

**THE ROLE OF COOPERATIVE GROUP WORK IN REDUCING COMMUNICATION
APPREHENSION AMONGST GRADE 7 LEARNERS**

CANDICE LIVINGSTON
B.A., B.A. (HONS), B.Ed., H.E.D.

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Supervisor: Prof. N.J. Vreken
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ABSTRACT

The research deals with an aspect of communication which could effect the teaching-learning situation, namely communication apprehension. The research also deals with cooperative group work, and the role that it plays in reducing communication apprehension.

A review of literature concerning cooperative group work, communication apprehension and the role of the educator was conducted in order to establish which factors could affect the role that these variables play in the classroom situation.

A general survey of educators was distributed to all the English first language schools in the KOSH (Klerksdorp-Orkney-Stilfontein and Hartebeesfontein) area of the North West province, and the data was analysed by the researcher.

The Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA) was used as an instrument to measure the learners communication apprehension. The responses were analysed with the assistance of the Statistical Consultant Service of Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education.

The study was two-fold: to determine if educators in the English first language primary schools in the KOSH area of the North West province, were implementing cooperative group work models in their classrooms, and to determine if the Grade 7 learners in these schools experienced communication apprehension. The study also aimed to determine if cooperative group work lessened the degree of communication apprehension experienced.

The first section of the study indicated that the educators in these schools were indeed implementing cooperative group work models, although 36.6% of these educators had not received any formal training in the implementation of cooperative group work in

their classrooms.

The second section of the study, the empirical study, indicated that the study population experienced an average communication apprehension of 47.7%. Afrikaans female learners experienced the lowest average communication apprehension of 44.2%, while Afrikaans male learners experienced the highest average communication apprehension of 54.8%.

The study indicated that L1 learners and ESL (English second language) learners experience comparative levels of communication apprehension.

The study also indicated that for each of the L1 and ESL groups, group work communication apprehension was lower than all other communication apprehension contexts.

Key words : *communication apprehension, communication anxiety, small groups, group work, cooperative group work, group instruction, facilitator, facilitation, teacher facilitation, ESL, second language, classroom management.*

OPSOMMING

Hierdie navorsing handel oor 'n aspek van kommunikasie, wat 'n invloed kan hê op die onderrigleersituasie, naamlik kommunikasievrees. Die navorsing handel ook oor koöperatiewe groepwerk en die rol wat dit speel om kommunikasievrees te verlaag.

'n Literatuuroorsig van koöperatiewe groepwerk, kommunikasievrees en die rol van die onderwyser is gedoen om vas te stel watter faktore hierdie veranderlikes beïnvloed en die klaskamersituasie. 'n Algemene opname is gedoen by al die Engels eerstetaal primêre skole in die KOSH-gebied van die Noordwes Provinsie en die inligting is deur die navorser geannaliseer.

Die Persoonlike Verslag van Kommunikasievrees is as instrument gebruik om leerders se kommunikasievrees te bepaal. Die antwoordstelsel is met die hulp van die Statistiese Konsultasiediens van die Potchefstroomse Universiteit vir Christelike Hoër Onderwys ontleed.

Die studie was tweevoudig: om vas te stel of die onderwysers in die Engels eerstetaal in die KOSH-gebied van die Noordwes Provinsie koöperatiewe groepwerkmodelle in hulle klasse toepas en om te bepaal of die Graad 7-leerders in hierdie skole kommunikasievrees ervaar. Die studie het ook beoog om vas te stel of koöperatiewe groepwerk die leerders se kommunikasievrees verlaag.

Die eerste afdeling van die studie toon dat die onderwysers in hierdie skole wel koöperatiewe groepwerkmodelle toepas, alhoewel 36.6% van hulle geen formele opleiding daarin gehad het nie.

Die tweede afdeling van die studie toon dat die leerders van die studiepopulasie 'n gemiddelde kommunikasievrees van 47.7% ervaar. Afrikaanse meisies ervaar die laagste gemiddelde kommunikasievrees, naamlik 44.2%, terwyl Afrikaanse seuns die hoogste gemiddelde kommunikasievrees ervaar, naamlik 54.8%. Die studie toon dat L1-

leerders en Engels tweedetaalleerders vergelykbare vlakke van kommunikasievrees ervaar. Die studie toon verder aan dat die leerders van L1-, sowel as van die Engels tweedetaalgroep, die laagste vlak van kommunikasievrees ervaar tydens die groepwerk.

Trefwoorde: communication apprehension, communication anxiety, small groups, group work, co-operative group work, group instruction, facilitator, facilitation, teacher facilitation, ESL, second language, classroom management.

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INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to introduce the outlines of this study. The questions posed by the statement of the problem and the notions of the communication apprehension experienced by second language speakers in English first language schools will be addressed. This chapter will also describe the methods of research, as well as the statistical techniques employed in the analysis of the data. The final section of this chapter will deal with the summaries of the different chapters that comprise this book.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The aim of this dissertation is to determine how group work influences the communication apprehension experienced by ESL (English second language) students, and whether or not educators are implementing group work models in their classrooms. The problem that needs to be addressed is, what the levels of communication apprehension experienced by ESL students are, and how group work situations either add to or diminish levels of communication apprehension? The second problem that needs to be addressed is whether or not educators are implementing group work models in their classrooms and whether or not these models are viewed as being effective to enhance learning and communication.

