

**A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE PROVISION OF MANDARIN AS FOREIGN
LANGUAGE IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN CHINA AND SOUTH AFRICA**

By

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ABSTRACT

The importance of China as world power has led to a growing interest in and demand for learning Mandarin as a Foreign Language (MFL) worldwide. This study focuses on a comparative study of the provision of MFL in higher education in China and in South Africa. A conceptual framework was provided by examining theories of language policy planning and second language or foreign language acquisition as well as an overview of MFL provision in Chinese and South African higher education. MFL policy in China is characterised as a diffusion policy driven by economic globalisation, ‘soft power’ and culture, and supported by legislation, funding and implementation. In South Africa, no specific policy underlies MFL, although motivation for MFL provision is given through strategic economic relations between South Africa and China. Against this background, a mixed-method inquiry conducted in two phases examined MFL at three purposefully selected universities in China and at the four university providers in South Africa. Phase One investigated lecturer perceptions of MFL tuition using a researcher-designed questionnaire; Phase Two explored student experiences of MFL using semi-structured interviews with purposefully selected MFL students in both countries. Findings indicated similarities in lecturer profile and differences in lecturers’ perceptions regarding institutional support for MFL, particularly in institutions offering degrees in MFL, the MFL classroom environment and the curriculum. Student participants identified differences in studying MFL abroad in China and at home in South Africa in terms of class scheduling, peer and tutor support, student enrolments and design of educational programmes. All language skills were acquired more rapidly in the immersion learning context in China than in the first language dominant South African context, especially communication skills. Similarities were demonstrated in the emotional dimension of learning a new language, the main needs of MFL students, the opportunity to use or speak Mandarin, motivation to study Mandarin, and the challenges characteristic of Mandarin as a language. Recommendations for improvement of practice were given in terms of immersion context creation, opportunity to learn support, *Confucius Institute* facilities and exchange programmes for study abroad, lecturer and tutor improvement, and the establishment of an incentive to learn mechanism in South Africa.

KEY WORDS

Mandarin as foreign language; Comparative study; Provision; China; South Africa; First language dominant; Second language dominant; Language planning; Acquisition of foreign language; Higher education

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BLCU	Beijing Language and Culture University
CICS	College of Intensive Chinese Studies
EU	European Union
FL	Foreign Language
FLA	Foreign Language Acquisition
FLAP	Foreign Language Assistance Program
HEFCE	Higher Education Funding Council for England
HEIs	Higher Education Institutions
HSK	<i>Hanyu Shuiping Kaoshi (Chinese Proficiency Test)</i>
LP	Language Planning
LPI	Logistics Performance Index
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
LPI	Logistics Performance Index
MFL	Mandarin as Foreign Language
NACCL	North American Conference on Chinese Linguistics
NDEA	National Defense Education Act
NU	Nankai University
PRC	People's Republic of China
RU	Rhodes University
SA	South Africa
SL	Second Language
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SU	Stellenbosch University
TCFL	Teaching Mandarin/Chinese as a Foreign Language
TUST	Tianjin University of Science and Technology
UCT	University of Cape Town
UK	United Kingdom
US	United States of America
Unisa	University of South Africa

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CHAPTER ONE

PROBLEM FORMULATION, AIM AND METHODS

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Language policy and provision in higher education are always affected by political, economic and social factors as well as international relations and culture (Ager 2001:1). The provision of foreign language instruction in higher education through policies which promote multilingualism is encouraged by governments in order to recruit labour and foster regional and international communication in a global economy. For example, both the *Council of Europe* and the *European Commission* have, for a long time, urged higher education institutions (HEIs) to provide facilities for the continuation of language learning by all higher education students and to focus on world languages in the general education of students. European Union (EU) policy emphasises that it is essential that students are supported in maintaining and extending their language skills. Linguistic diversity not only relates to the official EU languages, but also to regional and non-EU languages (Mackiewicz 2004:2-3). Higher education policy makers have acknowledged the necessity of promoting the learning of a wide range of world languages by university students with a view to their participation in the labour market and better knowledge of society. In the light of these comments, this thesis focuses on the increasing worldwide interest in and demand for learning Mandarin.

In this thesis, the terms Mandarin, Mandarin Chinese and Chinese are used interchangeably depending on the context; they all refer to the standard language spoken in China (see section 1.6.1).

1.1.1 The growing interest in learning Chinese

The People's Republic of China (PRC) has for many years been a major player on the world political stage by virtue of its size and military capacity, as well as its permanent membership of the United Nations Security Council. Due to internal political change in more recent decades, it has emerged as a major market and trading partner for the West and Africa. Since the 'opening up' of the Chinese economy, first initiated in 1979 by Deng Xiaoping, China's economic growth rate has on average been the fastest in the world. Japan's economy was worth

\$5.474 trillion (£3.414 trillion) at the end of 2010; China's economy was closer to \$5.8 trillion in the same period, overtaking Japan as the world's second-biggest economy (World Bank 2010). By 2012, China ranked second in the world according to the Logistics Performance Index (LPI) (Arvis, Mustra, Ojala, Shepherd & Saslavsky 2012:iii). As the Chinese economy grew and more countries established trading links with China, the Chinese language became more important worldwide (USA Today 2007). It has been estimated that there are over 1.3 billion native speakers of Chinese, making it the world's most spoken language. These speakers are mainly resident in China, Taiwan and Southeast-Asian countries such as Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore and Thailand. Native Chinese speakers are also located in Chinese diasporas in countries such as the United States (US), Canada, New Zealand, Australia, Peru, South Africa and Mauritius (Li & Zhu 2011:12). Mandarin is one of the six official languages of the United Nations (UN official languages 2013). For the foreigner, learning Chinese is regarded as the best way to gain a deeper understanding of China. International exchanges with China in economics, trade, science, technology, culture, education, art and tourism are more frequent than ever before, and studying Chinese has become increasingly popular and necessary in today's world.

Thus, Chinese or Mandarin as Foreign Language (MFL) has become an increasingly popular subject to study amongst the young, both in the Western world and in many other parts (BBC News 2006a). This is illustrated by enrolment figures, the demand for teachers of Chinese and the interest in the standardised testing of Chinese. According to the *Hanban Annual Report of 2010*, there were 360,000 registered students of Mandarin courses outside of China and 6,000 Chinese language teachers and volunteers had been sent to 110 countries and regions (Hanban 2010). In 2011 there were 500,000 registered students of Mandarin courses outside the country and more than 10,000 full-time and part-time teachers of Chinese, of which 2,200 were dispatched by *Hanban* (China Daily 2012:1). The increased interest in the Chinese language and the number of foreign students studying Chinese has resulted in a call for more Chinese language teachers to cope with demands. In addition, many countries require more Chinese teachers to support local Chinese language education. To satisfy these needs, China has, since 2002, set up a number of non-profit Chinese-language learning institutions overseas now known as *Confucius Institutes*. These institutes aim to establish a bridge between China and other countries by promoting the teaching and understanding of the Mandarin language and Chinese culture (Hanban 2011b). The first *Confucius Institute* opened on 21 November 2004 in

Seoul, Republic of Korea; many more have been established in other countries, such as the US, Germany, Sweden and even Serbia, where Chinese enjoys an increasing popularity. In 2010, the *Confucius Institutes* around the world made remarkable strides, with steady development and positive trends for future growth. By the end of 2010, 322 *Confucius Institutes* and 369 *Confucius Classrooms* had been established in 96 countries and regions in the world (Hanban 2010). By 2011 there were 358 *Confucius Institutes* and 500 *Confucius Classrooms* in 105 countries and regions, with 122 *Institutes* in Europe (China Daily 2012:1). The Ministry of Education of PRC plans to establish 1000 *Confucius Institutes* by 2020 (*Confucius Institute Development Plan 2012-2020*).

In addition, the interest in MFL is accompanied by the increasing enrolment of language students in the *Chinese Proficiency Test : Hanyu Shuiping Kaoshi* (HSK), the national standardized test of Chinese language proficiency for speakers whose first language is not Chinese. In 2005, 117,660 non-native speakers took the HSK worldwide, an increase of 26.52% from 2004 (Ministry of Education 2002). In 2009 more than 100 HSK centres had been set up in 33 countries, and over 540,000 people had taken the test (HSK 2009). More than 600,000 people worldwide took the HSK test in 2010, 25 % more than the previous year (Zhao & Yang 2011).

1.1.2 Provision of MFL in the international context

Mandarin is the fastest growing foreign language (FL) in Japan, South Korea, the US, Canada and Australia (Jiang 2009:1; Goh 1999:41-48; Polio 1994:51-66). This interest is further illustrated by the following overview of developments in the education system of the UK, the US and Australia.

According to a report of the *Higher Education Funding Council for England* (HEFCE) (HEFCE 1999), higher education in the UK initially fell behind in the provision of Mandarin compared to other European countries. In 2000, it was recommended that provision for Mandarin studies in British universities be shifted from the traditional area studies and language or literature perspectives to focus more on pure language acquisition and on studies of contemporary China in the social sciences (The Nuffield Foundation 2000). Consequently, the HEFCE established a formal review group which made the following six recommendations:

First, the higher education system should be equipped to respond to the opening up of trade and political relations between the UK and PRC. Second, the demand for people with skills in Chinese Mandarin and with an understanding from direct experience of Chinese culture and political and social systems should be increased and accelerated. Third, the higher education system should respond to this challenge by setting up Chinese Mandarin curricula to build capability in Chinese language studies. Fourth, undergraduate and postgraduate students should be encouraged to undertake further Mandarin studies to acquire the language skill and to satisfy future commercial or political needs. Fifth, funding bodies should make additional resources available to support the provision of Chinese studies and to focus on maintaining and strengthening viable centres of expertise. This includes centres set up in collaboration with higher education institutions. Sixth, additional resources should be provided to build up library provisions for Chinese studies.

A number of developments followed from these initiatives. Chinese has emerged as a major international language in the UK and the current provision for Chinese studies consists of a mix of study centres of varying size and eminence. Eight higher education institutions have established departments or institutes undertaking teaching and research in Chinese or East Asian studies, including tuition in Chinese languages. These are the Universities of Cambridge, Durham, Edinburgh, Leeds, Oxford, Sheffield, Westminster, and the School of Oriental and African Studies which is a part of the University of London. Broadly, three types of students are enrolled in the study of Chinese: those studying Chinese as their main degree subject, students in other disciplines wishing to learn Chinese to enhance their expertise in Chinese-related studies, and people from all walks of life. Not all students who fall into this third category are enrolled in full-time higher education; many wish to learn Chinese for business, diplomatic or recreational use (Promote Mandarin Council 2009).

In the US, foreign language capacity is seen as an essential element to conduct effective foreign policy, expand international trade, ensure national defence, and enhance international communication and understanding (Edwards, Lenker & Kahn 2008). National interest has drawn increasing attention to Mandarin. Since 1989, the *North American Conference on Chinese Linguistics* (NACLL) has been held annually and it focuses on research into the Chinese language and linguistics (Chan 2008). It includes both theoretical and empirical research from all subfields of Chinese linguistics and its presenters include graduate students,

professors and other well-established scholars (NACCL 2013). To enhance the popularity of and satisfy the demand for Chinese language learning, 64 *Confucius Institutes* had been established in 37 states in the US by 2010 (US-China Today 2010). The *National Security Education Program Chinese K-16 Pipeline Flagship*, a model for sequenced, articulated Chinese study beginning in elementary school and continuing through undergraduate study, was launched in 2005 (National Security Education Program 2005). Another interesting point to note is that the *Foreign Language Assistance Program* (FLAP) funding distribution for Mandarin is very high compared to other foreign languages (FL) in the US. Figure 1.1 indicates that the major FL funding assistance in 2008 was to Spanish (36%), followed by Chinese (32%).

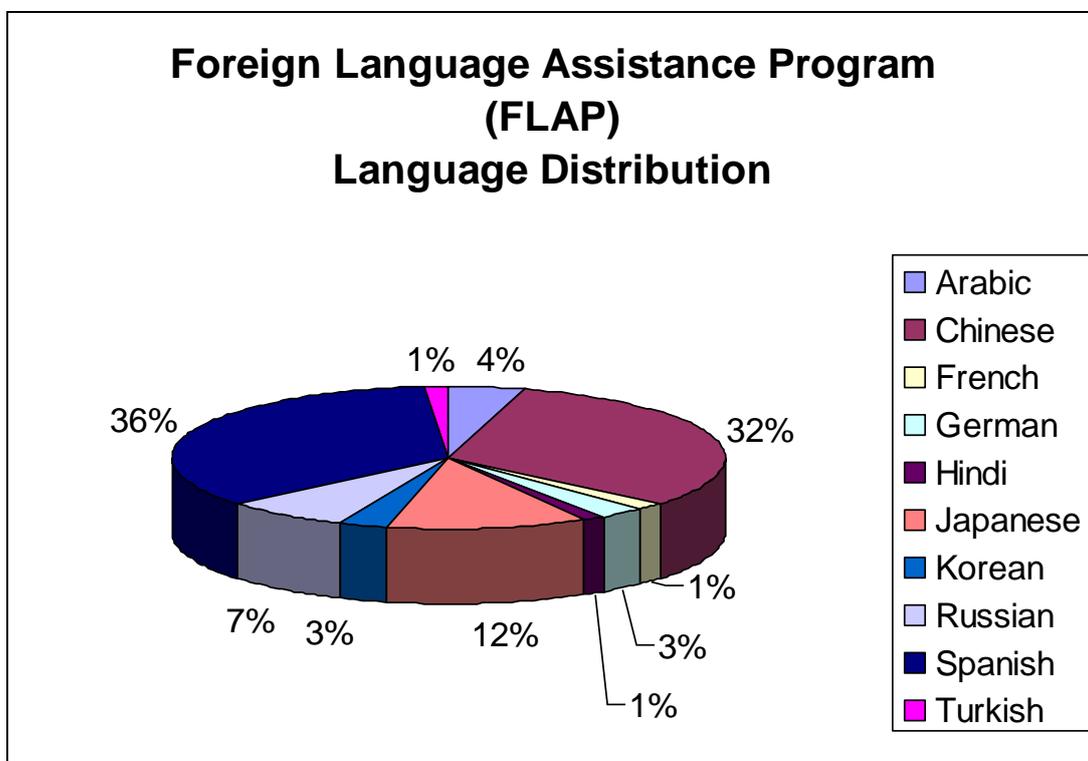


Figure 1.1: Foreign Language Assistance Program (FLAP): Language distribution (Edwards & Lenker 2008).

By 2000, Chinese was elevated to a ‘commonly taught’ language, a status long held by traditional European languages such as Spanish, French and German (Xiao 2011:181). Australia realised the benefits of learning Chinese early as a result of the development of the Asian economy and especially that of China (Lo Bianco & Liu 2007:120). In order to maximise its geographic advantages in relation to and expand its economic ties with Asia, Australia embarked on the development and subsequent implementation of a national language policy in

the mid-1980s. It aimed at encouraging and promoting teaching of some major Asian languages, specifically Chinese (Lo Bianco & Liu 2007:120). The internationalisation of education has led to a major expansion in the range of Chinese offerings in Australian higher education which caters to growing, and in some institutions to numerically dominant, groupings of native Chinese speakers. They have radically different language and academic needs compared to the traditional clientele of non-Chinese speakers (Liu & Lo Bianco 2007:95).

1.1.3 The development of MFL in higher education in South Africa

South Africa is a multilingual society. The prominence of language diversity is captured in the policy framework for language in higher education and addresses the following issues: languages of instruction in higher education, the future of South African languages as fields of academic study and research, the promotion of multilingualism in institutional policies, and the study of foreign languages (FLs) (Ministry of Education of South Africa 2002). Tuition in FLs in higher education is linked, amongst others, to the languages needed to promote the country's cultural, trade and diplomatic relations (Ministry of Education of South Africa 2002). It is in this light that the provision of MFL in South African higher education, which has achieved greater importance in the last 25 years, should be understood. To date, 4 major South African universities offer courses in MFL: the University of South Africa (Unisa), Stellenbosch University (SU), Rhodes University (RU) and the University of Cape Town (UCT) (see Chapter 3 for a full discussion).

In 1990, a *Centre for Asian Studies* was established at Unisa to raise the awareness of modern Asia, to initiate research and to promote the knowledge of the region. The design and presentation of Mandarin Chinese courses at the institution resulted from this development (Hau-Yoon 2002:1). Mandarin Chinese was introduced at first-year level in 1993 and 42 students enrolled for the course. Thanks to consistent enrolment during the first three years (1993-1996), second-year modules were introduced in 1997 and third-year modules in 2002 (Hau-Yoon 2002:55). Today the *Centre for Asian Studies* is defunct, however in May 2011, the *Centre for Asian Business* was established within the *Graduate School of Business* at Unisa (Unisa 2011b). Today the Mandarin Chinese Section is located in the Department of Classics and World Languages, which forms part of the *College of Human Sciences* (Unisa 2011a). Unisa offers 9 modules in Mandarin Chinese and these are structured at 3 levels. It does not,

however, offer Mandarin Chinese as a major in an independent undergraduate degree. A student can take Mandarin Chinese as a major or ancillary subject for the degree course which falls in the area of humanities and social sciences, economics and management sciences, or theology and religious studies. Students in law or science may take Mandarin Chinese as an ancillary subject. Students may also take Mandarin for non-degree purposes (Unisa 2013).

At Stellenbosch University (SU), Mandarin tuition was first taught in the Department of Modern Foreign Language in 2000. China established a *Confucius Institute* at SU in 2005 and seconded lecturers to the Institute to assist with Chinese teaching (Stellenbosch University 2009). From 2005, the Department began to offer a full undergraduate degree in Mandarin. In 2007 with the approval of the application for HSK by the *Hanban*, the Mandarin Section at SU hosted the first HSK test centre in Sub-Saharan Africa (Stellenbosch University 2011). An important development at SU has been the commencement of an Honours course in Mandarin from 2012 (Zhao 2012). This is the first South African university to offer a higher degree in Mandarin.

Since 2009, Rhodes University (RU) has offered Chinese as a one year credit-bearing course in the School of Languages. This general practical language course is designed for students whose mother tongue is not Chinese. Due to sustained enrolment figures, Chinese Two and Chinese Three have been introduced (Rhodes University 2012a). The purpose of the course on all three levels is to provide an opportunity for learners to acquire some basic communicative skills in Chinese and an awareness and preliminary understanding of the cultural aspects of Chinese. This includes the acquisition of some aspects of a basic repertoire of Chinese characters in terms of their uses in everyday spoken and written situations, with a view to communication in Chinese (Rhodes University 2012a).

Chinese language tuition was officially launched in January 2010 at the University of Cape Town (UCT). It offers Mandarin as a first year and second year course (UCT 2013). A *Confucius Institute* was established at UCT aimed to promote the learning of the Chinese language and culture, foster a broader and more informed understanding of China (both in the Cape Town area and across South Africa), and to strengthen educational and cultural exchanges and friendly cooperation between China and South Africa.

1.1.4 Teaching Mandarin/Chinese as a FL in China

Interestingly, the interest in learning Mandarin is also reflected by the *Teaching and Learning Mandarin/Chinese as a Foreign Language* (TCFL) to foreign students in China itself. TCFL has been an integral part of China's reform and opening up drive. The provision of TCFL is of strategic significance to popularise the Chinese language and culture throughout the world, to enhance friendship and mutual understanding as well as economic and cultural cooperation and exchanges between China and other countries around the world, and to elevate China's influence in the international community (Ministry of Education of China 2006).

TCFL in modern China began in 1950, when *Tsinghua University* set up a training course of Chinese language for international students from Eastern Europe. Since 1978 and due to the opening up policy adopted by and overall position of China, the TCFL drive has been vigorously developed. In July 1987, with the approval of the *State Council*, the *State Leading Group for TCFL* was established (Lu & Zhao 2011:117-119). In 1986, the *Degree Committee* under the *State Council* accorded the Beijing Language and Culture University (BLCU) and Peking University (and others), the license to be the first universities to grant MA degrees to foreign Chinese learners. In 1998, BLCU began offering doctorate courses in TCFL to foreign graduates (Lu & Zhao 2011:118). To ensure the quality of TCFL teachers, the *Guidelines for Teacher Qualification Evaluation of TCFL* were promulgated in 1990 to initiate a teacher qualification certificate system for TCFL. At present, there are more than 400 universities and colleges offering various Chinese programmes to foreign learners with total annual enrolment figures of around 50,000 (Lu & Zhao 2011:118). In addition to the traditional preparatory program, undergraduate, graduate and intensive short-term Chinese courses are available.

1.2 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

An overview of the field of first language (L1) and second language (L2) acquisition indicates that the majority of empirical studies have focused on the acquisition of English and various other European languages. In contrast with the large body of literature in this regard, there is a paucity of studies on the acquisition of Chinese as a second or a foreign language. Qian's (1999) comprehensive bibliography of studies on Chinese acquisition as a L2 (or FL) examined more than 100 journals in China over a 20-year period (1977 to 1998) and found no more than ten

articles that were data-based studies (Jiang 2009:1). To date, research on the Chinese language is largely confined to linguistic studies, i.e. corpus study of Chinese. This demonstrates the need for research on MFL policy and acquisition and this thesis endeavours to address this gap through a comparative study of MFL provision in higher education in China and South Africa.

Various factors led to the choice of China and South Africa as sites for this study. Firstly, I am a native Mandarin speaker who held the position of Associate Professor at Tianjin University of Science and Technology, Tianjin, China for eight years. Both my Master and Bachelor degrees are in Chinese language and literature and I have published ten articles in the field of Mandarin language and instruction in academic journals. Consequently, I am familiar with the policy and provision of teaching Mandarin as a foreign language (TCFL) in China. I am now living in South Africa and my interest in the policy and provision of Mandarin instruction in higher education has been extended to this context. Since 2008, I have continued to teach MFL in South Africa in both the capacity as a private teacher and as a formal Mandarin trainer at the Department of International Relations and Cooperation of South Africa. Through this I have forged professional connections with my counterparts in the four South African universities which offer MFL (see section 1.1.3). In addition, I have professional contact with lecturers in TCFL at several key universities in China (see section 1.1.4). To summarise, I have considerable experience in teaching MFL in both country contexts and so a comparative study between MFL teaching in China and South Africa was a natural and convenient outcome of my professional career.

Secondly, I argue that China and South Africa present interesting cases for a comparative study due to unique contextual factors. Mandarin is the source language in China and thus higher education institutions have the advantage of offering the language for foreign learners within an immersion context. Essentially, the MFL student in China is engaged in a study abroad programme. In contrast, in South Africa MFL is offered to the student without the natural linguistic advantages enjoyed in China. Furthermore, there are interesting differences in the motivation underlying MFL provision in each respective country. MFL provision in China forms part of an official diffusion policy aimed at spreading the language worldwide to meet political and economic goals. In South Africa, it is offered to serve the general interests of multilingualism and institutions offer MFL among a wider repertoire of other foreign languages.

1.3 PROBLEM FORMULATION

Against this background, the main research question is formulated as follows: *What similarities and differences exist in the provision of Mandarin as a FL in higher education institutions in South Africa and China?*

The main research question is sub-divided into the following:

- a) How is language planning defined according to different perspectives and what key components of the language planning process can be identified? What distinctions and parallels appear in the most important theoretical approaches to second language acquisition and foreign language acquisition? What types of educational programmes are commonly implemented for the learning and teaching of FLs and what are their relative advantages for language learning? (See Chapter 2.)
- b) How can the provision of MFL in the higher education systems of South Africa and China be described against the broader background of language policy making? What similarities and differences can be identified? (See Chapter 3.)
- c) What is the experience of MFL provision at South African and selected Chinese universities from the point of view of both lecturers and students as identified by a mixed-method inquiry? (See Chapters 4, 5 and 6.)
- d) Based on the findings of the literature and the empirical study, what recommendations can be made for the improvement of practice? (See Chapter 7.)

1.4 AIMS OF THE STUDY

The main aim of the study is: to explore *similarities and differences in the provision of Mandarin as a FL in higher education institutions in South Africa and China.*

The main aim is sub-divided into the following objectives:

- a) To define language planning according to different perspectives and to identify key components of the language planning process, to highlight distinctions and parallels in the most important theoretical approaches to L2 and FL acquisition, to identify types

of educational programmes commonly implemented when learning and teaching FLs, and to ascertain their relative advantages for FL language learning;

- b) To describe the provision of MFL in the higher education systems of South Africa and China and to identify similarities and differences;
- c) To explore the experience of MFL provision at South African and selected Chinese universities from the point of view of lecturers and students through a mixed-method inquiry; and
- d) Based on the findings of the literature and the empirical study, to make recommendations for the improvement of practice.

1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN

The problem was explored by means of a literature review and an empirical investigation. A synopsis of the empirical design is given here. The full detail of the research design is presented in Chapter Four.

1.5.1 Literature study

A literature study was used to explore the policy and provision of teaching and teaching Mandarin Chinese as a FL in the context of higher education with special reference to China and South Africa. The sources consulted included websites, official documents, legislation, books, academic journals and media reports where appropriate. This provided a framework for the ensuing empirical inquiry. In particular, Chinese policy and the provision of *Teaching Chinese as Foreign Language* (TCFL) were reviewed in the publications of the Ministry of Education, *Hanban* and top universities in this field. Their official documents, legislation, regulations and guidelines were investigated. The South African provision of TCFL was examined through publications, university websites and personal communications.

1.5.2 Empirical inquiry

The empirical investigation followed a mixed-method approach which comprised Phase One (a survey) and Phase Two (interviews). The main types of mixed-method research are as follows (Gall, Gall & Borg 2010:464-470):

- Sequential-explanatory research design;
- Sequential-transformative research design; and
- Concurrent-triangulation research design.

In this study, a concurrent-triangulation mixed-method research design is used. This is defined as a design which incorporates qualitative and quantitative data collection at approximately the same time and then determines whether the analysis findings of each type of data corroborate the other (Gall et al 2010:469). Data collection in China for both mixed-method phases took place during a dedicated study visit in June 2012. According to the model of Bray and Thomas (1995:475), information gathered must be grouped in units of analysis. The units of analysis identified for this study are: the FML programmes offered at selected universities in China and South Africa studied in terms of the experiences of the lecturing staff and students.

1.5.2.1 Selection of sites for Phase One and Phase Two

Both phases of the study were conducted at three selected universities offering MFL in China and at all four universities which offer MFL in South Africa. Selection of the universities in China was done by purposeful and convenience sampling. In other words, information rich cases for in-depth study were chosen in such a way that I was able to access them with the minimum of difficulty (Arthur, Waring, Coe & Hedges 2012:170). In South Africa, all universities offering MFL were chosen as a comprehensive sample (Mertens 2010:318, 370).

As mentioned (see section 1.1.4), more than 400 universities and colleges offer various Chinese programmes to foreign learners (Lu & Zhao 2011:118). Three kinds of universities in China can be distinguished according to their history, the programmes they offer and their numbers of enrolment. They are top universities where MFL is offered, base universities where MFL is offered in both degree and non-degree programmes, and general universities where only non-degree programs for MFL are offered. Against this background, the following universities were selected:

- I. Beijing Language and Culture University (BLCU) which is a top university;
- II. Nankai University (NU) located in Tianjin which is a base university offering MFL; and

- III. Tianjin University of Science and Technology (TUST) which a general university offering MFL located in Tianjin.

In South Africa, all four universities which provide MFL were chosen as sites of inquiry:

- I. University of South Africa (Unisa), a distance learning institution;
- II. Stellenbosch University (SU);
- III. Rhodes University (RU); and the
- IV. University of Cape Town (UCT).

1.5.2.2 Phase One: Selection of survey respondents

a) China

Non-probability sampling involves using whatever respondents are available to the researcher and this was the method used for this research. A total of 48 teaching staff were approached as part of the survey and 46 of them completed the questionnaire (N=46). At BLCU 30 teaching staff were selected with the help of a gatekeeper and 28 completed the questionnaire. NU employs a total of 51 TCFL teaching staff. On the day of data collection, 11 staff were present (15 questionnaires were prepared) and all completed the questionnaire (N=11). At TUST, all seven teaching staff completed the questionnaire (N=7).

b) South Africa

Comprehensive non-probability sampling was used to select a total of 8 teaching staff as respondents in South Africa. This constitutes the total teaching corps of all four universities combined and 6 persons completed the questionnaire (N=6). The respondents were distributed as follows: two from Unisa, two from US, one from RU and one from UCT.

1.5.2.3 Phase Two: Selection of interview participants

a) China

During a dedicated study visit to China in June 2012, the researcher identified 19 participants for the interviews by means of purposeful and convenience sampling. At BLCU, 8 students participated, at NU 6 students participated and at TUST, 5 students participated.

b) South Africa

In South Africa, 14 students were identified for interviews by means of purposeful and convenience sampling. At Unisa, 3 students participated, at SU 6 students participated and at UCT 5 students participated. Due to logistical problems, the researcher decided not to include RU in Phase Two.

1.5.2.4 Phase One: Data collection through questionnaires

A self-designed questionnaire comprising 7 sections (98 closed questions and 1 open question) was compiled and piloted in both countries to ensure the best possible question formulation. Appropriate changes were subsequently effected to the survey questionnaire. The final questionnaire was available in English and Chinese and was distributed by email and hard copy.

a) China

Questionnaires were distributed personally during the researcher's dedicated study visit to China. The response rate was 88 percent.

b) South Africa

Questionnaires were distributed by email and hard copy. Only respondents from SU completed section G (16 questions) as it was the only university in the country that offered an honours course in Mandarin. The response rate was 75 percent.

1.5.2.5 Phase Two: Data collection through interviews

Interviews were conducted on site at the respective universities and recorded by digital recorder. The researcher transcribed the interviews and translated where necessary. All participants gave written informed consent to participate voluntarily and pseudonyms were used throughout the study to ensure anonymity.

1.5.2.6 Phase One: Data analysis

The questionnaire responses were analysed by an expert statistician who used the Statistical Analysis Software package, SAS version 8.0 (SAS 2004).

1.5.2.7 Phase Two: Data analysis

Raw data consisted of the transcriptions of the recorded interviews. By reading and rereading the transcripts independently, tentative themes were identified. Firstly, relevant extracts in the text were highlighted and then grouped without comment into themes (Delamont 2002:172). Thereafter, the themes were clustered into categories (LeCompte & Schensul 2010:199). Finally, suitable quotations were selected as rich data (vivid and detailed data) to illustrate the categories (LeCompte & Schensul 2010:223).

1.5.3 Ethical issues

Ethical issues were dealt with as follows: firstly ethical clearance was obtained from the *College of Education*, University of South Africa. Thereafter, permission was sought from the directors and leaders of teaching at the various institutions. Ethical issues and a request for permission were dealt with in the covering letter to the questionnaire (see Appendix A). Participants gave their written consent to take part in the interviews (see Appendix A) and participation in both phases was voluntary and anonymous.

1.6 CLARIFICATION OF TERMS

The key terms used in the thesis are defined in the following sections.

1.6.1 Mandarin, Mandarin Chinese and Chinese

In this thesis, Mandarin, Mandarin Chinese and Chinese are three terms which are used interchangeably depending on the context in which they appear. They all refer to the standard language of China.

In the Qing Dynasty a mandarin was an important government official in China. In time the term Mandarin (*Pǔtōnghuà*) came to refer to the official language spoken in China. Since the founding of the People's Republic on mainland China, more efforts have been given to the promotion of *Pǔtōnghuà*, or the common language, a standardised variety that has become the official language of China. The language standardisation effort had reached a certain degree of maturity by the 1970s with the widespread use of simplified characters in mainland China and the use of pinyin, the Romanisation system, to teach *Pǔtōnghuà* to learners (Li & Zhu 2011:13). The 'standard' in Standard Mandarin refers to the standard Beijing dialect of the Mandarin language, which was adopted as the standard form at a conference on the *Unification of Pronunciation* in 1913 (Hau-Yoon 2002:8). This distinguishes it from other Chinese dialects such as Hakka, Hokkien and Cantonese (Kaplan & Baldauf 1997:320).

In China, the higher education institutions refer to their language courses simply as Chinese. In the South African context, different institutions use different terminology: Mandarin is used at UCT (UCT 2013) and was used at SU until 2012 (Stellenbosch University 2011); Mandarin Chinese is used at Unisa (Unisa 2013) and Chinese is used at RU (Rhodes University 2012b) and SU since 2013 (Stellenbosch University 2013).

1.6.2 Foreign Language

FL is defined as a language which is not the native language of large numbers of people in a particular country or region, is not used as a medium of instruction in schools and is not widely used as a medium of communication in government or the media. FLs are typically taught as school subjects for the purpose of communication with foreigners or for reading printed materials in the language (Richards & Schmidt 2002:206). The purpose of learning a FL is to facilitate travel abroad, communication with native speakers, and the reading foreign literature or scientific and technical works.

1.6.3 Mandarin as a Foreign Language (MFL)

MFL refers to Mandarin Chinese as spoken or studied by non-native speakers. Although in China the practice of teaching Chinese to foreigners can be traced back to the Tang dynasty (700-900 AD), teachers and researchers committed to teaching Chinese as a FL generally do not consider Chinese pedagogy and Chinese acquisition two distinct areas of inquiry as do some European and American applied linguists of FL acquisition. The majority of research papers and books on Chinese as a FL mix both teaching and learning Chinese in their discussions. They do, however, distinguish elements (tones, grammar, discourse, etc.) to be taught and learned (Xing 2006:8). An increased interest in China from those outside the borders has led to a corresponding interest in the study of MFL. In the context of this thesis, Mandarin Chinese is regarded a FL.

1.7 ORGANISATION OF THE THESIS

Chapter 1 is an introduction to the study and includes the problem formulation, aims and methodology of the study.

Chapter 2 deals with definitions of language policy and an analysis of the key components of the language planning process. Thereafter, theoretical approaches to L2 and FL acquisition and the types of educational programmes commonly implemented for the learning and teaching of FLs are discussed.

Chapter 3 presents a description of the provision of MFL at universities in South Africa and at selected universities in China.

Chapter 4 gives an outline of the research design using a mixed-method inquiry.

Chapter 5 presents the findings of the survey research.

Chapter 6 presents the findings of the interviews.

Chapter 7 presents a summary of the research, key findings and recommendations.

1.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter has introduced the growing importance of MFL in the global context with special reference to higher education in South Africa and China. Against this background, the problem and aims of the research have been formulated as well as the motivation for the study. The research design which uses a mixed-method inquiry has been outlined. Phase One comprises a survey of lecturer opinions in both countries and Phase Two comprises interviews with student participants in both countries. Essential terms have been defined.

The following chapter provides a literature review of issues around language planning and policy development, as well as of theories of language acquisition with particular reference to learning and teaching FLs.

CHAPTER TWO

LANGUAGE POLICY PLANNING AND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to provide a theoretical framework for the comparative inquiry into teaching and learning MFL in higher education in China and South Africa. The first section deals with evolving definitions of language planning followed by an analysis of language planning with special reference to learning and teaching FLs according to the questions: who makes language policy, what is planned, for whom, why and finally, how is such a language policy implemented? Thereafter, attention is given to the distinction and parallels between the acquisition of a second language (L2) and the acquisition of a FL. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the main types of educational programmes that are implemented with a view to FL teaching and learning and their relative advantages.

2.2 LANGUAGE PLANNING

No single, universally accepted definition of language planning (LP) exists and so various typical, critical and influential definitions are introduced in this section.

In his early work on language planning, Haugen (1969:701) defined LP fairly narrowly as “the normative work of language academies and committees, all forms of what is commonly known as language cultivation, and all proposals for language reform or standardization.” Later Haugen (1983:274) developed a fourfold model of the stages of LP: selection, codification, implementation and evaluation, but made no claims to a theory of LP. In the light of Haugen’s early demarcation of language planning, Rubin’s (1977:284) definition is straightforward. He sees LP as the process of identifying a language problem in society and the endeavour to find the “best (or optimal, most efficient, most valuable) alternative to solve a problem.” This would include dilemmas surrounding the language of instruction in schooling systems in bilingual societies and solutions to accommodate L2 learners. Fishman’s definition (1979:14) has been widely used by language planners and emphasises the importance of resources through the “authoritative allocation through national sanction.” He defines LP in terms of the “assignment of funds, manpower, sanction and concern to language use and/or language instruction.” Like

Haugen, he (1979:14) proposes a series of stages (cycles) necessary for successful LP: decision-making, codification, elaboration, implementation, evaluation and iteration or cultivation. Thus, LP is seen in terms of the way hard and soft resources are dedicated in an organised way to addressing language issues and concerns at national level in a country. Later, Fishman (1987:409) elaborated on his earlier explanation and described LP as the authoritative allocation of resources to the attainment of language status and corpus goals (see 2.2.1), whether in connection with new functions that are aspired to, or in connection with old functions that need to be discharged more adequately. This concept of LP is broad and can be brought to bear on indigenous languages spoken in a country as well as planning for FL provision at any level of the education system. Building on Fishman's work, Markee (1986:8) highlighted the decisions concerning the teaching and use of language in his definition of LP. Cooper (1990:45) introduced the idea of LP as a deliberate and organised effort to influence the behaviour of others with respect to the acquisition, structure, or functional allocation of their language codes. This suggests conscious efforts by planners to expand or even privilege the formal use of a particular language in a bilingual society. However, LP is not entirely in a matter of deliberate official policy; language users exert their own control over language outcomes. McGroarty (1997:1) defined LP as the combination of "official decisions" as well as prevailing public practices related to language education and use. This combination can be seen in instances where government policy which propagates the preservation of indigenous languages may be undermined by pragmatic public choice for a language, such as English, because of its relative economic and social advantages.

The above-mentioned definitions indicate that LP is shaped by a range of role players: academics responsible for standardisation and codification, government planners who allocate resources and thereby may endeavour to privilege certain languages, educational planners and by the language users themselves. These definitions suggest LP is not a matter only of overt policy, but is also determined by non-language factors such as politics and the economy, and national concerns including security, ethnicity and human rights of which language rights form a part. To assist in understanding the complex process of LP, Cooper (1990:31) introduces the following question: **Who** plans **what**, for **whom** and **how**? Later, to this question, Spolsky and Shohamy (2000:4) added a motivation notion 'why,' that is: Who plans what, for whom, how and **why**? This multi-level question provides an analytical tool for the ensuing discussion in this thesis.

2.2.1 Who makes language policy?

Fishman's words 'authoritative allocation,' 'national level' and 'sanction' indicate that LP activities are undertaken by governments, government-authorised agencies, or other authoritative bodies, i.e. organisations with a public mandate for language regulation (cf Haugen's reference to language academies above). The thought is even more clearly reflected in McGroarty's (1997) reference to 'official decisions.' This decision-making manner heralds a top-down approach. However, Cooper (1990:31) argued that reference to 'who' does not exclude the activities, which emerge more or less spontaneously at a grass-roots level before government agencies decide on language policy. It would seem, therefore, that to restrict LP to the work of authoritative institutions is too restrictive. Cooper's definition (see 2.2) does not restrict language planners to authoritative agencies; this thought concurs with McGroarty (1997) who says that LP is a combination of official decisions and prevailing public practices. Generally speaking, community leaders, religious institutions, family leaders, school principals and teachers are also language policy makers. For instance, family leaders decide on the home language which is very important for immigrants; religious leaders determine the language of religious ritual or discourse; principals and school boards decide on the instructional language and FL teachers can encourage or require students to speak the target language through their instructional strategies. These examples may refer to language practice rather than policy making, however, these practices become unwritten policies when they emanate from the explicit decisions of an authority, such as schools or religious organisations. The educational lobby is most likely to focus and bring pressure to bear on those with official control over language in education policies. This includes curriculum experts and policy makers in central, regional or local departments of education, or practitioners at school level (Spolsky & Shohamy 2000:6). In summary, Cooper (1990:38) confirms that language policy-making with respect to the language curriculum includes national decisions and subsidiary, lower-level decisions taken to implement the higher-level decisions (Cooper 1990:38). This decision making manner is referred to as a bottom-up approach.

2.2.2 What is the content of language policy?

According to Fishman's definition of LP, both corpus planning (the structure of the language itself) and status planning (language use and choice) are main foci of language policy. Cooper

(1990:33) also mentions language teaching as an object of policy making, that is planning for language acquisition. Educational linguists and politicians are both concerned with language choices and the resources to be deployed (Spolsky & Shohamy 2000:5). They identify two main kinds of language policy and planning: corpus planning and status planning which revolves around acquisition and diffusion of language(s) (Spolsky & Shohamy 2000:7; Cooper 1990:58).

2.2.2.1 Corpus planning

Corpus planning refers to activities such as coining new terms, reforming spelling, and adopting a new script. The standardisation of the Chinese language is an example of corpus planning (see 3.2.1). It refers, in brief, to the creation of new forms, the modification of old ones, or the selection from alternative forms in a spoken or written code. It consists of the language cultivation, reform, and standardisation mentioned by Haugen (1969; see 2.2 and the reference to selection, codification and elaboration of linguistic features above).

2.2.2.2 Status planning

Status planning refers to the allocation of languages and their importance or role in relation to other language varieties in national or regional contexts, as well as their use for functions such as the medium of instruction, official language and vehicle of mass communication (Cooper 1990:32). According to Fishman (1979), ‘authoritative allocation of resources’ positions the specific language or languages at national level. For instance, Mandarin Chinese has officially been designated as China’s national language in the Constitution (Constitution of PRC 1982). English-only has been the long-term policy in the US. The policy of multilingualism was formalised in post-apartheid South Africa which has 11 official languages (Section 6(1) of the Constitution 1996). During the apartheid era there were two official languages (Afrikaans and English) with legal status. These examples illustrate language selection, function and use through authoritative allocation in the context of language resources at national level.

Status planning of foreign languages: FL status is also determined by authoritative agencies. Fishman (see 2.2) mentions that LP involves the assignment of funds, manpower, sanction of language use and, or instruction. This is also true of FL instruction. Cooper (1990:43) reminds

us that FL related issues of public policy are of great interest to linguists who seek to obtain government grants to research these topics and who are also consulted by public and private agencies to solve language-related problems. Similar considerations operate regarding the national choice of an official language as well as the determination of what FLs should be taught in educational institutions (Cooper 1990:37).

In this regard, Loheyde (1993) investigated FL status and acquisition in the framework of LP in US higher education. A government always adjusts or re-prioritises the status of FLs according to politics, national defence and economic needs. For instance, the *American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages* (ACTFL) held a *National Policy Summit* in 2005 where the *National Security Education Program Chinese K-16 Pipeline Flagship* was created and implemented. This is a model for sequenced, articulated Chinese study beginning in elementary school and continuing through to undergraduate study (National Security Education Program 2005).

China's policy on FL instruction has also been affected by internationalism and globalisation and various FLs have been taught in China at different times. In the 1950s, Russian was of great importance (Lam 2005:8); English was bolstered during the Great Leap Forward following China's break from the Soviet Union (Johnson 2009:22) and all FLs suffered under Mao's rule. Support for learning English was later renewed as former Vice Premier of the *State Council*, Li Lanqing stated, English is "not merely an educational issue per se but an issue associated with the modernization of the country." This attitude has continued to today (Johnson 2009:22).

FL status or priority is also a dimension of policy in higher education institutions and schools. As pointed out by Spolsky and Shohamy (2000:13), the most common form of what language to teach is the school's or education ministry's FL policy. It is this that determines how many and what languages are to be taught. The decisions on these matters are in part educational but a large part is influenced by political, cultural and other factors.

2.2.2.3 Acquisition planning versus diffusion planning

Acquisition planning is directed toward language spread, i.e. an increase in the users or the uses

of a language or language variety. It links the language instruction and education policy. As Cooper (1990:33) states, language acquisition or education policy sets requirements, situations, or opportunities for learning a desired or required language, or a specific variety of language. Therefore, the decision of the language of instruction is partly subordinate to educational concerns. An approved FL curriculum for public schools is an example of language acquisition or education policy or planning. An acquisition policy takes the form of a statement specifying which segment of the population should spend a defined amount of time acquiring defined levels of competence in specific languages. The segment could be all or part of the school population, or a specific occupational group. The most common form of this is the school FL policy which determines how many and what languages are to be taught, what age the instruction begins, what proportion of the school population is included, and how many years and hours per year the language must be taught. Again, the decisions on these matters are in part educational; in large part they are influenced by political, cultural, and other factors. Some countries demand a minimal duration of FL tuition, for instance a year or two of learning a FL. High school or college FL learning satisfies the most common aspirations in the US, however, the need in other countries can be quite demanding. For instance, English is a compulsory subject from junior high through to university in China.

A subcategory of acquisition planning is a policy concerning the diffusion of a language beyond the national boundaries (Spolsky & Shohamy 2000:10). Diffusion policy involves the active efforts of a government or para-governmental body to encourage the acquisition of a national or official language outside the political boundaries of the state (Spolsky & Shohamy 2000:15). It therefore concerns the teaching or spread of the native language as a FL. Language diffusion policy resembles the policy of language export.

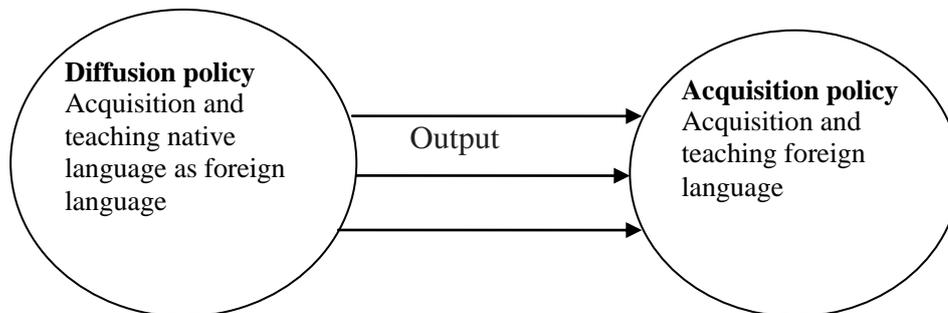
Bilingual or multilingual countries such as South Africa, are usually engaged in the polemics of status planning and particularly that of language acquisition with regard to education. They seldom engage in language diffusion (Spolsky & Shohamy 2000:27). However, linguistically homogeneous or monolingual countries usually assume that issues of status planning have already been decided. Such countries tend to stress normative corpus planning, with certain attention to acquisition planning and are sometimes politically or economically motivated to develop a diffusion policy. For instance, France is a monolingual country with a powerful political and military history; in this case diffusion might be seen as a continuation of

imperialist or colonialist language policy to areas no longer or never under the political domination of the state. French language education in former colonies was remarkable in its efficacy (Spolsky & Shohamy 2000). Today *Alliance Française* as a full-scale national organisation is an organ for the planning and implementation of French language diffusion. *Alliance Française* is a not-for-profit organisation and forms the largest network which teaches the French language and culture to more than 400,000 students around the world. There are more than 1,300 *Alliances* established in over 112 countries, including 31 in Australia (*Alliance Française on the Sunshine Coast* 2013). Ammon (1992) provides a full account of the development of the German language diffusion policy at the end of the last century and Phillipson (1992) describes British and American efforts to spread English. A question is raised by Paredes and Mendes (2002:1): “Will English be the only language spoken in 2050?” Although this is unlikely, English is currently the world’s *lingua franca*. Similar efforts exist to spread Hebrew outside Israel, such as Hebrew instruction in Jewish schools and communities worldwide as part of the educational mission of the *World Zionist Organization*. In addition, the Israeli Foreign Ministry sends Hebrew teachers to universities in several other countries, including China, France, and Italy, and supports Hebrew diffusion activities in Jordan and Egypt (Spolsky & Shohamy 2000:15).

With the demise of colonisation and imperialism, politics, economics and globalisation have become the main influence over FL acquisition and diffusion. In this regard, Munat (2005:145-151) distinguishes between two types of diffusion: imperialism and globalisation diffusion. Imperialism diffusion refers to a language spread policy motivated by colonial powers to enforce their language on other people groups, sustained by an ideology of superiority based on religion, politics, culture, the writing system and science and technology. Colonised populations passively or forcibly studied the languages diffused by imperial countries. This type of diffusion is not however obsolete if one considers the imposition of the Russian language on occupied Eastern bloc countries after World War II. In contrast, globalisation diffusion is a language spread policy propagated by the economic giants with none or low profits. People outside of the economic powers actively and voluntarily acquire the languages diffused by these nations. The desire to acquire the FL by populations of the peripheral territories is motivated by the benefits embodied in access to economic, scientific, commercial or cultural for professional or material advancement facilitated by the acquisition of the new language. For example, the English diffusion policy of the UK has shifted from

imperialism to globalisation. This comprises an evolution from imperialist action (imperial diffusion) in the past to globalisation diffusion in contemporary times which undergirds the supposedly post-imperial character of English language spread today (Fishman, Conrad & Rubal-Lopez 1996:13-36).

Language acquisition policy and language diffusion policy can also be depicted in terms of the direction of language flow and this is illustrated in Figure 2.1. A language policy made by a country or agency to output or export their language outside national boundaries is a diffusion policy. A language policy made by foreign counties to acquire or import is an acquisition policy. It must be stressed that both diffusion and acquisition are related to the arena of language policy. In a pedagogical discussion of teaching and learning a language, diffusion and acquisition are not normally differentiated.



