an informal meeting of friends.	Functions are introduced in realistic situations; models for pronunciation

and intonation are provided; vocabulary acquisition is encouraged.

Presentation lessons of language structures and/or functions.

These are included in most speech presentations: show a short skit with required structure - replay as required.

Learners absorb/acquire structures by listening to input - replay would assist reinforcement and inforcement and error correction.

Vocabulary.

Show a relevant skit on specific topic to cover vocabulary.

Words are supplied in context and meanings could be deducted by learners; correct pronunciation is supplied by native speakers.

Short stories.

A story can be shown with/without ending.

Predictive skills could be improved;

could serve as a model
for compositions;
opportunities for
learners to discuss
characters, looks,
gestures and hidden
meaning are provided;
literary appreciation
and understanding of
cultural context
could be improved;
formal teaching is made
more palatable.

Cartoons

Can be shown with/without
ending.

Humour and fun-learning
are supplied by
cartoons; incorrect
language usage could be
corrected by learners.

Novels

Only excerpts from a film
should be used. These
excerpts should be

Important events and
characters could be
highlighted; under-

factually unchanged.
The novel should
be read - not viewed.

standing in cultural
and realistic
context could be
improved; retainment
of facts could be
improved by visual
effects.

Shakespeare
(plays).

Film versions or stage
versions can be divided into
acts or sections for viewing
before a reading - replay
after a reading.

Understanding of
culture, period and
behaviour of characters
could be improved;
replay reinforces
learning.

Listening
Comprehension.

Play video soundtrack only -
replay after work has been
done with sound and visual.

Second viewing could
test the learner's
use of memory and
work is corrected in
an oblique manner.

Poetry.	Seldom used because poems are not often available on a video. Video or film material could be used as background to prescribed work.	The learner could be aided in understanding; interest could be added.
Interaction between pupils.	Show video skit without sound; replay with sound.	Prompts learners to comment, discourse, predict and ask questions; at this stage mistakes could be corrected.
Formal discussion.	Show a short programme on a relevant, interesting topic.	Learners move from controlled language practice to free use when topic is introduced in an authentic and realistic context, understanding could be promoted, a vocabulary is provided and interest

could be aroused.

Debate.

Choose a controversial topic, short, interesting and relevant.

Learners are encouraged to field own ideas.

The writing of notes, paragraphs, summaries and reports.

Short or longer skits can be shown depending on objectives and groups can watch the same skit separately.

Important facts and events could be identified more easily if they are seen and heard. Stimulation of ideas is provided.

Role play and simulation.

Supply a short, interesting and easy video skit; groups/pairs can watch separately.

Comprehension is improved when topic is provided in lingual and cultural setting; body language and facial expressions could assist learners in their own representations.

5.7 Conclusion

Outdated methods are still being used to apply technological education media, such as the video, in the language classroom. This is due to the fact that no single approach to second language teaching can meet the demands made by the aims of comprehensive communicative proficiency and meaningful discourse. It has therefore become necessary to develop an eclectic approach to assist the language teacher when using technological education media. This eclectic approach should nevertheless be pedagogically sound and based on acknowledged educational principles.

In the eclectic approach to language teaching provided in this chapter, and in the framework on how to use the video in the presentation of different lesson types, the teacher finds guidelines to follow which could lead to success and satisfaction in language teaching.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

In this concluding chapter a short evaluation of the video relating to its use in acquiring communicative competence in an eclectic approach will be made. Certain problems which impede and limit the exploitation of the video in the ESL classroom will be pointed out, and recommendations for further research will be made.

6.2 An evaluation of the video in teaching ESL

Only the video can bring a complete and realistic picture of language in action, fortified by extralinguistic information, into the classroom. This extralinguistic and paralinguistic information can aid the learner in grasping meaning and, in a more global language situation, provide a shift of focus away from the forms of language towards the meaning it conveys.

The video has enormous potential as a means of supplying authentic communicative material presented by native speakers. Exposure to the language, or input, is then based on authentic language use and input can be made more interesting and comprehensible at the same time meeting the needs of

the learners.

It seems that the use of the video in language teaching does not conform with only one single approach to language, but that it can accommodate a variety of features from different approaches and it would therefore be expedient to utilize it by adopting a systemic eclectic approach. By making use of the unique technical properties of the video the teacher will be able to apply different techniques, taken from different language approaches, with ease (cf. 5.6). The framework provided in Chapter 5 provides a practical guideline for the integration of the video in the ESL classroom.

The power of a video lesson lies mainly in its relative simplicity and directness. In comparison to the textbook it limits the imagination, but thereby focuses attention more closely to the specific objective.

6.3 Problems related to video use in ESL teaching

The use of the video in ESL teaching is still at an experimental stage, both in how to exploit the machine successfully as well as in what kind of materials would be best to use. Many teachers are not adequately qualified to use new technological education media, and great initial enthusiasm has faded away because of it. It is hoped that this study will at least provide some stimulation for the use of the video in the ESL class.

Other problems related to video use are the costs and logistics involved, as well as rapid technological development which often outdates machines and

their features.

6.4 Recommendations for further research

The utilization of technological education media should imply the application of science to solve learning and other didactic problems (Muller, 1985:169). To use media in the didactic situation effectively, a thorough understanding of the potentialities of each medium, and how they operate under different conditions, is necessary. In order to achieve this, the following research projects are recommended:

- * the development of suitable video software.
- * empirical research where the amount/lack of success of learners with whom the video is used for language instruction as compared to learners with whom the video is not used.
- * the assessment of language lessons where no formal instruction at all is given. (as suggested by Krashen) and only adequate video input is supplied.

6.5 Final conclusion

The enormous educational potential of the video in ESL teaching has not been fully explored: It is a multi-sensory medium with unique physical properties which, if used correctly with a didactically acceptable eclectic approach, could aid the ESL learner to acquire comprehensive communicative proficiency.

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