1.3 THE AIM OF THE RESEARCH

The study is based on the following hypothesis:

There is a relationship between group work, the mother-tongue of the learners and communication apprehension of these Grade 7 learners.

1.3.1 PROBLEM QUESTIONS

This hypothesis poses certain research questions:

- (1) Is there a difference between the general CA of L1 and ESL learners?
- (2) Is there a difference between the group work CA of L1 and ESL learners?
- (3) Is there a difference between the general CA and group work CA of
 - a. L1 learners
 - b. ESL learners
- (4) Do educators use group work models in their classroom?
- (5) What problems do educators encounter while employing group work models in their classrooms?
- (6) How has the role of the educator changed, from the traditional educator, to the facilitator, in group work situations?

Research questions 1-3 are answered by the empirical research, while questions 4-5 are answered in the discussion in chapter 5. Question 6 is answered through a review of literature.

1.4 METHOD OF RESEARCH

1.4.1 Literature study

A review of all the literature concerning communication apprehension, group work, ESL (English Second Language) and the role of the educator was conducted, using books,

journals, periodicals, dissertations and the Internet.

A DIALOG-search was conducted, using the following key words:

communication apprehension, communication anxiety, small groups, group work, group instruction, facilitation, teacher facilitation, ESL, second language, classroom management.

The review of literature is discussed in chapter 2, 3 and 4.

1.4.2 Empirical research

Using the information gained from the review of the relevant literature concerning communication apprehension, an adapted version of the Communication Questionnaire (McCroskey, 1977) was sent to all the English first language primary schools in the KOSH (Klerksdorp-Orkney-Stilfontein and Hartebeesfontien) area of the North-West Province. (Appendix 1). This questionnaire has been successfully used in communication apprehension studies before according to Malimabe(1997: 3) and Pretorius (1997:4).

A General survey questionnaire was designed by the researcher, aimed at ascertaining what group work models educators are employing in their classrooms, in the English first language primary schools in the KOSH area of the North-West Province.

1.5 POPULATION AND SAMPLE

1.5.1 Target population

Four English first language primary schools in the KOSH area were used as the target population. All the Grade 7 learners in these schools were tested in an effort to determine the difference between the communication apprehension experienced by English first language speakers (L1), and the communication apprehension of the

English second language speakers (L2). The role of group work, and how it effects L1 and L2 learners' communication apprehension levels was also studied.

1.5.2 Accessible population

The subjects to be used in this study are 258 Grade 7 learners in four multicultural schools in the KOSH area, of the North-West Province. The mother tongue of half the learners is Tswana (n= 130), while the mother tongue of the other learners is English (n=130).

The subjects in the General survey of Educators are all the educators (n=60) that teach these Grade 7 learners.

1.5.3 Method of sampling.

Using 4 Grade 7 classes in the schools being tested, ESL learners were identified in each class. Each of the learners was assigned a number and the entire class was tested, to determine if the ESL learners have varying levels of communication apprehension in relation to the English first language speakers.

1.5.4 Instrumentation

A paper-and-pencil instrument was used in this study. The variable which was tested in this research is communication apprehension and the measuring instrument relates to this variable. All learners completed a questionnaire which relates to how they experience communication apprehension in different contexts, namely group discussions, meetings, conversations, public speaking, and in the classroom.

The measuring instrument that was used is the Questionnaire on Communication (McCroskey, 1978:192) and adapted by Vreken and Vreken (1989) for the classroom situation.

The educators were asked to fill in a General survey questionnaire, (developed by the researcher) which was also a paper-and-pencil instrument.

1.5.5 Data collection procedure.

The type of research that was conducted, was a review of literature, reviewing all the relevant literature concerning group work, ESL, communication apprehension and the educator as facilitator. The research was conducted using questionnaires, to determine how learners experience communication apprehension in group work situations, and in general situations.

The independent variables identified by this research are ESL learners and group work. Both these variables are control variables. The dependent variable that will be studied is communication apprehension, and this is the variable which will be tested.

An analysis of the data will be undertaken to determine if ESL learners experience communication apprehension in group work situations.

1.6 Statistical analysis

Each of the questionnaires used allows computation of results immediately, by adding up of scores indicated on the questionnaire. The results are tallied and a total of 150 is obtained. This is then reworked to a percentage. A percentage of >66% indicates a high level of CA (Vreken, 2000).

The responses of the educators to the General survey questionnaire will be analysed by the researcher, using comparative tables and comparative percentages. A discussion will follow concerning the educators' written responses.

1.7 RESEARCH PROGRAMME

The following details the programme of the study:

- ◆ A review of the literature on communication apprehension, group work, English as a second language and the role of the educator was conducted.
- ◆ A questionnaire was designed to determine the levels of communication apprehension experienced by learners in various contexts: group discussions, meetings, conversations, public speaking and in the classroom.
- ◆ A general survey questionnaire was designed by the researcher, to determine if educators are implementing group work models in their classrooms, and what their opinions are concerning positive and negative feedback received from implementing these group work models.
- ◆ The questionnaire on communication and the general survey questionnaires were distributed to the four English first language primary schools in the KOSH area of the North-West Province.
- ◆ The responses were received and analysed.
- ◆ The results were analysed and explained.
- ◆ The findings of the results were discussed.
- ◆ Suggestions and recommendations were made.