**Figure 2.1 Language diffusion and language acquisition policy in relation to FL
(Self-designed)**

2.2.3 For whom is policy made?

Fishman (1979:11-24) stated that FL is directed at national interests. Cooper (1990:36) extended this idea by highlighting that LP is directed more generally at influencing the language behaviour of others and extended the ‘whom’ to fit all types of FL learners in an international arena. The latter are not only those formally enrolled learners who wish to learn a FL in their own education system but also smaller interest groups. An example is occupational groups who wish to learn a FL for work-related purposes and do this through non-formal language programmes. Therefore, the ‘for whom’ is diverse: national or regional, learners at school or students in higher education, adults in adult education programmes, diplomats, members of religious organisations and so forth.

2.2.4 Why? Language policy to what end?

This question addresses the motivation that drives policy makers to establish formal language policy. In other words, it addresses the goals, interests, purposes and factors which influence language selection or innovation and that guide policy formulation. According to Fishman (1979) and Rubin (1977), LP is motivated by finding solutions to language problems which could be related to education, politics, national security, globalisation issues, economy, and science and technology. Cooper (1990:34) also emphasised these non-linguistic factors in the determination of a national LP and pointed out that language and communication problems are not the only relevant issues in LP (Cooper 1989:35). Spolsky and Shohamy (2000:20-26) and Ruiz (1984:15) concur about the diverse nature of ‘why?’ They mention motivators such as politics, national defence, the economy, accessing scientific and technological information and skills, language as a human right, language as a problem of integration and nationalism, and language as an educational resource.

2.2.4.1 National defence

A case in point is that of the US. The National Defense Education Act (NDEA) and specifically *Title VI* thereof has important implications for FL provision in higher education. The original focus of *Title VI* of NDEA was teaching and learning a FL at advanced levels, especially non-Western European languages for purposes related to national security. Areas outside of Western Europe were considered critical to national security and it was in these areas that the US had the greatest shortfall of skilled language specialists (Lambert 1992).

2.2.4.2 Globalisation and economy

Globalisation and accompanying economic considerations are major rationales for LP today. In modern society, mass communication, efficient cross-border travel and international interdependence have created a global village. The distance between countries has been reduced by international institutions such as the *World Trade Organization* (WTO), the *World Bank* and the *International Monetary Fund* (IMF). Technology, satellites, the internet and the free movement of people, capital, goods, jobs, services, information, ideas and values that have led to so-called knowledge economies, new democracies and a new world order has further

minimised the separation of countries (Zhou 2011:134). In his research on FL provision in US higher education, Furumoto (1996) found that a primary motivation behind FL provision in higher education was global economic competitiveness. This was already identified in Lambert's research in 1987 and 1992. The position of English in the global language hierarchy has been strengthened by globalisation; other competitor languages, such as Russian, Japanese and Chinese, have also subsequently risen in importance for the same reason.

2.2.5 How to implement the planning?

Fishman (1979:11-24) pointed out that LP involves the assignment of funds, manpower, sanction and concern for language use and, or language instruction. In his discussions, he illustrates the importance of legislation and funding support by referring to language policies adopted by the US and the EU.

As mentioned above, the most important FL policy in the US is the NDEA, especially *Title VI*. This was created by Congress to advance maths education, science and FL education, all subjects considered critical to national security (Abrate & Edwards 2009). After its inception, *Title VI* was expanded to create *National Resource Centres (NRC)*, the *Foreign Language and Area Studies (FLAS) Fellowships* and *International Research and Studies Centres* (Abrate & Edwards 2009). Spanish, French and German, particularly at an advanced level, received attention due to programme demands and a change in congressional intent to include Western European languages (Lambert 1992:7-8). As *Title VI* continued to expand its dimensions of international area studies and to focus less on defence, it increasingly emphasised global competitiveness and particularly economic competitiveness for the learning of FLs. The 1992 Reauthorization of the Higher Education Act expanded *Title VI* to include the Institute for International Public Policy (IIPP), a new program to train language minority students destined for international careers (Government of US Department of Education 2008:1-3). The NDEA *Title VI* was also the first federal funding ever to deal specifically with FL instruction (International Education and Foreign Languages 2007). After 9/11 in 2002, the US Department of Education, *Title VI* and *Fulbright-Hays programmes* formed the vital infrastructure of the federal government's investment in support of FL learning and international studies in colleges and universities to ensure a supply of graduates with expertise in less commonly taught languages (LCTLs), world areas, and transnational trends. *Title VI* primarily provides

domestically-based language and area training, research, and outreach while Fulbright-Hays programmes support on-site opportunities to develop these skills (Government of US Department of Education 2008:1-3). Large amounts of funding have been allocated to *Foreign Language Assistance Programs* (FLAP), *Advancing America Through Foreign Language (K-16) Partnerships*, for training the *Language Teacher Corps* and summer sessions for foreign language teachers (Edwards 2007:3).

Moving the discussion to the EU, in the 21st century, the EU promoted the concept of pluri-lingualism for all its citizens as regulated in the *Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union* (TFEU) and supported this intent with funds and various projects. LP, in the EU's view, is an important element to sustaining Europe's competitiveness. An objective of this LP is that every European citizen should master two other languages in addition to their mother tongue (Language Policy 2013).

2.3 LANGUAGE FRAMEWORK AND MODEL

If we re-examine the definitions of LP (see 2.2), we find that Haugen developed an early fourfold LP model: language selection, codification, implementation and evaluation. Cooper (1990:157) added the aspect of acquisition to this model. A recent synthesis by Hornberger (2006:29) brings various definitions together into an “integrative framework” for LP. This specifies three categories of activity that count as LP (status, corpus and acquisition) and two approaches (policy planning and cultivation planning). Status planning is “about uses of language,” acquisition planning about “users of language” and corpus planning “about language.” This is depicted in Table 2.1 below.

Table 2.1: Language policy and planning goals: An integrative framework (Hornberger 2006:29)

Note: LP types are in plain typeface, approaches in *italics*, goals in **bold**.

APPROACHES TYPES	POLICY PLANNING APPROACH (ON FORM)	CULTIVATION PLANNING APPROACH (ON FUNCTION)
Status planning (uses of language)	Officialization Nationalization Standardization of status Proscription	Revival Maintenance Spread Inter-lingual communication- International Intra-national
Acquisition planning (users of language)	Group Education/School literary Religious Mass media Work Language's formal role in society <i>Extra-linguistic aims</i>	Reacquisition Maintenance Shift Foreign language/second language/literacy Language's function role in society <i>Extra-linguistic aims</i>
Corpus planning (language)	Standardization of corpus Standardization of auxiliary code Graphization Codification Language's form <i>Linguistic aims</i>	Modernization (new function) Lexical Stylistic Renovation (new forms, old functions) Purification Reform Stylistic simplification Terminology unification
		Elaboration Language's functions <i>Semi-linguistic aims</i>

Hornberger's framework covers different perspectives from which linguists or educational researchers can easily and clearly find their categories.

The following are three categories of relevance to this thesis:

- a) International language spread: This is the intersection of status planning type (focusing on use or selection of language) and cultivation planning approach. The international role and spread of MFL as a diffusion (China) and acquisition policy (South Africa) is relevant here.
- b) Education or school literacy: This is the intersection of acquisition planning type (focusing on user or language spread) and policy planning approach. This is relevant because the thesis discussed MFL in higher education programmes.
- c) Foreign language: This is the intersection of acquisition planning type (focusing on user or language spread) and cultivation planning approach. This is applicable to the aspects of instruction and acquisition of Mandarin, such as curriculum provision, pedagogy, study abroad and study at home.

Cooper (1990:159) introduced a framework in terms of acquisition planning with two variables: the overt goal (which may be acquisition, reacquisition or maintenance) and the chief methods employed to attain the goal (which may be an opportunity to learn, incentive to learn, or both). Cooper thus developed the following 9 categories quoted by Furumoto 1996:33) and shown in Table 2.2 below.

Table 2.2: Cooper’s preliminary framework for acquisition planning (Cooper 1990; reproduced by Furumoto 1996:33)

Overt goals	Acquisition	Reacquisition	Maintenance
Chief methods			
Opportunity to learn			
Incentive to learn			
Both opportunity and incentive to learn			

Table 2.2 indicates the overt goals of acquisition, reacquisition and maintenance. Acquisition refers to L2 or FL acquisition and concerns language spread or the increasing of language users. Reacquisition refers to reacquisition by groups for whom the language was once a vernacular (e.g. renativization of Hebrew and attempts to renativize Irish, Ireland’s native language).

Language maintenance refers to efforts to prevent the further erosion of a native language (e.g. Irish in the Gaeltacht) (Cooper 1990:159). Opportunity is the access to learning a L2 or FL either through direct class instruction or the immersion in a suitable environment (e.g. the production of literature, newspapers, radio and television programs in simplified versions of the target language). Incentive refers to the mechanisms which encourage people to learn the target language. For example, Irish is a requirement for certain civil service jobs in Eire. China adopted the policy of making English a compulsory subject from secondary school and a requirement for a matriculation certificate and admission to university. As a result, students take their English courses seriously. In the case of English in China, there is simultaneous incentive and opportunity for secondary school learners in the form of intensive English classes. But clearly China can only provide an instructional opportunity for learners of English and not an immersion environment: there is hardly a street sign in English and almost no available English literature, newspapers or radio and television programs. Immersion opportunity is therefore limited. Examples of sufficient opportunity for language learning quoted by Cooper (1990:160) are French medium immersion or bilingual educational programmes for Anglophone children in Quebec, Canada.

The overt goal relating to this thesis is acquisition, and the chief methods which are the concerns of the thesis are opportunity to learn, incentive to learn and both opportunity and incentive to learn.

Ruiz (1984:15-34) proposes yet another framework according to orientations in language planning or policy:

- a) Language-as-problem: Linguistic minorities must overcome the language obstacle in order to mainstream into the majority culture. This is the most prevalent attitude in American society today.
- b) Language-as-right: Linguistic minorities have human and civil rights to maintain their mother-tongue.
- c) Language-as-resource: This acknowledges that the nation as a whole would benefit from the conservation and development of its linguistic resources.

According to the language-as-resource approach, a language, and especially a FL, is seen as a means to enrich society in various ways. Language-as-resource has been a popular theoretical framework used to analyse FL policy in the US (Loheyde 1993; Furumoto 1996). This approach underlies *Title VI* legislation to support foreign language study for national defence and economic competitiveness. Ethnic languages in the US have, however, been suppressed in order to compel immigrants to assimilate into the English-only society (Beykont 2002:1-22). Ironically, ethnic languages have only been regarded as a resource when useful for political reasons or national defence (Furumoto 1996). FLs such as French, Spanish and recently Mandarin Chinese and Japanese, are not usually encountered in daily life in the US; they hold prestige for those who learn or speak them and are frequently viewed favourably as an additive advantage. The language-as-resource approach can also be used to explain positive attitudes towards learning English in China. Here the official state position on learning English is that it is “not merely an educational issue per se but an issue associated with the modernization of the country” (Johnson 2009:22).

2.4 ACQUISITION OF A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

In this section, the sociolinguistic perspective of foreign language acquisition (FLA) or second language acquisition (SLA) is discussed. Thereafter, types of educational programmes for FLA and SLA are reviewed. First, however, the terminology is clarified.

2.4.1 Distinction between L2 and FL

Stern (1983) suggests that a distinction should be made between additional languages learned with reference to a speech community outside (FL) or inside (L2) the national or territorial boundaries in which the learning takes place. Berns (1990:8) examined English in different socio-cultural contexts, Japan and India, and differentiated between the terms ‘foreign’ or ‘second’ using the reference to a speech community inside or outside the country. English is a FL for Japan because the English-speaking community is outside the country and there are few opportunities to use English in Japan. Learning English would encourage the development of a non-native English-speaking community which would serve as a reference group. On the other hand, India which is a former British colony, is clearly a L2 learning context for English. The

reason is that ample opportunities to use of English are available and a non-native English-speaking speech community consisting of educated Indians serves as a reference group. Van Patten (1990:18) also distinguishes the two terms according to context and proposes that SLA refers to language acquisition in a native-speaking environment and FL learning in a non-native speaking environment.

In the context of this thesis, Mandarin is a FL in South Africa since South African learners do not learn the language in the native context of a Mandarin-speaking speech community. However, Afrikaans is L2 for South African learners whose native language is English or Zulu as there is a large community of native Afrikaans-speakers inside the country and considerable exposure to Afrikaans in the print and spoken media. Mandarin is also a FL for the foreign learners from abroad who are learning the language in China and special instruction designed to this end is provided, i.e. teaching Mandarin as a FL. However, where Mandarin is learned by Chinese ethnical minorities in China, Mandarin functions as L2 as learners are surrounded by a native Mandarin-speaking speech community and vast language resources.

2.4.2 Relationship of SLA and FLA

From the acquisition point of view, some researchers believe that the SLA is similar to FLA and argue that SLA methods can be transferred to FLA. Ellis (1997:179) points out that L2 learning and FL learning involve the same fundamental processes, only in different situations. Currently, the relationship between SLA and FLA is a unidirectional one in which theory and hypotheses flow from SLA to FL teaching. This is schematised in Figure 2.2 (Van Patten 1990:18).

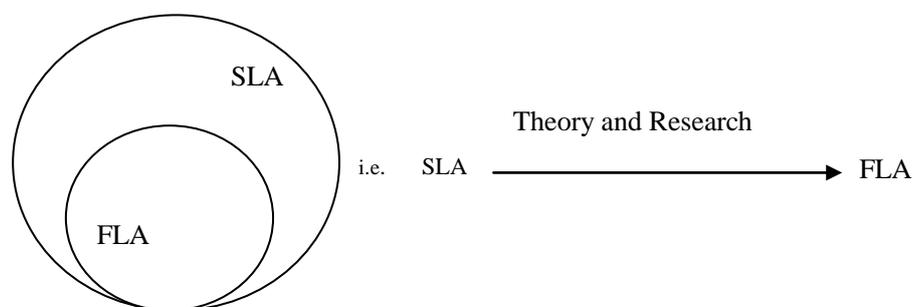


Figure 2.2 The relationship between SLA and FLA (Van Patten 1990:18)

In this relationship, FLA is subsumed in SLA although it is seen to be a special type of language acquisition. Thus, FLA is seen as a subset of SLA and whatever is true for SLA is applicable to FLA, but not vice versa. The contention is that all the products and processes involved in FLA must be accounted for and explained by SLA research and theory (Van Patten 1990:18).

2.4.3 Sociolinguistic and socio-psycholinguistic perspectives on SLA and FLA

SLA and FLA can be explored from a variety of perspectives. The psycholinguist seeks to discover cognitive characteristics of the learning or acquisition of some language features. Methodologists and applied linguists exploit available knowledge about language learning or acquisition and devise plans and techniques based upon this knowledge for the classroom (Berns 1990:2). The sociolinguist's interest in SLA and FLA is wider and not limited to language learning; it includes teaching, curriculum, policy and learning context, that is, all organised efforts to regulate the distribution or spread of the language (Cooper 1990:160).

2.4.3.1 A sociolinguistic perspective of SLA/FLA

According to sociolinguists, SLA and FLA relate to the social and cultural factors that influence the choice of languages to be learned, the particular models of the languages that classroom learners are to approximate and the differences in degree of language proficiency that learners achieve (Firth & Wagner 1997:285). Siegel (2007:140) emphasises the influence of the social context on SLA and proposes a model depicted in Table 2.3 below.

Table 2.3 Sociolinguistic settings for SLA (Siegel 2007:140)

Setting	Typical learners	L2	Examples
Dominant L2	Speakers of minority languages (e.g. immigrants and swamped indigenous people)	Dominant or majority language	Turks learning German in Germany; Native Americans learning Spanish in Peru
External L2	Speakers of the dominant language	Foreign or distant language	Japanese learning English in Japan; English speakers in Western Canada learning French
Coexisting L2	Speakers in multilingual environments	Nearby language spoken by a large proportion of the population	German speakers learning French in Switzerland

In the Dominant L2 setting, the L2 is actually the native language of the majority of the population and is used in all domains of everyday life, including the home, education, government, legal system, business, and media. This setting is sometimes called the “majority language context” or monolingual context (Ellis 1994:13). It is found in countries such as the US, Australia, France, Japan, China and Russia. Second language (L2) speakers are immigrants, visitors or indigenous peoples. They are expected to acquire the dominant language, either inside or outside the classroom in order to engage in mainstream society (Siegel 2007:141).

In the External L2 setting, a language not generally used for everyday communicative functions within society is learned in the classroom by usually monolingual L1 speakers. This second or additional language may be a foreign language (e.g. Japanese in Australia), a language spoken in a distant part of the same country (e.g. French in Western Canada), or a world *lingua franca* (e.g. English in Korea) (Siegel 2007:141).

In the third setting, the target is a coexisting L2, spoken in the immediate or nearby environment of the native language of a large proportion of the population. The L1 and L2 (or L2) are used in similar domains by their respective speakers and enjoy a similar status. Studies done in this setting have concentrated almost exclusively on classroom acquisition (Siegel 2007:142).

2.4.3.2 A social psycholinguistic perspective of SLA/FLA

Social psycholinguists seek to explain how individual characteristics affect SLA and sometimes how social contexts influence these characteristics. According to this approach, several perspectives differ depending on the variables emphasised. Examples of these include affective factors such as motivation, self-confidence and anxiety, as well as the degree of contact or interaction (Siegel 2007:144). Dornyei and Skehan (2007:442) note that the individual differences impacting on L2 and FL learning is principally aptitude and motivation; these generate the most consistent predictors of language learning success. Over the years, various studies on L2 and FL learning demonstrate that motivation significantly differentiates learners. The *Socio-Educational Model of Language Learning* (Gardner 1985; 2000; Gardner & Tremblay 1994) revolves around research on motivation in language learning. The model classified motivation into two orientations: integrative orientation (possessing a positive attitude toward the foreign culture and a desire to participate as a member of it), and instrumental orientation (having the goal of acquiring language to use it for a specific purpose, such as career advancement or the entry into further studies and education). This research strongly suggests that intrinsically motivated learners are more successful in learning languages than those learners who are instrumentally motivated (Gardner & Lambert 1972). Van Lier (1996:98) concurs that motivation has a significant impact not only on learning strategies, interaction with native speakers, how input is received, and the perseverance and maintenance of language learning, but also on ultimate proficiency attainment. Furthermore, the fact that learning a FL or L2 is an anxiety-inducing experience, especially for beginners, is well-documented (Horwitz 2010:154). McIntyre (1998) refers to the relationship between language learning and anxiety: language anxiety is defined as the worry and negative emotional reaction aroused when learning a new language.

2.4.4 Education programmes in a social context

In this section, two types of L2 or FL programmes are introduced and reviewed: monolingual vs. bilingual education programmes and study abroad vs. study at home.

2.4.4.1 Monolingual vs. bilingual education programmes

Social context is very important because the setting not only reflects the social environment, it also naturally determines the educational programme. With consideration for the social contexts tabulated in Table 2.3 and instructional medium, educational programmes take on two broad approaches. The first involves monolingual programme where only one language is used in the classroom as a medium of instruction. The second involves the bilingual programme where two (or sometimes more than two) languages are used for instruction (see Table 2.4) (Siegel 2007:150). Decisions around programmes are also the outcome of LP decisions about the role of the L1 and L2 as a medium of instruction and as a subject of study.

Table 2.4 Types of education programmes

Programme	Description	Examples
Monolingual:	L1 is the only medium of instruction;	English speakers learning German
L1 monolingual	L2 is taught as subject	in Austria
L2 monolingual	L2 is only medium of instruction: Submersion programs (no support for L1 speakers)	Spanish-speaking immigrants learning English in California
Bilingual:	L1 initial medium of instruction and language of initial literacy; later switch to L2	Fijian-speaking students learning English in Fiji
Transitional		
Immersion	L2 is the medium of instruction for all or most content areas; later switch to both L1 and L2	Some English-speaking students learning French in Canada

Source: Siegel (2007:150)

Monolingual programmes include two sub-models. In L1 monolingual programmes, the L1 is the medium of instruction and L2 is the subject of classroom study. For example, Australian high school students use English as the instruction medium and Japanese as a subject of

classroom study. Chinese high school students of China use Chinese as the medium of instruction and English as a school subject. This is typically found in external L2 (foreign language) situations (see Table 2.3). In L2 monolingual programmes, the L2 is the only medium of instruction as found in submersion programs in dominant L2 settings. This is typical of MFL teaching in China where instructors use Chinese as the medium of instruction while teaching it as a FL.

Siegel (2007:151) includes three sub-models under the rubric of bilingual programmes: transitional programmes (from L1 to L2); immersion programmes (from L2 to L1 + L2), and continuing (L1 + L2). In transitional programmes, the students' L1 is the medium of instruction for the first few years of school and the language in which children are taught initial literacy. During this period, L2 is taught as a subject. Eventually there is a changeover to L2 as the medium of instruction. An excellent example is the language practice in many South African schools where speakers of African languages are taught in mother tongue (or L1) for the first four years of school and shift to English in Grade 4. During the first years, however, English is taught as a school subject (Lemmer 2011). Immersion programmes are found in coexisting L2 or external L2 situations. The L2 is used as the medium of instruction for all or most content areas, usually beginning early in primary school. However, teachers are bilingual and the content is modified to make it more understandable to students. After the first few grades, there is a strong emphasis on the development of the L1 and instruction is in both languages. The best-known immersion programs are in francophone Canada.

2.4.4.2 Study abroad vs. study at home

Another two contradistinctive types of language acquisition programmes exist: study abroad vs. study at home.

Language study abroad refers to a programme organised by an educational institution for FL students (either as a group or as individual students) who spend a period of time studying the FL in the target language country. It is believed that the combination of formal classroom learning and informal learning (out-of-class) is the perfect setting in order to learn a FL efficiently. Moreover, the most efficient way to learn a language appears to be spending time in the target language country, due to the multiple opportunities for learners to practise the FL.

This practice is becoming more and more popular in developed countries around the world. According to Baró and Serrano (2011), the Erasmus programme is the most popular mobility programme for studying abroad within the European framework. Scholarships are awarded to European undergraduate students to enable them to study in a European country other than their own for one semester, or for a whole year to improve their FL skills and get to know another culture. In the US, study abroad is a flagship offering among higher education institutions. The Institute of International Education (<http://www.iie.org/>) reports that the number of Americans studying abroad increased by 8% in the 2008/09 academic year. Cubillos et al. (2008) also reported that participants in a study abroad group showed higher levels of confidence and used different listening comprehension strategies from participants in the at home group.

The development of reading ability in a study abroad context has also been examined. Dewey (2004) investigated reading and compared the FL reading development of 30 American students studying Japanese as a FL: 15 participants in an immersion setting at home and 15 in a study abroad setting. The study abroad participants showed greater confidence when reading after their 11 weeks in Japan. Writing development in a study abroad context has also attracted attention. Sasaki (2004; 2007; 2009) focused on written production. These studies examined the written production of undergraduate students learning English in two contexts (i.e. study abroad and at home over a 3.5-year period). Sasaki found improvements in FL proficiency, composition quality and writing fluency in both groups, but the study abroad group tended to show greater development of more qualitative variables such as writing strategies and writing styles. After exhaustive interviews, Sasaki attributed these gains to the greater vocabulary increase among the study abroad participants, who in turn felt more confident writing in English. Other studies have investigated vocabulary acquisition in a study abroad context and conclude that study abroad has advantages over the at home context (Dewey 2008:127-148).

Freed and Lazar (2003) compared several oral fluency variables of 28 English native speakers studying French as a FL in three different learning contexts: a group studying in France (study abroad), a group studying in an immersion setting in their country, and a group studying in a regular institution in their home country (at home). Their findings suggest that the at home group experienced fewest gains in oral performance. This was also confirmed by studies of students studying Russian as a FL in study abroad and at home settings (Brecht & Davidson 1991:16). Freed and Lazar (2003) summarised the linguistic skills of students who have been

abroad: “They speak with greater ease and confidence, expressed in part by a greater abundance of speech, spoken at a faster rate and characterized by fewer days-fluent-sounding pauses. As a group, they tend to reformulate their speech to express more complicated and abstract thoughts, display a wider range of communicative strategies and a broader repertoire of styles. Their linguistic identities extend beyond the expected acquisition of oral skills to greater self-realization in the foreign social world.”

If the social context perspective is taken into account, the study abroad programme is similar to the L2 monolingual programme (see Table 2.4) in a L2 dominant setting (see Table 2.3). The difference is that the study abroad programme is normally a term programme, i.e. the time period is limited, but the L2 monolingual programme does not have a time limit as learners could be either studying abroad or immigrants who permanently study in the L2 dominant setting.

2.5 SUMMARY

This chapter reviewed the theory and framework of language policy planning through answering the questions: who plans what for whom, why and how. Thereafter, attention was given to theories of SLA and FLA acquisition and different educational programmes to this end. This provides a conceptual framework for the ensuing chapters. The following chapter discusses language policy with special reference to MFL policy as a background to the provision of MFL in key university providers in China and at all four university providers in South Africa.

CHAPTER THREE
MANDARIN TAUGHT AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN HIGHER EDUCATION
INSTITUTIONS IN CHINA AND SOUTH AFRICA

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the MFL provision in the higher education systems of China and South Africa with a view to identifying similarities and differences. The exposition begins with a brief description of the higher education system in China, with special reference to FL policy in China. Three Chinese universities are selected from the approximately 400 institutions offering MFL and are examples to demonstrate the educational programmes of MFL in higher education. They are: Beijing Language and Culture University (BLCU), Nankai University (NU) and Tianjin University of Science and Technology (TUST). The second part of this chapter introduces the South African higher education system with reference to the provision of MFL. All four South African universities which offer Mandarin have been elected for detailed discussion: the University of South Africa (Unisa), Stellenbosch University (SU), Rhodes University (RU) and the University of Cape Town (UCT).

3.2 BACKGROUND TO LANGUAGE POLICY IN CHINA

China is a multilingual and multidialectal country. For the majority language group, the Han Chinese, there are two main groups of dialects: the northern dialects and the southern dialects. The northern dialects can be subdivided into 5 sub-groups and the southern dialects into 7 sub-groups (Meng 2007). In addition, among the 55 ethnic minorities, about 120 languages are used (Liao 2010:23). The official language in China is Chinese. The standard dialect, Mandarin (Putonghua) maps well onto the written form of modern Standard Chinese (see 1.6.1). Various FLs have been taught in China at different times. Of primary importance was Russian in the 1950s. Thereafter, English is the most important FL that was taught. Other FLs of secondary importance in China include Japanese, German, French and other languages for diplomatic purposes. At *Beijing Foreign Studies University*, for example, over 30 FLs are taught (Lam 2005:8). According to Lam (2005), China has implemented and maintained three main language policies: the standardisation of Chinese, the development of minority languages, and the propagation of English. These are discussed briefly in the ensuing sections.

3.2.1 The standardisation of Chinese

The standardisation of Chinese took a two-pronged approach: in the script and in the pronunciation. In 1954, discussions on the simplification of the script were initiated and in 1956, the *First Character Simplification Scheme* was announced. It was confirmed in 1964 and reaffirmed in 1986. The Scheme contained 2,235 simplified characters and 14 radicals (a radical is part of a Chinese character). In 1956, a directive was set that all *Han* Chinese schools should be taught in Mandarin (Putonghua). To facilitate the learning of a standard pronunciation based on Putonghua, a phonetic alphabet, *hanyu pinyin*, was publicised in 1958 (Lam 2005:8). In 2001, the *China National Common Language Law* was announced, and Mandarin as a standard language is used in education and society (*China National Common Language Law* 2001). Chinese is often said to have over 1.3 billion native speakers, making it the world's largest language. In mainland China, there are between 7 and 13 main regional groups of Chinese, depending on the classification scheme. Of these, the vast majority speak Mandarin (about 850 million) (Li & Zhu 2011:12).

The theory of language policy planning reviewed in Chapter Two (see 2.2) will now be applied to briefly analyse the Mandarin policy using the question approach: who plans what for whom, why and how? The following brief analysis has been done on the basis of the *China National Common Language Law* (2001).

Who: The *China National Common Language Law* was drawn up by the *National People's Congress* and enforced by China's president in 2000.

Status: Mandarin is promoted to the national common language, i.e. the official language nationally. The state regulates that all levels of government make use of Mandarin Chinese as the official language.

Corpus: The law is intended to promote normalisation and the standardisation of Mandarin and Chinese characters.

For whom: Citizens have the right to learn and use the national common language. All minorities have the freedom to use and develop their own spoken and written languages.

Schools and other educational institutions must make Mandarin the basic teaching language for students through instruction and text books.

Why: The aim of the legislation is to allow Mandarin to play a more important role in social life and to promote national, regional, economic and cultural exchanges. The state's use of a common language is for national sovereignty and national dignity, and is conducive to national unity, the benefit of socialist material civilization and spiritual civilization.

How: The country provides conditions for citizens to learn and use the national common language. All levels of state governments use Mandarin Chinese as the official language. Schools and other educational institutions make Mandarin the basic teaching language for students through the medium of instruction and language of text books. Chinese language publications and public service sectors must meet the national common language norms and standards. Radio and television stations broadcast in Mandarin as the basic language.

3.2.2 The development of minority languages

The total minority population of China constitutes only about 6% of the total population and they live in a widespread area, about 50% of the total area of China (Liao 2010:15). Before 1949, 20 of the 55 minorities already had a written form of their language. From the 1950s to 1980s, about half of them had new orthographies added or had their existing scripts revised. In addition, new scripts were created for another 9 ethnic groups. The adoption of the Roman alphabet for several new orthographies was in line with the use of *hanyu pinyin* to propagate Putonghua (Lam 2005:9). Although the minorities, apart from the cadres and teachers, have not been required to learn Putonghua, they have been encouraged to become bilingual and fluent in their own language as well as Putonghua. This is particularly so in recent years (Lam 2005:10).

3.2.3 The propagation of English

China's interaction with the Western world and culture started about two thousand years ago as trade was established through the Silk Road (*China Travel Guide* 2011), but the learning of FLs as part of a national agenda is much more recent and began in the mid-1800s after China lost the Opium War in 1842. From that time onwards, the learning of FLs has been motivated by the

desire of Chinese to acquire Western knowledge, to withstand foreign aggression and to establish itself as a modern nation with economic, scientific and military power. With the establishment of the PRC in 1949, the instrumental motivation in learning FLs was essentially unchanged, although small shifts did take place in rhetoric. The promotion of the learning of FLs remains interwoven with the development of China's global perspective, its economic and scientific progress and the aspiration for international status (Lam 2005:72).

When the PRC was established in 1949, Russian was the most important FL for a short period. English gained importance in China soon after relations with the Soviet Union became tense in the mid-1950s. As early as 1957, a draft syllabus for teaching English in junior secondary schools was distributed. In 1961, the syllabus for English majors at university and college level was defined. Between 1960 and 1965, some FL schools which taught English were established in China. Even during the dark years of the Cultural Revolution, Zhou Enlai managed to deploy a remnant of FL majors to posts requiring FL expertise. After the Cultural Revolution and when university admission resumed in 1978, more attention was paid to English for non-English majors and English in schools. With Deng Xiaoping's *Policy of Four Modernizations* being announced in the same year, the prominence of English escalated and has not abated since (Lam 2005:9).

Deng Xiaoping's *Policy of Four Modernizations* (first announced in 1978) were to modernise agriculture, industry, science and technology, and defence. The latter dominated the decade of the 1980s. The *Policy of Four Modernizations* developed into the *Reform and Opening Policy* (*China's History* 2006). The *Reform and Opening Policy* necessitated the learning of English and other FLs by the Chinese. From this time onwards, the learning of English as a FL was prominent. During that period, English language professionals in China, as well as some eminent English language teaching experts from overseas, enthusiastically supported the policy directions from the State with regard to syllabus design and materials development. English Language Teaching became established as a professional discipline during this time (Lam 2005:78).

As a professional discipline, English language teaching in China also became more international in the 1990s. Syllabi and instructional content from primary school to adult education were designed or revised during this period. In May 1990, guidelines for teaching

English in primary school were made public. In June 1992, the draft English syllabus for junior secondary school was published. In May 1993, the draft English syllabus for senior secondary school was published (a revised version appeared in May 1996). In 1995, the *National English Test* for evaluating staff for recruitment or promotion into different staff grades was initiated. In 1999, the use of a generic test was discontinued and the testing of English was integrated with four fields: humanities, science and technology, health, and economics and finance. In the same year, the *Public English Test System* (PETS) was publicised as a test to replace the *Waiyu Shuiping Kaoshi* (WSK or *English Proficiency Test*) (Lam 2005:82).

A revised syllabus for English majors at university was drafted and circulated for consultation. Thereafter it was submitted to the Ministry of Education in December 1999. Upon approval, it was made public in March 2000 for implementation. In the new syllabus, there are three components: English as a skill (for example, listening and writing), English as a field of study (for example, English linguistics and literature), and English as related to a profession (such as diplomacy, trade and military affairs).

In March 2000, the *National Research Centre for Foreign Language Education* was established at *Beijing Foreign Studies University* to conduct research into FL education and bilingualism. In 2000, the *International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language* (IATEFL) endorsed the establishment of a China branch. China joined the *World Trade Organization* on 11 December 2001. The impact of this event on English education was considerable and a special policy plan was published by the Ministry of Education. In the same year, Beijing's successful bid to host the *2008 Olympic Games* was announced. The TESOL (*Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages*) Candlelight project was announced in July 2002 by the Ministry of Education. This teacher training project was founded by a charitable organisation based in Beijing and the teachers were recruited from Canada. The target was to provide a 130-hour course to between 6,800 and 7,500 teachers within two years. Teachers from all over the country were invited to go to Beijing for training (Ministry of Education 2002). 2002 also saw China joining the *International Association of Applied Linguists* in the form of *China's English Language Education Association* (CELEA). In 2004, the draft college English syllabus was set by Ministry of Education and from 2007, the reformed *College English Test levels 4 and 6* have been implemented throughout the nation (Lam 2005).

3.3 KEY POLICIES FOR TEACHING CHINESE AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE (TCFL)/MANDARIN AS FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN CHINA

In this section, key policies for the *Teaching of Chinese as Foreign Language* (TCFL) are presented. The term Chinese as FL and acronym TCFL is used in this country's context; this should be understood as an alternative to the term teaching Mandarin as Foreign Language (MFL) which is used elsewhere in the thesis. Thereafter, the theoretical framework of language policy planning is used to analyse these policies (see 2.2).

3.3.1 Policies of the State Council and Ministry of Education regarding TCFL

The milestone policy of TCFL in China is the “diffusion of Chinese as a foreign language teaching, actively exploiting the international education service markets.” It was approved by *State Council* in 2004 in Article 39 of No. 5 of *Action Plan for Invigorating Education* for the Ministry of Education 2003-2007 (Action Plan for Invigorating Education Notice 2005). It required all provinces, the Ministry of Education and local educational departments to: diffuse MFL teaching, actively exploit the international education services market, actively implement the *Chinese Bridge Project* so as to strengthen and build overseas *Chinese Confucius Institutes*, promote projects of Chinese teaching networking and multimedia, enrich MFL teaching resources, promote *Chinese Proficiency Test* (HSK), train the teachers of MFL, and encourage national education institutions to offer Chinese language courses. In addition, it aimed to strengthen other instruction for disciplines with Chinese characteristics and encourage qualified educational institutions to go abroad for schooling.

Another important policy is the “strengthening the international promotion and spread of the Chinese language” which was approved by *State Council* in Article 4 of No.8 of the *National Educational Development “Eleventh Five-Year” Plan* for the Ministry of Education (National Educational Development “Eleventh Five-Year” Plan 2007). It requires all provinces, the Ministry of Education and local educational departments to strengthen the international diffusion of the Chinese language in the *Eleventh Five-Year* period and aims to improve the co-ordination of Chinese institutions for the international promotion of Chinese. Also, it aims to: accelerate the construction of international promotions of a Chinese base and network platform, accelerate the development of *Confucius Institutes*, standardise management, improve the

quality of teaching, meet the diverse teaching needs, and strengthen the development and usage of teaching materials for the international diffusion of Chinese. In addition, teacher training and selection for the international promotion of Chinese was enhanced, research into the international promotion of Chinese was strengthened, and the management of HSK improved.

In 1990, the *Committee of Education* (now called the Ministry of Education) issued the *Teachers Qualifications Measure for Chinese as a Foreign Language*. From then till 2004, a total of 12 series of evaluation took place, resulting in 5,361 people qualifying. In 2004, the Ministry of Education issued the “Measure of teaching ability of Chinese as a foreign language” (Development of China teaching Chinese as a foreign language data 2005).

3.3.2 The chronicles of TCFL in China

The source for the ensuing discussion is the *Development of China Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language Data* (2005).

In 1985, the *Committee of Education* approved the formation of the *Beijing Language College*, *Beijing Foreign Language College*, *Shanghai Foreign Language College* and *Huadong Normal University*. All institutions offered a major specialising in Chinese as a foreign language.

In 1987, the *State Council* Leading Group for *Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language* was established. It currently consists of 11 departmental leaders. The National Office for TCFL as the leading group handles the daily agendas and is set up within the Ministry of Education in China.

In 1998, TCFL as a specialisation programme of doctorate degree was approved by the Degree Committee of *State Council*. The National Office for TCFL organised experts to set the “Syllabus of Chinese as a Foreign Language as a Major for Foreign Students in Higher Education Institutes,” “Syllabus of Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language for Foreign Students in Higher Education Institutes (long-term studies),” and “Syllabus of Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language for Foreign Students in Higher Education Institutes (short-term intensive).” These were issued by the Ministry of Education.

In 1999, the Ministry of Education formally set up a “Friendship Award of Chinese Language and Culture” for the world to promote Chinese teaching and Chinese Culture Communication to international friends in recognition of outstanding contributions.

Since 2001, the Ministry of Education has approved 11 other universities as main institutes of TCFL. It started with Heilongjiang University and supported neighbouring countries. The following institutions have been approved as National Base institutions of TCFL: the BLCU, Beijing Normal University, Fudan University, Peking University, NU, East China Normal University, Nanjing Normal University and Renmin University of China.

In 2002, the *State Council Leading Group* for TCFL held the first *Chinese Bridge* – a Chinese Proficiency Competition for foreign collegiate students. The final event attracted 186 competitors from 41 countries to China. Since then, it has been an annual event.

In 2003, the *College Board*, the Chinese Embassy and *Hanban* in Capitol Hill, Washington, jointly held a press conference to launch the *Advanced Placement (AP) Chinese Language and Culture Course* and Examination. The AP Chinese project officially announced its curriculum in 2005 and began teaching in 2006. It has conducted examinations since 2007.

In 2004, the Ministry of Education officially launched the “International Chinese Teacher Volunteer Programme.” Around 23,500 volunteer teachers have been sent to 108 countries to date (China sending 5,500 volunteer teachers for teaching Chinese overseas by 2013). Furthermore, the *State Council* approved the designation of the *Chinese Bridge* project, an initiative of the *State Council Leading Group* for TCFL. This project will follow a five year plan.

3.3.3 Analysis of TCFL policies

The key policies and activities of TCFL in China are investigated in the following section using the question approach: Who plans what, for whom, why and how?

Who is the policy maker? The *State Council*, the *State Council Leading Group* and Ministry of Department authoritatively made the policies, and the level is top-down nationally.

What? Mandarin is the national common language, i.e. the official language nationally. The status of MFL for foreign students is now addressed. From a sociolinguistic perspective, the acquisition of L2 can happen in three settings: dominant L2, external L2 and co-existing L2 (see Table 2.3). Here the L2 refers to MFL in the Chinese context. In the dominant L2 setting, the L2 is the native language of the majority of the population and is used in all domains in everyday life, including the home, education, government, legal system, business, and the media. This setting is sometimes called the “majority language context” or monolingual context. L1 speakers are expected to acquire the dominant language, either inside or outside the classroom, in order to take part in mainstream society (Siegel 2007:141). Students who study Mandarin abroad in China function in the dominant L2 setting because Mandarin is the designated national common language and China is to a great extent a monolingual country (see 3.2.2a). Foreign learners in China encounter Mandarin in their lodgings, education, government, business and media, that is, throughout the entire environment.

For whom? MFL provision is for all students who study abroad in China and visitors who are willing to study Mandarin in the local influential environment, as well as for all overseas students or diplomats who are studying Mandarin facilitated by *Confucius Institutes* or classes.

Why, policy to what end? Official documents do not refer much to overt motivation. The main motivation is for cultural exchange and friendship according to Chronicle IV (see 3.3.1.2). However, the *Confucius Institute Development Plan of 2012-2020* (Ministry of Education of China 2013) provides more detail about the motives behind the establishment of these Institutes:

- a) Political and economic motivation: As stated, the *Confucius Institute* symbolises China’s status internationally and aligns with China’s rapid economic and social development. These institutes aim to develop friendly and cooperative relations with China through the promotion of Chinese in an international community. Through this, more people learn Chinese, more Sino-foreign trade deals are made possible, more countries are exposed to China’s power and influence and the voice of China is heard further afield.
- b) Cooperation and exchange of language and culture: The development of *Confucius Institutes* aims to promote exchange and cooperation between Chinese and foreign education institutions and systems. The *Confucius Institutes* play an important role in

the comprehensive cultural exchange platform and networks. They also diffuse Chinese culture to the world and aim to accelerate this diffusion throughout the world.

- c) Friendship: Most importantly, *Confucius Institutes* contribute to the establishment of friendship ties between China and the peoples of the world.
- d) Soft power: Siow (2011:1), East Asian Bureau Chief, states that many observers view overseas' *Confucius Institutes* as the most visible symbols of China's growing soft power and a tool for the country to expand its international influence and advance its public diplomacy agenda. Other functions include promoting Chinese culture and developing positive opinions of China within a global setting.

How to implement the planning and policy: How? As analysed in Chapter 2 (see 2.2.3), a distinction was made between acquisition planning and diffusion planning in terms of language setting or territory. Diffusion policy involves the active efforts of a government or semi-governmental body to encourage the acquisition of a national or official language outside the political boundaries of the state (Spolsky & Shohamy 2000:15). It is the teaching or spreading of the native language as FL beyond the country's borders. Language diffusion policy resembles the policy of language export.

Mandarin is the national common language and because of this, China has emphasised normative corpus planning (i.e. the standardisation of Chinese) and acquisition of Mandarin for its citizens (see 3.2.2a). Political motivation has led to the emergence of a diffusion policy. This can be exemplified by the policies and chronicles of TCFL. The *State Council* has approved that the Ministry of Education and all local governments and educational departments encourage the diffusion of Chinese as a FL and actively exploit the international education service markets. The external (implementing outside China) projects consist of the *Chinese Bridge Project*, Chinese Confucius Institute, *Chinese Proficiency Test* and teacher training projects (see 3.3.1a). The *State Council* has set up a special leading group (i.e. *State Council Leading Group for Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language* consisting of 11 departmental leaders) to lead the project called *Chinese Bridge* (see 3.3.1a) and *Confucius Institutes* overseas (see 3.3.1a). As reviewed in Chapter 2, there are two types of diffusion policies: imperialism diffusion and globalisation diffusion. The *Confucius Institute* is an example of globalisation diffusion for China which does not force or impose its language outside its boundaries, instead, the huge demand for acquisition emanates from outside of the Chinese boundaries. This

thought has guided the thesis regarding Chinese diffusion policy and practice. It is to facilitate global trade, cultural exchange and encourage friendship ties. The establishment of a friendship award for Chinese language and culture (Chronicle IV) by the Ministry of Education serves this interest as well. The *State Council* and Ministry of Education also encourage and support national education institutions who offer Chinese language courses. In the internal (implementing within China) projects associated with higher education institutes for foreign students, China designated two groups of institutes: one group is the *National Base* institutions of TCFL consisting of 8 famous universities; another group has 11 universities which support Chinese teaching in neighbour countries (Development of China Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language data to 2005). In actual fact there are more than 400 universities and colleges offering MFL for foreign students (see 1.1.4).

To implement the Chinese and culture diffusion, the *State Council* and Ministry of Education took effective measures as follows:

- a) Legislation and sanction: As stated in Section 3.3.2.1, the *State Council* approved two important policies for TCFL: one is “diffusion of Chinese as a foreign language teaching, actively exploiting the international education service markets” in 2004; the other is “strengthening the international promotion and spread of Chinese language.” The Ministry of Education approved a teacher training policy entitled: “teacher’s qualifications measure for Chinese as a foreign language” in 2004.
- b) Events and projects: The Ministry of Education approved and has been implementing the *Chinese Bridge Project*, *Chinese Confucius Institute*, *Chinese Proficiency Test* and teacher training overseas. The internal projects for foreign students include the *National Base* institutions of TCFL consisting 8 famous universities and 11 universities in neighbouring countries.
- c) Funding support: Here, a brief comment is made on the funding of *Confucius Institutes*. The first 5-year budget (2003-2007) to promote the *Confucius Institutes* was about US \$1 billion (Chinese demand 2005). Zhang Xinsheng (Deputy Minister of Ministry of Education at that time) stated that “in the past two years, each year’s investment is about \$ 200 million. Our per capita GDP is only \$ 1,000, so this is not a small figure.” The second 5-year budget (2006-2010) to promote the *Confucius Institutes* was probably double the first 5-year budget (The Legitimacy and Budgets for the Confucius Institutes 2008).

3.4 MFL PROVISION IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN CHINA

3.4.1 The higher education system in China

According to education legislation (Ministry of Education 2009a), the *State Council* and all local People's government divisions at different levels supervise and manage educational work according to the principles of management by different levels and divisions of labour with individual responsibilities. The *Department of the State Council* in charge of educational administration is responsible for the provision of education, overall planning and the coordination of the management of educational undertakings for the whole country.

China has a diversified higher education system. There are regular institutions such as the mainstream, short-cycle higher education institutions, adult higher education institutions, private higher education institutions and state examinations for self-taught learners. According to the higher education law of China, higher education includes education for academic and non-academic qualifications (The Ninth People's Congress 1998). Higher education takes the form of full-time and part-time schooling. Higher education for academic qualifications includes special course education, regular course education and graduate programs. The basic length of schooling for a special course is from 2 to 3 years; for a regular course it is from 4 to 5 years; graduate programs for candidates working for an MA require 2 to 3 years and graduate programs for candidates working for a PhD require 3 to 4 years. The length of schooling for part-time higher education for academic qualifications may be prolonged. Higher education institutions may, in light of actual needs and with the approval of the qualified administrative department for education, adjust the length of schooling of their institutions (Ministry of Education 2009a).

Higher education in China was traditionally elitist but this has changed since the process of massification began in 1999. The Chinese government introduced two important policies in 1999: *The Action Plan for Vitalizing Education Facing the 21st Century* and *The Central Committee of the Communist Party of China* and the *State Council's* decision of *Furthering Educational Reform and Promoting Quality Education in a Full Round Way*. In these two documents, the government decided to expand its higher education at an even higher speed (History of Education in China 2004). Since then, China's higher education has dramatically

expanded. With these developments, Chinese higher education entered the stage of mass higher education and the subsequent expansion of higher education in China has been enormous. In 2009, China had 2,305 regular higher education institutions with an enrolment of 5,311,023. There were 384 adult higher education institutions with an enrolment 1,943,893 and 812 private higher education with an enrolment 1,364,136 (Ministry of Education 2010).

3.4.2 Background to MFL in Chinese higher education

Many foreigners came to China to study Chinese during the Han dynasty (Hanshu), 1,900 years ago. The Silver Age of studying Chinese was in the Tang dynasty 1,200 years ago but it was during the Ming (1600s) and Qing (1800s) dynasties that the most foreigners historically sought to learn Chinese. The start of Mandarin's new instruction as a FL in the PRC was in 1950 when the Eastern Europe class was established at *Qinghua University* (Zhang 2002). In 1961, the *Foreign Students' Office* was founded at Beijing University. During the following decade, 3,315 foreign students from more than 60 countries studied in China. In 1964, *Beijing Language College* was established and it was the only higher education institution which had its main target set as the teaching of MFL. The number of foreign students at this College increased to 3,312 in 1965. Mandarin instruction stopped during the period of the Cultural Revolution but dramatically developed after China made the decision to introduce the 'Reform and Opening.' This development is now very evident (Zhang 2002).

In the 30 years since China began to reform and open up, recruiting foreign students to study in China has become an important part of China's educational initiative and has received much attention from the Party and state leaders. China has become a desirable destination country for students from various countries. In 2008, the Ministry of Education formulated the principle of "expanding the scale, raising the level, guaranteeing the quality, and standardising the management" to further improve the work system for foreign students to come to study in China. As a result, remarkable achievements have been made (Ministry of Education 2009b).

In 2008, 223,000 foreign students from 189 countries and regions came to study in China's 592 institutions of higher learning, research institutes, and other teaching institutions across 31 provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions. This was an increase of 27,996 or 14.32% from 2007. Altogether China has received 1,460,000 foreign students to study since the

founding of the People's Republic. The educational level of foreign students is higher and the number of foreign students studying for academic degrees has increased remarkably, reaching 80,005 in 2008. This constitutes 35.8% of the total number of degree students, which was an increase of 17.29% on the previous year and was higher than the increase of 14.32% for all foreign students (Ministry of Education 2009b). At present, there are more than 400 universities and colleges offering various Chinese programs to foreign learners with total annual enrolment figures of around 50,000. In addition to the traditional preparatory program, undergraduate, graduate and intensive short-term Chinese courses are available, there are almost 5,000 teachers of TCFL in China.