1.8 STRUCTURE OF THE RESEARCH

Seven chapters form the structure of this study.

Chapter 1.

This chapter serves as an orientation point, providing the introduction, motivation and problem statement.

Chapter 2.

This chapter discusses the role of cooperative group work in the classroom.

Chapter 3.

This chapter analyses the role of communication apprehension in the communication process.

Chapter 4.

The role of the educator has been redefined within the OBE context in South Africa, and it has become necessary to formulate a new definition of the educator, that of the facilitator. This chapter aims to define the role of the facilitator within the classroom context, and to offer suitable solutions to problems that are encountered when facilitating learning within a group work context.

Chapter 5.

A General survey of educators in English first language primary schools in the KOSH area of the North-West Province was conducted to determine if educators are employing group work models in their classrooms, and to determine that if these models are being employed, what sort of feedback is being received from the educators concerning group work.

Chapter 6.

Empirical research and statistical analysis of data. The findings from the analysed data is tabulated and discussed.

Chapter 7.

The findings are discussed and suggestions and recommendations for educational benefits are made.

1.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter has outlined the statement of the problem, the purpose of the research, methods and programmes of research and the structure of the research were discussed

CHAPTER 2

COOPERATIVE GROUP WORK

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Before one can begin to define the role of a problem-centred approach to teaching, with the emphasis on cooperative learning and the development of learners' problem solving and creative abilities, these terms need to be defined. Group work or collaborative learning experiences can be defined as: Classroom-based activities in which students work together in small groups to apply and synthesize course concepts. Collaborative learning comprises a unique learning context, distinguished by self-directed peer interaction centred on a common task goal (Dobos, 1996:118). Oberem (2000) states that cooperative group work, consists of students helping each other and working together in small groups in order to master academic content, reduces individual competition and introduces team work in order to strengthen learning.

2.2. RATIONALE FOR COOPERATIVE GROUP WORK

Gelderblom and de Kock (1995:58) have noted that cooperative learning as a teaching-learning method, confronts school leavers with real-life situations where teamwork, effective communication and coordination and the division of tasks among people to achieve mutual goals are emphasised. In order to function effectively as adults, they are required to, work effectively with peers, superiors and subordinates, engage in analytical problem-solving and high-level reasoning practices and commit themselves to corporate goals. In South Africa we are currently facing a growing number of learners entering our classrooms, making sufficient provision for one-to-one interaction between learner and teacher difficult if not impossible. Teachers who still cling to the traditional lecture-orientated teaching approach as their main, or only, teaching style, are losing contact with their learners and are becoming increasingly

less effective. Moreover, invaluable educational opportunities may be lost for ever.

The role of cooperative learning situations is very important as noted by Artz and Newman (1990:448) as co-operative learning is an approach that involves a small group of learners working together as a team to solve a problem, complete a task, or accomplish a common goal. This introduces us to the concept of problem-solving in the cooperative group situation. Bitzer (1994:41) notes that educators and employers agree that students must develop certain skills to assure continued learning and job success; namely a command of the spoken word, and an ability to communicate orally, an ability to reason, solve problems and understand the consequences of actions....., all which can be achieved through group work situations. Artz and Newman (1990:450) substantiate this statement by saying that collaborative learning strategies have been credited with the promotion of critical thinking and improved problem-solving experiences when the problem has been solved.

Clarke and McDonough (1989:20) agree with all the previous statements and note that hand in hand with problem solving, the use of collaborative group work in the classroom can aid the development of the skills of collaboration and encourage more meaningful learning. The interactive nature of group work requires pupils to engage in synthesis, evaluation and communication.

Olds (in Nieuwoudt, 1997: 35) states that learning is not a matter of adapting one's thinking to the thinking of someone in control, but more a matter of contributing to a shared understanding of something and finding ways to share that understanding. This is the underlying definition of group work, which is to involve learners working together being responsible both for their own and each other's learning according to Brombacher (2000).

Abrami *et al.* (1995:1) states that cooperative learning is an instructional strategy in which students work together in groups that are carefully designed to promote positive interdependence. This positive interdependence is coupled with individual

accountability so that students are responsible for learning and contributing to the group task. Abrami *et al.* (1995:2-3) goes on to say that cooperative learning differs from other types of group work or traditional instruction in several ways. First, in contrast to traditional classrooms, where students usually work individually or sometimes competitively, students are required to function interdependently in cooperatively structured classrooms. Secondly, in a cooperative structure, students' goals are positively linked. When one student attains a goal, it increases the likelihood that other students will attain the goal, whereas in a competitive structure, goals are negatively linked; When one student attains a goal, it reduces the likelihood that other students will attain the goal. In an individualistic structure, goals are not linked; one student attaining a goal has no effect on the likelihood that other students will attain their goals. Third, cooperative learning differs from traditional instruction and group work in the degree and quality of instruction. Students in traditional whole-class instruction spend most of their time working by themselves or listening to their teacher, giving them minimal opportunity to interact with their peers. Finally, the teacher's role in a classroom using cooperative learning differs from a traditional classroom. With whole-class instruction, the teacher typically spends much of the day conducting direct instruction and managing students. The teacher is responsible for setting the academic objectives and controlling all classroom functions. The students adopt roles as listeners and note takers and work individually. In a cooperative learning classroom, the setting of academic and social objectives is often done in conjunction with the students. The teacher still uses direct instruction, but the role of the teacher during group work is one of observer and facilitator, rather than that of an all-knowing expert.

Hunter *et al.* (1998:7) has defined the term 'co-operacy'. Co-operacy is a word he coined to describe the technology of collective or consensus decision-making as distinct from democracy and autocracy. The underpinning values of co-operacy include: (1) all people are intrinsically of equal worth, (2) difference is to be valued, honoured and celebrated, (3) it is possible for all people to live and work together co-operatively, and (4) the best decisions are made by those people affected by them.

2.3. CO-OPERATIVE GROUP WORK: RESEARCH FINDINGS

Bertcher (1994:3) offers a definition of a group. A group is a dynamic social entity composed of two or more individuals. These individuals interact interdependently to achieve one or more common goals for the group or similar individual goals that each member believes can best be achieved through group participation. As a result of this participation, each member influences and is influenced by every other member to some degree. Over time, statuses and roles develop for members, while norms and values that regulate behaviour of consequences to the group are accepted by the members. Mabry (1980:5) notes that generally, a small group is said to exist if its members are able to conduct their affairs together in face-to-face interaction, and that small groups are composed of at least three members.

Bitzer (1994:43) states that collaborative instruction strategies can be used to promote the achievement of a wide variety of educational outcomes in higher education. These include the development of higher level learning and problem solving skills; raising students level of social maturity; increasing students ability to exercise judgement in the particular field; the creation of new structures with a view to accommodate the diversity in the student body; eliminating the basis for stereotypes based on race, gender, physical and other (for example, language proficiency) handicaps, and creating positive relationships among students.

Bruffee (1987:10) states that there are a set of basic assumptions, that collaborative learning is based on:

- Learning is an active, constructive process - to learn new information, ideas or skills, students have to work with them actively.
- Students must be challenged to develop and practice higher order skills - thus they must join the conversation of the discipline with knowledgeable peers.
- Higher education is wrestling with an explosion of diversity, a one-size-fits-all approach will no longer suffice.

- Learning is inherently social, mutual exploration, meaning-making and feedback often leads to better understanding on the part of students.
- Learning has affective and subjective dimensions. Collaboration builds connections between learners and ideas and, between learners and teachers.

Lesmeister (1992) states that every group has a unique personality and that groups are unique because people are. Every group has a personality of its own as a result of the unique individuals who come together to form it. Each member brings different interests, skills and goals to the group. Each group member has different values and attitudes. A group takes a life of its own as individuals gather to talk, learn, work and make decisions together. A group is stronger when its members are diverse. Individuals from different backgrounds (spiritual, cultural, political) offer a variety of ideas, values, perspectives and talents to the group. Individuals learn from one another, and the group benefits. A group is successful and functions effectively when all members have equal opportunity to share ideas and responsibilities. The group will benefit and members will develop leadership skills as a result of their involvement. A group can provide leadership within the community - but to do so, it needs to develop and function effectively. Effective groups develop when members, having a reason for working together, are dependant on one another to accomplish a goal, believe in the group goal and want to help accomplish it and understand how they will benefit from the group activity.

Cooperative learning is seen to meet the educational and social needs of a greater number of students with limited English proficiency (Kimberly, 1999:53). Trent *et al.* (1973:299) notes that small groups can foster feelings of trust if certain conditions are adhered to, namely acceptance of others, increased communication, valuing diversity and increased positive affect of others. Richmond and McCroskey (1989:54) however, note that small group settings can be very threatening for a person with high communication apprehension, and these students will typically try to avoid small group communication.

2.4. PROBLEM-CENTRED APPROACH TO TEACHING

Mills (1984:31) states that the group is a problem-solving team. A problem-centred approach to teaching has been identified as important by Johnson and Johnson (1988:64) due to the fact that if students are to become citizens capable of making reasoned judgements about the complex problems facing society, they must learn to use the higher-level reasoning and critical thinking processes involved in effective problem solving, especially problems for which different viewpoints can plausibly be developed.

Clarke and McDonough (1989:20) noted that in today's society the major advances will result from the collaborative efforts of groups of individuals who pool their expertise to solve problems which may not even have existed when those same individuals were at school. This implies that group work strategies should be taught to learners at school level, so as to promote problem solving skills into their coping skills for later life. Schwab (as quoted by Armstrong, 1998) who was a constructivist, notes that children and youth are actively engaged problem solvers due to the fact that children learn, interpret and organise information as individuals and that these processes are personal.

Yager (1991:54) agrees with Schwab in saying that constructivist teachers of science promote group learning, where two or three students discuss approaches to a given problem. Savoie and Hughes (1994:54) also note that by giving students a problem that really connects with their world, empowers them to generate solutions.

Shuell (1989) identifies certain implications of the problem-solving metaphor, and these are problem awareness, the fact that the learners need to be aware of the fact that a problem exists before a goal can be set to find a solution to the problem, understanding the problem, which implies that learners need to understand what is expected of them and how they are expected to solve the problem, and that understanding depends on how the problem is presented, and the manner in which the individual represents the

problem, prior knowledge, as prior knowledge and experience play an important role in problem solving and the way in which the problem will be presented. These issues are aspects of problem solving which the educator needs to be aware of and address before the process of implementing problem solving in cooperative group work situations can begin.