3.5 MFL PROVISION IN THREE SELECTED HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS IN CHINA

Three universities have been selected as examples to demonstrate the provision of MFL in Chinese higher education: Beijing Language and Culture University (BLCU), Nankai University (NU) and Tianjin University of Science and Technology (TUST).

3.5.1 Beijing Language and Culture University

Beijing Language and Culture University (BLCU) was founded in 1962 and was originally called the *Higher Preparatory School for Foreign Students*. In 1964, it was renamed *Beijing Language Institute* by the *State Council*. In 1996, with the approval of the Ministry of Education, the school was once again renamed, this time as the *Beijing Language and Culture University*. It is the only university of its kind in China and it promotes Chinese all over the world and offers Chinese language and culture courses to foreign students as a multidisciplinary university featured in language teaching and research. In addition to teaching Chinese, it undertakes the teaching of FLs, computer science, technology, finance and accountancy to Chinese students, provides training courses for teachers specialising in TCFL, and offers pre-departure language training to candidates intending to go abroad (Beijing Language and Culture University 2011).

BLCU has the longest history, the largest scope, and the most qualified teaching faculties of its kind in the area of teaching the Chinese language and culture to foreigners in China. Since its

establishment over 50 years ago, the university has trained 120,000 foreign students from over 176 countries and regions in the world who are now proficient in Chinese language and familiar with the Chinese culture. Among its more than 700 teachers (lecturers), about 300 are professors or research fellows, or associate professors or associate research fellows. BLCU has also engaged quite a few guest professors who are well known both at home and abroad. In addition, about 80 foreign experts and specialists have held teaching posts at BLCU (Beijing Language and Culture University 2011). In addition to a *Post-doctoral Research Centre*, there are currently 15 Ph. D programs, 28 master's degree programs and 23 bachelor degree programs. A new language disciplinary system has been set up, one that is rational in structure and substantial in content (Beijing Language and Culture University 2011).

BLCU has established extensive cooperative relations with over 280 universities and educational institutions in 50 countries and regions worldwide. Annually, more than 300 students are exchanged to study abroad. Overseas training offices have also been set up in Korea and Thailand and the university has established joint teaching centres in Singapore, Japan, Hong Kong and Macao (Beijing Language and Culture University 2011).

In order to examine the design of Mandarin programmes and the levels that exist at BLCU, it is necessary to look at the organisational structure within the university dealing with Mandarin instruction. Two colleges undertake the task of Mandarin teaching to foreign students: the *College of Intensive Chinese Training* and the *College of Chinese Language Studies*.

3.5.1.1 The College of Intensive Chinese Studies

College of Intensive Chinese Studies (CICS) has a history of nearly 30 years. It began its short-term education in 1978, established the department of short-term Chinese training for overseas in 1982 and founded the college in 1993. This college specialises in intensive and short-term Chinese training programs for overseas students. It ranks supreme among its counterparts in China in terms of history, scale and diversity of educational programs, and boasts the most experienced and talented teaching staff with professional expertise in intensive and short-term training. Editing of the most prestigious intensive Chinese training textbooks has been carried out by this College. By July of 2002, CICS had a cumulative enrolment of

more than 60,000 foreign students who represented 110 countries and districts. Every year, 6,000 students study at CICS (College of Intensive Chinese Studies of BLCU 2011).

CICS specialises in short, accelerated and intensive teaching which helps foreign students markedly improve their ability to communicate in Chinese; their listening and speaking skills are especially improved. It pays great attention both to the standardisation and ‘scientification’ of the courses. Their overall designation, relevance, practicability and flexibility of implementation ensures that students can achieve their aims in a short time. In 2004, the *Construction of the Short-Term Accelerated Intensive Chinese Teaching System* gained the first place of *Beijing Higher Educational Teaching Prize*. In order to satisfy the different educational needs of each student, the college offers accelerated intensified Chinese courses, common intensified Chinese courses and short-term intensified Chinese courses at beginner, intermediate and advanced grade levels, including six different levels: A, B, C, D, E and F. Furthermore, the classes are designed systematically, which means that classes stand independently and yet are closely integrated to enable students to take the short-term learning path or continuous learning path. In addition, CICS offers special-purpose language training courses in accordance with the specific needs of certain students or organisations. The curricula are based on studying characters and the special needs of the students (College of Intensive Chinese Studies of BLCU 2011).

CICS offers courses periodically all year round. Besides the 20-week accelerated intensified courses and common intensified courses offered in the Spring and Autumn semesters, CICS also offers short-term intensified courses which range from 4 to 12 weeks at various times throughout the year. The accelerated intensified courses provide 30 hours a week of tuition and the common intensified courses 20 hours a week (College of Intensive Chinese Studies of BLCU 2011).

a) Advanced intensive training at BLCU

The one-semester programme runs 30 hours per week, 6 hours a day from Monday to Friday. Students are grouped according to their level of Chinese based on the results of a placement test. This scheme is mainly designed for learners at the beginner or intermediate level. Training results are comparable to those achieved after one year of general intensive training. The

scheme is characteristic of both intensity and efficiency and it focused on language skills and practical language use in communicative settings by providing abundant practice in and out of the classroom. Colourful activities are organised for practicing language skills in authentic situations. Students are provided with the opportunity to undertake long-distance trips for language practise overseas.

Table 3.1: The one-semester curriculum of BLCU

Teaching Grade	A	B	C	D
Courses	Comprehensive Chinese ABC	Primary comprehensive Chinese	Standard intermediate comprehensive Chinese	Intermediate comprehensive Chinese
	Oral Chinese ABC	Primary oral Chinese	Standard intermediate oral Chinese	Intermediate oral Chinese
	Listening ABC	Primary listening	Standard intermediate listening	Intermediate listening
	Language practice	Language practice	Language practice	Language practice

Source: College of Intensive Chinese Studies 2011

b) 12-week programme at BLCU

This programme is run for 30 hours per week, 6 hours per day from Monday to Friday. The students are grouped according to their Chinese proficiency level determined by the results of a placement test. It is mainly designed for learners with no or a little previous experience in learning Chinese. Teaching incorporates multimedia presentations, intensive teaching approaches and rigorous teaching management. Learners' feedback is duly and timely acknowledged. Intensive class A is mainly designed for learners at primary and intermediate levels. The scheme is characteristic of colourful language practice activities. Students are provided with plentiful and meaningful authentic settings to fulfil their communicative tasks. Training results are comparable to those achieved after one semester of general intensive training (College of Intensive Chinese Training of BLCU 2007).

Detailed information on the 12-week scheme in advanced intensive training is provided in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: The 12-week curriculum of BLCU

Teaching Grade	A	B	C	D
Course	Sentence patterns practice	Primary comprehensive Chinese	Standard intermediate comprehensive Chinese	Intermediate comprehensive Chinese
	Conversation practice	Primary spoken Chinese	Standard intermediate Spoken Chinese	Intermediate spoken Chinese
	Chinese topic communication	Primary listening	Standard intermediate listening	Intermediate listening
	Language practice	Language practice	Language practice	Language practice

Source: College of Intensive Chinese Training of BLCU 2007

c) General intensive training at BLCU

General intensive training offers a one-semester scheme and a 12-week scheme, both of which are taught for 20 hours per week. They are suitable for learners at various levels and continuous and non-continuous options are available. Numerous optional courses are offered. Students are provided with standardised teaching with an emphasis on systematic grammar learning and communicative competence development (College of Intensive Chinese Training of BLCU 2007). Table 3.3 provides an outline of the curriculum.

Table 3.3: General intensive training curriculum of BLCU

Teaching Grade	Class A	Class B	Class C	Class D	Class E	Class F
Courses	Comprehensive Chinese ABC	Primary comprehensive Chinese	Standard intermediate comprehensive Chinese	Intermediate comprehensive Chinese	Standard advanced comprehensive Chinese	Advanced comprehensive Chinese
	Oral Chinese ABC	Primary spoken Chinese	Standard intermediate oral Chinese	Intermediate spoken Chinese	Standard advanced spoken Chinese	Advanced spoken Chinese
	Listening ABC	Primary listening	Standard intermediate listening	Intermediate listening	Standard advanced listening and speaking	Advanced listening and speaking
			Language practice	Intermediate reading	Standard advanced reading and writing	Advanced reading and writing

Source: College of Intensive Chinese Training of BLCU 2007

d) Short-term intensive training at BLCU

Training in this category lasts less than 6 weeks. It caters to overseas students of various levels and emphasises communicative skills such as Chinese speaking and listening. Focused communicative practice occurs in simulated life situations and is marked by vivid and dynamic language use (College of Intensive Chinese Training of BLCU 2007).

Table 3.4: Short-term intensive training curriculum of BLCU

Teaching Grade	Class A	Class B	Class C	Class D	Class E	Class F
Courses	Spoken Chinese ABC	Primary spoken Chinese	Standard intermediate oral Chinese	Intermediate oral Chinese	Standard advanced oral Chinese	Intensive reading of advanced Chinese
			Standard intermediate listening	Intermediate listening	Standard advanced listening and speaking	Advanced listening and speaking
			Standard intermediate reading	Intermediate reading	Standard advanced reading	Advanced newspaper reading

Source: College of Intensive Chinese Training of BLCU 2007

e) Intensive training for special purposes at BLCU

A special general intensive training scheme aims to meet the needs of learners from overseas universities and other groups. The syllabus and textbooks are learner-oriented with flexible schedules and international standards so as to guarantee a high quality course.

f) Optional courses offered at BLCU

Optional courses come in various forms to cater to students' different needs. They aim to quickly polish the learner's Chinese language skills and impart an in-depth understanding of Chinese culture and society. Optional courses, lectured by professional experts, are usually presented in the afternoon or in evening for 2 hours, once or twice a week. These courses include:

- Test Preparation: Comprehensive exercises and test-taking strategies for HSK;
- Courses in the Chinese language: Basic Chinese grammar, common sayings in Chinese, Chinese idioms and xie-hou-yu (a two-part allegorical saying, of which the first part,

always stated, is descriptive, while the second part, sometimes unstated, carries the message);

- Courses in language skills: Recognition, pronunciation and writing of Chinese characters, Chinese orthoepy (the study of the pronunciation of words), and writing in Chinese;
- Courses in Chinese culture: Singing Chinese songs, Chinese calligraphy, Chinese painting, Taichi (Shadow Boxing), Taichi sword play, and Mulan swordplay;
- Courses in trade and economics: Business Chinese, Spoken business Chinese, and Business Chinese writing;
- Translation: Chinese-English contrastive studies and translation, Chinese-Japanese contrastive studies and translation, etc.;
- Chinese movies and TV programs; and
- Tourism Chinese expressions and sight-seeing geography.

3.5.1.2 The College of Chinese Language Studies

The College of Chinese Studies, was the first teaching institution in China to offer degrees for overseas students and is a major component of the university. The College focuses on teaching Chinese language and Chinese culture to overseas students studying for a bachelor degree. The College has four departments: the *Department of the Chinese Language*, the *Department of Business and Trade Chinese*, the *Department of Chinese Culture*, and the *Department of Bilingual Education and Translation*. It offers eight majors: Chinese Language, Chinese Instruction (as a second language), Mass Media Chinese, Business and Trade Chinese, Chinese Culture, the Bilingual Program (Chinese & English), Japanese-Chinese Translation and Korean-Chinese Translation. These programs are aimed at equipping students with proficient Chinese language skills and a solid understanding of China and its people so as to ensure their versatility and adaptability in their future endeavours. On completion, students will possess both language and professional skills. Every year over 1,600 students come to study from more than 60 different countries and areas. By 2004, over 3,000 students had completed their degree education and had been awarded graduation certificates and BA degrees by the *College of Chinese Studies* (College of Chinese Languages Studies 2011).

By way of example, the 1st-year curriculum (Non-English/Chinese bilingual specialisation) is tabulated in Table 3.4 and the 4th-year required courses for the Chinese instruction specialisation is provided in Table 3.5 (College of Chinese Languages Studies 2010).

Table 3.5: 1st-year curriculum (Non-English/Chinese bilingual specialization) at BLCU

Semester	Class Type	Course Title	Hours per Week	Credits	Total Hours	
1 st Semester	Required	Comprehensive (Elementary Chinese)	10	10	24	
		Listening (Elementary Chinese)	5	5		
		Reading (Elementary Chinese)	5	5		
		Conversation (Elementary Chinese)	4	4		
2 nd Semester	Required	Comprehensive (Elementary Chinese)	10	10	22	
		Listening (Elementary Chinese)	4	4		
		Reading (Elementary Chinese)	4	4		
		Conversation (Elementary Chinese)	4	4		
	Selective	Chinese writing fundamentals	2	2	2	
		Proper Chinese pronunciation	2	2		
		Reading and writing Chinese characters	2	2		
					24	

Source: College of Chinese Languages Studies 2010

Table 3.6: 4th-year required courses for the Chinese instruction specialisation at BLCU

Semester	Course Title	Hours per Week	Credit	Total Hours
1 st Semester	Comprehensive (Advanced Chinese)	6	6	10
	Modern Chinese rhetorical techniques	2	2	
	Key elements and methods of teaching Chinese	2	2	
	Classes per week: 18 hours = 10 hours of required courses + 8 hours of selective courses			
2 nd Semester	Comprehensive (Advanced Chinese)	6	6	14
	Bachelor's Degree Thesis composition and defence	14 weeks	8	
	Hours per week: 14			

Source: College of Chinese Languages Studies 2010

3.5.2 Nankai University

Nankai University (NU) is a key multidisciplinary and research-oriented university directly under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education. NU, located in Tianjin on the border of the sea of Bohai, is also the alma mater of the late Premier Zhou Enlai. NU is considered to be a comprehensive university with one of the widest range of disciplines. It features a balance between the Humanities and the Sciences and offers a solid foundation combined with both application and creativity. NU offers 76 undergraduate specialties, 231 Master's programs and 172 Doctoral programs. Equipped with top academic capability and creative spirit, NU has a well-balanced faculty team in terms of age and specialty. Among the 2,041 faculties, there are 632 Doctoral supervisors, 714 professors, 792 associate professors and 10 academicians of the *Chinese Academy of Science and Chinese Academy of Engineering*. NU has a fully-fledged education system aimed at producing undergraduates, postgraduates at master's and doctoral levels and post-doctoral researchers. Currently, the University has a total enrolment of 23,925 students which includes 12,749 undergraduate students, 7,964 master's candidates, 3,212 doctoral candidates, 1,960 foreign students, 5,779 part-time adult students and 33,966 students on distance education program (Nankai 2012).

In 1954, NU became one of only a few Chinese higher education institutes to start admitting international students. During the past 50 years of teaching the Chinese language to foreign students, the university has educated more than 10,000 students from over 70 countries. After

returning home from Nankai, many students have been employed in important positions in their home countries in the political, economic, cultural or educational fields. They have benefited a great deal from learning the Chinese language and culture at Nankai (College of Chinese Language and Culture of Nankai 2010).

As a direct result of the increasing number of foreign students in China, NU established the *Centre for Chinese Language Education* in 1985. *The Centre* was promoted to the *College of Chinese Language and Culture* after receiving official recognition from the *State Board of Education*. *The College of Chinese Language and Culture* has become the centre of international student education at Nankai University. In 2002, the *College of Chinese Language and Culture* of Nankai was ranked 5th on the list of best educational training institutes for foreign students in Chinese language by the Central Government Ministry of Education.

Since 1982 the *College of Chinese Language and Culture* has developed and accumulated advanced teaching methods through active exchange programs with the University of Minnesota in the United States, the University of Montreal in Canada and the University of Aichi in Japan.

The *College of Chinese Language and Culture* was designated by the *Central Government* as a testing site for both *Chinese proficiency (HSK)* and the *Certificate of Chinese Language Instructor for International Students*. Every year in May, July and December, HSK tests are written at the Nankai University *College of Chinese Language and Culture*. The test for *Chinese Language Instructor* is held at the university in August each year. The college boasts advanced modern facilities and a strong teaching corps: 51 Chinese language teachers of whom 6 are Professors, 20 are associate Professors and 25 are lecturers. Forty faculty members are teaching currently in the *College of Chinese Language and Culture* (College of Chinese Language and Culture of Nankai 2010).

3.5.2.1 Mandarin programme design and levels

The *College of Chinese Language and Culture* offers two kinds of Chinese teaching: non-degree and degree. The teaching methods are diverse while the teaching contents are varied. The courses of video, speaking, listening, internet teaching and multi-media teaching are

classified as domestic advanced level courses and are popular with the students (College of Chinese Language and Culture of Nankai 2010).

The *College of Chinese Language and Culture* of Nankai also offers Chinese courses for degrees, including: Chinese Language (Bachelor degree), Linguistics and Applied Linguistics (Masters or Doctoral degree) and Chinese Lexicology (Masters or Doctoral degree). In line with the aim of this thesis, only non-degree and undergraduate courses are discussed.

Table 3.7 Courses for non-degree purposes at Nankai University

Grade	Courses
Elementary Chinese, primary (primary 1, primary 2, primary 3)	Elementary Chinese comprehensive Elementary Chinese conversation Elementary Chinese listening
Intermediate Chinese (intermediate, intermediate 2)	Intermediate Chinese comprehensive, intermediate Chinese Conversation, intermediate Chinese listening, audio-visual-oral Chinese, intermediate reading, composition, intermediate grammar, Selected reading of newspapers and periodicals, translation
Advanced Chinese (advanced, advanced 2)	Advanced Chinese comprehensive, advanced Chinese conversation, Advanced Chinese listening, audio-visual-oral Chinese, advanced Chinese reading, composition, advanced grammar, selected reading of newspapers and periodicals, translation

Source: College of Chinese Language and Culture of Nankai (2010 translation by author)

Table 3.8 Courses for undergraduate students at the College of Chinese Language and Culture of Nankai University

Number	Name	Hours	Main aim	Object
1	Elementary comprehensive Chinese	228	To train students' language skills, and to master about 2,000 new Chinese words and about 180 language points	Freshmen majoring in Chinese
2	Modern Chinese writing	152	To use a growing vocabulary, grammar and knowledge, gradually reduce mistakes in choosing words and expression and improve the ability to write in Chinese	Sophomores and juniors
3	Intermediate spoken Chinese	152	Improve the oral ability of international students	Sophomores
4	Intermediate comprehensive Chinese	152	To train students' language skill	Sophomores of undergraduate studies
5	Applied technology of the internet	90	To mastering the basic knowledge and skill of Chinese character processing on the computer and further understand the characteristics of Chinese characters	Juniors
6	Advanced spoken Chinese	76	To train students' language ability to use Chinese in a diversified way	Intermediate level of oral Chinese
7	Advanced comprehensive Chinese	152	To train students' language skills in a comprehensive way	Juniors
8	A survey of China	76	To enable students to have a systematic and comprehensive understanding of China culture	Sophomores
9	Ancient Chinese	76	To master a certain number of ancient Chinese words and basic knowledge of ancient Chinese	Juniors
10	General modern Chinese	228	To use Chinese Pinyin correctly and have a complete understanding of the phonetic system and correct pronunciation with the help of relevant knowledge	Juniors
11	Chinese literature	152	To understand the basic development of China studies and its brilliant achievements	Senior undergraduate students
12	An introduction to linguistics	38	To explain common language with theories learnt and to lay a solid foundation for further research	Senior undergraduate students

13	Listening comprehension	136	To assist the language practice and listening skill development of low grade students	Freshmen
14	Chinese character writing	34	To ease the feelings the students have about Chinese character writing	Freshmen
15	Chinese calligraphy	34	To help students learn something about the origin, formation and development of Chinese calligraphy	Freshmen
16	Elementary reading	34	To improve students' reading ability, enhance word and accumulate Chinese characters and knowledge about Chinese culture	Freshmen
17	Chinese painting	34	To help international students learn about the development of Chinese painting, features of different kinds of Chinese painting and basic techniques in Chinese painting	International students
18	Chinese folk music	34	To learn something about the history, styles and features of Chinese folk music and have a further understanding about Chinese culture	International students
19	Translation	114	To help students put their Chinese into use with both study and practice	1. Native English speakers; 2. Foreign students who have learnt English for more than 5 years and those who live in an English environment; 3. Students who have reached the 4 th level of HSK
20	Korean-Chinese translation		Translation theories and translation practice	Korean students, mainly sophomores with relatively good Chinese
21	Japanese-Chinese translation		To highlight translation theories and help students master the basic principles and key points of Japanese-Chinese translation.	Japanese sophomores and other sophomores whose mother tongue is Japanese.

22	Audio-visual-oral Chinese	114	To closely connect with other courses such as reading, speaking, listening and grammar whilst remaining relatively independent.	Sophomores
23	Intermediate listening comprehension	152	To provide a basic Chinese training course aimed at improving language skills	Sophomores
24	Intermediate reading	76	To broad students' reading horizons so that they will not look back while reading	Sophomores
25	Selected reading of newspapers and periodicals	76	To focus on literary language and the speaking of an oral language, whilst introducing students to a new language style (language used in newspapers and periodicals) and giving them the key to reading newspapers and periodicals	Seniors
26	Advanced Listening	76	To teach a basic language training course which can be used as a tool	Seniors
27	Advanced reading	76	To broaden students' reading horizon, improve their reading speed and ability, introduce them more original materials and further strengthen their Chinese knowledge accumulation	Juniors majoring in Chinese language and who have reached level B of intermediate Chinese.
28	Chinese social customs		To add to the cultural education of foreign students	Seniors
29	Selective reading of the famous Chinese literature	76	To introduce some famous Chinese literature works to students and prepare them for further systematic study of Chinese literature	Seniors
30	Arts of oral expressions	38	To help students further improve their oral Chinese and communicate perfectly and flexibly	Seniors
31	An introduction to Chinese idioms	38	To learn a basic knowledge of Chinese idioms and have a further understanding of Chinese culture	Juniors
32	The brief history of China	38	To focus on class teaching and offer students visiting and researching programs	Juniors
33	Trading Chinese	38	To become more popular in the modern world and meet international friends who need to learn to trade in China	Juniors

34	Social linguistics	38	To introduce the newly applied subject of combined linguistics and sociology	Seniors
35	Function words of modern Chinese	38	To learn words that play an important role in various languages, and especially in Chinese	Seniors
36	Chinese culture on special topics	38	Using 9 different topics, this course aims to help students master the basic concepts and knowledge of Chinese culture and have an objective and visual understanding of different angles of Chinese culture	Seniors
37	Chinese non-speech communication	38	To helping students handle different situations in their on-going translation, negotiation and diplomatic work, and to eliminate the obstacles arising from cultural differences in communication	Seniors
38	Chinese human geography	38	To have a general view of Chinese human geography, to be able to analyse the formation and distribution of Chinese human geography in different areas, and to lay a sound and solid base of human geography for future studies and careers	Seniors
39	Chinese philosophy	38	To provide students with a deeper understanding of Chinese culture	Juniors

Source: College of Chinese Language and Culture of Nankai 2010

3.5.3 Tianjin University of Science and Technology

Tianjin University of Science and Technology (TUST) is located in Tianjin, the third largest city in China. TUST was founded in 1958 with three campuses and today has 18,000 students enrolled at the university. TUST has a post-doctoral research work station at the *Tianjin Food Processing Engineering Centre*. The university offers 11 doctoral programs, 39 Master programs, 10 Professional Master Programs of Engineering and 68 Bachelor programs. There are 16 schools and departments in the university. After more than 50 years of development, the university formed a subject system identified with Biotechnology and Engineering, Food Science and Engineering, Pulp Making Engineering, Oceanic Science and Engineering,

Mechanic and Electronic Engineering, and Packaging and Printing Engineering. TUST adopted a policy aimed at building an international university and established cooperation and exchange programs with over 50 universities and institutions worldwide. The university pays attention to developing the students' comprehensive abilities by encouraging them to take part in the rich campus cultural activities and social practices. TUST support MFL teaching (Tianjin University of Science and Technology 2013).

3.5.3.1 Mandarin programme design and levels

Depending on student needs, the university offers various language courses which range from elementary to an advanced level of Mandarin training. Examples include: elementary comprehensive Chinese, elementary conversation Chinese, elementary listening Chinese, intermediate comprehensive Chinese, intermediate listening, Chinese composition, bridge (course name), business Chinese, and a survey of China and Chinese travel geography. The university has about 100 foreign students enrolled in eight faculties at different levels each year (International Exchange Office of TUST 2013).

3.5.4 Conclusions on MFL teaching in selected universities in China

Most Chinese universities provide the opportunity to enrol for a major in Mandarin in order to obtain a Bachelor, Masters and Doctoral degree. This category of Mandarin study has not been discussed as it falls outside the scope of this thesis. This research mainly focuses on the instruction of MFL for non-degree purposes in China and South Africa.

Three categories of institutions were distinguished and an example of each discussed. BLCU is a large prestigious institution with a long history of teaching MFL. It offers the most qualified teaching faculty and largest scope in the area of teaching Chinese language and culture to foreigners. The second category, of which NU is an example, offers MFL to a certain level and scope and has qualified teaching staff and advanced facilities. Both these categories offer Mandarin for degree and non-degree purposes and have large and stable student numbers every year. The third category comprises institutions such as TUST which only offers Mandarin training to a relatively small number of students and does not offer a degree in Mandarin. In general, there are three levels of learning Mandarin: elementary, intermediate and advanced

levels for non-degree study. Foreign students are trained in language skills such as comprehension, listening, oral work and writing. Other enrichment courses, such as a survey of China, history of China and geography of China are taught as brief introduction courses. Each university highlighted uses a different text book in their MFL teaching: BLCU uses *Road to Success*, NU compiles their own textbook and TUST uses the *Chinese Course* textbook series.

3.6 HIGHER EDUCATION AND LANGUAGE POLICY IN SOUTH AFRICA

3.6.1 The higher education system in South Africa

The foundations of university education in the Cape Colony were laid in the second and third quarters of the 19th century. They were the result of a number of state-aided propriety colleges which offered secondary as well as post-secondary education. The first of these institutions was the *South African College* which opened in Cape Town in 1829. In 1837 it was incorporated as a public institution and students were prepared for the matriculation and higher education examinations of the *University of London*. Colleges that followed were *Diocesan College*, Rondebosch (1848), *St Andrews College*, Grahamstown (1855), and *Victoria College*, Stellenbosch (1866) (Schoole 2006:6). The *University of Cape of Good Hope* was established in 1873 and was modelled after the *University of London*. The *South African College* became the University of Cape Town (UCT) in 1918 and the *Victoria College* the University of Stellenbosch (SU) in terms of Act 12 of University of South Africa and Act 13 of University of Stellenbosch respectively in 1916. After the discovery of diamonds in the 1860s and gold in the 1880s, and in order to combat the practice of reliance on foreign skills, the first training of mining engineers started at the *South African College* (now UCT) in 1894. The University of the Witwatersrand came into being in 1922 and had its origins in the *Transvaal Technical Institute* (TTI) which was established in 1903 following the transfer of the *School of Mines and Technology* from Kimberley to Johannesburg that year. It is important to note that the establishment of these institutions was after the English system and that they adopted both Dutch and English as official languages of instruction. In 1914 the Dutch language was replaced by Afrikaans, a South African language drawn from Dutch, German and Flemish. South African higher education continued to use Afrikaans and English as their language medium. Both these languages had their origins in Europe (Schoole 2006:7).

Racial segregation was an integral part of higher education in South Africa in the early years. As a result of lack of access to higher education, blacks were forced to acquire higher education from overseas institutions. When higher education was established in South Africa, it was intended for European students (children of immigrants) and not for indigenous people. Thus white students had an unfair advantage over black students in that they could access higher education both in South Africa and abroad, whereas in the absence of those opportunities in South Africa, black students were forced to study abroad (Schoole 2006:7).

When the post-apartheid government came to power in 1994, it inherited a highly desegregated and inefficient higher education system consisting of 21 universities and 15 technikons, each with its own mission and 'internationalisation' policies (Schoole 2006:6). Post-1994, higher education has been called upon to address and respond to the development needs of a democratic South Africa. These needs have been formulated in various ways. The 1994 Reconstruction and Development Programme speaks of 'meeting basic needs of people,' 'developing our human resources,' 'building the economy' and 'democratising the state and society.' The Education White Paper 3 of 1997 calls on higher education to contribute to South Africa achieving 'political democratisation, economic reconstruction and development, and redistributive social policies aimed at equity' (Badat 2007:6).

The foundations were laid for a new higher education landscape forming a single, co-ordinated and differentiated system encompassing universities, universities of technology, comprehensive institutions, contact and distance institutions and various kinds of colleges. The attendant institutional restructuring has provided the opportunity to reconfigure the higher education system in a principled and imaginative way, more suited to the needs of a democracy and all its citizens in contrast to the racist and exclusionary imperatives that shaped large parts of the apartheid system. It has increased and broadened participation within higher education to advance social equity and meet economic and social development needs, a crucial goal given the legacy of disadvantage of black and women South Africans, especially of those from the working class and rural poor origins (Badat 2007:10).

Student enrolments grew from 473,000 in 1993 to 737,472 in 2005. There has also been an extensive deracialisation of the overall student body at many institutions. Whereas in 1993 African students constituted 40% (191,000), in 2005 they made up 61% (449,241) (Council on

Higher Education 2004; Department of Education 2006). There has also been commendable progress in terms of gender equity. Whereas women students made up 43% (202,000 out of 473,000) of enrolments in 1993, by 2005 they constituted 54.5% (402,267 out 737,472) of the student body (Badat 2007:10). In 2007, almost 63% of students in the public higher education system were black African. Females accounted for 55.5% of all students enrolled in tertiary institutions in 2007 (Department of Education 2009). In 2009, 837 779 students were enrolled in public higher education institutions. 78.6% of these were black (black African, coloured and Indian / Asian) and 57.1% were female (Department of Education 2010:35).

There has also been an internationalisation of the student body overall and at various institutions. Foreign student enrolments increased from 14,124 in 1995 to 51,224 in 2005, constituting about 7% of the total student body. Students from the South African Development Community bloc increased from 7,497 in 1995 to 35,725 in 2005. Students from other African countries increased from 1,769 in 1995 to 7,856 in 2005. Students from the rest of the world totalled 7,913 in 2005 (Badat 2007:10).

The Higher Education Act of 1997 stipulates that all higher education institutions fall under the authority of the national government, while the FET colleges report to the provincial governments (Department of Education 2009:1). Currently, higher education includes education for undergraduate and postgraduate degrees (Department of Education 2009:1).

In 1994 the South African higher education system consisted of 36 separate institutions. These have been consolidated and at present it consists of 23 public higher education institutions: 11 universities, 6 comprehensive universities and 6 universities of technology. As of January 2009, there were also 79 registered and 15 provisionally registered private higher education institutions (Department of Education 2009:1).

3.6.2 Language policy in South Africa

South Africa is a country where many languages are spoken. However, the different languages have not always been “working together.” In the past, the richness of their linguistic diversity was used as an instrument of control, oppression and exploitation. The existence of different languages was recognised and perversely celebrated to legitimise the policy of “separate

development” that formed the cornerstone of apartheid. The policy of “separate development” resulted in the privileging of English and Afrikaans as the official languages of the apartheid state and the marginalisation and under-development of African and other languages (Department of Education 2002:2). The demise of apartheid and the subsequent change to democracy in South Africa in 1994 witnessed a radical shift in the language policy of South Africa. President Thabo Mbeki stated in 1999: “The building blocks of this nation are all our languages working together” (Department of Education 2002:2). The role of all languages “working together” to build a common sense of nationhood is consistent with the values of “democracy, social justice and fundamental rights,” which is enshrined in the Constitution.

Ruiz (1984:15-34) speaks of language-as-right in language planning or policy and says that linguistic minorities have human and civil rights to maintain their mother-tongue. The post-Apartheid Constitution of South Africa states that “Everyone has the right to receive education in the official language or languages of their choice in public educational institutions where that education is reasonably practicable. In order to ensure the effective access to, and implementation of, this right, the state must consider all reasonable educational alternatives, including single medium institutions, taking into account: Equity; Practicability; and the need to redress the results of past racially discriminatory laws and practices” (Section 29(2) of the Constitution 1996). The Constitutional provisions in respect of language in education explicitly state that such rights as receiving education in the official language(s) of choice in public educational institutions are subject not only to considerations of equity and the need to redress the results of past racially discriminatory laws and practices, but also to those of practicability (Section 29(2) of the Constitution 1996).

Today South Africa has 11 official languages. They are: IsiZulu, IsiXhosa, Afrikaans, SeSotho sa lebowa, English, Setswana, Sesotho, Xitsonga, SiSwati, Tshivenda and IsiNdebele (Section 6(1) of the Constitution 1996). This list includes the two official languages of the apartheid era (Afrikaans and English) and 9 major Bantu languages of the country. Universities generally use either English or Afrikaans as the language of instruction (Department of Education 2009:1). In terms of the 11 official languages, IsiZulu and IsiXhosa are the most widely spoken in the country; Afrikaans is the third most spoken and English the fifth. English is in second position as non-primary language. There is no general national *lingua franca*, but English is the *lingua franca* of various high-level contexts such as education, commerce and government (Webb

2002:7). Thus, functionally, English is the major language in the country, being virtually the language of formal public contexts. Afrikaans is still a factor in the workplace and the African languages are used almost only for low-level functions, such as personal interaction, cultural expression and religious practice (Webb 2002:7).

Ruiz (1984:15-34) also proposed the orientation 'language-as-problem,' i.e. that linguistic minorities must overcome the language obstacle in order to mainstream into the majority culture. The problem of language is also demonstrated in South Africa. Language has been and continues to be a barrier for access to and success in higher education. This is true both in the sense that African and other languages have not been developed as academic or scientific languages and in so far as the majority of students entering higher education are not fully proficient in English and Afrikaans. As the Department of Education (2002:4-5) points out: "The challenge facing higher education is to ensure the simultaneous development of a multilingual environment in which all our languages are developed as academic/scientific languages, while at the same time ensuring that the existing languages of instruction do not serve as a barrier to access and success."

The internal environment that has to be considered in strategic language planning is constituted by the language character of the country, the language political situation, language-related problems of the country and language problems (Webb 2002:6). As mentioned, South Africa has 11 official languages. In addition, other world languages are spoken in various communities: Portuguese (57,080), German (11,740), Greek (16,780), Dutch (11,740), Italian (16,600), French (6,340), Hindi (25,900), Urdu (13,280), Gujarati (25,120), Telegu (4,000) and Tamil (24,720) (Webb 2002:7). Chinese speakers are not, however, included in this categorisation (Webb 2002:7). According to Xinhua News (2008), there were more than 300,000 native Chinese speakers in South Africa in 2008. The number of Chinese speakers is thus much more than the total number of people who speak non-African languages mentioned above. Therefore, the use of the Chinese language in South Africa is extensive and has considerable scope (Xinhua News 2008:97).

According to Fishman, LP is motivated by finding solutions to language problems (see 2.2.1). What is the main problem and how does government solve for it through LP? Cooper (1990:34) points out that national LP is typically driven by non-linguistic ends, for example, political,

economic or scientific motivators. This approach views “LP not as efforts to solve language problems but rather as efforts to influence language behaviour” because language and communication problems are not the only issues at hand (Cooper 1990:35). However, the view exists that the communication problem is the main problem in South Africa and that this impacts economic and political problems. Webb (2002:6) highlights the problem in education: “Education has an enormous task, and language, as the fundamental instrument in learner’s educational development requires serious and informed attention. Language-in-education policy practice must therefore ensure that the languages of instruction used facilitate effective educational development, and do not obstruct it.”

3.6.3 Instructional language in higher education

English and Afrikaans are the primary instructional languages in higher education institutes in South Africa. In accordance with the Higher Education Act, the Minister of Education made an appropriate language policy for higher education. This followed the decision of Cabinet in 1999 to prioritise the development of a language framework for higher education. In July 2001, the Council submitted its advice to the Minister in a report entitled: “Language Policy Framework for South Africa Higher Education.” In particular, the committee was requested to advise on the way in which Afrikaans “can be assured of continued long term maintenance, growth and development as a language of science and scholarship in the higher education system without non-Afrikaans speakers being unfairly denied access within the system.” The reason for this focus on Afrikaans is that, other than English, Afrikaans is the only South African language which is employed as a medium of instruction and official communication in institutions of higher education. In January 2002, the Gerwel Committee submitted its advice to the Minister in a report entitled *Report to Minister of Education A K Asmal by the informal Committee Convened to Advise on the Position of Afrikaans in the University System* (Department of Education 2002:5-6).

However, evidence suggests that the majority of universities and technikons use English as the medium of instruction or, as is the case in most historically Afrikaans medium institutions, offer parallel or dual instruction in English and Afrikaans. According to the Council on Higher Education (2001:4), Stellenbosch University is the only university where “at the level of policy, Afrikaans is the only language of Tuition at undergraduate level.” It is clear, however, from the

recent language audit carried out by Stellenbosch University, that in practice there has been a shift towards the use of English as the language of instruction in conjunction with Afrikaans (Department of Education 2002:7).

It is important to note that the South African student population in higher education is linguistically diverse and it is not uncommon to find a variety of home languages represented in the student body of a single institution. Although English and Afrikaans are the two most frequently reported home languages, the extent of linguistic diversity is evident in the fact that 50% of total student enrolments report an indigenous African language or another language as the home language. The extent of linguistic diversity within individual institutions depends on the degree to which students are recruited locally, regionally or nationally. Table 3.9 shows the home languages of students registered in public universities and technikons in 2000 (Department of Education 2002:6-7).

Table 3.9 The home languages of students in public universities and technikons in 2000 in SA

Home language	Universities	Technikons (later universities of technology)	Total	% of total enrolments
Afrikaans	71,979	27,363	99,342	16
English	136,957	55,509	192,466	32
IsiNdebele	2,641	637	3,278	1
IsiXhosa	38,247	28,396	66,643	11
IsiZulu	39,363	28,509	67,872	11
SeSotho	22,176	15,597	37,773	6
SeSotho sa Lebowa	20,818	10,332	31,150	5
Setswana	19,661	15,542	35,203	6
SiSwati	4,236	2,242	6,478	1
Tshivenda	9,199	4,817	14,016	2
Xitsonga	9,239	5,547	14,786	2
Other language	21,319	4,070	25,389	4
Language unknown	6,294	4,805	11,099	2
Total	402,129	203,366	605,495	100

Source: Higher Education Management Information Systems (2000); Department of Education (2002:7)

3.6.4 FL study in higher education in South Africa

In a policy document of the Department of Education (2002:14) it states that the Department of Education encourages the study and development of foreign languages, in particular those languages that are important for the promotion of the country's cultural, trade and diplomatic relations, as well as languages commonly used by communities in South Africa, such as German, Greek, Portuguese, French and Hindi. According to the policy, the main motivations of the FL policy are for cultural, trade and diplomatic relations. Webb (2002:6) includes another three motivations: globalisation, westernisation and technologisation.

3.7 BACKGROUND TO MFL PROVISION IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

South Africa does not have a specific policy on MFL teaching nationally and so the focus falls on MFL provision in higher education institutes. China's policy of TCFL does, however, impact on the acquisition of MFL in South Africa. As mentioned, China's diffusion policy supports the establishment of *Confucius Institutes* and *Confucius classes*, secondment of teachers of TCFL, the *Chinese Bridge Project* and opportunities to study abroad in China for South African students.

South Africa and China are both members of BRICS (The Group of five major emerging national economies), and South Africa and China have a strong political and economic relationship. President Jacob Zuma and President Xi Jinping signed a bilateral agreement concerning international relations, environmental affairs, education and economic development in March 2013 (Mail & Guardian 2013). China's former president, Hu Jintao and President Zuma agree that the China-South Africa relation is a bilateral comprehensive strategic partnership (China, South Africa upgrade relations to comprehensive strategic partnership). According to Diplonews (2013), China has become South Africa's biggest trading partner. In 2009 it replaced the United States which is now in second place. Consequently, Mandarin can be seen as an important language resource (Ruiz 1984:15-34). As Cooper (1990:34) emphasised, national LP is driven by non-linguistic ends and is political, economic or scientific in nature. Because of the comprehensive strategic relationship and economic partnership between China and South Africa, Mandarin as a FL is an important resource to deepen the

relationship, increase trade and enhance cultural exchange to the benefit of both countries and their people.

3.7.1 The context and demand for MFL in South African higher education institutions

According to the three language context settings (see 2.4.3.1), students studying Mandarin in South Africa fall into the external L2 category. For them, Mandarin is their L2 and their L1 is English, Afrikaans or another home language.

3.7.1.1 University of South Africa: Demand for MFL

In 1993 there were 42 students enrolled for Mandarin Chinese 1 at Unisa. This increased to 69 students in 2000. The steady increase in enrolment in Mandarin Chinese 1 at Unisa led to the introduction of a second year Mandarin course in 1997 and provision was made for a third year course in 2002. Also, modules have been introduced in Chinese culture; these are taught in English. The increase in enrolment for Mandarin Chinese 1 is in contrast to the general fall in student numbers in the *Faculty of Arts and Language* courses at Unisa (Hau-Yoon 2002:55). An interesting finding is that some of the students enrolled for this course reside in Chinese-speaking areas such as Taiwan, Hong Kong and China. For example, in 2000, 7 students enrolled from Mandarin-speaking areas; in 2011, 5 students enrolled from Mandarin speaking areas. Generally, these students are South African citizens living in an Asian country and they selected to study Mandarin via distance education through Unisa.

Table 3.10: Students enrolled for MFL from South Africa or foreign countries at Unisa

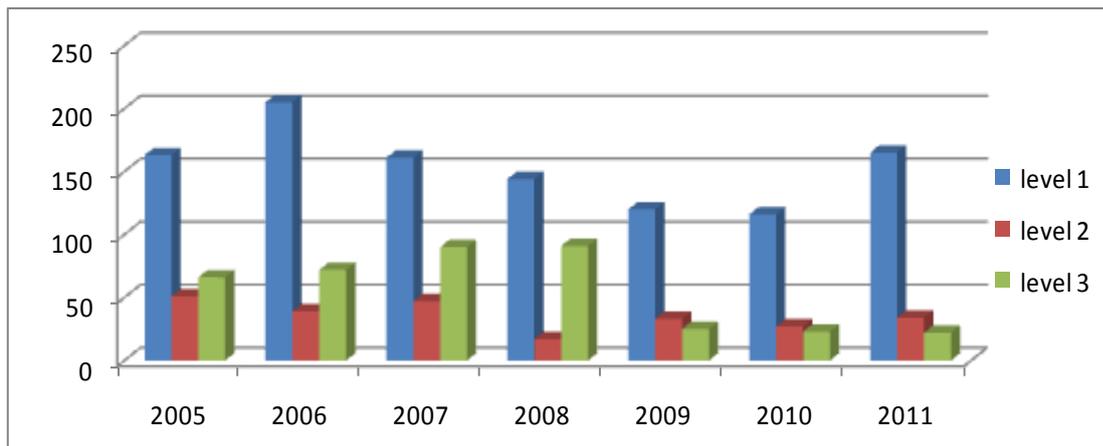
Year	South Africa	Foreign countries	Mandarin speaking area (China, Taiwan)
1998	41	5	2
1999	40	4	5
2000	58	4	7
2011	147	1	4

Source: the information of 1998-2000 above comes from Hau-Yoon (2002:56); Zhou (2011 personal communication)

According to Hau-Yoon (2002:55), student enrolments for the first level module remained

under 50 students from 1993 to 1999. They doubled from 2002 and showed a steady increase to 2004 (Chou 2011). Figure 3.1 below shows that enrolment in first level modules peaked in 2005 and 2006 and decreased after 2007. However, enrolments above 150 for first level modules have been maintained for the past five years. Figure 3.1 shows the total number of students who enrolled for Mandarin 1, 2 and 3 (2005-2011).

Figure 3.1 Enrolment for Mandarin courses at Unisa (2005-2011)



Source: Adapted from data supplied by Department of Information and Strategic Analysis, Unisa (28 October 2011)

The moderate decline in numbers after 2007 can be attributed to various factors. Competition from other South African universities has increased and the instruction of a FL through the medium of distance learning has several limitations. In spite of this, the history of Mandarin instruction at Unisa shows the existence of a small but not insubstantial niche market.

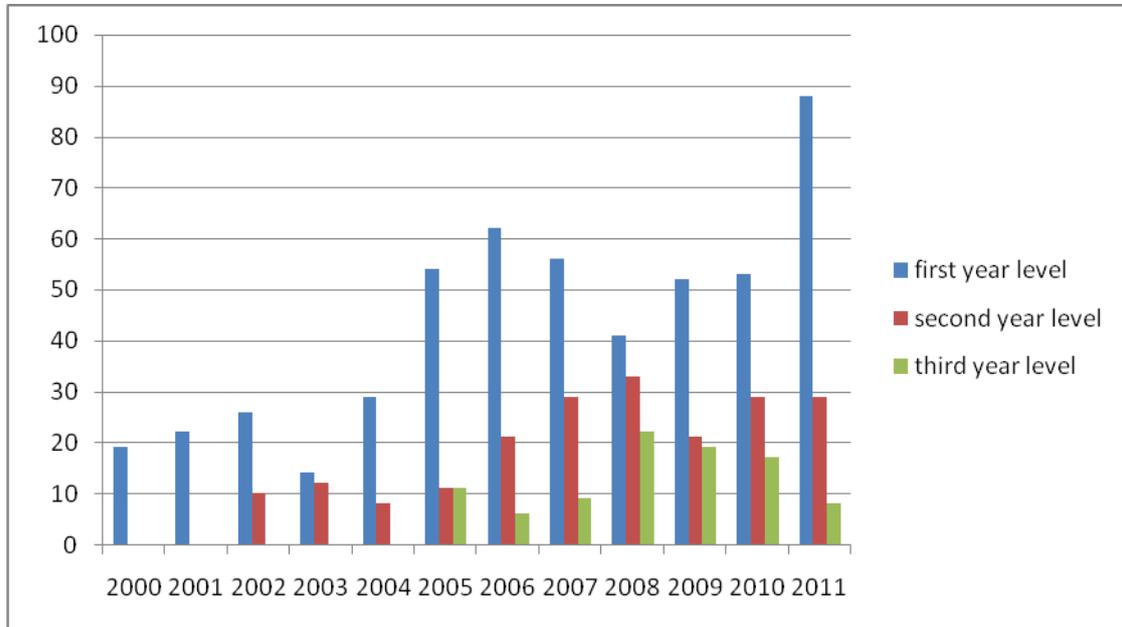
3.7.1.2 Stellenbosch University: Demand for MFL

Chinese teaching at the Stellenbosch University (SU) started in 2000 and, prior to 2009, this university was the only one offering on-campus tuition in Chinese in South Africa. The Chinese Department is located in the *Modern Foreign Languages Department* of the *School of Liberal Arts* at SU. The *Chinese Teaching Affairs Office of China* sent Chinese teachers to South Africa to teach at SU in 2005, the first time in history (Feng 2008a:89).

The first-year level of Mandarin teaching started in 2000 and a second-year level was available

in 2002. In 2004, a third-year level Chinese course was introduced. Figure 3.2 showed the student enrolment numbers since 2000.

Figure 3.2 Enrolment for Mandarin courses at Stellenbosch University since 2000.



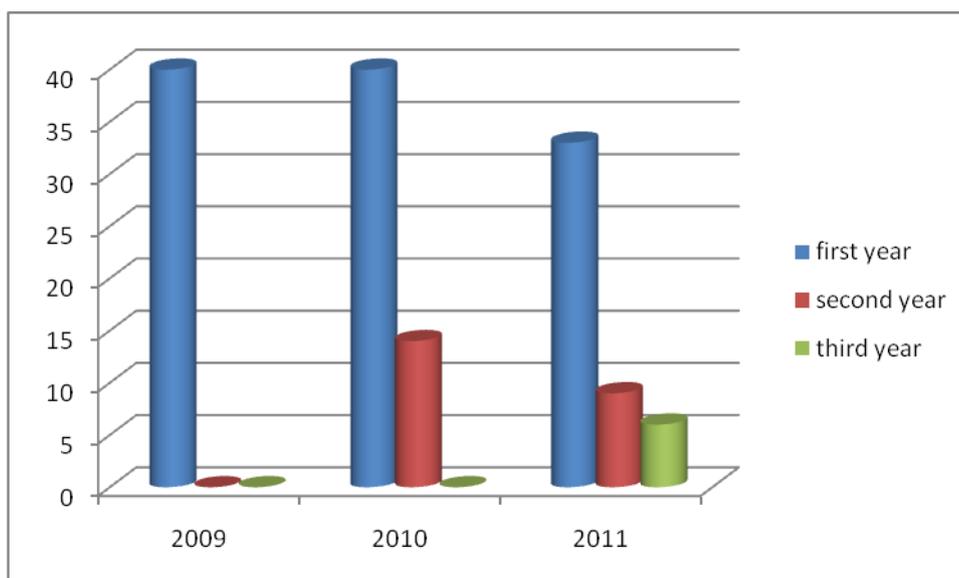
Source: Feng (2011 personal communication)

Generally it can be said that the demand for first and second-year level of Mandarin is increasing steadily. The demand of third-year level has shown some growth but has decreased since 2008.