The development of learners' problem-solving abilities can be addressed in many ways. Savoie and Hughes (1994:54) suggests the following are characteristics of problem-based learning:

1. Begin with the problem
2. Ensure that the problem connects with the students' world.
3. Organize the subject matter around the problem, not around the discipline.
4. Give students the major responsibility for shaping and directing their own learning.
5. Use small teams as the context for most learning.
6. Require students to demonstrate what they have learned through a product or a performance.

As it is important to note that problem solving is goal-orientated (Shuell, 1989:102). It is vital to ensure that learners have a fixed goal when dealing with problems that are encountered in the subject matter. The learners need to focus on what they are trying to achieve before they set out to achieve the aim of solving the problem.

Bitzer (1994:42) identifies the following strategies that can be incorporated into cooperative learning to enhance problem-solving. These are guided design, case studies, simulations, peer groups or peer-tutor groups, supplemental instruction, discussion groups, seminars and learning opportunities. Kamwangamalu (1999:69) noted that peer-tutoring amongst Zulu-speaking students contributed to the academic development of Zulu-speaking students and provides an opportunity to appreciate English, in an English-only environment. The problem which was introduced here was

Limited English Proficiency and the goal was for the learners to develop English speaking and language skills.

Clarke and McDonough (1989:21) note that a problem solving environment consists of a wide variety of different problem solving situations. It might include short challenging tasks, puzzles, open-ended questions in familiar contexts, the application of practised skills to novel situations or extended group investigations lasting days for weeks.

Artz and Newman (1990:452) have noted that a real sense of satisfaction is attained in learning, achieving and solving problems together. Indeed cooperative learning supplies intrinsic motivation for learning mathematics.

Bitzer (1994:43) states that a growing body of evidence shows that collaborative instructional strategies can be used to promote the achievement of a wide variety of educational outcomes in higher education. These include the development of higher level learning and problem solving skills, raising students' level of social maturity, increasing students' ability to exercise judgement in the particular field.

Maree (1995:70) noted from research to assess the effect of problem-centred approaches to the teaching and learning of Mathematics, yields very encouraging results.

Fernandez *et al.* (1994:195) have noted that successful problem solvers spend more time analysing a problem and the directions that may be taken than do less successful problem solvers. Instruction should help students develop their managerial processes while emphasizing the role that these processes play in mathematics problem solving.

Savoie *et al.* (1994:54) found in their research that problem-based learning, also lends itself to using small groups as the context for learning. Clarke *et al.* (1989:20) agree with this statement and say that hand in hand with problem solving, the use of

cooperative group work in the classroom can aid the development of the skills of collaboration and encourage more meaningful learning. The interactive nature of group work requires the pupils engage in synthesis, evaluation and communication. Mills (1984:31) states that the group is a problem-solving team. In response to universal needs, universal conditions of communication, and standard requirements of the problem-solving process, the team generates a series of actions each of which can be classified according to its main function. A question, for example, stimulates an answer which calls forth an evaluative response. Since acts are classified as functions they are essentially unchanging (one occurring early in group life is equal to one occurring later on) which may be added up and otherwise manipulated in a representation of the group's operation.

2.5. THE HETEROGENEOUS / HOMOGENEOUS DICHOTOMY

When it comes to cooperative grouping, a dichotomy has arisen. Some researchers have found that heterogeneous groupings produce better results, while other researchers argue the value of homogeneous groupings. While both sets of groupings hold benefits for the group members, research indicates various pitfalls that are present in homogeneous groups. Educators should be aware of these pitfalls, and strive to select the grouping format which would most benefit the learner, ensuring that learning and comprehension occurs.

2.5.1. HETEROGENEOUS GROUPINGS IN COOPERATIVE GROUP WORK

Abrami (1995:62) stresses that the rationale for heterogeneous grouping is the fact that learners should get plenty of experience working with a diversity of people, from different cultural backgrounds, genders, races, abilities and interests. It is noted that this is particularly important in multicultural areas where learners need to understand and appreciate different values and cultures. Schneidewind and Davidson (2000:24) state that effective heterogeneous cooperative learning helps students grow academically, socially and emotionally.

Schneidewind and Davidson (2000:24) conducted a study in the mid-Hudson area of New York and in Boston, in the United States of America and reviewed the following guiding tenets concerning their research of cooperative groups used in schools.

- ▶ Within a heterogeneous cooperative group, differentiate tasks by complexity and quantity. A co-operatively structured lesson where everyone performs the same activity barely hints at cooperative learning's potential. It is imperative that students engage with the content at different complexity levels and learn varying amounts of material. As students all come to the cooperative learning situation with different prior learning experiences, these students can all contribute to the common goal of learning.
- ▶ Use a high-achieving student's work. Teachers can ask well-prepared students to integrate into the co-operative group task the advanced ideas they've worked on. As a result, all group members gain more complex understandings.
- ▶ Employ cooperative groups to enhance individualized work. Enhance student's individualized tasks with support and feedback from cooperative group members.
- ▶ Plan peer tutoring that challenges tutors and tutees. In peer tutoring situations, some people assume that one student gives all the information and the other receives. In fact, teachers can also plan tutoring activities in which both students learn in new ways.
- ▶ Add options for enrichment within cooperative learning. Teachers can give all students options for enrichment within cooperatively structured learning. Such opportunities can challenge pre-conceived notions of student ability.
- ▶ Design cooperative activities for multiple intelligences. Well-designed cooperative learning activities can be ideal for teaching to multiple intelligences. Students develop more sophisticated skills using intelligences in which they excel and build a broader range of skills by working in intelligences that are not as natural for them.
- ▶ Vary criteria for success. Within heterogeneous cooperative groups, students work on a common project but are assessed according to different criteria.

- ▶ Value cognitive, social and emotional learning. Those who argue that 'gifted students' aren't challenged in cooperative groups typically define learning in academic terms only. Because many educators who use co-operative learning seek both cognitive and affective outcomes, differentiation can also focus on social and emotional competencies. All students benefit from the social skills taught in cooperative learning, skills that are needed for working democratically with others.

Abrami *et al.* (1995:63) has noted that heterogeneous-ability grouping is used in classrooms. Ability or prior achievement is the most salient characteristic for heterogeneous grouping. One benefit of learning in heterogeneous-ability groups is that the more able students take on the role of tutors, teaching lower-ability students material that they have not grasped. Less able students are exposed to and model the learning strategies of their more able teammates. Also, through teaching the content, the tutors come to learn the material better.

2.5.2. HOMOGENEOUS GROUPINGS IN CO-OPERATIVE GROUP WORK

Slavin (in Hollifield, 1987) has conducted research on ability grouping (homogeneous grouping) in Elementary Schools. According to Slavin ability grouping increases student achievement by reducing the disparity in student ability and this increases the likelihood that teachers can provide instruction that is neither too easy nor too hard for most students. The assumption is that ability grouping allows the teacher (1) to increase the pace and raise the level of instruction for high achievers and (2) to provide more individual attention, repetition, and review for low achievers. The high achievers benefit from having to compete with one another, and the low achievers benefit from not having to compete with their more able peers.

Slavin (in Hollifield, 1987) examines evidence on the achievement effects of five comprehensive ability grouping plans in elementary schools. He has drawn the following conclusions:

1. The Ability Grouped Class Assignment places students in one self-contained class on the basis of ability or achievement. In some departmentalized upper elementary grades, the class may move as a whole from teacher to teacher. Evidence suggests that ability grouped class assignment does not enhance student achievement in the elementary school.
2. In Regrouping for Reading and Mathematics, the students are assigned to heterogeneous home room classes for most of the day, but are regrouped according to achievement level for one or more subjects. For example, all students from various home room classes of one grade level might be re-sorted into ability grouped classes for a period of reading instruction. Results indicate that regrouping for reading or mathematics can improve student achievement. However, the level and pace of instruction must be adapted to achievement level.
3. The Joplin plan assigns students to heterogeneous classes for most of the day but regroups them across grade levels for reading instruction. For example, a reading class at the fifth grade, first semester might include high achieving fourth graders, average achieving fifth graders and low achieving sixth graders. There is strong evidence that the Joplin plan increases reading achievement.
4. The Nongraded plan includes a variety of related grouping plans that place students in flexible groups according to performance rather than age. Thus, grade-level designations are eliminated. The curriculum for each subject is divided into levels through which students progress at their own rates. Well-controlled studies conducted in regular schools generally support the use of comprehensive nongraded plans.
5. Within-class ability grouping is generally used for reading and mathematics. Teachers assign students within their classroom to one of a small number of groups based on ability level. These groups work on different materials at rates unique to their needs and abilities. Too few studies have been conducted on the use of within-class ability grouping in reading to support or challenge its effectiveness. Research on within-class ability grouping in mathematics clearly supports the practice, especially when only two or three groups are formed. The

positive effects are slightly greater for low-achieving students than for high achievers.

Slavin (in Hollifield, 1987) concludes that schools and teachers should use the methods proved most effective and these are within-class ability grouping in mathematics, nongraded plans in reading and the Joplin Plan. Based on his examination of the features of successful and unsuccessful practices, Slavin (in Hollifield, 1987) recommends that the following elements be included in successful ability grouping plans:

- ▶ Students should identify primarily with a heterogeneous class.
- ▶ Grouping plans should reduce student heterogeneity in the specific skill being taught, not in IQ or overall achievement.
- ▶ Grouping plans should allow for frequent reassessment of student placement and for easy reassignments based on student progress.
- ▶ Teachers must vary the level and pace of instruction according to student levels of readiness and learning rates in regrouped classes.
- ▶ Only a small number of groups should be formed in within-class ability grouping. This will allow the teacher to provide adequate direct instruction for each group.

Davenport (1993) states that students are often homogeneously grouped in small groups in classrooms where clusters are based on ability or achievement within that particular classroom. It was also noted that the distribution of students to high, middle and low ability groups seems to be related to characteristics associated with SES: children from low-income or one-parent households, or from families with an unemployed worker, are more likely to be assigned to low ability groups.

Kituse (in Davenport, 1993) suggests that children from low income families with low grades and low test scores could be tracked higher, particularly because of parental intervention. The more telling finding is that children from low income families with adequate test scores and low grades were placed in a lower group, while

corresponding children from middle income families were placed in a middle group.

Oakes (in Davenport, 1993) notes that females, because they are sometimes seen as less able mathematically or because they express less interest in mathematics and science, may also be inappropriately placed in lower tracks, particularly at the secondary school level.