3.7.1.3 Rhodes University and the University of Cape Town: Demand for MFL

Rhodes University (RU) has offered Mandarin courses since 2009. The first-year course usually attracts around 40 students but not many students enrol for the second or third-year courses. Figure 3.3 shows the enrolment figures for Mandarin courses at Rhodes University.

Figure 3.3 Enrolment for Mandarin courses at Rhodes University



Source: Ma (2011 personal communication)

Developments at University of Cape Town (UCT) resulted from the establishment of a *Confucius Institute* on 20 January 2010 in terms of an agreement between the *Hanban* and UCT which was signed at the 2nd *Confucius Institutes Conference in Beijing*. In addition, UCT entered into a partnership with *Sun Yat-sen University* in Guangzhou, China, to promote academic exchange (Hanban 2011a). The *Confucius Institute* commenced language tuition at UCT in February 2011. It offered two credit bearing courses: Initial Mandarin A and Initial Mandarin B. These courses were presented by the *Chinese Language and Literature Section* housed in the *School of Languages and Literatures* (UCT 2011). Mandarin A had 75 students but the numbers have decreased every year since then. The second-year class had only 25 students in 2012 (Wu 2013).

3.7.2 The role of the Confucius Institutes in South Africa

Three *Confucius Institutes* (see 1.1.1) have been established in South Africa: the Centre for Chinese Studies at Stellenbosch University, the *Confucius Institute* of the University of Cape Town and the *Confucius Institute* of Rhodes University (Feng 2008b:2). Branches of the *Confucius Institute* offer some or all of the following components of Chinese language education (Hanban 2008):

- Multimedia and web-based Chinese teaching;
- Professional training for university, secondary and elementary school Chinese teachers;
- HSK (Chinese proficiency) tests and examinations for the TCFL Certificate;
- Various Chinese programmes (corporate programmes, preparation courses for study in China, pre-examination training for HSK and other Chinese tests) and a course of Chinese for special purposes (translation, tourism, business, finance or Traditional Chinese Medicine);
- Chinese degree courses are integrated with those in Chinese universities and institutes;
- Formulation of Chinese teaching, curriculum or teaching plans;
- Promoting Chinese teaching materials and recommending Chinese teachers;
- Co-developing practical Chinese teaching materials tailored for local regions;
- Academic activities and Chinese competition;
- Showcasing Chinese movies and TV programmes;
- Providing a consulting service about study in China; and
- Providing a library service for reference.

The Hanban Website (2008) explains that “each branch will follow in their teaching and evaluation work a unified set of quality certification system and standard for teaching, testing and training. The *Confucius Institute* mainly offers training of Chinese for special purposes for the public and professional training for Chinese teachers.” At this time, the growth of the programme is mainly through partnerships with foreign institutes; however it can be built with direct investment from headquarters. Headquarters assists universities “in setting up on-campus Chinese centres to support degree programs like Chinese language major and Chinese as a public course as well as research centres to fuel research work in the field of China studies. Based on certain needs and conditions, these centres can also undertake teaching and promotion activities outside the university” (Hanban 2008).

The *Confucius Institute* at SU was established to form a bridge for liaison between South African society and China. It facilitates the promotion of Chinese language and cultural knowledge in South Africa and the region (Centre of Chinese Studies 2011). At the time of its foundation in June 2004, the Centre of Chinese Studies (CCS) was conferred the status of a Confucius Institute. The CCS strategic partnership with *Xiamen University* dates back to these

roots. In order to better meet its mandate as a bridge for liaison between South African society and China, the *Confucius Institute* at SU moved into the *University's Postgraduate and International Office* in 2009. The CCS built a good relationship with the *Confucius Institutes* they have continued to work together on projects, especially within the Stellenbosch community (Centre of Chinese Studies 2011). The *Confucius Institute* of Stellenbosch University (CISU) is currently managed by its co-directors, Professor Zuoxu Xie of *Hanban* and Mr H. Kotze at the *Postgraduate and International Office* of SU (Centre of Chinese Studies 2011).

In August 2008, *Confucius Institute* at Rhodes University (RU) launched the first *China Week* to pave the way for the intended first-year Chinese course at RU in the 2009 academic year (Rhodes University 2010). On the basis of a general agreement between *Confucius Institutes Headquarters* and RU, signed in 2007 at the 2nd *Confucius Institute Conference in Beijing, Jinan University* in Guangzhou, China, was invited to be a partner university to participate in the establishment the *Confucius Institute* at Rhodes University. A binding supplementary agreement was signed. Both universities share a lot in common despite their geographic separation. RU was established in 1904, *Jinan University*, in 1906; both have a history of over 100 years (Rhodes University 2010).

As stated above, UCT formally launched its *Confucius Institute* on 20 January 2010 and has an established relationship with *Sun Yat-sen University* in Guangzhou, China. The *Confucius Institute* devotes itself to the teaching of the Chinese language and culture and to strengthening educational and cultural exchanges, and friendly cooperation between China and South Africa. The *Confucius Institute* reports to the Board of Advisors and offers degree and non-degree courses in Chinese language and culture at UCT. It also promotes academic exchanges between UCT and *Sun Yatsen University*, as well as other higher education institutions in China (Hanban 2011a). The UCT CI offers not-for-credit and credit-bearing courses, including basic and intensive language courses in Mandarin. Examples of other future possibilities include short modules for business-science students on Chinese approaches to business, and special short courses for groups or individuals intending to visit China (Hanban 2011a). Plans also exist for symposiums on Western-Eastern philosophy, and possible courses on Chinese art and culture (University of Cape Town 2009).

3.8 MFL AS OFFERED BY FOUR MAJOR SOUTH AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES

3.8.1 University of South Africa

The University of South Africa (Unisa) is a globally recognised distance education university with a history spanning more than 100 years. The Mandarin Chinese Section is located in the *Department of Classics and Modern languages* at Unisa. A student can take Mandarin Chinese as a subject or ancillary subject for a degree course which falls in the area of humanities and social sciences, economics and management sciences, or theology and religious studies. The student who studies education, law or science can take Mandarin Chinese as an ancillary subject. If the student is only interested in studying the language of Mandarin, they can register to study it for non-degree purposes (NDP) (Unisa 2013).

The Mandarin course is offered in nine modules which are structured at three levels.

a) Level one

Level one consists of the modules which focus on the development of practical Mandarin speaking and listening abilities: Man1501R Introduction to Mandarin Chinese and Man1502S Practical Mandarin Chinese (Unisa 2013).

Since Mandarin Chinese 1 is a beginner's course for non-Chinese speaking people, the aims of the course are to introduce students to a basic knowledge of both the spoken and written language of Mandarin Chinese at an elementary level, and also to help students to develop an appreciation and understanding of Chinese culture. The module outcomes are as follows: Learners can (Hau-Yoon 2002:58):

- understand the Pinyin Romanisation system and know how to use it as a tool for pronouncing Mandarin words;
- hear the difference between the four tones of the spoken language and distinguish between them;
- understand the concept of Chinese language;
- become familiar with some basic Chinese word order;

- practise basic conversation in real-life situations; and
- recognise some public signs in Chinese.

Since Unisa’s Mandarin course is promoted as a “Practical” Mandarin course, the functional syllabus is based on real life desired learning. The tasks listed are based on situations from daily life, e.g. exchange of greetings and questions and answers on a variety of topics (see Table 3.11) (Hau-Yoon 2002:62).

Table 3.11: Selecting tasks of Unisa

Tasks	
Ask for and provide personal information.	
Ask for and provide factual information.	
Ask for and provide attitudinal information-likes/dislikes.	
Take part in transactional encounters (at restaurant, post office, hospital, etc.).	
Talk about where things are located.	
Extract information from written signs.	
Give and follow instructions and directions.	
Describe people, things and places.	
Make appointments face-to-face and over the telephone.	
Based on the listed tasks above, worked out the following topics	
1. How are you?	10. Making a phone call
2. What do you drink?	11. Talking about a trip
3. What is your name?	12. Going on a picnic
4. How much is it?	13. Moving
5. Family and relatives	14. Talk about the weather
6. First visit	15. At a restaurant
7. Where is it?	16. At the post office
8. Where to go to?	17. In a library
9. Have a chat.	18. At a hospital

Source: Hau-Yoon (2002:62)

b) Level two

Level two includes another two modules which develop the speaking and listening skills established at the first level and emphasise the development of reading and writing skills: Man2601U, Living Mandarin Chinese and Man2602V, Applied Mandarin Chinese (Unisa 2013).

c) Level three

Level three is composed of five modules which continue building on the conversational and literary Chinese developed in both the first and second levels. It focuses on the learning of specialist Chinese: Man3701H, Introduction to Chinese Culture, Customs and Traditions which is only taught in English and so caters for anyone who is interested in learning Chinese culture but who does not know the Chinese language; Man3702 Chinese Wisdom Tales, Idioms and Proverbs; Man3703 Advanced Mandarin Chinese; Man3704 Selected Readings of Modern Chinese Literature; and Man3705 Business Chinese (Unisa 2013).

All of the modules are offered in both first and second semesters, with each module designed to be completed in one semester, i.e. around four and a half months. It will normally take about two to three years to complete all of the modules (Unisa 2013).

3.8.2 Stellenbosch University

Mandarin teaching at SU of South Africa started in 2000 and for 9 years was the only university offering on-campus Chinese teaching. The Chinese Section is part of the *Department of Modern Foreign Languages of the School of Liberal Arts* (Feng 2008a:89).

There are three year levels for Mandarin study: first year level, second year level and third year level (Stellenbosch University 2013b).

a) Mandarin 178

Mandarin 178 is an introduction to the Mandarin language and culture and is the first year level course of one year duration. It carries 24 composition credits and 24 credits, and includes three lectures, one tutorial and one practical per week. Mandarin 178 is offered for beginners and no prior knowledge of Mandarin is required. The module is designed to provide a basic knowledge of the language including alphabetical Pinyin, Chinese characters and basic grammar. It enables students to understand, to speak the language in everyday situations and to recognise the Chinese characters. It consists of an introduction to the pronunciation and tones, an introduction to Chinese characters and their components, and a study of basic literary texts in conversational patterns (Stellenbosch University 2013b).

After completing Mandarin 178 successfully, a student is able to: talk about him or herself, family, weather, time, likes and dislikes and other basic conversational topics, read literary texts with the correct pronunciation and tones, understand and respond to basic conversation in Mandarin, and recognise the Chinese characters with a knowledge of its components (Stellenbosch University 2013b).

b) Mandarin 278

Mandarin 278 is an Intermediate study of the Mandarin language and culture and is a second year level course of one year duration. It is allocated 32 credits and has three lectures and one practical per week. Mandarin 278 is offered for post-beginners and a prior basic knowledge of Mandarin is required. The module is designed to provide further knowledge of the language and culture and extend the vocabulary of Chinese characters. It enables students to understand and to read the Mandarin language with more complicated grammar within its social and cultural context (Stellenbosch University 2013b). It consists of the extension of the vocabulary of Chinese characters extensively, an explanation of the grammar and application of the grammar in practical exercises, role play dialogue to enhance communicative competence, and enhancing reading comprehension through training (Stellenbosch University 2013b).

After completing Mandarin 278 successfully, a student is able to: understand and read Chinese texts and stories with the assistance of a dictionary, conduct conversations much more confidently within the correct social context, write Chinese characters in sentences and in short essays with the vocabulary learnt, and translate from Chinese to English within the learnt vocabulary (Stellenbosch University 2013b).

c) Mandarin 318

Mandarin 318 is an Intermediate level of study of the Mandarin language and culture is a third year level module of one semester (first semester) duration. It carries 24 credits and consists of three lectures and one practical per week. Mandarin 318 is offered for intermediate learners and a substantial knowledge of Mandarin is required. The module is designed to provide extensive knowledge of the language and culture and an enlarged vocabulary of Chinese characters. It enables students to comprehend, read and write the Mandarin language with more sophisticated

skills and advanced grammar in social and cultural contexts (Stellenbosch University 2013b). It aims to enlarge the characters vocabulary extensively, teaches grammar analysis in writing assignment, trains students to understand, discuss and express their opinion on certain topics, and practices writing essays in Chinese characters (Stellenbosch University 2013b).

After completing the Mandarin 318 course successfully, students are able to read and comprehend Chinese on social topics and express their opinions in Chinese, conduct communicative conversation within the correct social context and use the correct grammar, write Chinese characters in short essays with various forms, and translate from Chinese to English, drawing from their enlarged vocabulary (Stellenbosch University 2013b).

d) Mandarin 348

Mandarin 348 is an intermediate level of study of the Mandarin language and culture and is a third-year level module consisting of one semester (second semester) of 24 credits gained during 3 lectures and 1 practical per week. Mandarin 348 is offered for intermediate learners and a substantial knowledge of Mandarin is required. This module is designed to provide extensive knowledge of the language and culture and an enlarged vocabulary of Chinese characters. It enable students to comprehend, read and write the Mandarin language with more sophisticated skills and advanced grammar in the social and cultural context (Stellenbosch University 2013b). It aims to enlarge the characters vocabulary extensively, teach grammar error analysis in writing assignments, train students to understand, discuss and express their opinion on certain topics, and practice writing essays in Chinese characters (Stellenbosch University 2013b).

After completing the Mandarin 348 course successfully, students are able to read and comprehend Chinese on social topics and express their opinions in Chinese, conduct communicative conversations within the correct social context and use correct grammar, write Chinese characters in short essays with various forms, and translate from Chinese to English by drawing from an enlarged vocabulary (Stellenbosch University 2013b).

3.8.3 Rhodes University

The teaching of Mandarin as an additional language at Rhodes University started from 2009. A *Confucius Institute* was to be set up within Rhodes, following discussions between Rhodes University and the *Chinese Hanban*. The *Hanban* has given Rhodes approximately R1 million in order to facilitate the start-up of the project.

3.8.3.1 Language courses

Rhodes University offers Chinese as a language course in the *School of Languages* (Rhodes University 2008). This is a three-year credit-bearing course in Chinese offered in the *School of Languages*. Previously only SU and Unisa offered Chinese in South Africa. This general practical language course is designed for students whose mother tongue is other than Chinese. Chinese Studies is a three year major course at Rhodes University with an honours course soon to be introduced (Rhodes University 2012a).

The purpose of the course is to provide an opportunity for learners to acquire some basic communication skills in Chinese and an awareness of and preliminary understanding of the cultural aspects of Chinese. This includes the acquisition of some aspects of a basic repertoire of characters in terms of their uses in everyday spoken and written situations, with a view to their cultural context of communication in Chinese. Students who have successfully completed the course are able to understand and speak Chinese in a number of everyday situations and know a basic set of Chinese characters. The course comprises five interactive lectures and one tutorial session per week. Scholarships for intensive short courses in China will be available for students who perform well in this course (Rhodes University 2012a).

3.8.3.2 Chinese studies

Chinese studies are subjects offered by the Chinese Division of the *School of languages* at RU. All RU students are eligible to register for the courses.

- Chinese Studies 1 (CH 1) covers a sizable repertoire of Chinese characters as used in everyday communicative situations, and develops an awareness and understanding of

the cultural aspects of the unique Chinese writing system. There is no prerequisite for CHI 1 (Rhodes University 2012b).

- Chinese Studies 2 (CH 2) expands and refines the skills and content of CHI 1. It includes a service learning component in collaboration with a local public-benefit organisation focusing on literacy. CHI 1 is a prerequisite for CHI 2 (Rhodes University 2012b).
- Chinese Studies 3 (CH 3) offers, in addition to an intensive focus on the Chinese language, an introduction to Chinese civilization, history, philosophy and literature. CHI 2 is a prerequisite for CHI 3 (Rhodes University 2012b).

3.8.4 University of Cape Town

The *Confucius Institute* at UCT promotes the learning of the Chinese language and culture as well as a broader and more informed understanding of China in the Cape Town area and across South Africa (University of Cape Town 2013a). Officially launched in January 2010, the establishment of the *Confucius Institute* at UCT is a major step forward in transformation at UCT in that it will bring the Chinese language program to UCT and facilitate academic exchanges between students and faculty members at UCT with those at *Sun Yat-sen University*, Guangzhou, China (University of Cape Town 2013a). It provides the following services in teaching Chinese and popularising Chinese culture (University of Cape Town 2013a):

- Chinese language teaching for students and community at all levels. These include courses of Mandarin Chinese (starting in 2011), courses of introductory and conversational Chinese for students and staff, and courses for people who are interested in learning Chinese.
- Training local Chinese language teachers and providing resources for teaching Chinese.
- Administration of HSK exams (*Chinese Proficiency Test*) and tests for the Certificate of Chinese language Teachers.
- Information and consultative services concerning China's education and culture, including: applying for Chinese scholarships and the *Confucius Institute* scholarship, summer language camps at *Sun Yat-sen University*, and studying in China.
- Chinese and English translation and interpretation services.

There are two university courses at UCT, Initial Mandarin A and Initial Mandarin B. Initial Mandarin A (SLL1121F) carries 18 credits, is a first-year, first-semester course, and consists of five meetings per week plus a conversation tutorial and laboratory session. This is a course for beginners, but under certain circumstances students with prior knowledge of Chinese may be admitted. The course aims to lay a solid foundation of the pronunciation and written characters of Mandarin Chinese. (University of Cape Town 2013b).

Initial Mandarin B (SLL1122S) is an 18 credit course. It is a first-year, second-semester course and requires five meeting per week plus a conversation tutorial and a laboratory session. The course aims to provide an introduction to Mandarin Chinese at an intermediate level. Instruction in all four language skills (aural, oral, reading, writing) is given. (University of Cape Town 2013b).

3.8.5 Conclusions on MFL provision in higher education in South Africa

The provision of MFL in higher education in South Africa has been developing steadily. The Mandarin courses are offered only as a subject in other degrees or for non-degree purposes but not as a major. Most students are South Africans who are enthusiastic to study Mandarin but confront the difficulty of studying Mandarin at a tertiary level. Consequently, student enrolments fall during the second year and third year courses. There are three levels of Mandarin at higher education in South Africa: level one, level two, and level three or first year level, second year level and third year level. Courses include speaking, listening, reading and writing skills. These universities differ in their programme to develop the four language skills. For example, Unisa focuses on the development of practical Mandarin speaking and listening abilities in level one. SU provides basic knowledge of Mandarin and the four language abilities in the first year level. Chinese culture is introduced throughout the language instruction. Mandarin is also provided through distance instruction in South Africa at Unisa.

Regarding text materials, every university has a right to choose its own textbook according to its objectives. Unisa uses textbooks compiled by themselves and the other three universities use textbooks published in China. SU uses *Conversational Chinese 301*, *Speaking Chinese* and *A Practical Business Chinese Reader*. They have also been using *Contemporary Chinese* since

2006. UCT uses the *New Practical Chinese Reader* and the *Elementary Chinese Reading Course*. RU uses the *New Practical Chinese Reader*.

Assessment generally consists of homework, written and oral examinations, and class participation and attendance. The percentage of assessment is different at the different universities. At SU, the first year level assessment is as follows: attendance 10%; oral 14%; homework 18%; tests 32%; Chinese cultural studies 6%; examination 20%. At UCT assessment is as follows: homework and tests 40%; oral examination 20%; written examination 40%. At RU assessment is as follows: written assignment and homework 20%; class tests 10%; oral tests in May 10% and October 10%; class participation and attendance 10%; written end examination 40%.

The academic staff is small at every university: three lecturers at Unisa and SU respectively and one at UCT and RU respectively.

3.9 A BRIEF COMPARISON OF THE PROVISION OF MFL IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN CHINA AND SOUTH AFRICA

Based on the above discussions, a preliminary comparison of MFL provision in higher education in China and South Africa highlights both similarities and differences.

3.9.1 Similarities

The provision of MFL at different universities in both countries varies in terms of time of establishment, institutional development and student enrolment. In both countries three levels of Mandarin tuition are offered: elementary, intermediate and advanced. The largest enrolment numbers in both countries is at the elementary level. Similarly, Mandarin teaching focuses on the development of four abilities: speaking, listening, reading and writing. The language knowledge includes alphabetical Pinyin, Chinese characters and grammar. The emphasis in each institution differs according to the curriculum design and target group at each university. For example, one course may focus more on oral skills and another on written language. The assessment includes homework, class attendance, oral exams and written exams. An exception is the University of South Africa which is the only institution offering Mandarin by distance

education (see 3.8.1). Every university has a right to choose its own textbook in both countries (see 3.5 & 3.8). Institutions may change the teaching materials after a few years and they can also use or develop different textbooks according to their own needs.

MFL in South Africa reflects the partnership of higher education between South Africa and China. MFL is supported by *Confucius Institutes* and *Chinese Bridge* both through funding and staff secondments. Three of the four universities offering MFL have established *Confucius Institutes*; Unisa does not have an Institute but it does have one lecturer who has been seconded by the *Hanban*. China offers scholarships for South African students to study abroad in China.

3.9.2 Differences

3.9.2.1 Differences in policy

China follows a diffusion policy for MFL and has made great efforts to develop MFL, both internally and externally. The leadership is seated in the *State Council* and implemented by the Ministry of Education. The funding support is \$ 1 billion (see 3.3.3). MFL policy and implementation is top-down in China.

South Africa does not have any specific policy for MFL. Only four universities offer programmes teaching MFL for non-degree purposes and universities do not have special funding support from the Department of Education. MFL policy is therefore a bottom-up practice in South Africa.

3.9.2.2 Differences in context

China and its higher education institutions offering MFL belong to a dominant L2 setting (see 2.4.3.1) but South African higher education institutions offering MFL belong to a dominant L1 setting. In other words, they have different linguistic environments. Furthermore, with regard to types of educational programmes, Chinese institutions provide a L2 monolingual educational programme, i.e. the language instructional medium is the target language, Mandarin. South African institutions offer L1 monolingual educational programmes, i.e. English is instruction medium. The range of Chinese educational programmes for MFL is

abundant, long in existence and systematic: Bachelor, Masters and Doctoral degrees, as well as non-degree programmes exist in over 400 universities. South African programmes for MFL are limited and have only recently been established; the first Honours degree is now available at SU. Only four universities in total offer MFL. Aspiring students do not have the opportunity to pursue postgraduate studies in Mandarin (i.e. on the masters or doctoral levels) within the borders. In South Africa, Mandarin courses are taken for one of two purposes: as an elective subject in a BA degree with a major other than Mandarin, or for non-degree purposes.

The student enrolment at the most advanced level is very small in South Africa, but there are quite a large number of students enrolled at this level in China (see 3.5 & 3.7). The number of advanced level students at one university in China far exceeds the entire South African enrolments (less than 100 students at this level). There are few lecturers of Mandarin in South Africa but more than 5 000 qualified teachers in China (see 3.8 & 3.3.1). At Unisa, the teaching staff has only been appointed on the level of lecturer. SU has appointed a professor for the Honours degree and the staff at RU and UCT has been seconded from universities in China and appointed by the *Hanban* to function on the level of professor (see 3.8).

Mandarin courses in South Africa consist of lectures, tutorials and practicals. In contrast, Mandarin courses in China show far greater variety. There are four basic courses: a comprehensive course, oral course, listening course and writing course. In addition, there are many other related courses such as ancient Chinese, Chinese literature, an introduction to linguistics, Chinese painting, translation, etc. (see 3.5).

3.10 SUMMARY

In this chapter, an overview was given of language policy in China with special reference to its diffusion policy using the language policy planning theory and framework. MFL provision in higher education in China and overseas was introduced. The educational programmes at the selected universities were introduced in detail. Similarly, South African language policy was introduced and MFL status in South Africa was discussed. The demand for and educational programmes dealing with MFL in higher education was discussed. Finally, the similarities and differences of MFL acquisition and policy between the two countries were identified.

In the following chapter, the design of the empirical inquiry is described.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 4 presents a detailed description of the methodology and research design. The chapter begins with a discussion of the theoretical basis for the choice of a mixed-method research design and the technical considerations which influenced this choice. The mixed-method inquiry comprises two phases: Phase One (survey) and Phase Two (narrative interviews). This is followed by a detailed description of the procedures undertaken during the two phases: sampling, data collection, data analysis, strategies to address reliability, validity and credibility of data, and ethical considerations.

4.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.2.1 Research approach: Mixed-method inquiry

A mixed-method inquiry was chosen as the most appropriate method for this study.

4.2.1.1 Definitions

The terms quantitative and qualitative are used frequently to identify different modes of inquiry or approaches to research. The terms can be defined on two levels of discourse. At one level, quantitative and qualitative refer to distinctions about the nature of knowledge: how one understands the world and the ultimate purpose of the research. On another level of discourse, the terms refer to research methods, i.e. how data is collected and analysed, and the types of generalisations and representations derived from the data (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:12).

Both quantitative and qualitative research studies are conducted in education. Purists suggest that quantitative and qualitative research methods are based on different assumptions about the world, the research purpose, research methods, prototypical studies, the researcher role, and the importance of context in the study (Firestone 2005:16-17).

Mixed-methods research collects both quantitative and qualitative data because these researchers believe that a combination of approaches results in a more complete understanding of education problems. Although one approach might be emphasised more than the other, both types of data are considered essential to the study. One type of data may be collected first, followed by the other, or both quantitative and qualitative data may be collected simultaneously (Lodico, Spaulding & Voegtle 2006:17). Qualitative research is typically associated with 'interpretive' or constructivist paradigms; quantitative research is generally associated with 'scientific' or positivist paradigms (Yardley & Bishop 2008:353).

Quantitative research is usually based on some form of logical positivism, which assumes there are stable, social facts with a single reality, separated from the feelings and beliefs of individuals. Quantitative research seeks to establish relationships and explain causes of changes in measured, social facts. In quantitative research, researchers consider different sources of variability. Variability refers to how much observations of something take on different values (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:118).

Qualitative research is the collection, analysis, and interpretation of comprehensive narrative data in order to gain insights into particular phenomena of interest. Qualitative research is useful for describing and answering questions about participants and contexts. The purpose of qualitative research is to promote a deep, holistic understanding of a particular phenomena (Maritz & Visagie 2010:1-2).

In qualitative study, the researcher is central to any study. Interpretations are based on the researcher's experience and background. In quantitative research, the researcher tries to remain outside of the system, keeping biases to a minimum. For data collection, qualitative emphasis is on words. Quantitative research emphasises numbers (Lichtman 2010:9-10).

The methodologies of educational research are constantly evolving and changing. Qualitative designs became much more popular over the last 25 years, and experimental designs are making a comeback in popularity. In the past decade, this can be seen in the use of mixed-method designs (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:399). Mixed-methods research is a style of research that uses procedures for conducting research that are typically applied in both quantitative and qualitative studies (Maritz & Visagie 2010:24).

4.2.1.2 Advantages of mixed-method research and technical considerations

Because mixed-methods designs incorporate techniques from both the quantitative and qualitative research traditions, they can be used to answer questions that could not be answered in any other way. By combining and increasing the number of research strategies used within a particular project, the researcher is able to broaden the dimension and hence the scope of the project. By using more than one method within a research study, the researcher is able to obtain a more complete picture of human behaviour and experience. This enhances the researcher's understanding and may achieve research goals more quickly (Mertens & Mclaughlin 2004:113).

The aim of this study is to investigate the differences and similarities of how MFL is taught in universities in China and South Africa (see 1.4) through a literature study, but also through an exploration of the experiences of lecturers teaching MFL and the students acquiring MFL in these two very different contexts (see 3.5 & 3.8). Moreover, this study breaks ground as the first comparative study to explore the provision of MFL in these two higher education systems. Taking these factors into consideration, different tools of data gathering, such as a survey whose results could be statistically analysed as well as narrative interviews which allow for in-depth understanding of the social phenomena, were desirable in order to gain a multi-layered insight into particular phenomena of interest. Therefore, the mixed-method research which allowed for the employment of both quantitative and qualitative methods was deemed appropriate for this research.

4.2.1.3 Researcher's role

The researcher's own background characteristics may constitute important points of difference between the researcher and his or her subjects or participants. Various background characteristics of the researcher can influence data, of which age, gender and ethnicity are probably the most important. In order to decrease the researcher's effects on data, the researcher must monitor the information about him or herself which is disclosed to the subject. Certain information, such as personal opinions and political or religious loyalties, has the potential to act as a constraint on the self-disclosure of the subject. But the researcher can avoid such an effect by refraining from revealing such information to his or her subjects (Tietze

2012). On the other hand, it must also be remembered that the researcher's person is necessary and vital to the establishment of an authentic relationship with subjects and can often contribute to the collection and analysis of valid data. The researcher's personal characteristics can thus simultaneously be viewed as an advantage and a drawback (Tietze 2012).

I have suitable background characteristics and a special relationship with this topic. My major at both bachelor and master degree levels is Chinese Language and Literature and this assisted in the design of the questionnaire. In addition, I have 13 years teaching experience as a lecturer, two years as an associate professor and five years as a head of Department of Chinese language and literature in Tianjin University of Science and Technology in China. I believe this work experience allowed me to establish a trusting relationship with the participants of this study and enabled them to share freely with me. I am also a qualified teacher of MFL and proficient in English: I hold a qualification certificate of *Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language* (advanced) and a certificate of advanced level of English with distinction. In terms of residence, I am a citizen of China and also a permanent resident of South Africa. This is helpful for the understanding of both education systems and convenient for conducting the survey in person.

4.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

4.3.1 Phase One: The survey

The aim of the survey was to determine the views of lecturers of MFL at the selected institutions on the provision of MFL according to the aspects represented by the respective sections of the questionnaire.

4.3.1.1 Sampling

a) China

As mentioned (see 1.1.4), more than 400 universities and colleges offer various Chinese programmes to foreign learners. Three main categories can be distinguished: first class universities, base universities and non-base universities (see 3.5.2 & 3.5.3). The first class

universities are large, prestigious institutions, have the longest history, the largest scope, and the most qualified teaching faculties in the area of teaching Chinese language and culture to foreigners. Comprehensive universities are the base of Mandarin teaching as a foreign language in China and offer Mandarin to a certain scope and level, have qualified teaching staff and advanced facilities. Both of these kinds of universities offer courses for both degree and non-degree Mandarin education for foreigners and have large and stable student numbers every year. Non-comprehensive universities have a clear specialty such as technique, economics, foreign languages and so on; they only offer Mandarin training to a relatively small number of students and do not offer degrees.

Purposeful sampling and convenience sampling were used to select three universities from this huge range to be sites of inquiry and sources of suitable participants for both phases of the study. Purposeful sampling is a procedure where the researcher identifies key participants: persons who have some specific knowledge about the topic being investigated (Lodico et al 2006:140). Convenience sampling is the least desirable sampling method and it includes samples that are convenient (Lodico et al 2006:141). Beijing Language and Culture University (BLCU) represents the first class universities in TCFL (see 3.5.1). It is the only international university in China whose main task is teaching the Chinese language and culture to foreign students. BLCU has the longest history, the largest scope, and the most qualified teaching faculties of its kind in the area of teaching the Chinese language and culture to foreigners in China (see 3.5.1). Nankai University (NU) represents a base university approved by the Ministry of Education in China (see 3.5.2). NU became one of only a few Chinese higher educational institutes to start admitting international students in 1954. Tianjin University of Science and Technology (TUST) is a newcomer to Mandarin as FL teaching and is representative of the non-base universities (see 3.5.3). Its foreign student enrolment is not very big or stable. I have lived in Tianjin and have established professional relationships with colleagues at BLCU and TUST; this facilitated the gathering of the data.

A non-probabilistic convenience sampling procedure (McMillan & Schumacher 2006) was used to select respondents for the questionnaire from the selected universities in both countries. At the time of the survey (June 2012), there were just under 100 academic staff teaching MFL in BLCU (BLCU 2011), 51 academic teaching staff at NU (see 3.5.2) and 7 at TUST (Yang 2011). The respondents for the questionnaire were made up as follows: at BLCU, 30 teaching

staff were selected with the help of a gatekeeper and 28 completed the questionnaire. NU employs a total of 51 teaching staff for TCFL and 11 of these were present on the day of data collection.

They all completed the questionnaire. At TUST, all 7 teaching staff completed the questionnaire.

b) South Africa

The researcher targeted all four universities offering MFL in South Africa: Unisa (see 3.8.1), Stellenbosch University (SU) (see 3.8.2), Rhodes University (RU) (see 3.8.3) and the University of Cape Town (UCT) (see 3.8.4). Compared to China, the MFL total number of teaching staff is very small so all of them were selected as participants. The total of 8 lecturers were selected as survey respondents, however, only 6 completed the questionnaires. These were distributed as follows: Unisa has 3 lecturers of which 2 are permanent positions and 1 is a secondment by the *Hanban* for a 2-year term. Two of the 3 completed the questionnaire; one member of staff declined to complete it. SU has 3 staff members, 2 of which are from *Hanban* of China seconded for 2-year contracts. One staff member has a 5-year contract position. As the new contractor had only arrived in 2012, she was not yet qualified to complete the questionnaire. RU and UCT each have only 1 professor seconded by *Hanban* of China; both completed the questionnaire.

4.3.1.2 Phase One: Data collection by survey

The survey is a research method for gathering information. The various approaches to survey research have the same purpose: gathering opinions, beliefs, or perceptions about a current issue from a large group of people (Lodico et al 2006:157; Johnson 2008:94). A questionnaire is relatively economical, asks the same questions of all subjects and can ensure anonymity (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:194). The use of questionnaires at the start of a project can often be very useful because it helps the researcher to collect a range of information with relative ease, which can then be followed up as necessary (Koshy 2005:87; Lodico et al 2006:159).

Questionnaires enable a researcher to collect background and baseline information quite easily. They can help the researcher to gather a reasonable amount of data in a short time, can provide information which can be followed up on and can provide a format which makes it easy to represent information. In addition, a questionnaire is suitable for collecting initial information on attitudes and perceptions (Koshy 2005:89). Online questionnaires have an added advantage of reaching a relatively large sample group, and they can be spread over different geographical locations. Questionnaires can shorten the distance and time needed to collect data.

For these reasons, a survey questionnaire was considered the most efficient means of data collection in Phase One of this study. It was used to obtain an overview of the teaching practices used in teaching MFL from the lecturers in the selected universities in China and in South Africa. The questionnaire was self-designed for the study, pilot tested and then refined (Lodico et al 2006:168-169). Three academic staff were chosen for the pilot test: 2 from China (1 from BLCU and TUST respectively) and 1 from South Africa (Unisa). Pilot respondents were requested, and given the opportunity, to highlight any perceived lack of clarity and problematic questions or shortcomings in the questionnaire. The critique was analysed with expert peer assistance using the promoter of the study and an expert statistician, and changes were made to the final survey questionnaire where it was deemed necessary.

The questionnaire comprised 7 sections: Section A dealt with biographical data (8 items); Section B dealt with institutional factors (19 items); Section C dealt with lecturers' perceptions of MFL students (23 items); Section D dealt with teaching methods (23 items); Section E dealt with curriculum (17 items) and Section G dealt with degree purposes for honours and postgraduate students (8 items); Section F was an open question. Sections A to G comprised closed items, in which subjects choose between predetermined responses (Koshy 2005:87; Johnson 2008:94-95; McMillan & Schumacher 2006:197). The questionnaire was translated into Chinese by the researcher.

The questionnaire was distributed in both English and Chinese to all respondents (see Appendix A). The questionnaire was accompanied by a covering letter (see Appendix A) stating that it was not necessary to indicate a name and that the anonymity of the respondent was assured. An explanation of the purpose of the research, a request for participation, an

advisory of the right of refusal or withdrawal, an assurance of confidentiality, and an explanation of the survey instrument and how to complete it were also given in the letter. The respondents could not proceed from one section of the questionnaire to the next unless they had acknowledged (by selecting an option) that they had read and understood the information and requests and were willing and able to move on to the next section. The questionnaire concluded with a note of thanks.

In total, 52 questionnaires were completed (46 in China and 6 in South Africa). The response rate was as follows: 93% return rate from BLCU and 73% from NU; 100% from TUST and 75% from the four South African universities combined. Thus the overall response rate was 87% which was considered satisfactory.

4.3.1.3 Data analysis and presentation of data

Quantitative research relies heavily on numbers in reporting results, sampling and providing estimates of instrument reliability and validity (Koshy 2005:109). Statistical analysis was used to analyse the data gathered by the survey in Phase One. Statistics are methods of organising and analysing quantitative data. Statistics is an international language that only manipulates numbers. Statistics and numbers do not interpret themselves, and the meaning of the statistic is derived from the research design (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:150). To make sense of the data, the researcher generally begins to summarise them in the form of descriptive statistics (Lodico et al 2006:243). There are two broad categories of statistical techniques: descriptive and inferential. Descriptive statistics transform a set of numbers or observations into indices that describe or characterise the data. Inferential statistics are used to make inferences or predictions about the similarity of a sample to the population from which the sample is drawn (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:150; Lodico et al 2006:243-247).

The data gathered by the questionnaire was analysed by an expert statistician using the SAS software programme (cf.1.5.2.6). The following broad analysis strategy was followed:

- Frequency distributions on the biographical properties of respondents (country wise). This allowed for a description of the sampled respondents as well as the Chinese and South African subsamples.

- Two-way country-wise frequency distributions on subsets of ‘similar-topic’ questionnaire items for sections B-D of the questionnaire. Furthermore for each frequency table, Pearson’s Chi-square tests and Fisher’s exact probabilities associated with the relevant Chi-square statistic, and Cochran-Armitage trend tests were conducted. The purpose of the two-way tables was to introduce the sub-constructs and investigate whether response patterns to all questions within a subset agree or differ statistically significantly for some question statements. Apart from the general perception trend that the frequency distributions of the subsets of questions reveal, response patterns of individual questionnaire statements that differ from the general response pattern of a subset of questionnaire statements, provide more in-depth knowledge on the sub-construct.
- Scale reliability tests on the subsets of responses for the sub-constructs to verify the internal consistency reliability of the sub-constructs. This determined whether sub-construct perception measures derived from the subsets of responses for a particular sub-construct are reliable measures of perception.
- Analyses of variance (Anova) on the derived sub-construct perception measures to determine whether country (China/SA), degree or non-degree institutions, and pass rate of students affect perceptions regarding aspects (sub-constructs) of MFL teaching. In each analysis a sub-construct measure of perception was entered in the analysis of variance model as the dependent variable and the properties of the country, degree or non-degree institution and pass rate were entered as explanatory variables in the analysis anova model.
- Throughout results, the statistical significance was indicated according to a general protocol, namely:

Significance legend:

- * Significance on the 5% level of significance
- ** Significance on the 1% level of significance
- *** Significance on 0.1% level of significance

The results of the analysis are presented in Chapter 5 in the sequence in which the questionnaire was designed, that is according to sections A-G. In each section (except section G), country-wise frequency distributions per questionnaire item or subset of questionnaire

items are presented first. In some instances, a second set of comparisons based on degree or non-degree MFL course distinction is also listed. This is then followed by a summary table of results or findings and interpretation of findings.

The significance legend has not been included in each and every table. It is made up of the statistical significance protocol followed in the study. A number of frequency distribution tables have been included in the report. Some of the 'less important' tables (for example the general frequency tables in sections B, C and D – the 16-; 20-; and 23-item tables, since their content are also presented in the sub-construct tables) is included in appendices.

4.3.1.4 Reliability and validity

Because correlational research involves the measurement of many different variables, the quality of the measures used is a major consideration. Reliability and validity are two concepts that are used to judge the quality of educational measures. Reliability refers to the consistency of measurement. Validity refers to whether the measure accurately and appropriately measures whatever it is supposed to measure. If no evidence of reliability or validity is provided or available, the results of the study may be suspect (Conrad & Serlin 2006:406-407; Flick 2007:5-6; Lodico et al 2006:230). In order to ensure the consistency of measurement, all data was collected, analysed and interpreted in the same way.

4.3.2 Phase Two: Interviews

The aim of Phase Two of the study was to gather data from students of MFL in both countries through interviews in order to obtain an in-depth understanding of the teaching and learning experienced. Interviewing is the most common form of data collection in qualitative research (Lichtman 2010:139). The purpose of conducting an interview is linked to a structured and formal style or an unstructured, conversational style (Lichtman 2010:140; Kolb 2008:142).

4.3.2.1 Sampling

Qualitative researchers select their participants based on their characteristics and knowledge as they relate to research questions being investigated (Lodico et al 2006:140). In China, 19

students were selected for the interviews representing all three universities; in South Africa, 14 students were selected from Unisa, SU and UCT. RU was omitted due to logistical difficulties. Thus, the total number of participants was 33. The criteria for selection was current enrolment in MFL courses at the respective institutions. A detailed profile of the student participants is given in Chapter 6. The students were selected by means of purposeful sampling to provide an information-rich sample.

4.3.2.2 Data collection

The researcher used in-depth, semi-structured individual interviews to obtain the data.

Qualitative research involves looking deeply at a few things rather than looking at the surface of many things. An important aspect of the investigation is to look at the whole rather than isolated variables in a reductionistic manner. If we want to understand something fully, we need to look at it much more completely (Lichtman 2010:17). The researcher used in-depth interviews to obtain the data. An in-depth interview is a one-to-one interview on a single topic for an extended period. In-depth interviews are conducted between an interviewer and a single participant. The interview may be partially structured with some questions or topics being predetermined. These questions are written by researchers and are based on the research question (Kolb 2008:145). The interview methodology has the advantage of allowing researcher participants to express ideas using their own words. The length of an interview allows participants time to develop their ideas fully. If a researcher is still unclear as to a participant's meaning, he or she can ask probing, follow-up questions (Kolb 2008:142; Crang & Cook 2007:75).

The interviews in China were conducted during June 2012 and in South Africa between September and October 2012. The interviews were conducted in the natural setting of the university or at the student or researcher's home according to participant preference. Each interview was tape-recorded using a digital recorder. Brief notes were made during the interview. Before the interview was conducted, the participant filled in a brief questionnaire on which basic biographical information was recorded and a declaration of consent was signed (see Appendix A). Every interview began with some brief social contact and was then followed by a short re-explanation of the purpose of the project and some general guidelines for the

interview process. The interview focused on: family background, educational and employment history, the decision to embark on Mandarin studies and the progress made. The researcher used a flexible interview schedule to ensure that all major topics would be covered (see Appendix B). Interviews in China were all conducted in Chinese according to the preference of the participants. In South Africa, all interviews were conducted in English according to the preference of the participants. The recordings were stored on a personal computer and recordings of interviews were carefully listened to the day after the respective interview; verbatim transcripts were made.

4.3.2.3 Data analysis and presentation of data

Qualitative data analysis is the process of bringing order, structure and meaning to the masses of data collected. Broadly speaking, qualitative data analysis is an attempt by the researcher to summarise all collected data in a dependable and accurate manner. Qualitative data analysis requires the researcher to be patient and reflective in a process that strives to make sense of multiple data sources. The analytic procedure falls essentially into the following sequential phases: organising the data, generating categories, identifying patterns and themes, and coding the data. Qualitative analysis is a creative and on-going process that requires thoughtful judgments about what is significant and meaningful in the data (Bloomberg & Volpe 2008:96). Another definition is provided by Harry Wolcott: analysis refers quite specifically and narrowly to systematic procedures followed in order to identify essential features and relationships (Gibson & Brown 2009:5; Wolcott 1994:24). Wolcott makes a distinction between ‘description,’ ‘analysis’ and ‘interpretation.’ They are aspects which represent the three components of qualitative work. Description involves producing an account that stays close to the original data. The general aim in producing descriptions is to create a narrative that presents the original data in a motivated way (i.e. that operates as a description for a particular purpose) (Gibson & Brown 2009:5). Some researchers believe that the analysis process involves identifying salient stories that either emerge from the data or are constructed as composites from bits and pieces of several data sources (Lichtman 2010:194).

In this study, data analysis took place during and after data gathering. The researcher aimed at developing categories which were later grouped under themes which emerged from the participants’ experiences. Firstly, transcriptions of all the recordings were made. Thereafter all

Chinese transcriptions were translated into English. Raw data comprised the transcriptions of the recording and notes made directly after the interviews. Analytic guidelines for grounded theory (Charmaz 2011:367-373) were used: line by line coding, axial coding and extensive memo writing. In this way, 16 interpretative themes were developed based on segments of data, the conceptual literature and in-depth reflection. Cross-checking information and conclusions with actual participants for additional information, verification and insight was done where necessary (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:10). As the inquiry aimed at an in-depth understanding of participants' experiences from their own frame of reference, no attempt was made to generalise findings. At all stages of the analysis process, the researcher was in constant communication with her supervisor who checked the coding and interpretation of the data.

4.3.2.4 Trustworthiness of data

Trustworthiness of data in qualitative research refers to the 'truthfulness' of study findings, and it is researcher's responsibility to provide chains of evidence and sets of narrative accounts that are plausible and credible (Thyer 2001:273-274). In this study, all interviews were conducted without duress and in a warm, conversational manner. Participants understood the aim of the study and responded with enthusiasm. The researcher's experience as MFL lecturer facilitated the establishment of rapport and this enhanced the likelihood of obtaining authentic data. As mentioned, interviews were recorded and transcribed and returned to the participants for cross checking. Data analysis was also triangulated by comparison with the literature (Chapters 2 and 3) and through peer reviews conducted by the supervisor.

4.3.2.5 Ethical considerations for Phases One and Two

According to Lichtman (2010), there are a few major principles associated with ethical conduct. The first is, 'do not harm.' There should be a reasonable expectation by those participating in a research study that they will not be involved in any situation in which they might be harmed. The second is that of privacy and anonymity. Any individual participating in a research study has a reasonable expectation that privacy will be guaranteed. Thirdly, confidentiality is assumed. The participant is entitled to expect that such information will not be given to anyone else (Lichtman 2010:54-55). All these principles were adhered to in this study according to the following strategy:

- The researcher obtained ethical clearance for the study from Unisa's College of Education, Ethics Committee;
- Permission for the survey was sought and obtained from the Directors of teaching and team leaders teaching MFL at the various institutions. The aims and processes of data collection were covered in the covering letter of the questionnaire. Participation in the questionnaire was voluntary and respondents were free to withdraw from the study at any time or refuse to answer any questions. Data collection through the questionnaire was anonymous and confidential.
- The research purpose and process of data collection were explained to interview participants and participation was voluntary, anonymous and confidential. Each participant signed a letter of consent prior to the interview.
- The transcribed copies of the interviews were distributed to all participants so that they could endorse the transcription or make any necessary changes. The final transcriptions were used according to pseudonyms to disguise identity.
- An electronic version of the thesis will be made available to the Chair or Directors of the Mandarin Departments of all 7 institutions after the entire examination process has been successfully completed.

4.4 PRESENTATION OF THE FINDINGS

The data from the survey (Phase One) and interviews (Phase Two) are presented separately in Chapters 5 and 6 respectively. Findings of Phase One are presented statistically and are supported by tables. Findings of Phase Two are presented thematically in narrative form and supported where necessary by verbatim quotations from the interviews. Relevant aspects of the literature review were drawn into the findings to support, compare or highlight pertinent points or relevant issues and to ground, or locate the study in a theoretical framework.

4.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

This study is the first in its kind comparing the provision of MFL as taught in universities in South Africa and China. Thus, no other precursor could be referred to for the design of this study. The geographical location of the research sites and respondents or participants presented

the researcher with logistical challenges. The different academic calendar used in the two education systems also determined the timing of data gathering.

The sampling site for Phase One of the research design was three selected universities in China and the respondents represented a cross-sectional non-probabilistic sample. As such the findings of the study are representative of the survey and cannot be generalised to the rest of staff at the institution or to all other institutions offering MFL. In Phase Two, no attempts at generalisability were made. The research method was qualitative and the aim was an in-depth description of participants' experiences from their own point of reference. This is typical of qualitative research and should not be regarded as a limitation but as inherent in the character of the methodology.

4.6 SUMMARY

This chapter described the rationale for the choice of mixed-method approach for this study and detailed how the mixed-method methodology was used in two, different parts of data collection. In the next chapter, the findings of the survey data are presented and discussed.

CHAPTER FIVE

FINDINGS OF PHASE ONE: LECTURERS' VIEWS OF MFL PROVISION IN CHINA AND SOUTH AFRICA

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 5 presents the findings of Phase One of the mixed method inquiry: a survey of lecturers' views of the provision of MFL in selected universities in China and South Africa. The main research question aims to investigate the following: What are the differences and similarities in MFL provision in higher education in Chinese and South African institutions? The following outline is given of the organisation of the chapter. The aspects investigated and sections in which findings are presented and discussed are as follows: the biographical profile of the respondents (see 5.2); results of the factor analysis of questionnaire sections B, C and D (see 5.3); additional commentary of section B, C and D (see 5.4); the MFL curriculum (see 5.5); and Mandarin study as a postgraduate degree in China (see 5.6). Under the factor analysis of questionnaire sections B, C and D (see 5.3), the following factors are dealt with:

- Respondent perceptions of institutional support and functioning regarding MFL teaching and staffing (Section B of questionnaire), which called for the investigation of the sub-components of:
 - i) Institutional support to MFL staff;
 - ii) Institutional support to MFL students; and
 - iii) Institutional support or provision regarding the type of MFL courses.
- Respondent perceptions of MFL students (Section C of questionnaire) which called for the investigation of the sub-components of:
 - i) Opportunities available to MFL students;
 - ii) Student experience of difficulty level of learning Mandarin; and
 - iii) General attributes of MFL students;
- Respondent perceptions of MFL teaching methods and environment (Section D of questionnaire), which called for the investigation of the sub-components of:
 - i) The MFL classroom environment;
 - ii) The language of communication in the MFL classroom; and
 - iii) MFL teaching methods commonly used.

5.2 QUESTIONNAIRE SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL PROFILE OF THE RESPONDENTS

Two-way country-wise frequency distributions for each biographical attribute probed in Section A of the questionnaire were conducted. Frequency distributions on the biographical information of respondents assisted in describing the sampled population in both countries and allowed for a comparison of the Chinese and South African samples. However, in view of the very comprehensive nature of the data, a summary table of findings and deductions on all biographical properties is presented (see Table 5.1). This can be used to describe the sample as well as differences and similarities between respondent profiles in the two countries.

Table 5.1: Country wise (and degree or non-degree wise) comparative summary of biographical properties of the lecturer respondents

With respect to	Significant difference between countries	Deductions
Age	No	Age distribution between respondents in the two countries did not prove to be statistically significantly different. 82% of the Chinese respondents fell in the 21-50 age group and 66.66% of SA respondents fell in the 21-50 age group (with a greater % of younger and older SA respondents in the two tail categories). The fact that significance was not indicated in many frequency comparisons – such as this attribute - can be attributed to the very low number of SA respondents (6) compared to the number of Chinese respondents (46).
Gender	No	MFL experience distribution between countries did not prove to be statistically significantly different. For both countries female MFL lecturer representation is higher than male representation.

Academic rank of MFL lecturers	No	Academic rank distribution between countries did not prove to be statistically significantly different. Most respondents in both countries were jnr. lecturers, lecturers (55.8%) or senior lecturers (66.67%). There was a tendency for slightly more associate and full MFL professors in China than in SA, but this was not proven statistically.
*** Basis of employment	Yes (0.1% level of significance)	The distribution indicates statistically significantly more fixed term or contract lecturers in SA institutions than in Chinese institutions.
Academic qualifications	No	Although a tendency seems to exist for Chinese respondents to be better qualified (88.89 in possession of either a Master's or doctorate degree) than South African respondents (100% Honour's or Master's degree), no statistical difference in qualification distributions were indicated. This can be attributed to the fact that the Chinese sample was substantially greater than the SA sample.
Hanban certification	No	No significant distribution difference was indicated between countries: both countries had more (67% +) respondents with a suitable qualification to teach MFL.
MFL teaching experience	Yes (11% level of significance)	A strong tendency was indicated (on the 11% level of significance) for Chinese respondents to have more MFL teaching experience than SA respondents (86.37% had more than 5 years' MFL experience as opposed to 50% SA respondents with 5+ years experience).
Involvement in MFL research activities	No	No distribution differences between countries were indicated: in both countries the majority of respondents were engaged in articles, projects and their own further study and/or a combination of the three activities. However, there appeared a tendency for more SA respondents (33.33% as opposed to 13.33%) not to be involved in MFL research activities.
Significance legend: * : Significance on the 5% level of significance ** : Significance on the 1% level of significance *** : Significance on 0.1% level of significance		

Table 5.1 presents a summary of results of descriptive frequency analyses on the respondents' biographical properties and interprets the results of the two-way frequency tables compiled on section A of the questionnaire. Chinese respondents seem to be somewhat older than the South

African sample. No statistically significant difference was indicated. Here, as in several other instances, the absence of statistical difference can be attributed to the very low number of SA respondents (6) compared to the number of Chinese respondents (46) who participated in the survey. This discrepancy in respondent numbers is easily explained by the differences in context between the two countries: Mandarin is the national language of China and MFL provision is well developed in the higher education sector; Mandarin is a relatively new offering in the repertoire of FLs provided for in South African higher education and as such, attracts small student numbers which in turn warrant the appointment of small numbers of teaching staff.

In both countries the majority of respondents were female. Typically language teaching including foreign language teaching attracts more females than males (Sunderland 2000). The majority of respondents in both countries were at similar academic rank. The tendency although not statistically significant for Chinese respondents to be more highly qualified than their South African counterparts and to be at higher levels of academic ranking can be explained by the historically well-established position that MFL occupies in curricula in Chinese higher education (see 3.4.2) and that the provision of postgraduate qualifications (masters and doctoral programmes) in China (see 3.4.2). Interestingly, there was no statistically significant difference indicated between the respondents in the two countries regarding *Hanban* certification. This implies that teaching staff were equally equipped in terms of the official *Hanban* teaching certification (see 1.1.4). In terms of research activity in MFL there was no statistically significant difference indicated between respondents. However, only 13.33% of Chinese respondents (see Table A4, Appendix C) were not involved in research activities. This can also be partly explained by the status and the well-established position that Mandarin occupies in Chinese higher education. Opportunities and incentives for lecturers to produce research articles, to participate in research projects and to enrol for further study to obtain masters or doctoral qualifications in Mandarin are by far greater in China than in South Africa.

5.2.1 Discussion of statistically significant differences in biographical profile

Table 5.1 has indicated two biographical features according to which respondents showed a statistically significant difference: basis of employment and MFL teaching experience. In this section, only selected frequency tables (see Tables 5.2 and 5.3), which deal with statistically

significant differences between respondents, are presented. The frequency tables which do not show statistically significant differences between the two countries (see Tables A1-A7) have been contained in Appendix C to conserve space and for easy reference. In lengthy frequency tables throughout the thesis, number count of responses and percentages in brackets has been placed on the same line within each column to conserve space.

Table 5.2: Basis of employment by country

Basis on which you are employed Frequency Col Pct	Country		Total
	Chinese univ.s	SA univ.s	
Permanent	35, 77.78	1 16.67	36
Temporary	3 6.67	0 0.00	3
Fixed term/contract	7 15.56	5 83.33	12
Total	45	6	51
Frequency Missing = 1			
Fisher's exact probability associated with Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 11.51 is 0.003 ***			

Table 5.2 indicates that the basis of employment on which MFL lecturers were employed showed a statistically significant difference between the respondents in the two countries. More lecturers are employed permanently in China; in South Africa more lecturers are employed on a fixed term or contract basis. This can be partly explained by the secondment of lecturers (see 4.3.1.1) by the *Hanban* to certain South African institutions for a limited period of time as part of China's diffusion policy with regards to Mandarin (see 3.3.3) and thus fills the gap in the very small pool of suitably qualified South African academics.

Table 5.3 MFL teaching experience

Years teaching experience in MFL Col Pct		Country		Total
		Chinese univ.s	SA univ.s	
1.	<3 yrs	1 2.27	1 16.67	2
2.	3-5 yrs	5 11.36	2 33.33	7
3.	6-10 yrs	14 31.82	2 33.33	16
4.	10+ yrs	24 54.55	1 16.67	25
5.	Total	44	6	50
Frequency Missing = 2				
Fisher's exact probability associated with Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 6.07 is 0.11 ^{ns}				

Table 5.3 indicates a tendency (although not proven but observable on the 11% level of significance (see 4.3.1.3) for respondents in South Africa to have less teaching experience than their Chinese counterparts. Only one respondent in South Africa indicated more than ten years' teaching experience. This can again be partly explained by historical and contextual factors pertaining to the provision of MFL in the two countries. In China, MFL has been provided for many decades (see 3.3.2) and a large pool of experienced lecturers is available especially to teach MFL for degree and postgraduate degree purposes.

5.2.2 Comparison of biographical profile of respondent scores combined according to degree or non-degree MFL programmes

Further refinement of questionnaire results are provided through the findings which distinguish the biographical profile of lecturer respondents combined engaged in teaching degree versus non-degree programmes. Thus, the following findings do not represent a country by country comparison.

Firstly, some explanation in this regard is important.

In China the bachelor degree is a four year qualification and students choose one subject as a dedicated major subject. All sub-components of the degree programme relate to different aspects of the major subject. For example if Mandarin is the major, all other sub-components of the degree relate to Mandarin (e.g. Mandarin literature; Mandarin pedagogies; translation techniques in Mandarin to another language, etc.). In summary, TUST offers non-degree MFL programmes only. NU offers both non-degree and degree MFL programmes. BLCU offers both non-degree and degree MFL programmes.

In South Africa the bachelor degree is usually a three year qualification and the students can choose two subjects as majors. Students may choose Mandarin as a major and thus do Mandarin on three levels over three years; however, other sub-components which comprise the degree relate to the second major (or other electives on the first and second year levels) which are not part of dedicated Mandarin study. An exception is the Honours in Mandarin (a one-year postgraduate degree which follows the three year B-degree) offered by SU since January 2012. In this sense SU can be considered as now offering a dedicated degree programme in Mandarin comprising a regular three year B degree with Mandarin as one of the two majors and an Honours in Mandarin. Thus, only SU offers what can be considered a dedicated degree programme (three years plus one). The other three universities only offer MFL as part of a three year degree (Mandarin as one of two majors) and in the context of this survey, this is regarded as a non-degree programme.

Table 5.4 shows a summary comparison of the biographical profile of respondents according to degree or non-degree MFL programmes (not a country wise comparison).

With respect to	Significant difference between MFL for degree/ non-degree purposes	Deductions
* Basis of employment	Yes	Statistically significantly more respondents were employed on a permanent basis - as opposed to a contract or temporary basis - if MFL is offered for degree purposes (50% compared to 25% and 25%, cf. Table A6 in Appendix C); and statistically more fixed term/contract appointments are made when non-degree MFL is offered (75% for non-degree compared to 16.67 and 8.33% for degree and degree/ non-degree courses, cf. Table A6 in Appendix C).
Hanban certification	No	The same distribution pattern was observed for degree and non-degree Mandarin courses: the majority of respondents had a suitable qualification certificate to teach Mandarin as foreign language
* MFL involvement in research	Yes	Statistically significantly more research activity for respondents teaching either a degree course or a mixed degree/ non-degree course (in both cases 55% respectively) than for lecturers teaching non-degree courses (20%) (See Appendix C, Tables A7)
<p style="text-align: center;">Significance legend:</p> <p style="text-align: center;">* : Significance on the 5% level of significance ** : Significance on the 1% level of significance *** : Significance on 0.1% level of significance</p>		

5.3 FACTOR ANALYSIS OF SECTIONS B, C AND D OF QUESTIONNAIRE

The item composition of each questionnaire section: Section B (Institutional support: 16 items); Section C (Lecturer perceptions of MFL students: 20 items); and Section D (Teaching methods and environment: 23 items) suggested that each section consists of sub-components. Therefore, responses to such sub-components of questionnaire statements were used to estimate a measure

of respondents' perception on these sub-components. The mean rating responses of each respondent on a sub-component present a viable measure of a specific component for every respondent. The analyses conducted allowed the reduction of the 16+20+23 individual agreement rating questionnaire statements (in total 59 items) into sub-components of questionnaire items that describe similar aspects of MFL provision. The motivation for the grouping of similar topic statements was to define sub-components of the three constructs (as defined in the questionnaire sections B, C and D) to derive a single measure of perception for each sub-construct and to analyse and interpret findings in relation to the reduced number of perception measures (12) rather than the original 59 items which provided an overload of findings difficult to interpret. Because the number of responses was limited, factor analysis (which is an alternative method of investigating the underlying structure of the response data) could be used. Therefore, scale reliability testing was used to verify the reliability of the constructs and sub-components suggested in questionnaire statements.

The sub-components are indicated as follows:

- I. Construct - Institutional support (Section B: 16 items) - investigated according to sub-components:
 - a. Institutional support to MFL staff
 - b. Institutional support to MFL students
 - c. Institutional support regarding the type of MFL courses
- II. Construct – Lecturer perceptions of MFL students (Section C: 20 items) - investigated according to sub-components:
 - a. Opportunities available to MFL students
 - b. Student experience of difficulty level of learning Mandarin
 - c. General attributes of MFL students
- III. Construct - MFL teaching methods and environment (Section C: 23 items) - investigated according to sub-components:
 - a. MFL classroom environment
 - b. The language of communication in the MFL classroom
 - c. MFL teaching methods commonly used

A reliable measure of perceptions of the sub-components is required for research results to be trustworthy and valid. A form of reliability, referred to as internal consistency reliability can be

validated for each of these sub-components by means of scale reliability testing (also referred to as item analysis). Internal consistency reliability implies that all questionnaire items included in a sub-component jointly contribute towards describing the specific sub-component and that the mean of the group of responses reliably measures the sub-component.

Once internal consistency reliability of the sub-components of questionnaire statements were verified (3 sub-components for each construct as well as a general component for each construct: $3 \times 3 + 3 = 12$ components), reliable component-measures could then be calculated for each sub-component of a construct or sub-construct for each respondent. These calculated measures are referred to as component scores. Further analyses and interpretation regarding a specific aspect (component or sub-component) of MFL teaching could then be undertaken on these sets of component scores without loss of information collected, however in a parsimonious way.

Table 5.5 reports on the 12 scale reliability tests conducted on the twelve subsets of questionnaire item responses to validate internal consistency reliability of each component. Consistency reliability is confirmed by the value of a coefficient, referred to as Cronbach alpha calculated as part of the analyses. A value of Cronbach alpha in the region of 0.7 or greater indicates to internal consistency reliability. Each row in the table presents the results of an analysis. The columns report on the component examined; questionnaire items included within each subset (to describe a component); questionnaire items which the analysis suggests should be removed (does not contribute towards explaining the component) or which should be inverted (the inverse of a response can be used in an analysis to represent the opposite statement worded in a question); the Cronbach alpha coefficient calculated; and the overall mean component or sub-component score. The overall scores are derived from the individual component scores calculated for each respondent once internal consistency reliability has been established.

Table 5.5 Scale reliability testing on sub-components of questionnaire item response ratings to verify internal consistency reliability of MFL construct

Constructs	Questionnaire Items included in the construct	Items reversed	Standardised Cronbach alpha	Construct score means ## (Standard deviation)
Institutional support (Section B of questionnaire)				
Institutional support to MFL staff	q1, 4,-6, 16	-	0.92	3.81
Institutional support to MFL students	q2, 7-9, 15	-	0.89	3.72
Institutional support regarding type of MFL courses	q3, 10-14	-	0.85	3.58
Combined	q1-16	-	0.95	3.67
Lecturer perceptions of MFL students (Section C of questionnaire)[#]				
Opportunities available to MFL students	q12-13, 17-18	-	0.75	3.63
Student experience of difficulty level of learning Mandarin	q1, 9-11, 14, 20	q14, 20	0.69	3.37
General attributes of MFL students	q2, 4, 15, 17	-	0.72	3.79
Combined	q1-2, 4, 6, 8-9, 11-18, 20	1, 9, 11	0.76	3.31
MFL teaching methods and environment (Section D of questionnaire)				
MFL classroom environment	q1, 4, 13-14, 20, 23	q14, 23	0.65	3.95
Language of communication in MFL classroom	q5-7, 21-22	q5	0.80	1.71
MFL teaching methods commonly used	q3, 8, 11-13, 15-16, 18-19	q8, 18	0.72	3.92
Combined	q1, 3-4, 6, 8-9, 10-15, 17-18, 20-23	q8-10, 14, 17-18, 23	0.72	3.38
Scale reliability is established for any given construct if the value of the Cronbach alpha coefficient is approximately 0.6-0.7 or greater				
# Due to limited responses to q19, the question was excluded from analyses.				
##Agreement rating scale: 1 = disagree strongly; 2 = disagree; 3 = neutral; 4 = agree; 5 = agree strongly				

The values of Cronbach alpha coefficients vary between 0.65 and 0.92, which places all alpha coefficients in the region of 0.7 or greater, this verifying internal consistency reliability. This implies that all defined constructs and sub-components of MFL proved to be reliable measures of perceptions on the issues investigated. Measures of perceptions for each construct or sub-component, calculated as the mean rating value for each subset of questionnaire item responses would thus present reliable measures of respondents' individual perceptions of these issues.

Since the sets of perception scores are calculated as the mean rating values of response ratings, these scores and means of these scores are interpreted according to the rating scale for the original questionnaire rating scale (1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly agree). It can therefore be deduced that (except for the combined scores) all reflect a positive general perception regarding the MFL issues investigated. (The mean scores in these instances ranged between 3.58 to 3.95, which is approximately '4'. This indicates 'Agree' on the agreement rating scale.)

The sub-component: Language of communication (under the construct MFL teaching methods and environment) yielded a 1.71 overall mean score indicating a perception of dissatisfaction. Investigation of the element included in this sub-component reveals that respondents were generally not in agreement that minority group languages and English were used to a greater extent in MFL classes than Chinese. The generally negative response towards this issue actually implies that respondents agree that Chinese is used most frequently in the MFL classroom. Thus, Mandarin is the only language taught in MFL classes; minority languages and dialects are not taught.

The mean scores of 3.38 and 3.31 (which approximate '3', a neutral perception on the agreement rating scale) indicated that respondents were almost indifferent towards the overall constructs of MFL teaching methods and MFL students. The seeming indifference can suggest that these aspects are 'too general' when considered as a whole and that attention should rather be given to the more issue specific sub-constructs; or that groups of respondents in the sample – perhaps country-wise – hold opposing views on the constructs evaluated. Paragraph 5.3.1 supplies more precise answers in this respect.

5.3.1 Country-wise comparison of MFL perceptions based on factor analysis of Sections B, C and D

As indicated above, a general impression of respondents' perceptions on the various constructs and sub-components of MFL institutional support and perceptions of MFL students could be gleaned from the overall mean scores. However, to answer the research questions on whether and to which extent Chinese and South African approaches to MFL tutoring differ, the technique of analysis of variance was employed to investigate the country-effect on the 12 sets of construct and sub-construct MFL perception scores. To enrich the results, the effect of degree/ non-degree MFL courses and the pass rate of students were also investigated as probable factors that influence perceptions re aspects of MFL. Therefore, three-factor analyses of variance were conducted on the twelve sets of construct scores defined in Table 5.5.

Analysis of variance technique determines whether factors such as *country*; *degree or non-degree Mandarin courses* and *pass rate* affect respondent perceptions on the various MFL perception aspects investigated. However, the technique does not indicate how perceptions are influenced (in other words, the nature of the effect on perceptions). For any specific MFL construct for which it has been identified that *country* or *degree-purpose* or *pass rate* statistically significantly affect perceptions (e.g. the effect of *country* on perceptions regarding *institutional MFL support*), a further statistical test, namely a Bonferroni multiple comparisons of means test, was also conducted on the construct mean scores of a construct to describe in more detail how perceptions per country differ.

Twelve analyses of variance were conducted on the twelve sets of construct and sub-component scores defined in Table 5.5. The results of the models of best fit are summarised in Table 5.6. Bonferroni multiple comparisons of means tests associated with each analysis are also reported in Table 5.6. Each row in Table 5.6 presents the results of a separate analysis of variance and associated Bonferroni results. The sets of construct or sub-components are listed in the first column of the table. The general F statistic and probability associated with the F statistic of the analysis of variance is listed in the second column. F-statistics and probabilities associated with the individual effects of *country*, *degree or non-degree MFL course* and *pass rate* are reported in columns 4-6. The Bonferroni test results include the MFL construct or sub-construct mean

scores calculated according to the categories of factors (*country or degree or pass rate*) identified as statistically significant are reported in the last two columns of Table 5.6.

Table 5.6 Analysis of variance and Bonferroni multiple comparisons of means tests

Separate analyses performed on the twelve sets of MFL construct and sub-construct scores. The effects of country, <i>degree/non-degree MFL courses</i> and <i>pass rate</i> are entered as probable explanatory variable in each model. The least significant difference (LSD) parameter of the Bonferroni test and category mean perception scores are indicated in the last two columns								
Analysis of variance results						Bonferroni LSD (least significant difference) and significant category construct means		
General analysis information			F-probabilities & significance associated with explanatory effects.					
Construct	General F Probability	Error df	Country	Degree/non-degree	Pass rate	Country	Degree/non-degree	Pass rate
Section B of the questionnaire: Institutional support								
Section B: Institutional support to MFL staff	7.86 <0.0001***	45	13.51 <0.0001***	5.04 <0.001***	2.17 0.11	China: 4.00 a SA: 2.40 b	Degree: 4.31 a Non: 3.19 b Both: 4.09 a	-
Section B: Institutional support to MFL students	12.87 <0.001***	45	49.67 <0.001***	4.34 0.02*	6.26 0.001***	China: 3.95 a SA: 1.93 b	Degree: 3.87 a Non: 3.27 b Both: 4.31 a	100%: 3.70 ab 90-99: 4.01 a 80-98: 3.06 b 70-79: 3.50 ab
Section B: Institutional support regarding type of MFL courses	5.13 <0.001***	45	7.65 0.007 **	5.41 0.008 **	4.09 0.01**	China: 3.67 a SA: 2.83 b	Degree: 3.92 a Non: 3.14 b Both: 3.79 a	100%: 3.58 ab 90-99: 3.80 a 80-98: 3.09 ab 70-79: 3.08 b
Section B: Combined	9.00 <0.001***	45	25.43 0.001***	7.02 0.002**	4.85 0.005 **	China: 3.83 a SA: 2.44 b	Degree: 4.00 a Non: 3.18 b Both: 4.01 a	100%: 3.70 ab 90-99: 3.90 a 80-98: 3.13 b 70-79: 3.40 ab

Section C of the questionnaire: Lecturer perceptions of MFL students [#]								
Section C: Opportunities for MFL students	0.31 0.81 ns	48	0.38 0.54	0.28 0.76	-			
Section C: Student's experience of MFL studies: Difficulty level of learning Mandarin	1.22 0.31 ns	48	1.58 0.21	1.04 0.36				
Section C: General attributes of MFL student	5.01 0.004**	48	8.25 0.006**	3.39 0.04*	-	China: 3.90 a SA: 2.95 b	Degree: 4.09 a Non: 3.40 b Both: 3.98 ab	
Section C; Combined	7.41 0.001***	48	9.45 0.003**	6.34 0.004**	-	China: 3.38 a SA: 2.84 b	Degree: 3.55 a Non: 3.06 b Both: 3.38 ab	
Section D of questionnaire: MFL teaching methods and environment								
Section D; MFL classroom environment	2.89 0.05*	48	0.68 0.41	4.00 0.02*	-		Degree: 4.11 ab Non: 3.62 a Both: 4.27 b	
Section D: Language of communications in MFL classroom	2.21 0.09 ns	48	3.10 0.08	1.76 0.18	-			
Section D: MFL teaching methods commonly used	2.20 0.1	48	0.26 0.61	3.17 0.05*	-		Degree: 4.01 ab Non: 3.67 b Both: 4.22 a	
Section D: Combined	0.79 0.51 ns	48	0.01 0.93	1.18 0.32				
Significance legend:					Bonferroni multiple comparison tests: Category means suffixed with different smaller letters differ significantly from one another			
* : Significance on the 5% level of significance								
** : Significance on the 1% level of significance								
*** : Significance on 0.1% level of significance								
Agreement rating scale level for score interpretation: 1 = disagree++; 2: disagree, 3 = undecided; 4 = agree; 5 = agree++								

The deductions derived from the results listed in Table 5.6 are discussed in the ensuing paragraphs 5.3.1.1 to 5.3.1.3. The effects of *country*, *degree* or *non-degree MFL courses* and *pass rate* are entered as probable explanatory variable in the respective discussions.

5.3.1.1 Section B: Institutional support constructs

The biographical properties of *country*; *degree* or *non-degree MFL institutions*; and *pass rate* jointly affected perceptions of lecturers regarding aspects of *institutional support* in MFL and were statistically significant. This deduction is applicable to the general construct of *institutional support* as well as the sub-constructs of *institutional support to students*; *institutional role to staff* (in this instance, pass rate was not statistically significant) and *the type of MFL courses offered at institutions*. The Bonferroni tests indicated how the factors affected perceptions:

- With respect to *country*: Chinese lecturers held statistically significantly more positive perceptions on the institutional support general construct and the sub-constructs than South African respondents did.
- With respect to *degree and non-degree* institutions: respondent perceptions at institutions offering MFL degree programmes were statistically significantly more positive than respondent perceptions at institutions which offered non-degree programmes.
- With respect to *pass rate*: respondent perceptions at institutions which obtained a higher MFL pass rate (90-99%) were statistically significantly more positive than at institutions which obtained a lower pass rate (either 80-89% or 70-79%) for the student support, MFL courses and combined MFL construct (see Table 5.6).

5.3.1.2 Section C: Respondent perceptions of MFL students

The biographical properties of *country* and *degree/ non-degree MFL institutions* jointly affected perceptions of lecturers on *MFL students* statistically significantly. This deduction is applicable to the general construct of *Perceptions of MFL student* as well as the sub-construct of *attributes of MFL students*. The Bonferroni tests indicated how the factors affected perceptions:

- With respect to *country*: Chinese lecturers were statistically significantly more positive than South African lecturers towards MFL students. South African lecturers expressed a neutral view on MFL student attributes and MFL students in general. The sub-constructs of *Opportunities for MFL students*; and *student experience of difficulty*

mastering Mandarin were not statistically significantly affected by *country* and *degree or non-degree MFL institutions*. In these instances the mean perception scores of 3.63 and 3.37 respectively indicated in Table 5.5 provides the best estimate of perceptions regarding *opportunities for MFL students* and *Student experience of MFL studies: difficulty of mastering Mandarin*.

- With respect to degree and non-degree institutions: Perceptions of respondents at MFL degree institutions tended towards ‘agreement’ (score of 4; positive) and respondents at non-degree institutions towards a ‘neutral’ view (score of ‘3’) on all sub-constructs. This suggests generally more positive perceptions of MFL students.

5.3.1.3 Section D: Perceptions on MFL teaching methods and environment

The biographical property of *degree or non-degree MFL institutions* affected the construct of *MFL teaching methods and environment* statistically significantly. The Bonferroni test indicated how the factors affected perceptions:

- Respondents at *institutions offering degree (or a mixture) programmes* were statistically significantly more positive about the MFL classroom environment than those respondents at non-degree institutions.
- The best estimate of perceptions regarding the other aspects of teaching methods (which were not statistically significantly affected by the biographical attributes considered) as listed in Table 5.8 are the mean scores reported as follows: 1.71 for the *language of communication in MFL classroom*; 3.92 for *MFL teaching methods commonly used* and 3.38 for the combined construct of *MFL teaching methods and environment*.

5.4 ADDITIONAL COMMENTS ON SECTIONS B, C AND D OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

5.4.1 Section B: Institutional support (Items Q1-16, agreement scale)

Tables 5.7-5.9 indicate Agreement rating frequencies and associated row percentages for sub-construct of Institutional support: institutional support to MFL staff; institutional support to

MFL students; and institutional support for type of MFL courses. Note this is not a country wise comparison. A summary discussion is given after the tables.

Table 5.7 Institutional support for MFL staff

Items	agreement rating					Total
	disagree++	disagree	Neutral	agree	agree+	
Frequency						
Row Pct					+	
Q1. Stable fund for MFL teaching support	3 5.77	4 7.69	17 32.69	15 28.85	13 25.00	52
Q4. Sufficient staff to teach MFL	4 7.69	5 9.62	6 11.54	18 34.62	19 36.54	52
Q5. Teaching staff adequately qualified	2 3.85	6 11.54	8 15.38	16 30.77	20 38.46	52
Q6. Sufficient admin staff for MFL	6 11.54	2 3.85	9 17.31	21 40.38	14 26.92	52
Q16. Sufficient MFL teaching hours on timetable	4 7.69	0 0.00	7 13.46	18 34.62	23 44.23	52
Total	19 7.31	17 6.54	47 18.08	88 33.84	89 34.23	260

Table 5.8 Institutional support for MFL students

Items						
Frequency						
Row Pct	disagree++	disagree	neutral	agree	agree++	Total
Q2. Market drive, recruit MFL students	3 5.77	3 5.77	16 30.77	19 36.54	11 21.15	52
Q7. Special accommodation MFL students	4 7.69	5 9.62	5 9.62	16 30.77	22 42.31	52
Q8. Canteen, diet MFL students	7 13.46	9 17.31	3 5.77	22 42.31	11 21.15	52
Q9. Special bursaries MFL students	4 7.69	5 9.62	5 9.62	16 30.77	22 42.31	52
Q15. Positive environment re MFL conversational skis	3 5.77	4 7.69	12 23.08	16 30.77	17 32.69	52
Total	21 8.08	26 10.00	41 15.77	89 34.23	83 31.92	260
Frequency Missing = 6						
Probability associated with Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 125.04 is < 0.001 ***						

Table 5.9 Institutional support regarding type of MFL courses

Items						Total
Frequency Row Pct	disagree++	disagree	neutral	agree	agree++	
Q3. MFL Hanban subsidy	9 18.75	9 18.75	14 29.17	10 20.83	6 12.50	48
Q10. MFL, elementary, intermediate, advanced	2 3.85	0 0.00	1 1.92	16 30.77	33 63.46	52
Q11. MFL highly valued	2 3.85	10 19.23	10 19.23	17 32.69	13 25.00	52
Q12. Language lab for MFL students	3 6.00	8 16.00	9 18.00	17 34.00	13 26.00	50
Q13. Large demand MFL teaching	4 7.69	5 9.62	14 26.92	16 30.77	13 25.00	52
Q14. MFL students increasing	3 5.77	8 15.38	18 34.62	18 34.62	5 9.62	52
Total	23 7.52	40 13.07	66 21.57	94 30.72	83 27.12	306
Frequency Missing = 6						
Probability associated with Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 125.04 is < 0.001 ***						

General exploratory findings from the three tables, Tables 5.7-5.9 include the following: The cumulative frequencies (reflected in the totals row, the last row of the tables) for Tables 5.7-5.9 for the categories of *agreement* to *strong agreement* are all greater than 57% of the total frequency for the specific table. This indicates that respondents in general were positive about the three institutional MFL issues. The fact that statistical significance was indicated for the Chi-square tests associated with each table indicates that respondents' agreement pattern for each sub-aspect of each component did not necessarily agree to the same extent. By examining the individual aspects of each component, sub-issues within each component where response patterns were statistically significantly different can be identified. For example in Table 5.9, the MFL courses component regarding the standard of MFL courses presented at institutions at *elementary, intermediate, advanced levels* (Q10) indicates a strongly agree response rate of 63.46 %, which is markedly higher than the corresponding percentage for the other questionnaire items. This indicated that respondents responded to this statement differently from the other statements. The response pattern suggests that respondents were very certain

about this statement (Q10), whereas considerably more uncertainty was expressed on other issues, for example, Q14: *'The number of MFL students at my university is currently growing'*.

In summary, the findings on Section B can be deduced as follows: Respondents generally have a positive attitude to institutional support to MFL lecturers (Table 5.7). They agreed that the university has a good teaching environment, stable funding, adequately qualified teaching staff and sufficient administrative staff. Respondents felt MFL students are supported by adequate accommodation, canteen facilities and bursaries (Table 5.8). Mandarin courses are up to standard levels and are valued by students. The universities have a good environment for MFL students to study and practise after class. (All these items are not included in Table 5.9. For the full picture, the reader should consult Tables B1 in Appendix C).

5.4.2 Section B: Institutional support (Items Q17-19, closed options)

Tables 5.10-5.12 indicate frequencies and row percentages of number of aspect according to a country by country comparison.

Table 5.10 Frequencies and row percentages of number of permanent staff by number of registered MFL students per institution in China and South Africa

Number of permanent staff, China	Number students, China				Tot	Number of permanent staff, SA	Number students, South Africa			
	25	75	225	275			25	75	225, & 275	Tot
3	1 33.33	2 66.67	0 0.00	0 0.00	3	3	2 40.00	3 60.00	0 0.00	5
8	1 50.00	0 0.00	0 0.00	1 50.00	2	8	0 0.00	1 100.00	0 0.00	1
16	1 100.00	0 0.00	0 0.00	0 0.00	1	16	0 0.00	0 0.00	0 0.00	0
36	0 0.00	0 0.00	1 33.33	2 66.67	3	36	0 0.00	0 0.00	0 0.00	0
46	0 0.00	0 0.00	0 0.00	2 100.00	2	46	0 0.00	0 0.00	0 0.00	0
56	0 0.00	0 0.00	1 6.67	14 93.33	15	56	0 0.00	0 0.00	0 0.00	0
Total	3	2	2	19	26	Total	2	4	0	6
Fisher's exact probability associated with Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 35.55 is < 0.002 **										

Table 5.10 shows that Chinese institutions had large MFL student enrolments (approx. 225-275 students) and this warranted a large permanent staff (between 46-56 staff). In South Africa MFL student numbers are small (approx. 25-75) and thus warranted very few permanent appointments (only 2). One permanent lecturer refrained from completing the questionnaire and is thus not represented in the findings). All other lecturers are seconded to South African universities by the *Hanban* and are fixed term or contract staff.

Table 5.11 Frequencies and row percentages of number of fixed term/contract staff by number of MFL registered students per institution in China and South Africa

No fixed term/contract staff	No students, China				Tot	No fixed term/contract staff	No students, South Africa			
	25	75	225	275			25	75	225, & 275	Tot
3	2 50.00	1 25.0 0	0 0.00	1 25.00	4	3	2 40.00	3 60.00	0	5
8	1 12.50	1 12.5 0	0 0.00	6 75.00	8	8	0	0	0	0
Total	3	2	0	7	12	Total	2	3	0	5

Table 5.11 indicates that Chinese institutions with a large MFL student component (i.e. approx. 275 students) appoint on average eight fixed term or contract lecturers. South African institutions with small MFL student numbers (i.e. 25 students) appoint only two fixed term or contract lecturers.

Table 5.12 Frequency and row percentages of ratio of permanent staff to total staff component for various registered MFL student numbers at institutions in China and South Africa

Ratio: full time to total staff	Number of MFL students in China				Total	Ratio: full time to tot staff	Number of MFL students in SA				Total
	25	75	225	275			25	75	225	275	
0.158	0 0.00	1 100.00	0 0.00	0 0.00	1	0.158	0	0	0	0	0
0.333	1 50.00	1 50.00	0 0.00	0 0.00	2	0.333	2 50.00	2 50.00	0	0	4
0.421	0 0.00	0 0.00	0 0.00	1 100.00	1	0.421	0	0	0	0	0
0.5	1 100.00	0 0.00	0 0.00	0 0.00	1	0.5	0	0	0	0	0
0.571	1 100.00	0 0.00	0 0.00	0 0.00	1	0.571	0 0.00	1 100.00	0	0	1
0.742	0 0.00	0 0.00	0 0.00	1 100.00	1	0.742	0	0	0	0	0
0.778	0 0.00	0 0.00	0 0.00	1 100.00	1	0.778	0	0	0	0	0
0.818	0 0.00	0 0.00	0 0.00	2 100.00	2	0.818	0	0	0	0	0
0.852	0 0.00	0 0.00	0 0.00	1 100.00	1	0.852	0	0	0	0	0
0.875	0 0.00	0 0.00	0 0.00	3 100.00	3	0.875	0	0	0	0	0
1	0 0.00	0 0.00	2 16.67	10 83.33	12	1	0 0.00	1 100.00	0	0	1
Total	3	2	2	19	26		2	4	0	0	6
Frequency Missing = 20											

Table 5.12 indicates that in China in cases where the number of MFL students is small (approx. 25-75), the tendency is to appoint fixed term or contract and support staff (the ratio of permanent to total staff is small: 0.16-0.57). If the number of MFL students varies around 225-275, then almost all staff are permanent appointments (the ration of permanent staff to total staff in these instances vary between 0.74 and 1). In South Africa, student numbers vary between approx. 25 and 27 MFL students per institution. Only one South African respondent was permanent (note the other permanent lecturer in South Africa refrained from participating in the survey as already-mentioned). The other five respondents in South Africa are at

universities that rely on fixed term or contract and support appointments (ratio of permanent staff to total staff vary between 0.33 and 0.571 in these instances).

5.4.3 Section C: Respondent perceptions of MFL students (Q1-20, agreement scale rating)

Tables 5.13-5.15 indicate agreement rating frequencies and associated row percentages for statements that evaluate perceptions on: opportunities for MFL students; student experience of difficulty level of learning Mandarin; and general attributes of MFL students.

Table 5.13 Agreement rating frequencies and associated row percentage for statements evaluating perceptions on opportunities for MFL students

Items Frequency Row Pct	Agreement rating					Total
	disagree++	disagree	Neutral	agree	agree++	
Q12. Opportunity for MFL students to travel in or to China	2 3.85	4 7.69	6 11.54	18 34.62	22 42.31	52
Q13. MFL students compete in Chinese competitions	0 0.00	3 5.88	11 21.57	14 27.45	23 45.10	51
Q17. MFL students able to choose related Mandarin subject fields	4 7.84	6 11.76	8 15.69	17 33.33	16 31.37	51
Q18. Additional M study material easily accessible	3 5.77	2 3.85	9 17.31	18 34.62	20 38.46	52
Total	9 4.37	15 7.28	34 16.51	67 32.52	81 39.32	206

Table 5.14 Agreement rating frequencies and associated row percentages on statements evaluating the student experience of difficulty level of learning Mandarin

Items	Agreement rating					Total
	disagree+	disagree	Neutral	agree	agree++	
Frequency	+					
Row Pct						
Q1. MFL students mostly English speakers	12 23.08	16 30.77	8 15.38	12 23.08	4 7.69	52
Q9. MFL students find Mandarin difficult	1 1.92	0 0.00	12 23.08	25 48.08	14 26.92	52
Q10. Chinese characters difficult	2 3.92	5 9.80	19 37.25	18 35.29	7 13.73	51
Q11. Four Mandarin tones difficult to master	2 3.85	4 7.69	10 19.23	25 48.08	11 21.15	52
Q14. MFL, study traditional Chinese characters	21 42.00	13 26.00	9 18.00	4 8.00	3 6.00	50
Q20. Students who excel want to enrol post grad Mandarin studies	1 2.08	7 14.58	16 33.33	17 35.42	7 14.58	48
Total	39 12.79	45 14.76	74 24.26	101 33.11	46 15.08	305

Table 5.15 Agreement rating frequencies and associated row percentages on statements regarding general attributes of MFL students

Items	Agreement rating					Total
	disagree++	disagree	Neutral	agree	agree++	
Frequency						
Row Pct						
Q2. MFL mostly Asian lang. speakers	6 11.54	9 17.31	13 25.00	19 36.54	5 9.62	52
Q4. MFL mostly fulltime students	2 3.85	3 5.77	3 5.77	25 48.08	19 36.54	52
Q15. MFL students comfortable, ask questions	1 1.96	0 0.00	6 11.76	19 37.25	25 49.02	51
Q17. MFL choose Mandarin subject fields	4 7.84	6 11.76	8 15.69	17 33.33	16 31.37	51
Total	13 6.32	18 8.74	30 14.56	80 38.83	65 31.55	206

General exploratory findings from Tables 5.13-5.15 include the following:

The total frequencies (reflected in the totals row, the last row of the tables) for Tables 5.13 and

5.15 for the categories of agreement to strong agreement are all greater than 70% of the total frequencies for the specific table. This indicates that respondents in general were positive about these two perception components on MFL students: opportunities available to MFL students, and general attributes of MFL students.

In contrast, Table 5.14 exhibited more mixed response patterns on the questionnaire items of lecturer perceptions of how difficult MFL students experience Mandarin acquisition. For example, Q14: *Opportunities to study traditional Chinese characters* led to a disagreement tendency (66% disagree responses). Q1: *Most MFL students are English speaking* shows that about 54% respondents disagree that MFL students are mostly English speakers. The reason is linked to the large number of respondents who are teaching in China. In China the language background of MFL students is very varied and most MFL students were Asian language (see Table 6.1) speakers coming from other countries in the region (see Table 5.15, Q2). In South Africa most MFL students were English speakers (see Table 6.2).

The statistical significance indicated for the Chi-square tests associated with each table shows that respondent's agreement patterns for each item did not necessarily agree to the same extent (as illustrated in the previous paragraph for Table 5.14).

In summary, findings on Section C can be deduced as follows: most of the MFL students have the opportunity to travel in China, enter competitions, to choose Mandarin related subject fields and to find additional study materials but they do not have enough opportunity to study traditional Chinese characters. These findings are clearly affected by the large number of Chinese respondents compared to the small number of South African respondents. Most respondents agree that MFL students regard Mandarin as a difficult language and mastery of Chinese characters and tones are very difficult to learn. Respondents agree that most MFL students freely ask questions in the classroom and generally MFL students in China speak other Asian languages. MFL student numbers decrease as the courses become more advanced. (All these items are not included in Table 5.5. For the full picture, the reader should consult Tables C1-C5 in Appendix C).

5.4.4 Section D: Country-wise comparison of respondent perceptions of MFL class and student enrolments

Table 5.16 MFL class attendance by country

Average MFL class attendance	Country		Total
Frequency Col Pct	China	SA	
90-99%	23(52.27)	0(0.00)	23
80-89%	17(38.64)	1(20.00)	18
70-79%	4(9.09)	3(60.00)	7
<59%	0(0.00)	1(20.00)	1
Total	44	5	49
Frequency Missing = 3			
Fisher's exact probability associated with Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 19.98 is < 0.001 ***			

Table 5.16 indicates that respondents indicated that MFL student class attendance in Chinese institutions is statistically significantly better than in South Africa. Chinese respondents perceived that ninety (90%) of MFL students attend at least 80% of their classes, whereas 60% of South African MFL students attend between 70 and 79% of their classes. (This finding should be evaluated against the fact that one South African university is an open distance university as well as the that the South African estimations are made on a very limited sample.)

Table 5.17 Enrolment of MFL students per country

Number of enrolled MFL students Frequency Col Pct	Country		Total
	China	SA	
<50 students	3 11.54	2 33.33	5
51-100 students	2 7.69	4 66.67	6
201-250 students	2 7.69	0 0.00	2
251-300 students	19 73.08	0 0.00	19
Total	26	6	32
Frequency Missing = 20			
Fisher's exact probability associated with Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 15.37 is = 0.001 ***			

Table 5.17 indicates that there are large student enrolments in MFL students in Chinese institutions: 73% of the respondents agree the number of MFL students is between 250 and 300 in their institutions. In South Africa, the number of MFL students is small: 67% of the respondents agree that the number of MFL students is between 51 and 100.

5.4.5 Section D: MFL teaching methods and environment

Table 5.18, 5.19 and 5.20 indicate the agreement rating frequencies and associated row percentages for the statements on MFL classroom environment, language of communication in MFL classroom and MFL teaching methods commonly used.

Table 5.18 Agreement rating frequencies and associated row percentages for the statements on MFL classroom environment

Items Frequency Row Pct	Agreement rating					Total
	disagree++	disagree	neutral	agree	agree++	
Q1. Satisfactory lecturer: student ratio	1 2.00	2 4.00	11 22.00	25 50.00	11 22.00	50
Q4. Teaching is student-centred	1 1.92	0 0.00	6 11.54	26 50.00	19 36.54	52
Q13. Frequent opportunity for student to student communication	1 1.96	0 0.00	6 11.76	22 43.14	22 43.14	51
Q14. Prefer questions after class, interruptions discouraged	12 24.00	12 24.00	14 28.00	9 18.00	3 6.00	50
Q19. Necessary to teach Chinese characters	3 5.88	7 13.73	12 23.53	16 31.37	13 25.49	51
Q23. Expect students to adapt to teaching methods	13 26.00	11 22.00	21 42.00	5 10.00	0 0.00	50
Total	31 10.20	32 10.53	70 23.03	103 33.87	68 22.37	304

Table 5.19 Agreement rating frequencies and associated row percentages for the statements on language of communication in MFL classrooms

Items	Agreement rating					Total
	disagree++	disagree	neutral	agree	agree++	
Frequency						
Row Pct						
Q5. Use only Chinese to teach MFL	2 3.85	3 5.77	8 15.38	22 42.31	17 32.69	52
Q6. Use Chinese and English to teach MFL	11 22.45	15 30.61	11 22.45	9 18.37	3 6.12	49
Q7. Use English mostly to teach MFL	36 72.00	10 20.00	3 6.00	1 2.00	0 0.00	50
Q21. Teach minority languages (dialects) & Mandarin in MFL class	33 64.71	14 27.45	2 3.92	0 0.00	2 3.92	51
Q22. Teach Cantonese and Taiwanese Chinese in MFL class	30 60.00	18 36.00	1 2.00	0 0.00	1 2.00	50
Total	112 44.44	60 23.81	25 9.92	32 12.70	22 9.13	252

Table 5.20 Agreement rating frequencies and associated row percentages for statements on MFL teaching methods commonly used

Items Frequency Row Pct	Agreement rating					Total
	disagree++	disagree	neutral	agree	agree++	
Q3. Memorisation essential to MFL study	1 1.92	0 0.00	9 17.31	30 57.69	12 23.08	52
Q8. Always use same teaching methods	15 30.00	20 40.00	12 24.00	3 6.00	0 0.00	50
Q11. Do not rely only on textbooks	0 0.00	4 8.16	6 12.24	18 36.73	21 42.86	49
Q12. MFL students given opportunity to reproduce material taught	1 1.92	0 0.00	13 25.00	19 36.54	19 36.54	52
Q13. MFL students given opportunity communicate with fellow students	1 1.96	0 0.00	6 11.76	22 43.14	22 43.14	51
Q15. Practise is more important than explanation	0 0.00	1 1.96	13 25.49	29 56.86	8 15.69	51
Q16. Speak, read, write, listen: Goal of MFL	2 3.92	3 5.88	12 23.53	26 50.98	8 15.69	51
Q18. Most time: explain grammar	15 29.41	16 31.37	19 37.25	1 1.96	0 0.00	51
Q20. Use multimedia frequently	4 7.69	5 9.62	12 23.08	21 40.38	10 19.23	52
Total	39 8.50	49 10.67	102 22.22	169 36.82	100 21.79	459

The total frequencies (reflected in the totals row, the last row of the tables) for Tables 5.18 and 5.20 for the categories of *agreement* to *strong agreement* are greater than 56% of the total frequencies for the specific table. This indicates that respondents were generally more positive than negative regarding these two aspects of MFL classroom environment and MFL teaching methods commonly used (although the pattern of frequency responses of the highlighted items differed from the general trend). Table 5.19 exhibited a definite negative general perception (although the pattern of frequency responses of the highlighted item differed from the general trend). Indicating that respondents tended to disagree with the stance stated in the *foreign language issue* statements.

Once again, the fact that statistical significance was indicated for the Chi-square tests

associated with each table, indicates that respondents agreement pattern for each sub-aspect of each component did not necessarily agree (as illustrated in the previous paragraph for table 5.19). By examining the individual aspects of each component it is possible to identify sub-issues within each component where response patterns were statistically significantly different.

Tables 5.18-5.20 show that most respondents are positive about the MFL class environment; the ratio between lecturers and students; and a student-centred focus with ample opportunity for practice and teaching characters. However, respondents prefer questions after class and students adapt teaching methods with mostly negative answers (48% disagree and strongly disagree in both the two items). Most lecturers tend to use Chinese as the medium of instructions and 92% disagree with English only as a medium of instruction (Table 5.19, Q7). Most respondents agree to use traditional lecture methods and see memorisation as useful (80% agree, Table 5.20, Q3). Table 5.20 shows that in general respondents agree that the four language skills are the goal of teaching; practice is more important than explaining; and that teaching is based on textbooks but that they are not the only teaching material. (For the full picture, the reader should consult Table D1 in Appendix C.)

5.5 SECTION E: THE MFL CURRICULUM

The country-wise comparison of curriculum attributes probed in section E is presented in this section. The frequency pattern trend over the levels of the various variables was evaluated against a Cochran-Armitage trend test in each instance to determine whether the two countries exhibit similar or different response patterns. The results of the 12 comparison tables are summarised and deductions indicated in the summary Table 5.21 with reference to the results for section E: only Questions 2-9; 11; 13-14; and 16. In Table 5.21 column one refers to the number of questions; Column 2 indicates the statistical significance of dependency per country; column 3 presents the statistical signification variable level trend between countries; and column 4 provides the interpretation thereof. The observation NS stands for ‘No Statistical Significance.’

Other more detailed information about Section E is contained in the Appendix C (Tables E1-E8) to conserve space. The results of the multiple choice questions in this section (Tables E9, E10 and E11) are available in Appendix C, Section E. These tables present the composite

frequency of responses for both respondents from both countries combined. In summary, Table E9 deals with the lecturer's preference for homework topics. The most preferred topic for homework was comprehension (33.8%), followed by a combination of language exercises (32.4%). Table E10 deals with other teaching aids besides textbooks. The most common supplementary teaching aid was magazine articles (20.7%). Table E11 deals with the main aim of MFL teaching according to the respondents. Almost half of the respondents (46.8%) agreed that the improvement of practical Mandarin skills was the main aim.

Table 5.21 Summary of country-wise comparison of frequency distribution differences on MFL curriculum, section E: Questions 2-9; 11; 13-14; and 16

Question	Statistical sign. of dependency with country?	Statistical sign. Variable-level trend between countries	Interpretation
Q2.Number courses taught	NS	NS	In both countries most respondents teach 2-3 MFL courses
Q3.Average weekly teaching hours	NS	NS	In both countries most respondents teach 11-20 hours per week
Q4.Average preparation time	NS	NS	In both countries most respondents spend on average between 11 and 20 hours preparing MFL lessons
Q5.Typical lesson timetabling	***	***	Statistically significant difference between countries in the typical MFL lesson timetabling: in China lessons presented mostly in the mornings and in SA lessons at any time in the day
Q6.Additional tutoring time per week	*	**	Statistically significant difference between countries in the additional tutoring time offered outside of formal tuition: in South Africa lecturers spend more time per week in additional tutoring than Chinese lecturers
Q7.Workload of MFL lecturers	NS	NS	In both countries respondent workload is ample or too much work
Q8.Most important element for student success	NS	*	Statistically significant difference between countries in what is regarded as the most important success element: in China it is the language environment; in SA, the number of hours students devote to study
Q9.Homework routine	**	**	Statistically significant difference between countries in homework given: Chinese lecturers give homework more regularly than SA lecturers.