Hollifield (1987) notes that one of the main arguments against ability grouping is that the practice creates classes or groups of low achievers who are deprived of the example and stimulation provided by high achievers. Labelling students according to ability and assigning them to low-achieving groups may also communicate self-fulfilling low expectations.

Schneidewind and Davidson (2000:24) noted that homogeneously grouping students may limit teacher's expectations.

Abrami *et al.* (1995:64) notes that homogeneous-ability groups should meet the needs of all students. Judicious use of homogeneous groups can encourage your students to work to their potential. For example, some students working in heterogeneous-ability teams may not feel challenged, and may need the opportunity to interact with more advanced material. At the same time, special-needs students may need to work on specific skills mastered by higher-ability students. One drawback to homogeneous-ability groups is that polarization may occur. Students who are in the most able group may not regard their other classmates as equals, while students who are in the less able group may become discouraged. Homogeneous-ability grouping can also lead teachers to lower their expectations of students in low-ability groups to such an extent that the students no longer feel challenged.

2.6. COOPERATIVE GROUP DEVELOPMENT

Lesmeitster (1992) identifies four phases of group development: Forming, storming,

norming and performing.

2.6.1. **PHASE 1: FORMING**

This is an orientation period for the group members, as members do not know one another, their roles within the group, or the group goals. During this phase, a leader needs to establish a safe group environment and help members get to know one another. A leader can encourage members to ask questions, help members learn what this group can offer to them, and identify skills and assets each can bring to the group.

2.6.2.. **PHASE 2: STORMING**

During this phase, members become comfortable with expressing their opinions, and they begin questioning and challenging group leaders and one another. If a group is not allowed to work through this phase, the members will never learn how to deal with conflict effectively. During this phase, the group needs leadership to help them communicate effectively, and to involve all members to find ways to manage their conflicts.

2.6.3. **PHASE 3: NORMING**

In this phase, members begin to trust one another, and draw on one another's experiences to work through problems and make decisions. The group begins to work cooperatively. This is the time for leaders to help members develop common goals. A group must agree on a goal to work towards, or the group will have no reason to exist. Leaders need to continue reinforcing the trust built in the relationships, open communication and conflict management skills.

2.6.4. **PHASE 4: PERFORMING**

During this phase, the group has achieved a degree of harmony, defined its purpose,

examined relationships and begun to see the results of its work. Members have learned how to work together and contribute their skills to accomplish the goal of the group. During this phase, group leaders help members develop skills that will be rewarding to the individual and ultimately beneficial to the group.

When the membership of the group changes, it is common for the group to move through each of the four phases again. If only a few new members join an existing group, the process may be quicker and smoother than it was when the group was first formed according to Lesmeister (1992).

2.6.5. **SIX TENSIONS IN SMALL-GROUP ACTIVITIES**

Thiagarajan (1998) identifies six critical tensions which exist in small-group activities that can be powerful in enhancing or destroying its effectiveness. The six tensions that exist are: structure, pace, interaction, focus, concern and control.

2.6.5.1. **STRUCTURE**

Structure refers to how rigidly or flexibly the small-group activity should be implemented.

- | | | | |
|---|----------|---|---|
| ▶ | Tightest | : | explain the rules and enforce rigidly |
| ▶ | Tight | : | explain the rules and enforce fairly strictly |
| ▶ | Neutral | : | give an overview of rules and enforce flexibly |
| ▶ | Loose | : | explain the rules only when needed and apply them loosely |
| ▶ | Loosest | : | make up the rules as the group activity progresses and apply arbitrarily. |

2.6.5.2. **PACE**

Pace refers to how rapidly or leisurely the small-group activity should be implemented.

- ▶ Fastest : constantly rush group members and impose tight time limits.
- ▶ Fast : keep activity moving at a fairly fast pace.
- ▶ Neutral : keep activity moving at a comfortable pace.
- ▶ Slow : keep activity moving at a fairly slow pace.
- ▶ Slowest : constantly slow down the activity.

2.6.5.3. **INTERACTION**

Interaction refers to how the group members relate to one another.

- ▶ Most cooperative : high level of cooperation focusing on external threats and obstacles.
- ▶ Cooperative : de-emphasising scores and encouraging group members to help each other.
- ▶ Neutral : maintain a balance between cooperation and competition.
- ▶ Competitive : keep scores and encourage group members to out do opponents.
- ▶ Most competitive : cut-throat competition, with winning the only objective, with a reward for the winner.

2.6.5.4. **FOCUS**

Focus refers to which is more important, a positive procedure or an efficient result?

- ▶ Most process-focussed : keep activity interesting, playful and creative.
- ▶ Process-focussed : keep activity enjoyable
- ▶ Neutral : balance between enjoyable procedure and efficient results.
- ▶ Results-focussed : de-emphasize enjoyment and focus on getting job done.
- ▶ Most results-focussed : constantly emphasize the goals, results and outcomes of the activity.

2.6.5.5. **CONCERN**

Concern refers to whether the needs of the group or the needs of the individual are of more concern to the facilitator.

- ▶ Greatest individual concern : focus on individual needs and ignore needs of the group.
- ▶ Individual concern : focus little more on individual needs than on the needs of the group.
- ▶ Neutral : balance between individual needs and the needs of the group.
- ▶ Group concern : focus little more on group needs than on the needs of the individual.
- ▶ Greatest group concern : focus on group needs and ignore individual needs.