Q11.Suitability of textbook	NS	NS	In both countries respondents indicate textbooks require some modification.
Q13.Frequency of textbook revision	NS	*	Statistically significant difference between countries in frequency of textbook revision: in China textbooks are revised much more regularly than in SA
Q14.Lecturer input on design of study material	NS	NS	In both countries lecturers have to accept pre-compiled study material.
Q16.MFL pass rate	NS	NS	Although the data seem to suggest that Chinese pass rate is higher than South African pass rate, no difference in pass rate pattern between the two countries was indicated.
Significance legend: NS: no significance * : statistical significance on the 5% level of significance ** : statistical significance on the 1% level of significance ***: statistical significance on the 0.1% level of significance			

Table 5.21 indicates that there is no statistical difference regarding the MFL curriculum in the two countries with reference to: the number of courses taught per lecture; the number of teaching hours per week; the average preparation time required for effective MFL instruction; the workload of MFL lecturers; the need for modification of textbooks; the use of pre-compiled study material; or and the pass rate. In other words, it can be deduced that the everyday duties of delivering the MFL curriculum are very similar for lecturers in both countries.

However, Table 5.21 indicated statistically significant differences on the following aspects: typical lesson timetabling; time given to formal tutoring outside of classroom tuition per week; the most important element for student success; homework; and the frequency of textbook revision. These are important differences and are further explored in Tables 5.22- 5.26.

Table 5.22 Country-wise frequency distribution comparison on typical lesson timetabling

Typical MFL teaching timetabling	Country		Total
Frequency Col Pct	China	SA	
Mornings	40 86.96	1 16.67	41
Afternoon	1 2.17	0 0.00	1
At any time in entire day	5 10.87	5 83.33	10
Total	46	6	52
Fisher's exact probability associated with the Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 17.95 is < 0.001 ***			
Probability associated with the Cochran-Armitage trend test statistic of -4.16 is <0.001 ***			

Table 5.22 indicates that in the Chinese institutions represented, MFL lessons were presented mostly in the mornings (86.96%) and in the South African institutions at any time in the day (83.33%). A possible explanation is that Mandarin is the main subject and Mandarin learning is the most important goal for MFL students in China. Consequently most of the MFL lessons are presented in the morning. In South Africa, Mandarin is one of the normal elective subjects for MFL students so it can be presented at any time.

Table 5.23 Country-wise frequency distribution comparison of hours' additional tutoring time per week

Additional tuition time per week	Country		Total
Frequency Col Pct	China	SA	
None	32 69.57	1 16.67	33
1-3 hours	10 21.74	3 50.00	13
4-6 hours	4 8.70	2 33.33	6
Total	46	6	52
Fisher's exact probability associated with the Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 6.82 is 0.03 *			
Probability associated with the Cochran-Armitage trend test statistic of -2.58 is 0.005 **			

Table 5.23 indicates that in South African institutions lecturers spend more time per week in additional tutoring outside of formal classroom time (50% respondents have been given 1-3

hours). Chinese lecturer respondents indicated far less time devoted to additional tutoring outside of the formal classroom time. Seventy percent (69.57%) indicated no time at all for this task. A possible explanation is that China is a L2 dominant language environment so MFL students have enough opportunity to practice Mandarin after class but South Africa is L1 dominant environment so MFL students do not have much opportunity to practice after class and they need lecturers' assistance.

Table 5.24 Country-wise frequency distribution comparison for student success

Most important element	Country		Total
	Frequency	Col Pct	
MFL language environment	37 80.43	3 50.00	40
Devoted MFL study hours	6 13.04	2 33.33	8
Class attendance	2 4.35	0 0.00	2
Individual ability	1 2.17	1 16.67	2
Total	46	6	52
Fisher's exact probability associated with the Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 5.22 is 0.17 ns			
Probability associated with the Cochran-Armitage trend test statistic of -1.87 is 0.03*			

Table 5.24 indicates that most Chinese respondents (80%) felt that the most important element to succeed in MFL study was the immersion language environment. Although half of South African participants agreed with the importance of a Mandarin-rich environment, a significant percentage (33%) also indicated the hours devoted to study by students was very important. A possible explanation is that China is a fully immersion language environment and so has the advantage of language environment over that of South Africa.

Table 5.25 Country-wise frequency comparison of homework routine

Homework routine Frequency Col Pct	Country		Total
	China	SA	
Every lesson	12 26.09	0 0.00	12
Every 2nd lesson	24 52.17	1 20.00	25
Every 3rd lesson	4 8.70	0 0.00	4
Weekly	4 8.70	4 80.00	8
Alternate weeks	2 4.35	0 0.00	2
Total	46	5	51
Frequency Missing = 1 Fisher's exact probability associated with the Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 17.53 is 0.002 ** Probability associated with the Cochran-Armitage trend test statistic of -2.83 is 0.002 **			

Table 5.25 indicates that Chinese lecturers give homework more regularly than SA lecturers: 52.17% of Chinese lecturers indicated that they gave homework every second lesson. In contrast, most South African (80%) respondents give homework weekly. A possible explanation is that MFL students are full time students of Mandarin in China so they should do more work in Mandarin. However, Mandarin lesson is an elective subject in South Africa so their Mandarin lectures weight lightly compared to other subjects of the students for doing homework. Another important reason could be that lecturers in China are stricter on students and place a heavier burden on them than those in South Africa; this is because of culture factors and the educational policy.

Table 5.26: Country-wise frequency distribution comparison of frequency of textbook revision

Textbook revision Frequency Col Pct	Country		Total
	China	SA	
Annually	34 89.47	3 50.00	37
Every 2nd year	1 2.63	1 16.67	2
Every 3-5th year	1 2.63	1 16.67	2
> 5yrs	2 5.26	1 16.67	3
Total	38	6	44
Frequency Missing = 8			
Fisher's exact probability associated with the Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 6.44 is 0.09, ns Probability associated with the Cochran-Armitage trend test statistic of -2.04 is 0.02*.			

Table 5.26 indicates that Chinese respondents observed that textbooks are revised much more regularly than in SA: 89% of Chinese respondents indicated an annual revision of textbooks. However, half of South African respondents (50%) had observed the annual revision of textbooks. A possible explanation is that MFL teaching is very important in China so the lecturers are greatly concerned about the textbooks they use. MFL is not a very common elective course in South Africa and the textbooks used for MFL copy China's generally. Therefore, they do not change often.

5.6 SECTION G: MANDARIN STUDY AS A POSTGRADUATE DEGREE COURSE IN CHINA

Section G of the questionnaire evaluated respondents' perceptions on Mandarin as a major in Chinese postgraduate degree studies. Therefore, only responses from institutions that present Mandarin for postgraduate degree purposes were included (this excluded TUST in China and Unisa, UCT and RU in South Africa). In South Africa only one response was possible (SU). Tests could not be conducted on data that was so sparsely populated with respect to the South African sample, therefore only frequency distributions are reported. Eight questions appeared in this section. Based on the frequency tables (see Appendix C: Section G, Tables G1-G8), the

following summary of the most salient points can be made. The tables have been omitted here in order to conserve space.

The reasons for choosing Mandarin as a major are job prospects (42.5%) and popular interests (35%) (see Table G1). Forty-one percent (41.2%) (percentage number of text expression is rounded off, and same below) of the respondents consider that the Mandarin language courses for degree purposes are more difficult than the courses for MFL (see Table G2). Eighty percent (80%) of the respondents feel that 90-99% of students in these courses will graduate successfully (see Table G3). Sixty-one percent (61.1%) of respondents attribute insufficient study as the main reason for their failure to graduate in postgraduate Mandarin. Most of the respondents (71.4%) feel that 10% of students will apply for a further degree (see Table G5). More than half (55.6%) of the respondents consider Mandarin in the postgraduate degree courses as difficult but possible and 33% of respondents considered the degree of difficulty as the same as in other similar postgraduate courses (see Table G6). Forty-two percent (41.9%) of respondents felt that “Finding a good job” as the most important benefit for studying Mandarin at a postgraduate level and 27.9% considered earning a higher salary as the most important benefit for studying Mandarin at postgraduate level (see Table G7). Half of the respondents (50%) felt that the demand for Mandarin as a postgraduate degree major was moderate (see Table G8).

5.7 SUMMARY

This chapter has presented the differences and similarities of MFL between China and South Africa as gathered through the survey. The findings of Phase Two are presented in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER SIX
FINDINGS OF PHASE TWO: STUDENT EXPERIENCES OF MFL LEARNING AND
TEACHING IN CHINA AND SOUTH AFRICA

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter six presents the findings of Phase Two of the study gathered by semi-structured interviews conducted with students enrolled at the selected universities in China and South Africa that offered MFL. The focus of this phase was on student experiences of MFL learning and teaching described from their own point of view. The sample included 19 participants hailing from 12 different countries who were studying MFL at the selected Chinese universities and 14 participants drawn from the South African universities (excluding RU) (see 4.3.2). The rationale for the use of interviews as a data source is that they provide access to aspects of participant experience that cannot be directly observed, such as feelings, thoughts, intentions, perception, or beliefs. Interviews allow the researcher to obtain a special kind of information; knowledge of what is in and on someone else’s mind (Ohata 2005:140; see 4.2.1.1). The findings are presented according to two broad themes: the differences and the similarities in student experiences of MFL teaching and learning. These two themes are further discussed according to sub-categories per theme. The findings are substantiated by rich data in the form of verbatim quotations from the student interviews.

6.2 BIOGRAPHICAL PROFILE OF PARTICIPANTS PER COUNTRY

Table 6.1 provides a biographical profile of participants studying MFL at selected Chinese universities.

Table 6.1 Students studying MFL at selected Chinese universities

Name	Gender	Current status	Institution	Home language	Country of origin	Length of language study	Type of programme
Greta	F	Elementary class in BLCU; previous qualification school leaving certificate in Sweden.	BLCU	Swedish	Sweden	9 months (09/2011-06/2012)	Non-degree

Meihua	F	Elementary class in BLCU: previously employed in travel agency in Thailand.	BLCU	Thai	Thailand	6 months in Thailand and 6 months at BLCU	Non-degree
Fatima	F	3 rd year student at university in Turkey (Chinese major)	BLCU	Turkish	Turkey	3 years in Turkey; 6 months in Beijing	Non-degree
Lisa	F	4 th year student at university in Italy	BLCU	Italian	Italy	4 years in Italy; 6 months in Beijing	Non-degree
Mingyue	M	3 rd year student at BLCU for B degree	BLCU	Thai	Thailand	3 years in high school in Thailand; 3 years in Beijing	B degree
Jin	M	2 nd year student in BLCU for B degree	BLCU	Korean	South Korea	One month self-study in South Korea; 3 years in Beijing	B degree
Maria	F	3 rd year student at BLCU for B degree	BLCU	Spanish	Spain	3 years at BLUC; no previous background	B degree
Huilin	F	2 nd year student for B degree	BLCU	Thai	Thailand	High school; 2 years in Beijing	B degree
Anna	M	Intermediate level class; previous qualification school leaving certificate in Russia	TUST	Russian	Russia	10 months (08/2011-06/2012)	Non-degree
Huizi	F	3 rd year student at university in Thailand in tourism	TUST	Thai	Thailand	2 years in Thailand (2hrs per week). 5 months in TUST	Non-degree
Luohao	M	Intermediate level class; previous qualification is school leaving certificate in Indonesia.	TUST	Indonesia	Indonesia	6 months in Xiamen University; 6 months in TUST completed in 2012.	Non-degree
Ajiao	F	3 rd year student of college in Indonesia (Chinese as major); in high level class at TUST	TUST	Indonesia	Indonesia	2 years in Indonesia (4hrs per week). 3 months in TUST	Non-degree
Ahua	F	Job relates to English and Chinese; in high level class in TUST	TUST	Indonesia	Indonesia	One and a half years in Indonesia (one hr per week); 9 months in TUST	Non-degree

Joe	M	Holds BA (Chinese and linguistics) in US; advanced level class in NU.	NU	English	US	4 yr BA degree in US; 8 months in NU	Non-degree In NU
Tatiana	F	3 rd year student in Chinese economy in Russia; in advanced level class in NU.	NU	Russian	Russia	3 yr in university; 10 months in NU.	Non-degree In NU
Shana	F	BA (Chinese and linguistics) in Israel. 2 nd year student MA (Chinese) in Israel; advanced level class in NU.	NU	Hebrew	Israel	3 yr B degree and one year for MA in Israel. 8 months in NU for practice.	Non-degree In NU
Yilang	M	4 th year student in NU for Bachelor degree in Chinese	NU	Japanese	Japan	2 years in college in Tianjin; 4yrs in NU	B degree
Amei	F	Holds BA (Chinese major); 5years work experience in Vietnam; Currently enrolled for MA (Chinese language education) at NU	NU	Vietnam	Vietnam	4yr for B degree in Chinese in Vietnam; 2yrs in NU for M degree	M degree
Andong	M	Holds BA (Chinese a major) in Guangzhou; currently enrolled for MA (Chinese language education)at NU	NU	Indonesia	Indonesia	Chinese study in high school; one year study in university in Indonesia; 4 years in Guangzhou, 2 years in NU.	M degree

Table 6.1 indicates that in total 19 MFL students were participants in China. They come from 12 different countries: Sweden, Thailand, Turkey, Italy, South Korea, Spain, Russia, Israel Indonesia, US, Japan and Vietnam. The majority of MFL students are females (12) in comparison with 7 male students. Six MFL students come from European countries and 11 from the East and South East Asian region. One comes from the US and 1 from Israel. Most (12) were studying MFL for non-degree purposes; 5 for the bachelor degree and 2 for the Master's degree. Fourteen participants have had at least 6 months' MFL study experience in her/his own country and 5 students were beginners. Three participants attended different institutions in China.

Note: The bachelor degree in China is for four years' study; there is no honours degree in China.

Table 6.2 Students studying MFL at three South African universities

Name	Gender	Current status	Institution	Home language	Country of origin	Length of language study	Type of programme
Linda	F	1 st year	SU	Afrikaans	South Africa	6 months	Non-degree
Marry	F	1 st year	SU	Afrikaans	South Africa	6 months	Non-degree
John	M	2 nd year	SU	English	South Africa	2 yrs	Non-degree
Phumi	F	1 st year (non-degree). Holds diploma in foreign languages and psychology	SU	English	South Africa	Taught English in Taiwan for few years, returned to SA to study Mandarin. One year full-time study.	Non-degree
Pease	F	2 nd year	SU	English	South Africa	3 yrs (1 year in high school; 2 yrs university)	B degree
Tony	M	3 rd year	SU	English & Afrikaans	South Africa	3.5 years (Beijing for 6 months to study Mandarin; 3 yrs in SU)	B degree
Jill	F	1 st year MSc	UCT	English	South Africa	8 months; will sit for HSK level two	Non-degree
Catherine	F	1 st year	UCT	English	South Africa	8 months	Non-degree
Nosi	F	1 st year	UCT	Xhosa	South Africa	8 months	Non-degree
Rosana	F	2 nd year	UCT	English	South Africa	Approx. 2 yrs	Non-degree
Joy	F	2 nd year	UCT	Hungarian & English	South Africa	Approx. 2 yrs	Non-degree
Annie	F	2 nd year (part time)	Unisa	Afrikaans	South Africa	2 yrs (university)	Non-degree
Peter	M	Currently private tuition	Unisa	English	South Africa	+10 yrs (2.5 years at Unisa; 8 yrs in part-time Chinese school)	Non-degree
David	M	3 rd year	Unisa	Afrikaans	South Africa	3 yrs (in China for 12 months as an English teacher)	Non-degree

Table 6.2 indicates that in total, 14 MFL students were participants in South Africa and they are all South African citizens. The majority of MFL students are female (10) in comparison with 4

males. Two MFL students were enrolled for a bachelor degree (in which Mandarin was an elective subject) and no participants were enrolled for an honours or Master's degree (these are not presented on this level in SA). Three MFL students have had at least 6 month's experience of study in China in the past.

6.3 DIFFERENCES IN STUDENT EXPERIENCES OF MFL TEACHING AND LEARNING

Differences in student experiences in MFL teaching and learning are discussed according to 6 sub-categories: Class scheduling and tutor support, Linguistic environment, Medium of instruction, Social communication outside MFL classes, Participants' conversational proficiency, and Stability of enrolments.

6.3.1 Class scheduling and tutor support

All participants studying MFL in China attended about 20-24 formal hours of MFL tuition per week. Classes were held in the mornings from Monday to Friday. All participants were full-time students devoted to MFL as their main subject in China. The MFL courses were presented according to four basic components which match the four language skills: listening, speaking, reading and composition. Each of these was presented in different classes (or parts of classes). In addition, a comprehensive class was presented. It is in this class that grammar is taught and the class is usually presented by a senior (best qualified and experienced) lecturer. This teaching model commenced in the 1980s at BLCU and is characterised by the separate classes dedicated to the four language skills respectively. The model has been followed by most other institutions (Lu & Zhao 2011:125-126).

Turkish student Fatima was a 3rd year student in her home country. Turkish and Mandarin were her majors and she had attended BLCU for a semester at the time of the interview. She commented: *“I have noticed something. Some new words appear in comprehensive course; these words are also arranged in the spoken course and the listening course but in different order. If I forget them, I can pick it up in other lessons. It is very good way, I think.”* This reinforcement of new vocabulary through repetition in different parts of the MFL course is a common teaching strategy used in MFL in China and was also confirmed by my experience as

lecturer of MFL in China (see 1.4). The listening, speaking, reading and composition classes all form part of an intensive study programme for MFL students.

In contrast, this model of teaching for MFL is not used in South Africa. In South Africa, all four universities offer MFL only as elective courses which means that students choose and study Mandarin as one of several subjects. Thus, the dedicated focus on MFL is lacking. Tuition time ranges between 3 and 5 hours per week plus 1 or 2 hours of practice. Classes are not scheduled strictly in the mornings; they can be scheduled as late as 16:00-17:00h in the afternoon which may mean that students are tired and less able to engage in strenuous foreign language study. SU has 3 hours of class time and 2 hours of practical classes per week. UCT has 5 hours of class time class and 2 hours of practical class per week. RU has 3 lectures, 1 tutorial and 1 practical session per week. Unisa is a distance teaching institution and so class hours are not applicable. South African students enrolled at UCT (Jill, Catherine and Nosi) had visited China for a summer camp for two and half weeks and they shared similar sentiments about the course structure at the home institution and at the summer camp. Catherine, a 1st year MFL student at UCT based her comparison of her experience on the summer camp. She explained: *“The main difference between the two country’s Mandarin courses for me is that we had listening, speaking and reading courses in China. We were very nervous at first. This is main difference.”*

However, hours allocated to MFL classes in South Africa are very similar to the allocation of class time for MFL at other institutions in countries outside of China. Participants interviewed in China who had studied MFL in their own countries before studying abroad in China confirmed this as follows:

“I had six hours MFL per week in Italy.”

“The Chinese class in Turkey also is good but the class times are very few.”

“I had four hours per week MFL in Indonesia.”

“We go to MFL classes five days per week in America. We had seven hours per week class in total in America.”

“My MFL class hours in Israel were six to eight hours per week.”

“I had five lessons per week in Russia. One and half an hour is for each lesson.”

Students who were studying MFL for degree purposes in their home institutions in countries

outside of China had + 10 hours of class time per week but this time allocation is far less than the 20 hours per week of MFL tuition in China.

In South Africa, courses are comprehensive or integrated and separate classes are not offered to develop oral, listening, reading and composition skills, the four main language skills. This experience echoes MFL practice in other countries as corroborated by participants currently studying in China. Illustrative comments on their reflections of MFL tuition received in their home countries follow:

“Most of the courses are comprehensive; we had oral courses but it was very few in Turkey.”

“I had only one Chinese course called a Chinese lesson in my country (Thailand) which is as same as comprehensive here (in China).”

“We did not have a composition course in Russia.”

“I did not have oral course in America, I did not know the difference between spoken language and formal language in America.”

“We did not have many language courses in Israel. We only had reading course and speaking, listening course. We did not have a composition course.”

Thus, the curriculum for MFL in China is very different from that of MFL provided in students' home countries including South Africa. Chinese institutions provide for the full-time or dedicated study of MFL with 20-24 hours of class time in the morning period per week; South Africa (and also institutions in other countries as described by the study-abroad participants) offer MFL as an elective course with 5-7 hours of tuition, often during the afternoon. Therefore, learning MFL in China is much more intense and rigorous. The four-skill curriculum in China also has an advantage over the single comprehensive curriculum followed in South Africa (and other countries). In particular, Chinese tones are unique among the languages and differ especially from European languages, including English. Therefore, speaking and listening requires special training and practice to learn the pronunciation and exercise the muscles of the mouth in new ways. Intensive study of Chinese characters is required for the improvement of reading and writing. From this perspective, China focuses on the communicative language teaching approach to develop communicative competence. In addition to the core curriculum, many Chinese language programmes at universities and

colleges have also designed various kinds of extra-curricular activities to strengthen the skills acquired in regular classroom settings.

In terms of tutor assistance, BLCU and TUST organise a social function at the beginning of every semester for MFL students and local Chinese students. The aim is to build relationships and connect foreign students with local students who can act as language tutors. Participants studying in China referred to the benefits of the tutor system. Mingyue is a 3rd year student from Thailand studying MFL for degree purposes at BLCU. He explained: “*My University [BLCU] has organised language partners for us. Some Chinese students want to study and practise Thai so we became friends.*” This system of language partners gave him the opportunity to use Mandarin outside of class in a social context. Indonesian students, Ajiao, Ahua and Luohao, confirmed this arrangement at TUST. Ajiao described the tutor relationship: “*We have a tutor. The time is not the same every day, it depends. We do not need to pay; the university helps us to study with tutors after class. At least one hour per day.*” Luohao had a similar experience at TUST: “*I have two tutors. I do not need to pay because the university organises it.*” Other participants studying in China did not mention a peer tutor assigned by the university, however, to find a suitable tutor in the community was not difficult. “*I can find Chinese friends easily to chat with on our campus and help me with homework,*” Swedish student Greta commented. A Russian girl, Anna, related: “*I have Chinese friends and I like talking with them. They help me a lot. They told me where I can buy clothes and where I can buy food.*” Thus, tutoring within the Chinese context is not limited to formal university arrangements but includes the dimension of friendship. The tutors, whether formal or informal, are Chinese nationals proficient in the language who are positively inclined to chat with their new foreign friends and share their lives within both the social and university contexts.

Each institution teaching MFL in South Africa besides Unisa has at least one tutor to assist or supervise students’ practice of Chinese in addition to the lecturer. However, in the South African case, the tutor is also a lecturer or a volunteer, not a fellow student as in China. Another key difference is that tutoring takes place during a formal tutorial class held for one to two hours per week for all MFL students. For instance, SU has a Chinese tutorial for two hours on Tuesdays and Thursdays. UCT and RU present a one hour tutorial class with a lecturer or volunteer in charge each week; it focuses specifically on conversations. Students in South Africa may be unable to make the tutorial time due to other academic commitments and then

find it very difficult to identify a Chinese friend who can help them. Jill at UCT mentioned: “*It is difficult to find someone who can speak Mandarin. No Chinese friends.*” Her classmate shared her frustration: “*It is quite difficult to find someone who can practise with us in Chinese. It is very hard.*” Even those students with Chinese-speaking friends find it challenging to practise Mandarin in South Africa. Joy, a 1st year MFL student at UCT commented:

I do struggle. I do have few Chinese friends and Taiwanese [born] friends but most of them do not really speak Chinese or Taiwanese [proficiently]. If I speak Chinese, they will say, “Why do you speak this? You can speak English.”

Tutoring time is thus shorter, limited to a formal class and the time is shared by several students in South Africa unlike in China where students have a one-on-one relationship with tutors and this relationship is not limited to a formal class.

6.3.2 General linguistic environment

All participants studying MFL in China enjoyed a natural language environment within the Chinese community. Not only did they acquire Mandarin but were also introduced to Chinese culture: lifestyle, pastimes, food and customs. This was picked up informally during their day-to-day lives and did not rely on textbook information. All MFL students acquired basic interpersonal communication proficiency (BICS) (Cummins 2012) naturally after class hours. Thai student, Meihua, had already had six months of MFL study in her home country and approximately six months of study at BLCU for non-degree purposes. She related: “*I hear the Chinese language and can see the characters everywhere.*” Swedish student, Greta compared her study of MFL in China and her previous experience of MFL tuition in Sweden: “*We get to know the Chinese national customs in Beijing, but we only studied the characters in Sweden.*” Turkish student, Fatima concluded:

“I am not only studying the Chinese language but also the culture. The people [serving in the canteen] always ask us, ‘今天你想吃什么?’ [translated: ‘What do you want to eat today?’ and using the canteen assistant’s intonation]. It is very interesting. I have been able to get to know the names of dishes while using the canteen.” Lisa, an Italian girl who had studied Mandarin for four years in Italy and for four months in Beijing, narrated, “*I have learned a lot outside the*

classroom. I had problems with my computer and my camera so I went to a place to repair them. I practised my Chinese with the people working in that place.” A South Korean boy, Jin expressed his delight in life in Beijing:

The culture is different. It is very hot in the summer so I noticed some men are shirt-less which we do not do in Korea. I was interested in this. I also feel the Chinese are very interested in foreigners, but Koreans generally are not interested in foreigners. I have tasted China’s rich culture here and it is not from my books but from real lives. I went to Jiangsu province which is the hometown of my friend last year. I was there for four days. It was festival time and I ate very strange food and attended a wedding. It was very interesting. I tasted very delicious food for free and took many photos. There were many beautiful girls!

Japanese student, Yilang, had lived in Tianjin for six years and was finishing his four years’ B degree at NU at the time of the interview:

All Japanese feel the same. We speak Japanese quietly. Chinese people speak Chinese loudly so we thought they were quarrelling with each other in the beginning! But they were not. I have learned the sense of the language outside the university. For example, we bargain for the prices [when shopping]. Here we learn the language from real life.

Joe, an American student commenced Mandarin studies in 2007 in his home country. Chinese and linguistics were his majors at his American institution. In 2010 he visited BLCU for summer courses as part of a government project. At the time of the interview, he had attended NU to improve his Mandarin skills for about a year.

He told me his story:

An unforgettable experience did not take place in Tianjin. During spring festival my friend took me to his hometown in Guizhou province. His home was in a village and that was the first time I experienced village life in China. I saw

some people who are not educated and I grasped something of real life in China. I was touched by the local customs. I could never learn this from a textbook.

During data collection I attended a MFL class on the last day of the first semester at NU: a period allocated for students' speeches. I was surprised at the insights shown by the American student Joe who demonstrated his familiarity with intimate aspects of Chinese life, for example, women's control of family income, issues concerning the one-child policy, the importance of eating in Chinese life, the custom of saving money and elderly folk's fondness for dancing in public areas. Certainly he could never have learned about these aspects of Chinese life and customs from a textbook. Similarly, a South African student from Unisa, David who had spent a year in China as an English teacher reported: "*Chinese people speak loudly. They just say '服务员' [a colloquialism meaning waiter or waitress] in the restaurant.*" His intonation was typical of a native Chinese-speaker yet this intonation is not taught in the formal classroom. The formal phrase in textbooks reads: *你好! 我要吃...* [Hello, may I have...]; however, this polite form is not frequently used in real life. These experiences are typical of the dominant L2 setting in China (see Table 2.3) in which the L2 is the native language of the majority of the population and is used in all domains in everyday life (Ellis 1994:13). MFL participants were expected to acquire the dominant language, either inside or outside the classroom, in order to take part in mainstream society (Siegel 2007:141).

Furthermore, the logistical arrangements for MFL classroom tuition in China at all selected universities were well-organised and stable. MFL students are taught in a specific classroom which is used only by MFL students and many classrooms are decorated to promote language learning. For example, on my visit to a 'high' level MFL class at NU (21 June 2012), a brightly coloured notice on the classroom wall read :*请说普通话 ,不要说母语 !* Translated this means: *Please speak Mandarin; not your mother tongue!* Other notices encouraged students: "*美文欣赏*" [Enjoy the beautiful article!] and "*我喜欢这些电影*" [I like these movies]. The Chinese characters reinforced the students' learning and encouraged student discourse on specific topics. In this way, the classroom environment was designed to be part of a natural language environment for MFL students. In addition, the enrolment of students does not fluctuate and a

class representative is appointed to facilitate contact among students and between students and lecturers. Clearly, participants had an optimal opportunity to learn in China (Cooper 1990:159). The classroom environment described here is typical of the ‘natural approach’ in which teachers create situations in the classroom that are intrinsically motivating for students (Richards & Rodgers 2001:178). In China, the ‘natural approach’ is embedded in society, irrespective of the approach used in the classroom. Living in China is like living in an immense language laboratory: MFL students acquire communicative skills, develop contextual understanding and increase vocabulary. This is a huge benefit and adds to enjoyment of language learning.

In contrast, the experience of many MFL students in South Africa is a lonely one. The interviews indicated that although students spend more time in intense study of formal course material, they feel isolated. Firstly, this sense of loneliness is felt in the classroom where the relationship among the MFL students is not close. As the students are involved in different study programmes and different subjects, they only gather for Mandarin classes and do not know each other well. Linda and Lisa are in the 1st year Mandarin class at SU yet they were unsure of the class numbers and uncertain of how many students regularly attend the class. Tony is a 3rd year student at SU and his best friend is also in his MFL class: *“We are very good friends but I don’t really know many other people in the class.”* Unisa students participating in the study do not know each other as tuition is by distance education. Annie who has been studying MFL for two years at Unisa is intensely interested in her course. Her enjoyment of her studies is also evident. However, she said: *“I do not know other students. I only see them during the exam sessions. There were two rows of desks for Mandarin students and I have never had contact with the others.”* Thus, the journey towards MFL proficiency is an isolated one. In South Africa it is very difficult for MFL students to find someone who can converse in Mandarin with them after class. Pease, who has studied Mandarin for two years at SU said:

For me, many South Africans do not know China well. If I tell my friend that I am studying Chinese, they ask, ‘What is Chinese?’ They feel there is only one country in the East. They do not distinguish between China, Taiwan and Hong Kong. It is difficult. It’s like I am studying alone. But I have American friends who study Chinese in America. There are many people studying Chinese in

America. They all have a warm heart for China. This helps them improve their Chinese skills as they are not alone.

Tony, a 3rd year student at SU, said: “*I come from Cape Town. For me the greatest difficulty is that we do not have so many places to study Chinese. We only have the University of Cape Town and the University of Stellenbosch.*” Attendance of a summer camp in China for two and half weeks in China financed by the *Confucius Institute* made South African students at UCT and SU even more aware of the loneliness of their language learning experience back home. UCT student Nosi compared the learning experiences in Chinese and South African contexts. She said:

The main reason is that we are in South Africa instead of China. We don't see a lot of Chinese in South Africa. You have to seek it out. So there isn't an environment of learning Chinese. It is much easier in China because you are surrounded by Chinese. It is unlike South Africa - we are like a 'foreign country.' It is very difficult to learn for Chinese are not around you everywhere. We are only exposed to Chinese in the class and not outside of the class.

Phumi commented on this experience:

Xiamen's [the name of the university visited in China] environment is better than here. We can always speak in Chinese. The big difference is we only study Chinese and do not have other subjects. I was a full-time Chinese language student in Xiamen. Chinese is our elective course in Stellenbosch. My Chinese was improved a lot in Xiamen because I studied every day. I am improving slowly here because I have other subjects.

Peter has been studying MFL for more than ten years in South Africa and he has worked diligently at his Mandarin studies. His feelings of loneliness were more intense than that of the other students. He said:

This is what makes me so sad. This eventually made my learning very slow. The journey is very lonely in South Africa. It is very, very lonely! I mean when I took Mandarin at Unisa, I remember going for the exams at the big hall at the show grounds where we write. There were maybe five or six people writing Mandarin with me. But on the second year level, when I wrote MAN-201 or 202, in a hall of 3000 students, they're writing maths, accounting and all sorts of other things. I was the only student writing MAN-202. I started the Mandarin because of the challenge. It was the mountain that no one else wants to climb. What I have learned is it is not the mountain I thought it was but it is something that not many people do. And the question is why don't people do it? I believe one of the answers which I never thought about in the beginning is that it is lonely. Well, in this environment, if I was in China, I would not be lonely because everyone is Chinese. One of the reason I have not stopped learning is I wanted the privilege of saying that I can connect to that world. Others cannot connect but I can. But unfortunately in South Africa I found that after many years' trying, I still struggle to connect to it. I still can't make that jump. In spite of maximum inputs, there aren't enough resources to take me to that next step.

Due to the isolation, several students lose some of their motivation.

In addition, MFL classrooms in South African institutions are not exclusively designated to MFL courses; lecture halls are multi-purpose venues. Thus, lecturers are not able to put up displays depicting Chinese culture or characters in the classroom. MFL students may be located in different colleges or faculties; they are studying their own subjects and thus have little opportunity to build relationships in the classrooms. Further, they do not have a class representative. Finally, they are not immersed in a Chinese linguistic and cultural environment. According to Table 2.3, the South African students find themselves in an **external L1 setting** in which a language not generally used for everyday communication in society (i.e. Mandarin) is learned in the classroom by usually monolingual L1 speakers. Mandarin is a language spoken in distant China. UCT student Nosi put it this way:

The main reason is that we are in South Africa instead of China. We don't see

a lot of Chinese in South Africa. You have to seek it out. So there isn't an environment of learning Chinese. It is much easier in China because you are surrounded by Chinese. It is unlike South Africa – we are like a 'foreign country.' It is very difficult to learn for Chinese are not around you everywhere. We are only exposed to Chinese in the class and not outside of the class.

In this setting, the opportunity to learn Mandarin is very limited. Regarding incentives to learn, there are no bursaries available for students learning MFL; the subject is optional and Mandarin is not a requirement to obtain a matriculation certificate, admission to university or in most cases for a job. The only incentive is individual motivation. In South Africa, it is a challenge to create an authentic language environment for MFL students in the classroom and after class. Mandarin Chinese is a foreign language in South Africa and access to native speakers is minimal.

6.3.3 Medium of instruction and communication in the classroom

As claimed in Chapter 3 (see 3.3.3.1), the MFL educational programme in China is L2 monolingual, i.e. Mandarin (the participants' L2) is the only medium of instruction. This constitutes a submersion program. Only in the very beginning of the course did participants report that the lecturers made use of English for a very short time. Chinese lecturers are seldom able to speak other languages. This was unanimously confirmed in the interviews.

Different students showed different preferences in the medium of instruction. Some felt it was better to use English (and/or students' native languages) and Chinese in the beginning. Once students became familiar with Chinese, they welcomed its use as the medium of instruction. Huizi, a 3rd year student from Thailand with a major in tourism, is at TUST for short-term language practice. She said:

Three of them (lecturers) could not speak English, not even one word, but others used English. They used Chinese more than English in the beginning. I do not like my lecturers to speak English. I have come to study Chinese not English. So I prefer my lecturers to use Chinese so I can remember it.

Russian student, Tatiana, class representative, had a similar opinion:

I think in the beginning lecturers should use Chinese to teach us pronunciation; it lets us realise how this language sounds. The period can be six months. During complex lessons such as grammar, the lecturer may use Russian (my home language) to teach.

American classmate, Joe agreed:

I prefer the lecturer to use the target language [Chinese] to teach. But the Chinese language is really different from other European languages so it is necessary to use English, my home language, sometimes.

Swedish student, Greta had a year's study experience at BLCU and appreciated the use of Chinese as the medium of instruction:

I like my lecturer's teaching method and system very much, because she only uses the Chinese language. In the beginning she used both English and Chinese but now she only speaks in Chinese... It is better to use both English and Chinese in the beginning, but later I prefer the lecturers use only Chinese. So I can get used to the sound. I practise listening skills every day.

A contrasting opinion was given by Spanish student, Maria who commented on the difficulty experienced by new students when Chinese is used as the medium of instruction: "It is very difficult. All my lecturers can only speak Chinese and they cannot speak English, not even one sentence. It was really very difficult for me in the beginning."

Thai student, Huilin commenced on her studies of the Chinese language in high school in Thailand. She was able to appreciate the advantages linked to using Chinese as the medium of instruction going back to her earlier experience in her home country.

My Chinese teacher was Chinese-speaking at high school in Thailand; she

could not speak English or Thai. So she only used Chinese to teach. All my classmates did not listen to her. I still remember that I was playing cards in her class and I said to her, 'I do not understand.' She said in English: 'One day you will speak Chinese.' I responded: 'That will be impossible.' But now I can speak Chinese! The Chinese I learned from her was during our natural conversations and not from formal study. She spoke in Chinese every day and I listened. When I came to Beijing in the beginning I was used to Chinese and it was the same as in Thailand.

The participants' experiences were confirmed by my own experience of ten years of MFL teaching in China. I never used English or any other language during teaching; Mandarin was used even during beginner's classes (see 1.4).

Mandarin Chinese is also the medium of social interaction between students during their class in China. The student body is international, representing a number of different countries; thus Mandarin is the *lingua franca* in the class. The 'advanced level' class at NU comprises 27 students. This includes Joe from the US, Tatiana from Russia and Shana from Israel. Shana commented: "*We have classmates from about ten countries: from Asia to Europe.*" The postgraduate (Masters) class at NU has six students, each from a different country. Vietnamese Amei said: "*Our classmates come from six different countries so we must use Chinese to communicate with each other. We speak in Chinese in the classroom, in the student dormitory, at any time when we need to talk.*" Yilang, a Japanese 4th year student from NU commented: "*I have South Korean, Japanese, Mongolian, Malaysian, Russian students in my class! A total of five nationalities are in my class. I use Chinese to chat to my classmates.*" Professor Z, the director of the 'high level' class at BLCU told me: "*I have 20 students in my class; they come from 11 different countries: South Korea, Kirghizia, Kazakstan, Peru, Japan, Thailand, Madagascar, Pakistan, Turkmenistan, Indonesia, and Mongolia.*"

In contrast, in South Africa English is the medium of instruction during MFL classes. This constitutes a **L1 monolingual educational programme**. According to Table 2.4, in L1 monolingual programmes, L1 (English or Afrikaans in this case) is the medium of instruction and L2 (Mandarin) is the subject of classroom study. Learning MFL in South Africa can be located in L1 monolingual programmes, although the teachers start to use Mandarin as medium

of instruction very gradually in the higher levels. This is confirmed by the following interview excerpts.

Linda, a student with six month's study experience at SU said:

My lecturer uses English. Sometime she uses some Chinese phrases but at this time we are not good enough to use Chinese. I hear that in the third year, they speak Chinese. I think we need to become good enough then the lecturer can also speak Chinese.

Third year student Tony made the same point:

They [lecturers] try to speak Mandarin but we do not know enough so they have to speak English. The other lecturer uses German. She used to live in Germany so she normally uses either English or German.

Similarly, 2nd year student, Pease at SU said:

Lecturers use English because many people do not understand Chinese well. Some students have been China in my class but some have never been China so we have different levels in one class. If the Chinese lecturer speaks in Chinese, two students understand but others do not understand completely. My lecturer used Chinese but they did not understand so she changes to English. My Chinese level is higher than other but we are in one class. So we do have a problem around language of communication.

UCT has only one lecturer; I visited his class twice and found that he also used English as the medium of instruction. Unisa is a distance teaching institution and English is used as the instructional language in the tutorial letters and textbooks for MFL courses.

Furthermore, in South Africa, social interaction in the classroom is usually in English or Afrikaans. "Most of us come from South Africa, one girl comes from Namibia. Maybe one or

two come from another country, but most of us are South African,” commented a SU student, Linda, in her 1st year of Mandarin. A 2nd year student at SU, John, said: *“We have one student who comes from Angola. Oh and I remember another one from Libya, and most of them are South African; few are from overseas.”* Another 3rd year student, Tony, confirmed: *“We have one student from Namibia. One comes from Rwanda, others are South African.”* In the 2nd year class, Pease confirmed: *“They are all South Africans in my class.”*

Other student remarks confirmed the use of English or Afrikaans as the medium of communication for social discourse:

“We use English. We never speak Chinese after class. Sometimes we practise for oral but that is maybe once a day, so it is not a common thing.”

“English is the medium after class.”

“We use Afrikaans. Maybe we should try to speak a little bit more Chinese.”

“We use English, of course. Every week we have a conversation class for Mandarin, extra. It is from 5:00 to 6:00 pm on Tuesday. It is free to come or not for students but our lecturer will be there.”

“We try to speak Chinese if we do not know something we turn to go back into English. Not necessarily a good thing.”

“Mostly it is English. Sometime we depend, like we have Chinese jokes. If something we brought it together in class, we will mention it in Chinese.”

Interestingly, participants currently studying abroad in China but who had commenced Chinese study in their home countries echoed the experience of the participants in South Africa in this regard. At overseas institutions, it is also common to use the home language of the respective country as the medium of instruction. NU student, Amei, came from Vietnam:

My teacher used mother tongue [Vietnamese] in Vietnam. Our class had more than 20 students in Vietnam. Our textbooks were in English. Most of the time teachers used Vietnamese.

Thai student, Minyue at BLCU said: *“My Chinese teachers in Thailand used Thai to teach us. They are Thai. The lecturers in Beijing use Chinese to teach. I benefit more from using Chinese*

as a teaching language.” Shana came from Israel and mentioned: “*In Israel Chinese lecturers used Israeli to teach MFL; they are powerful!*” Shana’s choice of the word ‘powerful’ was meant to convey her admiration for the bilingual competence of the Chinese lecturers who could speak Israeli as well as Chinese.

The medium of instruction is an on-going debate among language teachers, i.e. whether or not to use the target language for foreign language teaching in the classroom (Stanley 2002:22). Some teachers resist using the home language as they are concerned that learners will not understand and will not be able to follow instructions; they themselves sometimes do not know enough of the target language to be able to be effective users. Sometimes the target language is so difficult that they must explain it in home language otherwise they will lose control of the class. In some cases, teachers may have inherited a class whose previous teacher spoke mostly in the home language (Curtain 2013:3).

On the other hand, some teachers support the use of the target language. Curtain (2013:1) recommends that the target language be used for at least 90% of the time. It is especially important that the teacher use the new language for regular classroom tasks, such as giving directions and managing behaviour, because this demonstrates to the students that the new language is useful and works for all the business of the classroom. Certainly in this study it is clear that learners benefit from as much language immersion as possible. However, the question that remains is how much Mandarin can be used fruitfully in a country like South Africa to facilitate learning without ‘losing’ the students.

6.3.4 Medium of social communication outside the classroom

There exists enormous diversity of cultural traditions and languages among China’s 55 legally recognised minority nationalities. They all have their own languages, with the exception of the Hui and Manchu who use the Chinese language (Tsung & Cruickshank 2011:97). As mentioned, Mandarin (*Putonghua*) is the only official language in China and most Chinese are not proficient in English (see Chapter 2). Outside of class, foreign students studying MFL in China are compelled to use Mandarin to communicate in the social context. Moreover, students’ opportunities to converse in their own mother tongue are limited to the availability of their countrymen, if any.

Participants commented on the willingness of fellow students, service people or even strangers to converse with them in Chinese without regard for their tentative attempts to use Chinese. Huizi, a Thai girl studying at TUST, remarked: *“It is very easy to find someone who can talk with me in Chinese after class. I just say: ‘Hi, what is your name? Then continue.’”* Shana, the Israeli student, continued: *“We can chat with Chinese students even in canteen when we are eating. They are very warm.”* Joe also appreciated the warmth and friendliness shown by Chinese: *“If you take a walk for two hours in Tianjin, I am sure you will meet few Chinese who enjoy talking with you.”*

Clearly, in South Africa participants do not enjoy this opportunity. Pease, a student at SU said:

It is difficult to find anyone interested in Chinese in South Africa. Foreigners come to Beijing because they like to study Chinese. I still remember when the time I was in Beijing all students used Chinese to communicate with each other. And everybody is interested but in South Africa some people are interested, others are not. That is the reason we use English to talk. There are few Chinese people in South Africa, so it is not easy to find someone who can talk with you in Chinese.

Phumi has a few Chinese friends but she still had the same problem:

I do not really have the chance to chat to Chinese people. I have Chinese friends but most of the time they speak English because they want to practise their English... Your schedule is very busy and it is hard to find someone. Another reason is because most Chinese students here are also very busy. You know, it is difficult because you want to practise but they are also very busy. But if you really want to, you need to pay for that – like private or extra lessons... however, most students maybe do not have money, at least not today for the extra lessons.

South African participants had to find other less satisfying ways to expose themselves to the spoken language. Catherine commented: *“I listen to it [Mandarin] when I am in the car because*

I have Chinese CDs.” Annie does likewise: “I listen to CDs and repeat. Just like that – listen and repeat.”

6.3.5 Participants’ conversational proficiency

The above discussion on the contrasting opportunities for language immersion and use of Mandarin for social communication both within and outside the classroom is an influential factor shaping the conversational proficiency of the two groups of participants. This was also borne out by the interview experiences in both countries. In China, I used Mandarin to interview all participants, although some (Greta, Anna) had only been studying MFL for nine or ten months. My experience was that the participants spontaneously accepted that the medium for the interviews would be Chinese. An apt example is provided by TUST student, Anna who hails from Russia and who had no prior knowledge of Chinese. She had been in China for about ten months. This corresponded with the length of study of 1st year South African participants (Jill, Catherine and Nosi). Anna explained:

I could not say ‘Hi’ in Chinese in the beginning. I did not understand when people said ‘Hi, how are you?’ in Chinese. I could not respond to them. I could only smile. But now I can speak a little and understand a little. I can go to supermarket to buy things and clothes and use Chinese. Although my Chinese is not good, I can try and make others understand me.

Other participants confirmed that although they were not yet fluent, they could use Chinese to chat on the phone, carry out everyday tasks and understand responses during an informal dialogue. Indonesian student Luohao explained that he was already able to distinguish differences in geographical accents after six months’ study experience in Xiamen University (located in southern China) and six months at TUST (located in northern China): *“I can pick up a little on the accent of different people. The accents of people of the south and the people of the north are different. I find the southern accent easier to understand.”*

Andong is an Indonesian student with a rich MFL study experience: he had commenced private lessons in his home country after Chinese TV programmes were cancelled by the Indonesian government for political reasons. The study of Chinese consequently became a controversial

issue. He changed teachers a few times and proceeded to university after high school to study Chinese as a foreign language but not as a major. After a year's study, he went to Guangzhou to study Chinese as a major for a B degree. At the time of the interview, he was doing a MA degree at NU. He held strong convictions about the importance of a communicative environment in the development of conversational proficiency.

I really feel it is a big benefit for us to speak Chinese language everywhere. I had this experience in Jinan University [in Guangzhou]. I attended the students' association and I had to speak Chinese to converse with other Chinese students and my speaking skill improved vastly during that period. But I did not attend the students' association during my third and fourth year at my university. One day I met a student who was in my association and he commented that my Chinese speaking skill had deteriorated. I saw that if I do not keep contact with Chinese society, my skills fall behind.

Participants were also sensitive to differing language abilities in the MFL class, including their own. Italian Lisa, who had been in Beijing for six months, noted: *"I could read very well in the beginning [read many characters] but the South Korean student could speak very well."* Japanese Yilang, who studied MFL at NU as his major, reported: *"It is very interesting that the Japanese students are better in reading and writing but less so in speaking. Russian students are better in speaking and they are confident to share their ideas and suggestions. I admire them for this."* Some students also note cultural differences among their international classmates which also influenced the confidence with which they used the new language. Thai student, Huilin a 2nd year student at BLCU studying MFL for degree purposes commented: *"European students are very participative and make use of any opportunity [to express themselves]. Asian students are less inclined to participate actively."*

Contrary to China, all South African participants lacked the confidence to use Mandarin Chinese during the interviews, beside one student (Tony) who had spent six months in China. This also applied to students who had studied MFL for three years (David and Pease) and even the student who had ten year's of study (Peter).

After six months study at SU, Mary lamented: *"I do not have confidence to speak Chinese.*

Once I was in the Chinese market and a lot of people were speaking Chinese. It was so difficult to get myself to speak to them even if it was very simple conversation and I still did not really understand fully.” Classmate Linda felt the same: *“I am also not very confident. I have this experience: I tried in a Chinese shop but my vocabulary was not enough for a conversation.”* Annie is a part-time student who had studied MFL for two years at Unisa and enjoyed her studies very much. In spite of this, she said:

I found a lot of people [students] who still cannot speak because they do not know the pronunciation and they feel ashamed and uncomfortable. So for me I think the best way is to have a normal setting with the lecturers actually speaking to you. Because I think that really, I have done the whole years’ course but I do not feel capable. I do not feel like I have confidence to speak and I do not have any other opportunity to practise my Mandarin. Because I do not know, I am not in circles in which I find Mandarin people... I know if I had someone to help me, I would be more motivated to keep on going or coming to my class at least. It is not really dead. I do not want my Mandarin to die; I want to go on with it and keep it alive.

Many South African participants emphasised reading and listening skills. Linda from SU said: *“We have definitely done many characters so we will definitely be able to read a simple story in characters.”* Phumi, formerly teaching English in Taiwan and now a full-time student at SU, is in her 1st year for non-degree purposes. She narrated:

For me, my reading is good but speaking is bad, I understand if you speak slowly but when I have to speak, I get very nervous. It feels like I cannot say anything. You know, my head is blank, nothing inside. It is terrible. That is why I think it is better if you speak English to me [in this interview] so we can have a fluent conversation. Maybe you will ask me a question in Chinese, and then immediately I feel nervous. I do not know how to answer you. But when I walk out then I will think, yes, I can, this and this. That is why I said I need a lot of practise. I can understand but my speaking is not good.

Jill is in the 1st year of her Master’s degree in Electronic Engineering at UCT. She has almost

eight months of MFL study and described her ability: “*We can read. Reading is much easier. So I think all of us can recognise the characters in Chinese and in our class we can read them. And I think in the test, we can also process what to do. But we cannot remember a lot of [characters] and it is difficult.*” Peter is a dedicated student of Chinese who has studied privately as well as through Unisa. He is a very serious student who has spent much time and money on his studies. He is a good reader but he still lacks conversational proficiency. Tony visited Tsinghua University, Beijing during high school for six months at his own expense. He is enrolled in his 3rd year at SU and commented:

I feel the most important part for our lecturers is reading and writing. They did not teach us to speak in the first year. We have problems because many students cannot speak even in the third year but they can read and write. I spent a lot of time to practise characters before but it is not necessary now. I feel it is easy now. It is very important to write every day in the beginning.

John was the 2nd year Mandarin Chinese student at SU. He reported:

We do not really practise in the class hours. It is very rushed. It seems that there is a lot work to do and the lecturers have to finish it quickly so we do not have a lot of practise time, and, yes, it goes very quickly. Yes, I think it will be better if we have time to practise. It becomes difficult. And with oral we struggle because we do not really know enough. We have learned it but it has not stayed in our mind. If you understand that what we have learned is really enough; we do not have time to use it.

Many participants studying currently in China confirmed the experience of the South Africans when they reflected during the interviews on MFL in their home countries. Their earlier tuition had emphasised reading skills and opportunities for acquiring conversational proficiency in class had been scant. Turkish Fatima had studied Chinese for three years in her home country for degree purposes but was still not fluent when she arrived in Beijing. She said: “*In Turkey we do not have Chinese people so we do not have a chance to practise... I could not speak when I came here. I could listen but I could not speak because I did not have practice.*” Huizi studied in Thailand and confirmed this experience when thinking about her two-year involvement in a

weekly Mandarin class back home. Israeli Shana, currently at NU, is an advanced student who studied Chinese and linguistics in Israel for four years before coming to China. Even so she said: *“I had studied Chinese for four years before I came to China. But I could only speak Chinese after I came to China. There are very few Chinese in Israel. My speaking skills were not good before and my university in Israel emphasised reading skills.”*

6.3.6 Stability of enrolments

In China, MFL courses are divided into three levels for non-degree purposes: elementary, intermediate and advanced levels and MFL students are placed according to their ability. Less than 30 students are in one class and each class has its own tutor and class representative to deal with everyday issues. Most foreign students study at least one semester in China. The yearly enrolment of MFL students in the various classes is very stable with few fluctuations. This constant environment encourages the formation of close relationships among classmates who become a language ‘family.’ MFL students hold social functions regularly *“We have a very good relationship between classmates; we will have a party tonight for my birthday.”*

South African student enrolments were erratic and there are striking differences in enrolments in the 1st year courses, the 2nd year courses and the 3rd year courses, with numbers declining drastically as the levels increase (see 3.3.3). Participants at UCT referred to the fluctuations in enrolments. *“In the first-year Mandarin we had a lot, maybe 25-30 students were in one class, but now we have only three to five”* reported Catherine. Nosi agreed: *“We had 60 in the first year, which was a lot. But there were 20 last semester. And in this semester, it is about 12. The more difficult it gets, the more people pull back and drop out.”* The situation at SU was similar as Tony, a 3rd year student told me: *“Our class had 10 students last term and has five students this term because five students gave up.”* Student numbers at Unisa also decrease in the higher levels. David found only six students registered for the 3rd year course in January 2013, a considerable decrease from the 1st year numbers. Once again, when participants currently studying in China reflected on their prior experiences of MFL in their home countries, they mentioned the same phenomenon. Italian Lisa, who had studied Chinese for four years at Turin, Italy before her study visit to Beijing, said: *“We had about 100 students in our class for the first year, about 50 students in second year and around 25 students in the third year in Italy.”*

The findings suggest a number of reasons why students learning Chinese outside of China drop out as they move to higher levels. Firstly, learning Mandarin Chinese is time consuming and particularly challenging for English-speaking students. Learning Chinese characters requires constant written repetition and copy and the memorisation of thousands of Chinese characters requires great persistence. In addition, language study threatens to become boring if students lack the opportunity to practise. Gradually they inevitably lose their momentum and interest fades. Students tend to forget prior learning due to the lack of practice and so they lack the background knowledge for higher level study. Also, higher study levels require extramural study through things such as social communication, watching Chinese movies and other entertainment to enrich language understanding. These findings confirm the work of Cruickshank and Tsung (2011:217-218).

6.4 SIMILARITIES IN STUDENT EXPERIENCES OF MFL TEACHING AND LEARNING

6.4.1 The emotional dimension of learning a new language

The foreign language students' affective life during language acquisition should also be taken into consideration because emotional factors (not just intelligence factors) play an important role in learning (see 2.4.3.2). Positive or negative emotions of individual students influences student study enormously (Kuppens, Realo & Diener 2008:66; Ohata 2005:133-155). Participants currently studying MFL in China and South Africa shared similar emotions during study. Enjoyment, excitement, appreciation for sympathetic lecturers and a sense of security engendered by concerned lecturers greatly encouraged student progress. Anxiety, a lack of confidence, sadness and disappointment frustrated learning and shaped decisions about further study and decisions to give up on the course.

Enjoyment is very significant for MFL students. If the MFL student finds study pleasant, he or she will persist and seek solutions to problems even in the face of formidable challenges. Thai student, Huilin described her emotional journey. At high school, she had studied four languages: English, Japanese, French and Chinese. The last was not taken seriously. She only studied Chinese because her ancestral home is Chao Zhou in China and her parents wished her to study Chinese. Her grades were very poor in junior high school for all subjects. But gradually her

grades for Chinese improved far above her other subjects. Chinese was a source of enjoyment and satisfaction and she finally chose Chinese as her major. She said: *“I think the most important is that we persevere. I have a friend who likes Chinese very much like me... we have to set a goal and enjoy studying. Some students work very hard but they do not enjoy it and do not do well for that reason.”* Affiliated pastimes also contribute to the enjoyment of language learning. Some participants love Chinese movies and daily television programmes and this bolsters their language learning. An appreciation of Chinese culture also enhances the pleasure of language learning.

Enjoyment as motivation for learning was shared by South African participants. Linda, a SU student, concluded:

Sometimes I found it is difficult because I do not like revision and the themes. Sometimes I am quite stressed but I still enjoy it and I also enjoy the culture because it is something completely different to anything else. I also have German as a subject which is much easier for me than Chinese for the culture is closer to South African culture. But Chinese is completely different. I found it is very interesting.

Pease also linked her enjoyment of Chinese movies to language study. Peter has persevered in language study in spite of feelings of isolation because he has come to ‘love’ Chinese and pleasure outweighs challenges. Impromptu data gathering confirmed the passion for the Chinese language that several students referred to. Andrew is a Chinese enthusiast who was not a participant of this research but was my private student who I had tutored for a year in South Africa and who has spent seven years in Taiwan. He speaks Chinese fluently and continues to study the Chinese language every Saturday morning even though the class is one hour’s drive away and he is very busy with his work. He just enjoys it. His dream is to live in China because he loves China and the Chinese lifestyle from depth of his heart. He joked: *“My previous life should be a Chinese.”*

All participants engaged in Chinese and in South African contexts appreciated their lecturers as hard-working teachers with a wealth of knowledge. Students who receive autonomy-support from teachers to enhance their intrinsic motivation, perceive themselves to be more competent

and have more interest in and enjoyment of material. Instructor autonomy-support also predicts academic performance (Black & Deci 2000:740). Autonomy-support here refers to instructors who understand and empathise with students' perspectives and allow students to make choices and initiate activities. Thai student Amei explained:

We are happy with our lecturers [at BLCU]. They are very good. We do not have textbooks in Masters so we use the materials prepared by our lecturers. The first class time in every new term for every course he [she] will explain the whole term plan and give us some reference books. We know very clearly what we are going to study each week and some content will be changed according to our needs. He [she] may also add the new content if necessary and let us know. We also can give him [her] suggestions.

Joe articulated clear and emphatic feelings about his lecturers at SU: *"I am very happy to tell you that our lecturers work hard at teaching so I really admire my lecturers. They are earnest even when the weather is not good and students don't respond positively."*

Concern for students and their progress expressed by lecturers lent MFL students the sense of security and emotional safety so necessary for foreign language learning. Japanese Yilang was very satisfied with the classroom ethos and his lecturers: *"They [the lecturers] are certainly good. I want to give you an example: we have almost 20 students in one class. The lecturers care about every single one. I always get their attention in our class so I feel our lecturer cares about me."* When lecturers asked South Korean Jin the reason for missing class, he appreciated it as a token of concern.

Arnold (in Dewaele 2011:23) points out that more attention by teachers to affective aspects leads to more effective second language learning. Teachers need to be aware of how to overcome problems created by negative emotions and how they can create and use more positive, facilitative emotions. The establishment of a good emotional atmosphere in the classroom does not just depend on the learners; teachers play a central role in establishing a positive learning environment. They need to be aware of the need to structure or create – through verbal and non-verbal means – a true learning environment where students believe in

the value of learning a language, where they feel they can face that challenge and where they understand the benefit they can get from attaining it (Dewaele 2011:23-42).

On the other hand, learning a foreign language is an anxiety-inducing experience especially for beginners and this has been well-documented in the literature (Horwitz 2010:154-167; see 2.4.3.2). MacIntyre (1998) refers to the relationship between language learning and anxiety: language anxiety is defined as the worry and negative emotional reaction aroused when learning a second language.

Language learners required to follow instructions, for example to speak in front of the class, may find this very embarrassing (Language Anxiety: 2013). Although several participants currently studying in China had studied Chinese for three or four years in their own countries for degree purposes, they had initially found conversing with the Chinese public very intimidating. Vietnamese Amei illustrates this emotion: “*I was in Vietnam for my Bachelors and most lecturers used Vietnamese to teach [Chinese]. They did not understand me when the time I just arrived at Nankai University so I was very embarrassed at that time.*” As mentioned (see 6.3.5), acute feelings of shyness and embarrassment accompanied the South African participants, none of whom had the confidence to conduct the interviews in Chinese irrespective of their length of Chinese study.

Learning a foreign language was also accompanied by feelings of sadness and even loss, albeit for a variety of reasons. When MFL students in China were faced with a more rigorous learning environment, they felt a sense of loss as familiar supports were taken away. Spanish Maria who is currently studying at BCLU was faced with textbooks written exclusively in Chinese and without the support of *pinyin* and English translations or additional texts. She expressed her response in emotional terms: “*I was very sad at that time.*” Furthermore, several participants currently studying in China felt the ‘loss’ of their respective home language (L1) which had no currency in the new environment.

In South Africa some participants explained that their learning experience was frequently marked by feelings of sadness when they reviewed slow progress or even considered stopping language study. In particular, Peter reflected on his decade of Chinese learning which had been punctuated by periods of frustration or temporary cessation of formal study. He explained that

he felt “*sad to stop learning*” even when it was for a short period. Students also regretted the limited opportunities at certain universities which did not allow for the study of Mandarin as a major. Reflecting on prospects for language study at UCT, Jill said: “*We are very sad when we find we could not have major of Mandarin here.*”

Participants sometimes referred to feelings of disappointment when the course or the material did not match up to expectations. Participants in both countries sometimes found certain textbook content outdated or irrelevant to their lives. BLCU student Jin pointed out: “*I do have disappointing feeling. I want to learn comprehensive Chinese for business because our advanced Chinese is not very useful. The comprehensive Chinese for business is very useful. But our Chinese book is just like Chinese literature so I am not interested in it.*”

NU student Joe, Tatiana and Shana mentioned:

It seems that every term we have a course for discussing marriage, and Matric exam and so on, we are not interested in them but it is in our textbooks.” “Some contents in our textbooks are not nice but we still learn it. Our lecturer said: it is not very useful for you but we still learn it a little. It is too boring and we do not understand, especially for archaic Chinese language.

The following idea came from BLCU student Mingyue:

We have the textbook of phrase course which consist of a lot of new words and questions for practice. We spend many times for new words, texts and questions. I do not think it is good. Comprehensive and composition courses are not problem but spoken language and listening courses have little problem. They do not give students enough time to speak and listen. I hope our courses can be more close to foreign students’ hearts. We have compulsory courses and elective courses. They are useful but some students like to have the courses which the university do not offer. I wish it can be changed, we can learn what we want to learn. We do not have many options, so the elective courses are like compulsory.

A South African student John at SU commented:

Sometimes it is little bit strange like we did something this year about raising animals. I do not know, I do not think it is necessarily relevant. The other time we did public transport and renting a flat and then of course these are more relevant. But if something about economy which I do not know, so it depends, sometimes it is ok sometimes it is a little bit off of topic.

Some MFL students in South Africa mentioned a lack of contextual information in the textbooks which would have aided vocabulary learning. John said:

I do not think it is really practical. It is too much like a story. I think it means more focus on grammar. I do not know, I do not think it is very effective because what is the student doing is just sit and learn the word. They do not learn it in the sentence. It is not really helpful because it is like a foreign person learns the word “butterfly” but they do not know how to use it. And that is what happens. So you can do well dictation but you cannot make the sentence using the word. I think that is the problem with the textbook.

Many lecturers who responded to the survey (see 5.5) and student participants are dissatisfied with textbooks currently available. It is essential that the lecturers choose textbooks or add materials that are truly active, inspiring and meet the needs of students. The textbook is a carrier of grammar, vocabulary and culture, therefore, provided that the textbook or material is comprised of these elements, on a similar level, the content or topics can be updated to create a positive emotional environment.

In conclusion, language and emotion, both are genuine and basic to human nature. Lecturers need to be aware of how to overcome problems created by negative emotions and how they can create and use more positive, facilitative emotions (Dewaele 2011:23-42). The establishment of a good emotional atmosphere in the classroom does not just depend on the learners. Teachers play a central role in establishing a positive learning environment. On the one hand, they need to be aware of the need to structure or create – through verbal and non-verbal means – a true learning environment where students believe in the value of learning a language, where they

feel they can face that challenge and where they understand the benefit they can get from attaining it (Dewaele 2011:23-42). Ohata (2005:133-155) concludes that if students become emotionally disturbed or imbalanced, they will not tap their potential ability to the fullest level, and their perception of failure to do so might make them more anxious about their own ability and self-esteem deteriorates. The lecturer can reduce the negative impact by creating a comfortable classroom environment and instructional procedures that encourage student involvement. It is always wise to engender students' positive attitudes in the classroom. Some practical methods could be considered in MFL classes: giving more individual attention to each student, allocating more time for practice and allowing students to join in on conversations, and making content more relevant to the students' real life situations.

6.4.2 The main needs of MFL students

6.4.2.1 'Push' from lecturers

Most participants in both China and South Africa require and appreciate a certain amount of pressure from lecturers in the shape of regular homework assignments, tests and examinations in spite of the fact that they are adult learners.

In China, participants explained that they were required to spend about two or three hours on homework or assignments every day. However, they did not resent this; they liked it as the following comments illustrate:

"I like homework because we can review and practice. It can push me."

"I like doing homework because I can practise at home. Homework makes me understand well."

"We have two exams but I wish we had more because it can push us to study!"

"I like homework and it is very useful. Normally we use PowerPoint to do it."

"We can practise speaking and expression is improved. We have a feeling of accomplishment."

"Nankai has discipline and has more conversational homework. This pushes our study."

Besides regular homework and testing, a disciplined teaching environment propels language study. This kind of environment is created by institutional or lecturer requirements for regular class attendance, strict admission requirements for examinations and firm deadlines for the submission of assignments. Yilang commented: “*We have strict system for checking on work attendance. If the student is always absent, he may not be allowed to do the exam.*” Amei and Andong confirmed this: “*Nankai has serious rules like if we do not submit homework or thesis on time we will be difficult to get certificate.*” Participants appreciated this kind of pressure. Where it was lacking, they bemoaned the fact. Similarly, South African participants welcomed regular assignments and examinations and even wished for additional work. Annie said: “*But I think it might be also nice if we have, like a sort of test before the exam, so we can prepare for final exam. Yes, yes.*” Phumi also called for even a greater workload and stricter attention to class attendance:

It is my personal opinion; I just think we are not pushed enough. First year students, as I told you, if you do not tell them you have to do something then they do not do it. If I compare, some classes; the lecturers say that if you do not attend the class, at the end of the year, you will lose 10% of your final exam. I think they should do it in every course. If you not attend class, you will lose 10%. You know, our culture is different from the Chinese culture. Students are not very diligent. Sometimes there are just less than half the students in the class. I think they need to make a rule like you have to attend or you lose 10%. How can you read fluently in a language if you not attend the class?

Clearly, homework assignments as formative assessment and exams as summative are an integral part of any effective learning experience (Lu & Zhao 2011:120). Progress is evaluated and lecturers maybe use the findings to adjust or improve instruction. Discipline is also vital to successful study. China boasts a long cultural tradition of hard work and this influences people’s thinking and behaviour (Jiang 2011). Self-discipline is very significant for adhering to hard-work ethic. Interestingly, this was recognised by all the participants and some even voiced a desire for stricter arrangements to ‘push’ them to study.

6.4.2.2 Relevance of content and practical chance

Participants in both countries were most motivated by instructional content that is relevant to their educational aspirations and useful in daily life. Relevance increases motivation especially in the face of difficult tasks. Amei and Andong mentioned the importance of content which relates to future goals: *“The courses are useful for us so we do not miss them. What we are taught is useful for our future.”* Vietnamese Amei also measured the success of her course against its usefulness. This feeling was borne out by many other participants currently studying in China who found the content useful also in everyday life:

“It is very useful because we learn the words that young people and local people use every day.”

“It is very good in the class and out of class. We can use the language we have learned in the class everywhere in Beijing.”

“I enjoy [the course] because I can use what I have learned.”

In this regard, participants repeatedly referred to language learning that would enable them to chat with native speakers. Acquiring sufficient proficiency to allow for informal chatting with native speakers reinforces knowledge of colloquialisms, exposes them to a variety of accents and facilitates a deeper cultural understanding.

In South Africa, MFL students hoped to have more chance to practise what they had learned and this would increase the relevance ascribed to the content. An illustrative quote:

I think it will be better if we have chance to practice because it becomes difficult. The people struggle because we do not really know how to use it. We have learned it but did not stay in our mind. If you understand what I am saying, we do not have time to use it.

MFL students in both two countries need to understand the relevance of the content and to use what they have learned. This is significant for their success.

6.4.3 Motivation to study MFL

Motivation can influence language learning outcomes independently from language aptitude (Gardner 1972; Wigfield & Wentzel 2007; quoted by Bernard 2010:2; see 2.4.3.2). According to Bernard (2010), studies of various age groups in a variety of content areas support the idea that intrinsically motivated students perform better in the classroom. Participants in both countries shared similar motivations for learning Chinese: the increasing importance of the Chinese language, improved prospects for employment and personal interests.

All MFL students who were participants in the interviews mentioned that Chinese is a future language of the world and proficiency therein comprises a great advantage for their future. It is one of the reasons they chose to study Mandarin. This reflects the theory of language in Chapter 2. Language is not only a communicative tool but it relates to the economy, politics and culture. As China's economy grows, so does the status of the Chinese language. This idea was demonstrated by participants in both countries:

“I study Chinese language for China's economy grows very fast and I am interested in the language.”

“Chinese is an important language and I want to use it. I am also interested in China so I study.”

“My parent says that China's future will be very good. So I want to study Chinese.”

“My mother told me to study Chinese so I study it. For business reasons, English and Chinese both are very powerful languages.”

“The Chinese language has a future.”

“Making money is the main reason for me to study because this language has more chance for business.”

“I think that China is a big country and is involved all over the world, I think it is very good language to be able to speak and communicate. I would really like to visit China one day. Yes.”

Finding a good job or getting a better job is another key reason for MFL study. Against the

background of globalisation, the global language hierarchy is changing. Zhou (2011:133) points out: “Societal multilingualism is always ordered as an institutionalised hierarchical relationship between two or more languages spoken in a local community, a nation and the global community.” Mandarin Chinese is getting more attention from the whole world. Many MFL students hope to work in translation (Mandarin and other languages) or work in international trade. The following comments illustrate this point:

“For me, I want to find a better job and I should enjoy the job. Chinese can help so for this aim I am studying Chinese now.”

“I study Chinese for my work. My work was relative with two languages: Chinese and English.”

“I like to study languages and also consider the job. Chinese literature and art are very interesting so I like it.”

“I want to be a teacher in China.”

“I like to study new languages and want to go to China to teach English.”

“I want to be a translator between Chinese and English.”

The culture of China is very rich; it is a varied blend of traditional Chinese culture with communist and other international modern and post-modern influences. Chinese Kung fu, Tai Chi, calligraphy and Beijing opera are becoming very famous in the world. Many foreigners are interested in the Chinese culture and this is an added motivation for MFL study (Li & Zhu 2011:16). Many MFL participants in both countries have chosen Mandarin to study for their personal interests: they are interested in languages in general and/or the Chinese language or Chinese culture. The following comments substantiate this point:

“Our previous lesson was Chinese culture and I love languages. I just think it is very interesting. When I saw the characters, I just want to study.”

“I really like languages as well. When I came to university and I saw we have Mandarin so I just want to study for fun, now I really like it.”

“I am interested in Chinese culture.”

“I am interested in foreign languages. I studied French in France last year.”

“I like Chinese language and culture.”

“My ancestors were Chinese and my neighbours are foreign citizens of Chinese origin and they can speak Chinese. So I want to learn Chinese.”

“I do not want to follow others and wanted to have my own personality. I wanted to study English when I was 18 years old but all the people around me chose to study English so I did not want to follow. I wanted to have a personality. I saw a television program in which the star travelled the whole of China by train. So I decided not to go to university in Japan after Matric and went to Tianjin (China) to study Chinese.”

Likewise, Miserandino (1996) finds that students with high perceived competence obtain better grades but only in some subjects; whereas those students who are more intrinsically motivated are more involved and persistent, participate more, and are curious about school activities. More extrinsically motivated students report feeling angrier, anxious, and bored at school and therefore tend to avoid school activities (Bernard 2010:7).

6.4.4 Particular challenges of MFL acquisition

Written Chinese involves a logographic script. Learning a logographic script involves more memorisation and different reading skills than the learning of an alphabetic script. Chinese is also a tonal language. For speakers of European languages, acquiring a tonal system and the system of particles require much metalinguistic awareness (Cruickshank & Tsung 2011:218). Participants in both countries identified the mastery of Chinese characters and the mastery of tones as the most challenging components of learning Mandarin Chinese.

6.4.4.1 Mastery of Chinese characters

The non-alphabetical writing system is a characteristic of Mandarin. Chinese characters, also known as *Hanzi* (汉字) are one of the earliest forms of written language in the world, dating back approximately five thousand years. Chinese calligraphy remains an integral aspect of Chinese culture. There are 47,035 Chinese characters in the *Kangxi Dictionary* (康熙字典), the standard national dictionary developed during 18th and 19th centuries, but the precise quantity

of Chinese characters is unknown; numerous rare variants have accumulated throughout history. Studies from China have shown that 90% of Chinese newspapers and magazines tend to use 3,500 basic characters (Wang 2011).

This makes learning Chinese characters an enormous challenge for foreigners: the struggle of English speakers to learn is due in a large part to the nature of its written orthography. Specifically, its standard orthographic form does not readily indicate how Chinese characters are to be pronounced (Ye 2011:3). According to data of the Defense Language Institute (DLI) and the Foreign Service Institute (FSI), it takes L1 English speakers at least three times longer to learn Chinese than to learn French or Spanish. According to FSI's list of languages, Chinese is ranked as the most difficult language for L1 English speakers to master (Stevens 2006).

Generally, participants in both countries found learning Chinese characters very difficult, particularly with regard to learning to write the characters. According to Scrimgeour (2011:197): "The Chinese language is however perceived to be one of the most difficult second languages to learn by users of alphabetic writing systems, due largely to the complexity of its writing system, and its orthographic distance from English, making access to the printed word, and the task of vocabulary building through reading much more difficult." Participants found the recognition of characters somewhat easier than writing. They also corroborated Scrimgeour's (2011) point that learning Chinese characters is much more difficult for the participants whose mother tongue is based on an alphabet system. The following statements from participants in both countries show this point:

"Remembering characters is very difficult for me. For example, I can see the character and recognise it. Sometimes I just will not remember how to say it. If I see the characters then I know I have learned, but I will not remember what it means or I am be able to say it but I forgot its meaning. Something is like that. But writing characters is definitely the most difficult. I can learn, like "中华人民共和国"(People's of Republic of China). I know it in my head, but I cannot write it. I can write some of them, but not all of them. That kind of thing, I can read a lot, but I will not know what it means."

“The most difficult thing definitely is the characters; the other stuff is fine. I do not have problem with them. I understand the tones very easily and the speaking it is not the problem, the grammar is ok, and the characters are very difficult.”

**“My difficulty is remembering how to draw the characters because sometime I can remember how to pronounce them and I can recognise them when I see them but I cannot draw them and suddenly forgot.”*

“Characters are the most difficult. The main thing is because we are in South Africa. In South Africa we do not see the Chinese characters.”

“I think you have got work very hard to remember the characters. I think that is very, very important because the speaking Mandarin is not too difficult but the remembering the character is very difficult. You put a lot of effort to the characters.”

“I do feel Chinese is difficult language especially the characters.”

“Other things are not difficult for me but Chinese characters are difficult so I always write wrong characters but they are not totally wrong maybe only one stroke.”

“Spoken, listening and Chinese characters are difficult. The most difficult is Chinese characters.”

“The first year of studying Chinese I practiced characters between two to three hours every day because my lecturer told us to remember two hundreds characters each week. It was difficult. I do not do it now.”

As a Chinese teacher myself, I do understand this difficulty for MFL students. However, this is not a challenge to FL learners only. Native Chinese pupils also spend a lot of time learning and practising the characters.

6.4.4.2 Mastery of tones

The Chinese language has four tones which refer to the pitch made when a word is spoken. There are four principal tones in Mandarin: the first tone is high and level, the second tone is rising, the third tone is falling and rising and the fourth tone is falling and stressing (Zhang

2009:3). Every syllable in Mandarin has a meaning. Words in Mandarin are either single syllable, or are made up by putting together two single-syllable words. Each syllable can have one of the four tones, and the tone or tones define the meaning of the syllable or word (Tsai 2011:44). In Mandarin Chinese tones are used to distinguish words from each other in the same way that consonant vowel combination is in English. Correct tonal pronunciation is therefore essential as is the ability to distinguish tones when listening. There are a vast number of characters in Mandarin that have the same consonant and vowel sounds, but different tones. So tones are very important for speaking and listening (Tsai 2011:44). On the other hand, tones are very difficult for MFL students. This difficulty was identified by participants in both countries as these comments indicate:

“For me the tones are difficult.”

“The most difficulty is the tones. It is definitely the tones and I enjoy the characters.”

“Pronunciation and characters are difficult for me.”

“The grammar of Chinese is not difficult but spoken and tones are difficult.

New words are not difficult and we can practice but spoken and listening skills are difficult.”

“Listening to tones is the most difficult for me.”

“Pronunciation is difficult for me.”

If the students cannot pronounce the tones properly, it will definitely influence the effectiveness and accuracy of his/her listening. Because of the tones MFL students find it very difficult to copy the Chinese accent. This even applies to the participants who study abroad in China. In addition, South African MFL students are further hamstrung by the lack of opportunity to engage in and listen to conversations in Mandarin Chinese.

6.5 SUMMARY

This chapter has presented the findings of student experiences of MFL learning in the context of participants who are studying abroad in China and South African participants who are studying in their home country. One of the important differences is that participants in China are part of a study abroad programme unlike the South African students. Study abroad in China has the advantage of a combination of formal classroom learning and informal (out-of-class)

learning, which is believed to be the perfect setting to learn an FL efficiently (see 2.4.4.2).

Thus, students studying in China enjoy several influential advantages over their South African counterparts who study at home. The numbers of classes scheduled for MFL in China are approximately four times as many as in South Africa. Native Chinese speaking tutors are assigned to each student and this intensifies the students' immersion in the target language in both the class setting and after-class study. Four-skill courses are provided in China instead of a single comprehensive course and the medium of instruction is Mandarin. Enrolments are stable and dropout is infrequent. Language learning is also enhanced by immersion in the natural language environment in everyday life. Clearly the provision of MFL in China is optimal. This highlights the value of language study abroad as the most efficient way to study a foreign language.

Notwithstanding, students in both countries share many experiences inherent to foreign language learning. Firstly, emotion impacts on their study both positively and negatively. All participants recognised the role played by a firm, disciplined and structured learning environment, the so-called 'push' exercised by lecturers. Motivation for study of Chinese overlapped in both countries with the increasing importance of Chinese; employment prospects and personal interest played a significant role. Challenges inherent in the language regarding mastery of characters and tones were encountered by all participants.

The last chapter will conclude with a summary of the research, final conclusions and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER SEVEN
SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH, FINAL CONCLUSIONS AND
RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

In this concluding chapter, I focus on a summary of the literature study and the empirical investigation in the light of the problem formulation and aims. I reiterate key findings and make recommendations for the improvement of practice. I propose areas for future research, note limitations of the study, and outline final conclusions.

At the beginning of this study, I identified and discussed issues in terms of the growing importance and interest in learning Mandarin Chinese worldwide due to China's rise as a world economic power. This formed the rationale and backdrop to a study of MFL provision in higher education in two contrasting national settings. I formulated the research problem, sub-problems and highlighted the aims of the study. An exploration of the differences and similarities of MFL provision in higher education in China and South Africa was the main aim of the research.

7.2 SUMMARY OF THE LITERATURE RESEARCH

In the first part of Chapter Two, I discussed the theories of language policy and planning and key definitions of LP as developed by eminent linguists over three decades were introduced. These definitions were used to interrogate the LP process according to the question: "who plans what, for whom why and how." Thus, the makers of LP, status, acquisition, user, influence factors and implementation were investigated respectively. Importantly, language diffusion planning and language acquisition planning were distinguished; the former dealing with 'exporting' a national language beyond the country's borders and importing a foreign language for non-linguistic reasons, such as politics, economics and defence. Further, a LP theoretical framework including three types and two approaches proposed by Hornberger was introduced. I identified that LP policy status, acquisition planning in education and foreign language acquisition were the main foci of the whole language theoretical framework in the thesis. The three language orientations proposed by Ruiz (1984), i.e. language-as-problem, language-as-right and language-as-resource were reviewed. Cooper's (1990) FL acquisition

planning model, i.e. the opportunity to learn, incentive to learn and both opportunity and incentive to learn were adopted as important principles for the thesis.

In the second part of Chapter Two, FL/SL (or L2) acquisition models were reviewed and analysed. Firstly, FL context settings proposed by the sociolinguist, Siegel (2007) were reviewed and identified as a theoretical frame: the dominant L2 setting, the external L2 setting and the co-existing L2 setting. Then the distinction between SL and FL and the relationship between SLA and FLA were discussed. Two primary educational programmes for FL learning corresponding with the context setting types were reviewed, i.e. monolingual programmes and bilingual programmes. In addition, another two educational programme models for FL learning, i.e. study abroad and study at home were introduced and discussed.

Chapter Three was structured according to two main topics: MFL policy and provision in the higher education of China and MFL policy and provision in higher education in South Africa. In the first part of the chapter, the China higher education system was introduced. The standardisation of Mandarin Chinese was outlined in terms of Mandarin status, spread, users, the policy-making motivations and language cultivation. Key MFL policies and Chronicles events in China were dealt with. By examining and analysing these policies, I identified that policymaking is at the level of the *State Council*. China can be regarded as a monolingual society regarding Mandarin's status and usage, although due consideration is given to the existence of minority languages within China. The MFL policy content with reference to projects, such as the establishment of *Confucius Institutes*, the *Chinese Bridge Project*, the *Chinese Proficiency Test* and Teacher's Training initiatives for language teachers, was introduced. China's policy regarding Mandarin was characterised as a diffusion policy driven by globalisation and further analysed clearly in terms of diffusion legislation, funding support and characteristics. The policy making motivations are politics, the economy, the exercise of 'soft power' and cultural exchange and friendship ties. Regarding the MFL provision in China and in overseas countries where Mandarin Chinese is supported, provision of MFL in China was introduced in terms of the growth of *Confucius Institutes*, number of universities which are providers of MFL and MFL student enrolment. Three selected universities in China were introduced for detailed description in terms of educational programmes, courses, student numbers and staffing.

In the second part of the chapter, the South African higher education system was briefly introduced. Reference was made to the language policies of apartheid and the post-apartheid period. Using the orientations of language policy framework of Ruiz (1984), I argued that the policy of 11 official languages demonstrates the orientation of language-as-right and the communication problems especially existing can be analysed in orientation of language-as-problem. There is no specific policy regarding MFL however, because of the comprehensive strategic relationship between South Africa and China, MFL is an important resource for government plans and acquisitions through higher education. Dominant L1 setting and L1 monolingual educational programmes were found in South Africa for MFL. The acquisition of MFL including educational programmes and students' demand and staff qualifications were introduced for the four selected universities. The role of the *Confucius Institute* in acquisition of MFL was discussed. Finally, I summarised the similarities and differences between China and South Africa in terms of MFL policies and acquisitions.

7.3 SUMMARY OF THE EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

The purpose of the empirical case study was to investigate the differences and similarities of Mandarin as a foreign language taught in China and South Africa as informed by the theories of language planning and SLA/FLA acquisition theories and educational models. A case study using a mixed-method research design was used for the investigation with the study taking place in two concurrent phases. During the first phase the quantitative data was collected by means of a questionnaire from MFL lecturers, analysed and interpreted. This was followed by the second, qualitative phase which added depth and richness to the study through the collection of data from MFL students by means of interviews. The quantitative and qualitative findings were integrated and used as supporting evidence for each other. The data gathering and analysis took place over a period of approximately nine months and data was gathered in China during a dedicated study tour for this purpose and in different locations in South Africa.

The survey instrument consisted of a questionnaire comprising closed items and one open item and was organised according to the following sections: biographical factors, institutional factors, lecturer perceptions of MFL students, teaching methods, curriculum, and provision of postgraduate study in China (Chinese respondents only). Each section intended to obtain descriptive data. The questionnaire was researcher-designed and informed by literature, lengthy

professional experience and observation. Expert peer critique and a pilot study of the questionnaire preceded data collection. A combined response rate of 87% was achieved. Questionnaire respondents were selected by non-probabilistic, convenience sampling from the three selected universities in China: BLCU, NU and TUST and by comprehensive sampling in South Africa. Data was analysed by an expert statistician using the SAS software package. Student participants were interviewed on location in China and at venues in South Africa according to participant's preference. Data was analysed using qualitative strategies. Ethical requirements for the protection of the respondents and participants were strictly adhered to in both phases of the study. The findings of Phase One and Phase Two addressed the differences and similarities of MFL provision in China and in South Africa from the perspectives of the key stakeholders in the teaching and learning of MFL: lecturers and students. Phase One focused on the lecturers' perspectives and Phase Two explored the experiences of MFL students. The quantitative and qualitative findings supported a multifaceted picture of MFL provision in the two different countries. Finally, the key findings were extracted from the Phase One and Phase Two findings and are presented in the ensuing section.

7.4 KEY FINDINGS

- a) The findings of Phase One were presented according to 26 statistically significant tables. A further 34 tables which provided more detailed information are to be found in Appendix C to conserve space. These tables included frequency tables which supported a country-wise comparison of certain sections of the questionnaire. Data reduction took place through a factor analysis which explored the following: Institutional support; Perceptions of MFL; and the MFL classroom environment. The Chinese lecturers held statistically significantly more positive perceptions than South African respondents on the sub-constructs of institutional support, perceptions of MFL students and the MFL classroom environment. Perceptions of respondents at MFL degree institutions in China were statistically significantly more positive than respondents at non-degree institutions in China on the sub-constructs of institutional support, perceptions of MFL students and the MFL classroom environment. Regarding the curriculum, in China lessons were presented mostly in the mornings and in SA lessons were taught at any time in the day. In South Africa lecturers spend more time per week in additional tutoring than Chinese lecturers. Chinese lecturers give

homework more regularly than SA lecturers. Most of the respondents considered that Mandarin for degree purposes is difficult but it is possible and it has a future which will benefit MFL students.

b) Phase Two findings identified the differences between the experiences of students studying abroad in China and at home in South Africa:

- Class scheduling and tutor support: China has intensive class hours (20 hours per week) and Chinese students act as peer tutors to provide assistance. South Africa has elective classes with 3-5 hours per week and the lecturer is the tutor.
- Language environment: China provides a dominant L2 context setting for MFL where students are submerged in a natural language environment. Students have both opportunity to learn and incentive to learn. MFL in South Africa belongs to an external L2 context setting; students are in a ‘lonely’ language environment and have little opportunity for practice. There is no incentive mechanism in place other than individual motivation.
- Medium of instruction: China has L2 monolingual educational programmes for MFL i.e. Mandarin is the medium in classroom and after class. MFL is L1 monolingual educational programme i.e. English is the medium of instruction in MFL classrooms and after class.
- Consequence of acquisition contexts: all language skills of students are acquired rapidly in the learning context in China. All language skills are acquired slowly, especially communication skills, in the learning context in South Africa.
- Enrolments: China has stable numbers of MFL students. Enrolments in South Africa change drastically as MFL students progress from low levels to higher levels.

c) The following similarities emerged in Phase Two: the emotional dimension of learning a new language and the main needs of MFL students was consistent between the countries. They required some “push” from lecturers (e.g. regular homework assignments, tests etc.) and the opportunity to use or speak Mandarin. Their motivators to study Mandarin were similar and they experienced similar challenges characteristic of Mandarin as a language (Chinese characters and tones).

The findings of Phase One and Phase Two addressed the main research question: *What similarities and differences exist in the provision of Mandarin as a FL in higher education institutions in South Africa and China?*

7.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR IMPROVEMENT OF PRACTICE

Participants studying MFL at Chinese universities have the advantage of a study-abroad experience in which they are immersed in the native speech community. The participants studying in South African institutions attend regular classes without the advantage of a full immersion experience. Therefore, the findings do not only contribute to a comparison of MFL learning and teaching between South Africa and China, but they also provide insight into the MFL experience of those who study abroad in China versus those who are limited to the classroom contexts of home institutions. Foreign language study undertaken in the country of the target language is widely recognised for the value it adds to language acquisition. For this reason, many universities are strongly supportive of international study (even mandating it in some cases) as borne out by federal and state contributions for increased funding and support in the US (SIT Study Abroad 2012). However, study abroad is not possible for all students and in this event, the experiences of ‘at home’ students remain useful.

A number of recommendations are proposed to improve Mandarin study by students in South Africa and other overseas countries.

- a) Offer more opportunities and longer time periods (at least one month) for MFL students to participate in study abroad programmes in China. In this regard, the *Chinese Bridge Project* and *Confucius Institutes* should be fully exploited by the four South African universities to obtain funding support. Moreover, the home universities should also look to creating bursaries and grants to facilitate study abroad.
- b) Where study abroad is not available, strategies should be developed to create an immersion environment by creating more opportunities to converse and by enabling access to Chinese websites or channels screening Chinese television programmes. In the current technological world, teachers should explore ways in which students can use the virtual environment to enhance Chinese study at different levels. The provision of a DVD or CD library is an inexpensive resource which can also promote Chinese

study. Students should be given a resource list of Chinese residents who may be willing to engage with MFL students or even provide stay-at-home opportunities for MFL students whereby students engage in weekend or longer visits to Chinese families for a small fee. Similarly, projects should be initiated with Chinese students to visit South Africa for short term camps, summer schools or at-home visits with South African families. Authentic language environments can be created in many ways and students and lecturers should seek creative ways to find situations for language immersion.

- c) Tutor systems should make use of peer tutors who are paid a small sum for their services.
- d) Exchange programmes such as those outlined above should also include lecturer exchanges between the two countries. In this way, lecturers can make inputs into programmes of host institutions and share expertise and ideas.
- e) Full use should be made of growing international friendship and trade links with China. After fifteen years of diplomatic relations and cooperation between China and Africa, the association is stronger than ever, with China planning to increase investment in Africa and Chinese companies starting to consider moving abroad (China Daily 2013, quoted by Embassy of The People's Republic of China in The Republic of South Africa 2013). Many exchange programmes between China and South Africa already exist: political exchanges, business cooperation, sci-tech exchanges (Embassy of The People's Republic of China in The Republic of South Africa 2013). These programmes could be requested to provide opportunities and sponsorships to encourage MFL students. In this way, an incentive structure can be built to further motivate MFL enrolments in South Africa.
- f) Create other incentive- to- learn mechanisms by offering MFL in secondary schools through introducing it as a subject for the Grade 12 examination. In this way prospective student enrolments in higher education can be 'grown'. As pointed out in chapter two, normally, language planning is top-down; this will create a concomitant bottom-up approach. One of the thesis' aims is to convince decision makers in higher education and government to change the MFL status among other FLs.

7.6 AREAS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The following suggestions are made for future research.

- a) Further detailed and more comprehensive investigations of Mandarin tuition could be conducted on any of the key areas of the questionnaire: curriculum, pedagogies or textbooks, to mention but a few.
- b) Research could be carried out on different models of study abroad programmes for language purposes.
- c) Research into aspects of the language proficiency of MFL students can be investigated in terms of the mastery of characters and the levels of speaking, listening, writing and reading skills.
- d) This research could serve as a model for other comparative studies of MFL provision in higher education between China and other education systems.

7.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Limitations of the study are noted. However, the study was exploratory with no aim to generalise findings and so it is judged that these limitations, although considerable, do not invalidate the usefulness of the findings.

- a) The very small number of MFL teaching staff at the South African institutions was an obvious limitation in making statistical comparisons. However, this was considered in the analysis: the responses in the data set were not enough to do exploratory factor analysis to validate the constructs. Logical groups were therefore tested by item analysis for reliability. Item analysis was done to assess the reliability of the different dimensions or constructs in the questionnaire via Cronbach's Alpha values.
- b) The honours degree in Mandarin was only introduced at SU in 2012, therefore it was not possible to make a comparison between the two countries in terms of postgraduate degrees in Mandarin.
- c) Convenience sampling meant that only lecturers available on the day of data gathering were available to participate in the survey at the three Chinese institutions. Logistical

problems also prevented an interview with a student from RU. Only students from Unisa, UCT and SU participated in the interviews.

7.8 CONCLUSION

Interest in Mandarin will continue to grow in a global world in the light of the advances in the economic status of China. This interest has been demonstrated by the provision of MFL at four major South African universities. It is also demonstrated by the growing number of enrolments of foreign students studying MFL at Chinese institutions. This exploratory study contributes to the body of knowledge around effective MFL tuition by examining the perspectives of a small sample of lecturers and students in both countries using a mixed-method enquiry.

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APPENDIX A: COVERING LETTER AND QUESTIONNAIRE

COVERING LETTER AND QUESTIONNAIRE OF ENGLISH VERSION

Dear Respondent

This survey forms part of a doctoral thesis entitled *A Comparative Study of Mandarin as Foreign Language in Higher Education in China and South Africa*, for the degree of D Ed (Comparative Education) at the University of South Africa.

The aim of this study is to investigate the differences and similarities in the tuition of Mandarin as a foreign language taught in higher education in China and South Africa.

You are kindly requested to complete this survey questionnaire, comprising of seven sections [**NB Section G** is only for respondents whose students major Mandarin (Honours, Masters or PhD)], as honestly and frankly as possible and according to your personal views and experience. You have the right not to complete all questions if so desired. You are not required to indicate your name but your age, gender, occupation position etc. will contribute to a more comprehensive analysis. All information obtained from this questionnaire will be used for research purposes only.

After completion of the thesis, a summary of the findings of the research will be available to respondents on request. Any enquiries may be made to Mrs. Wang, email: yhqwang@gmail.com

or Prof. E.M. Lemmer, email: lemmeem@unisa.ac.za .

Thank you for your cooperation.

Mrs. Yuhua Wang

**A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE PROVISION OF MANDARIN AS FOREIGN LANGUAGE (MFL)
IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN CHINA AND SOUTH AFIRCA**

INSTRUCTIONS:

Please mark your choice with an "X" in the relevant fields and select only one option unless otherwise indicated.

The questionnaire consists of seven sections.

Section A: Biographical Data

Section B: Institutional Factors

Section C: Your perceptions of MFL Students

Section D: Teaching Methods

Section E: Curriculum

Section F: Further Comments

Section G: Mandarin Study as a Chinese degree

(to be answered by respondents in China only)

Section A: Biographical Data

Office use only

Date: ___/___/2012

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3

Serial no

1. Age category

1	20—30 years	
2	31—40 years	
3	41—50 years	
4	51—60 years	
5	Above 60 years	

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4

2. Gender

1	Male	
2	Female	

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5

3. Academic rank

1	Junior lecturer	
2	Lecturer	
3	Senior lecturer	
4	Associate professor	
5	Professor	
6	Other	

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6

4. On what basis are you employed?

1	Permanent	
2	Temporary	
3	Fixed term/contract	
4	Other	

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7

5. Level of education (please indicate your highest qualification only)			<input type="text"/> 8
1	Diploma		
2	Bachelor's degree or equivalent		
3	Honour's degree or equivalent		
4	Master's degree		
5	Doctorate		
6. Do you possess the Qualification Certificate for Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language issued by Hanban or other institution of teaching Mandarin as a foreign language?			<input type="text"/> 9
1	Yes		
2	No		
7. Number of years teaching Mandarin as a Foreign Language:			<input type="text"/> 10
1	2 years or less		
2	3-5 years		
3	6-10 years		
4	10 years+		
8. Are you are engaged in any of the following (please tick all options that apply):			<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 14
1	Writing journal article(s) on MFL or related issues		
2	Your own postgraduate study in MFL teaching or related issues		
3	Research project(s) dealing with MFL teaching or related issues		
4	None of the above		

Section B: Institutional Factors Please indicate your extent of agreement with each of the following statements by ticking the appropriate box. Please use the following five-point agreement-scale in this section: 1: Strongly disagree 2 : Disagree 3: Neutral 4: Agree 5: Strongly agree					
ITEMS	1	2	3	4	5
1. My university has a stable fund that supports MFL teaching.					
2. My university has a strong marketing drive to recruit MFL students.					
3. MFL at my university is subsidised by the Hanban.					
4. My university has sufficient teaching staff for MFL courses.					
5. The MFL teaching staff at my university is adequately qualified.					
6. My university has sufficient administrative staff to deal with MFL students.					

Section C: Your perceptions of MFL students

**Please answer each item by ticking off "X" the relevant option.
Use the following five-point scale in Section C:**

1: Strongly disagree

2 : Disagree

3: Neutral

4: Agree

5: Strongly agree

ITEMS	1	2	3	4	5
1. Most MFL students are English-speaking.					
2. Most MFL students are speakers of other Asian languages (e.g., Japanese, Korean).					
3. Most MFL students are speakers of indigenous African languages.					
4. Most MFL students are enrolled as full-time students.					
5. The enrolment of MFL students decreases as the courses become more advanced.					
6. MFL students study as many hours as students studying other university courses.					
7. MFL students have high expectation of themselves.					
8. MFL students enjoy learning Mandarin.					
9. MFL students find Mandarin a very difficult language to study.					
10. MFL students do not like to study Chinese characters because they find it too difficult.					
11. In Mandarin there are four tones that are very difficult for MFL students to pronounce.					
12. MFL students are given the opportunity to visit or travel in China for study or cultural purposes by the university.					
13. MFL students have the opportunity to compete in national Mandarin or Chinese cultural competitions.					
14. MFL students have an opportunity to study traditional Chinese characters.					
15. MFL students freely ask questions which relate to the teaching content in the classroom.					
16. MFL students are very quiet and reserved during class.					
17. MFL students have the opportunity to choose subject fields in Mandarin (aspects of Mandarin) which they would like to study.					
18. Additional Mandarin study materials are easily accessible to MFL students, e.g., dictionaries, novels, newspapers etc.					
19. Attendance of lectures or of group discussions (Unisa respondents only) by MFL students is good.					
20. Outstanding students who have graduated from the degree programme want to enrol in a postgraduate degree in Mandarin (e.g. Honours, Masters or Doctorate					

21. The average attendance of MFL classes by students is: ().

1	100%	
2	99%-90%	
3	89%-80%	
4	79%-70%	
5	69%-60%	
6	Less than 59%	

54

22. Number of students (full and part time) enrolled in MFL in my department/instructional unit. ().

1	50 or less	
2	51-100	
3	101-150	
4	151-200	
5	201-250	
6	251-300	

55

23. What is the level of the MFL students you are currently teaching? (please check as many of the options that apply)

1	Beginner	
2	Elementary	
3	Intermediate	
4	Advanced	
5	Postgraduate	

60

Section D: Teaching methods

Please answer each item by ticking off the "X" for the relevant option.

Use the following five-point scale in Section D:

1: Strongly disagree

2 : Disagree

3: Neutral

4: Agree

5: Strongly agree

ITEMS	1	2	3	4	5
1. The lecturer-student ratio in the MFL class is satisfactory.					
2. Traditional lecture methods are very useful when teaching MFL.					
3. Memorization is very important for Mandarin study.					
4. The student is the focus of my teaching.					

Section E: Curriculum

Please mark your choice with an "X" where relevant.

1. The type of MFL course in my university is... (You can choose more than one option) ().

1	Comprehensive Mandarin course	
2	Reading Mandarin course	
3	Listening Mandarin course	
4	Writing Mandarin course	
5	Others	

88

2. The number of different Mandarin courses that I teach is:

1	One	
2	Two	
3	Three	
4	Four	
5	More than five	

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89

3. My average number of normal MFL teaching hours per week is:

1	5 or less	
2	6-10	
3	11- 20	
4	21-30	
5	31- 40	
6	41-50	
7	50+	

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90

4. My average number of hours spent in MFL lesson preparation – besides normal working hours - is:

1	5 or less	
2	6-10	
3	11- 20	
4	21-30	
5	31- 40	
6	41-50	
7	50+	

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91

5. My typical MFL teaching time is:

1	In the morning	
2	In the afternoon	
3	During the whole day	
4	In the evening	

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92

6. Time set apart for providing additional assistance to MFL students outside of formal tuition per week :

1	None	
2	1-3 hours	
3	4-6 hours	
4	7-9 hours	
5	10+ hours	

93

7. My MFL workload is:

1	Very satisfactory	
2	Average	
3	Too much	
4	It can be more	

94

8. The most important course element for student success in Mandarin acquisition is:

1	The language environment which students are exposed to MFL	
2	Number of hours students devote to MFL study	
3	Classroom attendance	
4	Homework/ assignment completion	
5	Learning the written characters	
6	Language laboratory	
7	Interesting study materials	
8	Individual ability	

95

9. I give homework to my MFL students during:

1	Every lesson	
2	Every second lesson	
3	Every third or fourth lesson	
4	Every week	
5	Every alternative week	

96

10. I prefer to give my MFL students homework on the following aspects:

(You may select more than one option)

1	Vocabulary	
2	Writing	
3	Listening	
4	Reading	
*	Comprehensive practice	
5		
6	A combination of the above	

102

11. My prescribed MFL textbooks are:

1	Perfectly suited	
2	Suitable but some changes are needed	
3	Outdated	

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103

12. Beside textbooks, I use: (You may choose more than one option if necessary).

1	Study guides	
2	Reference books	
3	CD's	
4	Audio tapes	
5	Newspapers	
6	Magazine articles	
7	All of the above	

110

13. The frequency with which I revise my teaching materials is:

1	Annually	
2	Every second year	
3	Every third to fifth year	
4	In excess of five years	

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111

14. With regard to my teaching materials :

1	I compile my own teaching materials	
2	I am able to make suggestions to my leader/head of department, but cannot make changes to teaching material without permission	
3	I have to follow my leader's recommendations to conform with other colleagues	

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112

15. The main aim of my teaching is (please check all options that apply).

1	To Introduce Mandarin to my students	
2	To improve students' practical skills in Mandarin	
3	Ensure that students learn the required work	
4	Inspire students to learn	

116

16. The average final examination pass rate in my MFL courses are:

1	100%	
2	99%-90%	
3	89%-80%	
4	79%-70%	
5	69%-60%	
6	59%-50%	
7	Less than 49%	

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117

<p>17. The following factors are essential for the introduction (or planning of new courses) for postgraduate courses in Mandarin (i.e., Honours, Masters or doctorate) at my institution:</p> <p style="text-align: center;">(You may select more than one option)</p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse; margin-top: 10px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 5%; text-align: center;">1</td> <td style="width: 75%;">Additional qualified teaching staff</td> <td style="width: 20%;"></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;">2</td> <td>The acquisition of suitable Mandarin language literature / textbooks from the library</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;">3</td> <td>Financial support for postgraduate students</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;">4</td> <td>A demand for MFL postgraduate courses</td> <td></td> </tr> </table>	1	Additional qualified teaching staff		2	The acquisition of suitable Mandarin language literature / textbooks from the library		3	Financial support for postgraduate students		4	A demand for MFL postgraduate courses		<table border="1" style="width: 100%; height: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr><td style="height: 20px;"></td></tr> <tr><td style="height: 20px;"></td></tr> <tr><td style="height: 20px;"></td></tr> <tr><td style="height: 20px;"></td></tr> </table> <p style="text-align: right; margin-top: 10px;">121</p>				
1	Additional qualified teaching staff																
2	The acquisition of suitable Mandarin language literature / textbooks from the library																
3	Financial support for postgraduate students																
4	A demand for MFL postgraduate courses																

Section F: Further Comments	
<p>Please add some comments (only those that you think to be important and relevant to the aims of this survey).</p>	

Section G																				
<p>Mandarin Study as a Chinese Degree (Honour's, Master's and Doctoral)</p> <p>Note: Mark your choice with an "X" where relevant if your students study Mandarin for degree purpose.</p>																				
<p>1. The reason why my MFL students choose Chinese as their major in the degree programme is: (Tick more than one option if applicable).</p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse; margin-top: 10px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 5%; text-align: center;">1</td> <td style="width: 75%;">Political reasons</td> <td style="width: 20%;"></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;">2</td> <td>Prospects of a better job or salary</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;">3</td> <td>Educational reasons</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;">4</td> <td>Popular interest</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;">5</td> <td>Others</td> <td></td> </tr> </table>	1	Political reasons		2	Prospects of a better job or salary		3	Educational reasons		4	Popular interest		5	Others		<table border="1" style="width: 100%; height: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr><td style="height: 20px;"></td></tr> <tr><td style="height: 20px;"></td></tr> <tr><td style="height: 20px;"></td></tr> <tr><td style="height: 20px;"></td></tr> </table> <p style="text-align: right; margin-top: 10px;">126</p>				
1	Political reasons																			
2	Prospects of a better job or salary																			
3	Educational reasons																			
4	Popular interest																			
5	Others																			
<p>2. The difference between the first two years' study of the Chinese language course and the MFL course is :</p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse; margin-top: 10px;"> <tr> <td style="width: 5%; text-align: center;">1</td> <td style="width: 75%;">There is no difference</td> <td style="width: 20%;"></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;">2</td> <td>The Chinese language course is more difficult</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;">3</td> <td>The Chinese language course uses different textbooks</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;">4</td> <td>Unsure/ Other</td> <td></td> </tr> </table>	1	There is no difference		2	The Chinese language course is more difficult		3	The Chinese language course uses different textbooks		4	Unsure/ Other		<table border="1" style="width: 100%; height: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr><td style="height: 20px;"></td></tr> </table> <p style="text-align: right; margin-top: 10px;">127</p>							
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3	The Chinese language course uses different textbooks																			
4	Unsure/ Other																			

<p>3. The average percentage of students who graduate with a Bachelor's degree with Mandarin as major is:</p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse; margin: 10px 0;"> <tr><td style="width: 5%; text-align: center;">1</td><td style="width: 75%;">100%</td><td style="width: 20%;"></td></tr> <tr><td style="text-align: center;">2</td><td>99%-90%</td><td></td></tr> <tr><td style="text-align: center;">3</td><td>89%-80%</td><td></td></tr> <tr><td style="text-align: center;">4</td><td>79%-70%</td><td></td></tr> <tr><td style="text-align: center;">5</td><td>69%-60%</td><td></td></tr> <tr><td style="text-align: center;">6</td><td>59%-50%</td><td></td></tr> <tr><td style="text-align: center;">7</td><td>Less than 50%</td><td></td></tr> </table>	1	100%		2	99%-90%		3	89%-80%		4	79%-70%		5	69%-60%		6	59%-50%		7	Less than 50%		<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 60px; height: 20px; margin: 0 auto;"></div> <p>128</p>
1	100%																					
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3	89%-80%																					
4	79%-70%																					
5	69%-60%																					
6	59%-50%																					
7	Less than 50%																					
<p>4. The most important reason why my MFL students fail to graduate in Mandarin is</p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse; margin: 10px 0;"> <tr><td style="width: 5%; text-align: center;">1</td><td style="width: 75%;">Insufficient study</td><td style="width: 20%;"></td></tr> <tr><td style="text-align: center;">2</td><td>Individual linguistic ability</td><td></td></tr> <tr><td style="text-align: center;">3</td><td>Poor teaching</td><td></td></tr> <tr><td style="text-align: center;">4</td><td>Others</td><td></td></tr> </table>	1	Insufficient study		2	Individual linguistic ability		3	Poor teaching		4	Others		<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 60px; height: 20px; margin: 0 auto;"></div> <p>129</p>									
1	Insufficient study																					
2	Individual linguistic ability																					
3	Poor teaching																					
4	Others																					
<p>5. The average percentage of my MFL students who will apply for a further degree is estimated to be: (e.g., Master's or Doctorate)</p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse; margin: 10px 0;"> <tr><td style="width: 5%; text-align: center;">1</td><td style="width: 75%;">10% or less</td><td style="width: 20%;"></td></tr> <tr><td style="text-align: center;">2</td><td>11%-20%</td><td></td></tr> <tr><td style="text-align: center;">3</td><td>21%-30%</td><td></td></tr> <tr><td style="text-align: center;">4</td><td>31%-40%</td><td></td></tr> <tr><td style="text-align: center;">5</td><td>41%-50%</td><td></td></tr> <tr><td style="text-align: center;">6</td><td>Over 51%</td><td></td></tr> </table>	1	10% or less		2	11%-20%		3	21%-30%		4	31%-40%		5	41%-50%		6	Over 51%		<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 60px; height: 20px; margin: 0 auto;"></div> <p>130</p>			
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2	11%-20%																					
3	21%-30%																					
4	31%-40%																					
5	41%-50%																					
6	Over 51%																					
<p>6. My students' perception of Mandarin as a major is, that:</p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse; margin: 10px 0;"> <tr><td style="width: 5%; text-align: center;">1</td><td style="width: 75%;">It is a very difficult and stressful course</td><td style="width: 20%;"></td></tr> <tr><td style="text-align: center;">2</td><td>It is difficult but possible</td><td></td></tr> <tr><td style="text-align: center;">3</td><td>It is not different to majoring in any other foreign language</td><td></td></tr> <tr><td style="text-align: center;">4</td><td>Easy</td><td></td></tr> </table>	1	It is a very difficult and stressful course		2	It is difficult but possible		3	It is not different to majoring in any other foreign language		4	Easy		<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 60px; height: 20px; margin: 0 auto;"></div> <p>131</p>									
1	It is a very difficult and stressful course																					
2	It is difficult but possible																					
3	It is not different to majoring in any other foreign language																					
4	Easy																					
<p>7. Successful students will find that Mandarin has facilitated in,: (you may choose more than one option)</p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse; margin: 10px 0;"> <tr><td style="width: 5%; text-align: center;">1</td><td style="width: 75%;">Finding a good job in China</td><td style="width: 20%;"></td></tr> <tr><td style="text-align: center;">2</td><td>Earning a higher salary</td><td></td></tr> <tr><td style="text-align: center;">3</td><td>Obtaining access to further university study in another county</td><td></td></tr> <tr><td style="text-align: center;">4</td><td>Securing a good job in another country</td><td></td></tr> <tr><td style="text-align: center;">5</td><td>No obvious advantage</td><td></td></tr> </table>	1	Finding a good job in China		2	Earning a higher salary		3	Obtaining access to further university study in another county		4	Securing a good job in another country		5	No obvious advantage		<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 60px; height: 20px; margin: 0 auto;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 60px; height: 20px; margin: 0 auto;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 60px; height: 20px; margin: 0 auto;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 60px; height: 20px; margin: 0 auto;"></div> <p>136</p>						
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2	Earning a higher salary																					
3	Obtaining access to further university study in another county																					
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5	No obvious advantage																					
<p>8. Considering the numbers of foreign students studying Mandarin at my institution, I think that if Mandarin is offered as a major in other universities (e.g. University of South Africa), the demand will be</p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse; margin: 10px 0;"> <tr><td style="width: 5%; text-align: center;">1</td><td style="width: 75%;">Big</td><td style="width: 20%;"></td></tr> <tr><td style="text-align: center;">2</td><td>Moderate</td><td></td></tr> <tr><td style="text-align: center;">3</td><td>Small but growing</td><td></td></tr> <tr><td style="text-align: center;">4</td><td>No demand</td><td></td></tr> </table>	1	Big		2	Moderate		3	Small but growing		4	No demand		<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 60px; height: 20px; margin: 0 auto;"></div> <p>137</p>									
1	Big																					
2	Moderate																					
3	Small but growing																					
4	No demand																					

Thank you for completing this questionnaire!

COVERING LETTER AND QUESTIONNAIRE OF CHINESE VERSION

中国和南非高等学校对外汉语教学状况的比较研究

尊敬的同行：你们好！

这项调查是南非大学教育学专业（比较教育学方向）的博士学位论文《中国和南非高等学校对外汉语教学状况的比较研究》的一个组成部分。南非大学坐落在南非首都比勒陀利亚。

这项研究的目的是探讨中国和南非高等学校对外汉语教学的相似处和不同点。

您被真诚地邀请完成这项由七个部分组成的调查问卷 [第 G 部分只针对汉语作为学生专业(包括本科、硕士和博士学位)的授课教师]，请您尽可能如实地根据自己的个人经验填写。这份问卷大概需要 30 分钟完成。您有权对不喜欢回答的问题不进行回答。您不需要填写您自己 and 您所在单位的名字，但是年龄、性别和职位等信息可以帮助我们进行综合分析。这次调查问卷所获得的所有信息就只为博士学位论文和相关的学术论文研究目的而使用。

论文完成之后，电子版论文将通过电子邮件发到您所在单位的领导信箱。如果有其他需要，可以直接跟研究者王女士联系：email: yhqwang@gmail.com 其他方面的咨询您可以联系研究者的导师 E. Lemmer 教授, email: lemmeem@unisa.ac.za 或者联系南非大学教育学院道德规范委员会主席：L Nyaumwe 教授, email: nyauml@unisa.ac.za

谢谢您的合作！

王玉华

中国和南非高等学校对外汉语教学状况的比较研究

说明：

2. 在相关的选项中画“X”，在没有特别提示下每个问题请只选择一个答案。

3. 这项调查问卷由七部分组成

A 部分: 个人信息

B 部分: 院校制度因素

C 部分: 你对对外汉语学生的观点

D 部分: 教学方法

E 部分: 课程

F 部分: 进一步的意见

G 部分: 留学生攻读汉语专业学位的教学

A 部分: 个人信息

日期: ____/____/2012

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供办
公室
使用

3 序列号

9. 年龄范围

1	20—30 岁	
2	31—40 岁	
3	41—50 岁	
4	51—60 岁	
5	60 岁以上	

4

10. 性别

1	男	
2	女	

5

11. 学术头衔

1	助教	
2	讲师	
3	高级讲师	
4	副教授	
5	教授	

6

12. 任职性质

1	永久性	
2	临时性	

7

	3	固定期限/合同			
	4	其它			
13. 教育程度 (请填写您的最高学历)					8
	1	专科			
	2	三年制学士学位或同等学历			
	3	四年制学士学位或同等学历			
	4	硕士学位			
	5	博士学位			
14. 您是否获得了汉办或其他对外汉语教学机构颁发的对外汉语教师资格证书？					9
	1	是			
	2	否			
15. 您从事对外汉语教学的年限					10
	1	2年或少于2年			
	2	3-5年			
	3	6-10年			
	4	10年以上			
16. 您需要参加下面的一些工作吗？(您可以选择多项回答)					14
	1	撰写对外汉语及其相关问题的学术论文			
	2	攻读对外汉语或相关专业学位			
	3	做对外汉语及相关问题的项目研究			
	4	没有上面的选择			

B 部分：学院制度因素	
在 B 部分，请用下面的五个程度选项在合适的方块格里画“X”选	

<p>择您认为正确的答案。</p> <p>1：很不同意</p> <p>2：不同意</p> <p>3：一般</p> <p>4：同意</p> <p>5：非常同意</p>																
题目	1	2	3	4	5											
20.本校对对外汉语教学有比较稳定的经济支持。						<table border="1"> <tr><td></td></tr> </table>										
21.本校有充足的对外汉语生源。																
22.本校的对外汉语教学受到汉办的资助（财政方面）。																
23.本校有充足的对外汉语教学师资。																
24.本校的对外汉语教师具有相应的教学资格证书。																
25.本校有足够的行政人员处理对外汉语学生的事宜。																
26.本校有专门的对外汉语学生宿舍。																
27.本校有专门的留学生食堂来满足留学生的特殊需要。																
28.本校有专门的对外汉语学生的奖学金。																

金设置。																													
29.本校的对外汉语课程具有初、中、高三个等级。																													
30.对外汉语教学在本校受到重视。																													
31.本校有对外汉语教学实验室。																													
32.本校的对外汉语教学有大量需求。																													
33.目前本校的对外汉语学生数量在增加。																													
34.本校有非常有利的对外汉语学生口语技能课外练习的环境。																													
35.本校对外汉语教学课程时数足够。																													
36.在我们学院所有的汉语在职教师人数是 (包括辅导教师) (参看下面的选项)。																													
<table border="1"> <tr> <td>1</td> <td>5 或少于</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>2</td> <td>6-10</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>3</td> <td>11- 20</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>4</td> <td>21-30</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>5</td> <td>3 - 40</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>6</td> <td>41-50</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>7</td> <td>50+</td> <td></td> </tr> </table>									1	5 或少于		2	6-10		3	11- 20		4	21-30		5	3 - 40		6	41-50		7	50+	
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6	41-50																												
7	50+																												
37.在我们学院外聘汉语教师人数是 (包括辅导教师)																													
<table border="1"> <tr> <td>1</td> <td>5 或少于</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>2</td> <td>6-10</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>3</td> <td>11- 20</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>4</td> <td>21-30</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>5</td> <td>31- 40</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>6</td> <td>41-50</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>7</td> <td>50+</td> <td></td> </tr> </table>									1	5 或少于		2	6-10		3	11- 20		4	21-30		5	31- 40		6	41-50		7	50+	
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38.在我们学院管理人员人数是																													
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1	5 或少于																												
2	6-10																												
3	11- 20																												

30

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31

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32

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33

	4	21-30			
	5	31-40			
	6	41-50			
	7	50+			

C 部分：您对对外汉语学生的看法					
使用下面的五个选项，在您认为合适的答案选项中画“X”					
1：很不同意					
2：不同意					
3：一般					
4：同意					
5：非常同意					
题目	1	2	3	4	5
24. 大多数学生说英语。					
25. 大多数学生的说亚洲语言，如日语、 韩国语等。					
26. 大多数学生说非洲本土语言。					
27. 大多数学生是全职学生。					
28. 注册的学生人数随着课程的难度的加 深而减少。					
29. 学生在学习方面花费的时间和学校其 他学科的学生没有区别。					

30. 学生对自己的自我要求高。								
31. 学生喜欢学习汉语。								
32. 学生认为汉语是一种很难学习的语言。								
33. 学生不喜欢学习汉字因为他们觉得汉字太难了。								
34. 四声对留学生来说很难。								
35. 学校给对外汉语学生机会去中国旅行或访问从而帮助他们学习和了解中国文化。								
36. 学生有机会参加国家级汉语或中国文化的比赛。								53
37. 学生有机会学习繁体字。								
38. 在教室学生可以自由提出和教学内容相关的问题。								54
39. 学生在课堂上非常安静和谨慎。								
40. 学生有机会选择他们喜欢学习的某些汉语课程，像商务汉语，外交汉语。								
41. 学生很容易找到一些教材外的辅助学习材料，例如，词典，小说，报纸等。								55
42. 学生参加教师组织的小组讨论的出席状况比较好。(只针对南非大学)								

教过的内容。								
36. 在课堂上我总是创造机会让学生之间进行语言交流实践。								
37. 我更倾向于让学生在课后问问题，因为这样不会干扰我的教学。								
38. 我认为做语言实践比讲解更重要。								
39. 我相信听说读写四项技能是学习的目标。								
40. 学生听说技能的培养比读写更重要。								
41. 每节课我都花很多时间对学生讲解语法。								
42. 有必要从一开始就教学生汉字。								
43. 多媒体 (DVD、 CD、 PowerPoint 等) 经常在我的课堂上使用。								
44. 在我的对外汉语课堂上，除了教普通话以外，我也教少数民族语言。								
45. 我也教授其它的地方汉语像粤语、台湾汉语等。								
46. 我的学生必须适应我的教学方法。								

E 部分：课程

请在合适的选项中画“X”

9. 我们学校的对外汉语课程类型有 (你可以选择多项) :

1	综合课程	
2	阅读课程	
3	听力课程	
4	写作课程	
5	其它课程	

88

10. 我目前教的不同类型的课程数量有

1	一种	
2	两种	
3	三种	
4	四种	
5	五种及以上	

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89

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90

11. 一般来讲我的平均周对外汉语教学时数是

1	5 或少于	
2	6-10	
3	11- 20	
4	21-3	
5	31- 40	
6	41-50	
7	50+	

--

91

12. 平均每周课外时间用于准备对外汉语课的小时数是

1	5 或少于	
2	6-10	
	11- 20	
4	21-30	
5	31- 40	
6	41-50	
7	50+	

--

92

13. 我一般对外汉语的教学时间

1	早上	
2	下午	
3	全天	
4	晚上	

--

93

14. 每周给学生提供的课外辅导时间是

1	没有	
2	1-3 小时	
3	4-6 小时	
4	7-9 小时	
5	10+ 小时	

94

15. 我认为我的对外汉语的工作量

1	非常满意	
2	一般	
3	太多了	
4	还可以更多些	

95

16. 对学生而言成功掌握汉语的最重要因素是

1	让学生接触汉语的语言环境	
2	学生用于汉语学习的小时数	
3	课堂出勤	
4	完成作业	
5	学习写汉字	
6	语言图书馆	
7	有趣的学习材料	
8	个人能力	

96

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17. 我给学生留作业的频率

1	每节课	
2	每两节课	
3	每四节课	
4	每周	
5	每两周	

103

18. 我比较喜欢针对以下方面留作业

1	词汇	
2	书写	
3	听力	
4	阅读	
5	综合	
6	合并以上各项内容	

110

111

19. 我的教材是

1	完美的	
2	合适但有些内容需要修改	
3	过时了	

--

112

20. 除了教材，我使用下面的一些材料（如果有必要，你可以选择多项）

1	学习指南	
2	参考书	
3	CD	
4	录音带	
5	报纸	
6	杂志文章	
7	以上各项	

116

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21. 我修改教学材料的频率为

1	每年	
2	每两年	
3	每三年	
4	五年以上	

121

22. 关于教学材料

1	我自编教学材料	
2	关于教学材料，我可以向领导提出建议，没有许可教材不能改变	
3	我必须遵从领导的意见并和其他同事保持一致	

23. 我教学的主要目的是

1	向学生介绍汉语	
2	提高学生汉语的实践能力	
3	确保学生学到该学的东西	
4	启发学生去学习	

24. 我的学生最终考试通过率是

1	100%	
2	99%-90%	
3	89%-80%	
4	79%-70%	
5	69%-60%	

G 部分

只针对留学生攻读汉语专业学位的教学 (学士、硕士和博士)

注意：在你的选项上画“X”

9. 我的学生选择汉语作为专业的原因是 (可以选择多项)

1	政治因素	
2	从工作和报酬考虑	
3	教育因素	
4	汉语学习潮流	
5	其它	

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10. 汉语作为专业学习和汉语作为外语学习在课程的前两年的不同点是

1	没有什么不同	
2	作为专业的要难一些	
3	教材不同	
4	不确定 或其它方面	

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11. 汉语本科留学生毕业率是

1	100%	
2	99%-90%	
3	89%-80%	
4	79%-70%	
5	69% 60%	
6	59%-50%	
7	少于 50%	

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12. 我的学生不能毕业的最主要原因是

1	努力程度不够	
2	个人的语言能力问题	
3	教学上问题	
4	其它	

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13. 我的汉语本科留学生选择继续深造 (攻读硕士、博士学位) 的平均百

分比是

1	10% 或少于	
2	11%-20%	
3	21%-30%	
4	31%-40%	
5	41%-50%	
6	超过 51%	

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14. 学生对汉语作为专业的看法是

1	特别难并且有压力的课程	
2	有难度，但是是可能完成的	
3	和以其它外语作为专业来说没有不同	
4	容易	

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15. 成功的学生将会发现汉语有利于 (您可以选择多项)

1	在中国找到个好工作	
2	挣更高的工资	
3	获得进入其它国家大学学习的机会	
4	保证在其它国家找到个好工作	
	没有明显的优势	

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16. 考虑到在我们单位外国学生学习汉语的人数，我想如果汉语作为专业

在其它学校开设，这种需求会

1	大	
2	中等	
3	小但是在增长	
4	没有需要	

感谢您回答这份问卷

APPENDIX B : INTERVIEW GUIDE

Opening remarks

A brief re-explanation of objective
Confidentiality of the interview
Consent to tape interview on audio cassette
Prerogative to refuse the answering of certain questions
Signing of the Consent to participate in research project form
Completion of Basic interview information

1. Mandarin study background:

Your mother tongue;
The reason that you study Mandarin;
The experience of Mandarin study;

2. Mandarin study:

Basic Mandarin study information: full time or part time; classroom study or distance study; the level;
The language which you prefer your lecturer to use;
The study hours you spend for Mandarin per week except Mandarin lessons;
The hours of Mandarin lessons you have per week;
The different tapes of Mandarin courses you have;
Your Mandarin practice environment;
The best factor for your Mandarin study;
The feeling about your Mandarin class: satisfy or something should change;
About your lecturer's teaching methods;
About your homework;
About your exam

3. Future of your Mandarin study

The advantage of Mandarin in your live: find a better job, easy to communicate to China...
The idea that if Mandarin as your major;
The further study of Mandarin

APPENDIX C: ADDITIONAL TABLES OF CHAPTER 5

Section A

Table A1 Age and Gender				
Age and Gender	Country		Total	Frequency Missing
Frequency Col Pct	China	SA		
20-30 yrs	2 4.44	1 16.67	3	Frequency Missing = 1 Fisher's exact probability associated with Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 4.20 is 0.31 ^{ns}
31-40 yrs	20 44.44	2 33.33	22	
41-50 yrs	17 37.78	1 16.67	18	
51-60 yrs	5 11.11	2 33.33	7	
60+ yrs	1 2.22	0 0.00	1	
Male	10 22.22	2 33.33	12	Frequency Missing = 1 Fisher's exact probability associated with Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 0.36 is 0.55 ^{ns}
Female	35 77.78	4 66.67	39	
Total	45	6	51	

Table A2 Academic rank by country and qualifications by country				
Academic rank	Country		Total	Frequency Missing
Frequency Col Pct	China	SA		
1. Junior lecturer	2 4.65	1 16.67	3	Frequency Missing = 3 Fisher's exact probability associated with Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 2.42 is 0.66 ^{ns}
2. Lecturer	21 48.84	3 50.00	24	
3. Senior lecturer	1 2.33	0 0.00	1	
4. Ass professor	16 37.21	1 16.67	17	
5. Professor	3 6.98	1 16.67	4	
6. Total	43	6	49	
7. B-degree	1 2.22	0 0.00	1	Frequency Missing = 1 Fisher's exact probability associated with Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 2.42 is 0.49 ^{ns}
8. Honours	4 8.89	1 16.67	5	
9. Masters	28 62.22	5 83.33	33	
10. Doctorate	12 26.67	0 0.00	12	
11. Total	45	6	51	

Table A3 Hanban Qualification by country			
Qualification Certificate for Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language	Country		Total
	China	SA	
Yes	34 75.56	4 66.67	38
No	11 24.44	2 33.33	13
Total	45	6	51
Frequency Missing = 1 Fisher's exact probability associated with Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 0.22 is 0.64 ^{ns}			

Table A4 MFL involvement in research by country			
(8: MFL activities of respondent)	Country		Total
	China	SA	
1. None	6 13.33	2 33.33	8
2. Own post grad studies	2 4.44	0 0.00	2
3. MFL articles	7 15.56	1 16.67	8
4. MFL articles & projects	20 44.44	1 16.67	21
5. MFL articles & own post grad	2 4.44	0 0.00	2
6. MFL article, study, projects	8 17.78	2 33.33	10
7. Total	45	6	51
Frequency Missing = 1 Fisher's exact probability associated with Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 3.53 is 0.62 ^{ns}			

Table A5 Hanban Qualification according to degree/ non-degree MFL courses/ universities				
Qualification Certificate for Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language	MFL: non/ degree purpose			Total
	Non-degree MFL	Degree MFL	Non & degree purpose	
1. Yes	14 70.00	16 80.00	8 72.73	38
2. No	6 30.00	4 20.00	3 27.27	13
Total	20	20	11	51
Frequency Missing = 1 Fisher's exact probability associated with Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 0.55 is 0.76 ^{ns}				

Table A6 Basis of employment by degree/ non degree courses				
South African, Chinese universities	MFL: non/ degree purpose			Total
Frequency Col Pct	non-degree MFL	degree MFL	non & degree purpose	
Permanent	9 25.00	18 50.00	9 25.00	36
Temporary	2 66.67	0 0.00	1 33.33	3
Fixed/contract	9 75.00	2 16.67	1 8.33	12
				51
Frequency missing = 1 Fisher's exact probability associated with Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 11.52 is 0.021 *				

Table A7 (multiple choice) Respondent involvement in MFL research by degree/ non- degree purposes				
Q8: MFL activities of respondent	MFL: non/ degree purpose			Total
Frequency Col Pct	non- degree MFL	degree MFL	non & degree purpose	
none	4 20.00	4 20.00	0 0.00	8
own post-grad studies	0 0.00	0 0.00	2 18.18	2
MFL articles	6 30.00	1 5.00	1 9.09	8
MFL articles & projects	4 20.00	11 55.00	6 54.55	21
MFL articles & own post grad studies	1 5.00	1 5.00	0 0.00	2
MFL article, study, projects	5 25.00	3 15.00	2 18.18	10
Total	20	20	11	51
Frequency Missing = 1 Fisher's exact probability associated with Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 18.5 is 0.047 *				

Section B

Table B1						
Agreement rating frequencies and associated row percentages for the 16 Statements Institutional aspects of section B						
Items	Agreement rating					Total
Frequency Row Pct	disagree++	disagree	neutral	agree	agree++	
Q1. Stable fund for MFL teach support	3 5.77	4 7.69	17 32.69	15 28.85	13 25.00	52
Q2. Market drive, recruit MFL students	3 5.77	3 5.77	16 30.77	19 36.54	11 21.15	52
Q3. MFL Hanban subsidy	9 18.75	9 18.75	14 29.17	10 20.83	6 12.50	48
Q4. Sufficient staff to teach MFL	4 7.69	5 9.62	6 11.54	18 34.62	19 36.54	52
Q5. Teaching staff adequately qualified	2 3.85	6 11.54	8 15.38	16 30.77	20 38.46	52
Q6. Sufficient admin staff for MFL	6 11.54	2 3.85	9 17.31	21 40.38	14 26.92	52
Q7. Special accommodation MFL students	4 7.69	5 9.62	5 9.62	16 30.77	22 42.31	52
Q8. Canteen, diet MFL students	7 13.46	9 17.31	3 5.77	22 42.31	11 21.15	52
Q9. Special bursaries MFL students	4 7.69	5 9.62	5 9.62	16 30.77	22 42.31	52
Q10. MFL, elementary, intermediate, advanced	2 3.85	0 0.00	1 1.92	16 30.77	33 63.46	52
Q11. MFL highly valued	2 3.85	10 19.23	10 19.23	17 32.69	13 25.00	52
Q12. Language lab for MFL students	3 6.00	8 16.00	9 18.00	17 34.00	13 26.00	50
Q13. Large demand MFL teaching	4 7.69	5 9.62	14 26.92	16 30.77	13 25.00	52
Q14. MFL students increasing	3 5.77	8 15.38	18 34.62	18 34.62	5 9.62	52
Q15. Positive env, MFL converse skills	3 5.77	4 7.69	12 23.08	16 30.77	17 32.69	52
Q16. Teaching hours allocated to MFL teaching is sufficient	4 7.69	0 0.00	7 13.46	18 34.62	23 44.23	52
Total	63	83	154	271	266	826
Frequency Missing = 6 Probability associated with Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 125.04 is < 0.001 ***						

Table B2										
No fulltime staff by no of students										
no support staff	No students, China					Total	No students South Africa			
	25	75	225	275	25		75	225, & 275	Total	
Frequency Row Pct										
3	2 66.67	1 33.33	0 0.00	0 0.00	3	2 40.00	3 60.00	0	5	
8	1 14.29	1 14.29	0 0.00	5 71.43	7	0	0	0	0	
Total	3	2	0	5	10	2	3	0	5	

Section C

Items	Agreement rating					Total
	disagree++	disagree	Neutral	agree	agree++	
Q1. MFL mostly English speakers	12 23.08	16 30.77	8 15.38	12 23.08	4 7.69	52
Q2. MFL mostly Asian lang. speakers	6 11.54	9 17.31	13 25.00	19 36.54	5 9.62	52
Q3. MFL mostly African lang. speakers	27 55.10	15 30.61	5 10.20	2 4.08	0 0.00	49
Q4. MFL mostly fulltime students	2 3.85	3 5.77	3 5.77	25 48.08	19 36.54	52
Q5. MFL numbers decrease, course advanced	4 7.84	4 7.84	7 13.73	22 43.14	14 27.45	51
Q6. MFL students study same as others	5 10.20	8 16.33	15 30.61	18 36.73	3 6.12	49
Q7. MFL students, high expectations	3 5.88	6 11.76	34 66.67	8 15.69	0 0.00	51
Q8. MFL students enjoy learn Mandarin	1 1.96	1 1.96	20 39.22	28 54.90	1 1.96	51
Q9. MFL students find Mandarin difficult	1 1.92	0 0.00	12 23.08	25 48.08	14 26.92	52
Q10. Chinese characters difficult MFL students	2 3.92	5 9.80	19 37.25	18 35.29	7 13.73	51
Q11. Four Mandarin tones difficult MFL students	2 3.85	4 7.69	10 19.23	25 48.08	11 21.15	52
Q12. Opportunity MFL students travel China	2 3.85	4 7.69	6 11.54	18 34.62	22 42.31	52
Q13. MFL students compete Chinese competitions	0 0.00	3 5.88	11 21.57	14 27.45	23 45.10	51
Q14. MFL, study traditional Chinese characters	21 42.00	13 26.00	9 18.00	4 8.00	3 6.00	50
Q15. MFL students comfortable, ask questions	1 1.96	0 0.00	6 11.76	19 37.25	25 49.02	51
Q16. MFL students quiet & reserved	7 14.29	16 32.65	16 32.65	9 18.37	1 2.04	49
Q17. MFL choose Mandarin subject fields	4 7.84	6 11.76	8 15.69	17 33.33	16 31.37	51
Q18. Additional M study material accessible	3 5.77	2 3.85	9 17.31	18 34.62	20 38.46	52
Q19. MFL students attend lectures well	1 7.14	3 21.43	5 35.71	3 21.43	2 14.29	14
Q20. Desire performers, enroll post grad Mandarin	1 2.08	7 14.58	16 33.33	17 35.42	7 14.58	48
Total	105	125	232	321	197	980
Frequency Missing = 60						
Probability associated with Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 1512.54 is < 0.001 ***						

Table C2 Frequencies and row percentages on attendance by degree/ non-degree purpose of MFL course				
Average MFL class attendance	MFL: non/ degree purpose			Total
Frequency Row Pct	Non-degree MFL	Degree MFL	Non & degree purpose	
90-99%	5 21.74	11 47.83	7 30.43	23
80-89%	11 61.11	4 22.22	3 16.67	18
0-79%	3 42.86	3 42.86	1 14.29	7
<59%	1 100.00	0 0.00	0 0.00	1
Total	20	18	11	49
Frequency Missing = 3 Fisher's exact probability associated with Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 8.23 is = 0.21 ns				

Table C3 Frequencies and row percentages on the number of students per degree/ non-degree purpose course				
Number of enrolled MFL students	MFL: non/ degree purpose			Total
Frequency Row Pct	Non-degree MFL	Degree MFL	Non & degree purpose	
<50	5 100.00	0 0.00	0 0.00	5
51-100	4 66.67	2 33.33	0 0.00	6
201-250	0 0.00	0 0.00	2 100.00	2
251-300	6 31.58	6 31.58	7 36.84	19
Total	15	8	9	32
Frequency Missing = 20 Fisher's exact probability associated with Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 14.92 = 0.02 *				

Table C4 Frequency and column percentages on level of MFL students taught by respondents			
Combination of levels taught Frequency Col Pct	Country		Total
	China	SA	
Advanced	11 25.00	0 0.00	11
Advanced/ post graduate	1 2.27	0 0.00	1
Intermediate	9 20.45	0 0.00	9
Intermediate/ advanced	3 6.82	1 16.67	4
Elementary	8 18.18	1 16.67	9
Elementary/ advanced	1 2.27	0 0.00	1
Elementary/ advanced/ post graduate	1 2.27	0 0.00	1
elementary/ intermediate	2 4.55	0 0.00	2
Elementary/ intermediate/ advanced	1 2.27	1 16.67	2
Beginner/ elementary	2 4.55	0 0.00	2
Beginner/ elementary/intermediate	1 2.27	0 0.00	1
Beginner/ Elementary/ intermediate/ advanced	0 0.00	3 50.00	3
All levels	4 9.09	0 0.00	4
Total	44	6	50
Fisher's exact probability associated with Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 29.75 is < 0.001 ***			

Table C5 Level of MFL student	
Level	MFL level
Frequency Percent	Applicable
Beginner	11 11.70
Elementary	25 26.60
Intermediate	25 26.60
Advanced	27 28.72
post grad	6 6.38
Total	94 100.00

Section D

Items	Agreement rating					Total
	Frequency	disagree++	disagree	neutral	agree	
Row Pct						
1. MFL lecturer/student ratio satisfaction	1 2.00	2 4.00	11 22.00	25 50.00	11 22.00	50
2. Traditional lecture method, good MFL teach	1 1.92	3 5.77	18 34.62	24 46.15	6 11.54	52
3. Memorization essential MFL study	1 1.92	0 0.00	9 17.31	30 57.69	12 23.08	52
4. Student focus of teaching	1 1.92	0 0.00	6 11.54	26 50.00	19 36.54	52
5. Speak only Chinese teach MFL	2 3.85	3 5.77	8 15.38	22 42.31	17 32.69	52
6. Speak Chinese/Engl. teach MFL	11 22.45	15 30.61	11 22.45	9 18.37	3 6.12	49
7. Use English mostly MFL teaching	36 72.00	10 20.00	3 6.00	1 2.00	0 0.00	50
8. Use same teaching methods	15 30.00	20 40.00	12 24.00	3 6.00	0 0.00	50
9. Textbooks, basis teaching	3 5.77	1 1.92	8 15.38	33 63.46	7 13.46	52
10. Not only textbooks to teach	19 37.25	24 47.06	6 11.76	2 3.92	0 0.00	51
11. do not rely only on textbooks	0 0.00	4 8.16	6 12.24	18 36.73	21 42.86	49
12. MFL students reproduce material taught	1 1.92	0 0.00	13 25.00	19 36.54	19 36.54	52
13. Opportunity communicate fellow students	1 1.96	0 0.00	6 11.76	22 43.14	22 43.14	51
14. Prefer questions after class, not interrupt	12 24.00	12 24.00	14 28.00	9 18.00	3 6.00	50
15. Practice more important, explain	0 0.00	1 1.96	13 25.49	29 56.86	8 15.69	51
16. Speak, read, write, understand: Goal	2 3.92	3 5.88	12 23.53	26 50.98	8 15.69	51
17. Speak & listen, precedence, read & write	5 9.80	15 29.41	18 35.29	10 19.61	3 5.88	51
18. Most time: explain grammar	15 29.41	16 31.37	19 37.25	1 1.96	0 0.00	51
19. Use multimedia a lot	4 7.69	5 9.62	12 23.08	21 40.38	10 19.23	52
20. Necessary teach Chinese characters	3 5.88	7 13.73	12 23.53	16 31.37	13 25.49	51
21. Teach minority lang. & Mandarin, FML class	33 64.71	14 27.45	2 3.92	0 0.00	2 3.92	51
22. Cantonese, Taiwanese, Chinese, MFL class	30 60.00	18 36.00	1 2.00	0 0.00	1 2.00	50
23. Expect students adapt, teaching methods	13 26.00	11 22.00	21 42.00	5 10.00	0 0.00	50
Total	209	184	241	351	185	1170
Frequency Missing = 26						
Probability associated with Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 840.97 is < 0.001 ***						

Section E

Table E1		frequency column %
The type of MFL course in my university is		
items		
Frequency		applicable
Percent		
Comprehensive Mandarin course	51 (22.57)	
Reading Mandarin course	45 (19.91)	
Listening Mandarin course	46 (20.35)	
Writing Mandarin course	40 (17.70)	
Others	44 (19.47)	
Total	226	100.00

Table E2			
Country wise frequency distribution comparison of Number of Mandarin (MFL) courses taught			
Number of Mandarin courses taught	Country		Total
	China	SA	
Frequency Col Pct			
One	3 (6.52)	0 (0.00)	3
Two	19 (41.30)	3 (50.00)	22
Three	16 (34.78)	3 (50.00)	19
Four	6 (13.04)	0 (0.00)	6
> Four	2 (4.35)	0 (0.00)	2
Total	46	6	52

Fisher's exact probability associated with Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 1.87 is 0.076 ns
Probability associated with Cochran-Armitage trend statistic =0.44 is 0.33 ns

Table E3			
Country-wise frequency distribution comparison of MFL weekly teaching hours			
Normal, weekly MFL teaching hours)	Country		Total
	China	SA	
Frequency Col Pct			
6-10	12 26.09	2 40.00	14
11-20	34 73.91	3 60.00	37
Total	46	5	51

Frequency Missing = 1
Fisher's exact probability associated with the Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 0.44 is 0.60 ns
Probability associated with the Cochran-Armitage trend test statistic of 0.66 is 0.25 ns

Table E4			
Country-wise frequency distribution comparison of hours spent weekly on lesson preparation country			
Average MFL preparation time	Country		Total
	China	SA	
Frequency Col Pct			
<6	3 6.52	1 16.67	4
6-10	19 41.30	2 33.33	21
11-20	17 36.96	3 50.00	20
21-30	4 8.70	0 0.00	4
31-40	2 4.35	0 0.00	2
41-50	1 2.17	0 0.00	1
Total	46	6	52

Fisher's exact probability associated with the Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 1.94 is 0.85 ns
Probability associated with the Cochran-Armitage trend test statistic of 0.84 is 0.20 ns

Table E5 Country-wise frequency distribution comparison of suitability of prescribed text books			
Textbook (qe11: Evaluation, MFL textbooks)	Country		Total
	China	SA	
Frequency Col Pct	China	SA	Total
some change needed	36 78.26	3 50.00	39
outdated	10 21.74	3 50.00	13
Total	46	6	52

Fisher's exact probability associated with the Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 2.26 is 0.13, ns.
Probability associated with the Cochran-Armitage trend test statistic of -1.50 is 0.13, ns

Table E6 Country-wise frequency distribution comparison of workload of lecturers			
Workload(Lecturer workload)	Country		Total
	China	SA	
Frequency Col Pct	China	SA	Total
Very satisfactory	1 2.17	0 0.00	1
Average	17 36.96	3 60.00	20
Too much	27 58.70	2 40.00	29
Can be more	1 2.17	0 0.00	1
Total	46	5	51

Frequency Missing = 1
Fisher's exact probability associated with the Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 1.11 is 0.78 ns
Probability associated with the Cochran-Armitage trend test statistic of 0.78 is 0.22 ns

Table E7 Country-wise frequency distribution comparison of lecturer input in study material design			
Material (qe14: freedom, teaching material)	Country		Total
	China	SA	
Frequency Col Pct	China	SA	Total
Compile own material	12 28.57	1 20.00	13
Suggest, change need permission	9 21.43	0 0.00	9
Have to conform, leader	21 50.00	4 80.00	25
Total	42	5	47

Frequency Missing = 5
Fisher's exact probability associated with the Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 1.95 is 0.34, ns.
Probability associated with the Cochran-Armitage trend test statistic of -0.95 is 0.17 ns

Table E8 MFL Pass Rate by country			
Pass rate(qe16:Avge MFL exam pass rate)	Country		Total
	China	SA	
Frequency Col Pct	China	SA	Total
100%	2 4.35	0 0.00	2
90-99%	31 67.39	3 50.00	34
80-89%	11 23.91	3 50.00	14
70-79%	2 4.35	0 0.00	2
Total	46	6	52

Fisher's exact probability associated with the Pearson's chi-square test statistic of 2.11 is 0.55, ns.
Probability associated with the Cochran-Armitage trend test statistic of -0.83 is 0.20 ns

Table E9 Preference re homework topics	
Items	Frequency column %
Frequency Percent	Applicable
Vocabulary	10 14.08
Writing	7 9.86
Listening	3 4.23
Reading	4 5.63
Comprehension	24 33.80
Combination, above	23 32.39
Total	71 100.00

Table E10 Other teaching aids barring text books	
Items	Material
Frequency Percent	Applicable
Study guides	8 6.90
Reference books	21 18.10
CD.s	18 15.52
Audio tapes	15 12.93
Newspapers	17 14.66
Magazine articles	24 20.69
All above	13 11.21
Total	116 100.00

Table E11 Main aim of MFL teaching	
Aims	Frequency Column %
Frequency Percent	
Introduce Mandarin	5 6.49
Improve practical Mandarin skills	36 46.75
Ensure required work learnt	21 27.27
Inspire students to learn	15 19.48
Total	77 100.00

Section G

Table G1 (multi choice) Reason for choosing Mandarin as major for post degree studies	
QG1: reasons	Applicable
Frequency Percent	
Political reasons	2 5.00
Job prospects	17 42.50
Educational	3 7.50
Popular interests	14 35.00
Others	4 10.00
Total	40 100.00

Table G2 Difference of Mandarin courses between degree purpose and MFL			
QG2: difference, Chinese & MFL course	Country		Total
Frequency Col Pct	China	SA	
No difference	4 23.53	0 0.00	4
Chinese language is difficult	7 41.18	1 100.00	8
Use different textbooks	5 29.41	0 0.00	5
Unsure/ other	1 5.88	0 0.00	1
Total	17	1	18
Frequency Missing = 2			

Table G3 Average % of students graduate successfully for post degree with Mandarin as major			
QG3: % B degree, Mandarin major	Country		Total
Frequency Col Pct	China	SA	
90-99%	12 80.00	0 0.00	12
80-89%	2 13.33	0 0.00	2
70-79%	1 6.67	1 100.00	2
Total	15	1	16
Frequency Missing = 4			

Table G4 Reasons for failure to graduate in Mandarin			
QG4: Fail graduate Mandarin	Country		Total
Frequency Col Pct	China	SA	
Insufficient study	11 61.11	0 0.00	11
Linguistic abilities	7 38.89	1 100.00	8
Total	18	1	19
Frequency Missing = 1			

Table G5 Average % of students who will register for further degree of Mandarin studies			
QG5: Average % students do post grad	Country		Total
Frequency Col Pct	China	SA	
10%	10 71.43	0 0.00	10
11-20%	3 21.43	0 0.00	3
21-30%	1 7.14	0 0.00	1
31-40%	0 0.00	1 100.00	1
Total	14	1	15
Frequency Missing = 5			

Table G6 Student's perception of Mandarin as major according to lecturers			
QG6: Student perception, Mandarin major	Country		Total
Frequency Col Pct	China	SA	
Difficult, stressful course	2 11.11	1 100.00	3
Difficult but possible	10 55.56	0 0.00	10
Not different other majors	6 33.33	0 0.00	6
Total	18	1	19
Frequency Missing = 1			

Table G7 (multi choice) Mandarin facilitates with the following	
QG7: Opportunities	Benefit
Frequency Percent	Applicable
Job opportunities, China	18 41.86
Higher salary	12 27.91
Further univ. studies	4 9.30
Job another country	8 18.60
No advantage	1 2.33
Total	43 100.00

Table G8 Demand for Mandarin courses			
QG8: Demand, Mandarin for post graduate studies	Country		Total
Frequency Col Pct	China	SA	
Big	0	0	
Moderate	7 50.00	0 0.00	7
Small, growing	5 35.71	1 100.00	6
No demand	2 14.29	0 0.00	2
Total	14	1	15
Frequency Missing = 5			