2.6.5.6. **CONTROL**

Control refers to where the group members look for direction and validation.

- ▶ Most internal : let group decide what is valuable to them. Facilitator has an unobtrusive role.

- ▶ Internal : avoid giving suggestions and feedback. Facilitator takes a background role.
- ▶ Neutral : maintain a balance between participation and withdrawal from group activities.
- ▶ External : give suggestions and feedback. Facilitator takes a consultant role.
- ▶ Most external : provide authoritative advice and evaluation. Facilitator takes a leadership role.

2.6.6. **TACTICS TO OVERCOME TENSIONS IN CO-OPERATIVE GROUP WORK**

Thiagarajan (1998) suggests that the secret of effective facilitation is to make the tensions discussed above, apparent. Certain tactics are suggested to overcome the tensions which exists in small-group activities.

These tactics include:

- Tightening the structure at the beginning of a group activity and generally loosening the structure as group participants become more familiar with the activity.
- Begin the activity quickly, and slow down the pace if sloppy ideas or products are presented.
- Introduce competition to reward effective performance, and increase cooperation to reduce conflict, always rewarding the group for speed, quality, efficiency, fluency, creativity, novelty and other positive factors.
- To increase focus on process, introduce game elements and bonus scores.
- Allow group members to make suggestions for making procedures more interesting.
- To increase focus on results, use a scoring system to reward individual or group effort, and always discuss the results.

- Have the members of the group commit themselves to getting the job done.
- In order to pay more attention to the needs of the group, identify the dominant group members and give them additional roles, in order to channel their excess energy.
- Have the group check their own progress, to ensure that the needs of all members are being met.
- To increase external control, use cues to attract everyone's attention, like clapping of hands or turning the lights off, and to increase internal control, explain the role of the facilitator, and allow members of the group to answer questions by redirecting it back at them.

2.7. GOALS IN COOPERATIVE GROUP WORK

Motivation in education is the one determinant as to whether learning will occur, during the teaching-learning process. Motivation is an important quality that affects all classroom activities because it can influence both learning of new behaviours and performance of previously learned behaviours. Learning and performance are related in a reciprocal fashion to motivation (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996:21).

Pintrich *et al.* (1996:4) states that motivation is the process whereby goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained, and that motivation involves goals that provide impetus for direction and action. Goals are the underlying factor in determining whether a learner wants to learn, and how they go about the activity of learning. Mabry *et al.* (1980:4) highlights the role that goals play in group work communication, when defining a group as a network of people who have intentionally invested part of their personal decision making power in the authority of a larger social unit (called the group) in pursuit of mutually desired but separately unobtainable goals.

Hill (1997) states that group goals are a combination of the individual goals of all the group members. It is the individual members acting together who set group goals. All group members should participate in discussing and defining group goals. If they are

involved, they will be more cooperative and committed to achieving the group's goals.

Hill (1997) goes on to say that group goals provide direction for activities and pull together group effort. Group goals form the basis to resolve conflict for the best interest of group action. Group goals form the basis for evaluating the effectiveness of group efforts.

Napier *et al.* (1987:203) refer to goals in the broadest sense as being, future oriented in perspective.

Lipit (in Napier & Gershenfeld, 1987:204) suggests a few steps to help a group be more productive:

- the group must have a clear understanding of its purposes.
- the group should become conscious of its own process. By improving the process, the group can improve its problem-solving ability.
- the group should become aware of the skills, talents and other resources within its membership and to remain flexible in using them.
- the group should develop group methods of evaluation, so that the group can have methods of improving the process.
- the group should create new jobs and committees as needed and terminate others when they are no longer compatible with goals.

It can therefore be stated that a group cannot function effectively if the goals which have been set by the group are not being met.

In Locke and Latham's theory (in Pintrich & Schunk, 1996: 210) it is noted that there are two important aspects of goals: goal choice and goal commitment. Goal choice refers to the actual goal individuals are trying to obtain and the level at which they are trying to attain it, and goal commitment refers to how strongly individuals are attached to the goal, how enthusiastic they are about the goal, or how determined to achieve the

goal. There are certain factors which influence goal choice according to the Locke and Latham Model (in Pintrich & Schunk, 1996:212) and factors are presented in the following table:

Table 2.1 Factors influencing goal choice and goal commitment in Locke and Latham's model.

Personal-individual factors	Social-environmental factors
Previous performance	1. Group factors
Actual ability/skill level	Group norms, normative information
Self-efficacy	Group goals
Causal attributions	Peer group
Valence/values	2. Role modelling
Mood	3. Reward structure
	Nature of rewards
	Competition
	4. Nature of authority and goal assignment
	Authority is legitimate
	Authority is knowledgeable
	5. Nature of feedback
	Conveys efficacy information
	Fosters sense of achievement and mastery
	Implies opportunity for self-development

Bertcher (1994:8) states that given an agreed-upon set of goals, a collection of individuals will not become a successful group unless its members can learn to function interdependently and are willing to do so. If a group is to be successful, two kinds of interdependent behaviours must be performed by members: task behaviours - those related to goal achievement - and socio-emotional behaviours - related to maintaining harmonious relations among members while they are working to achieve goals.

Hill (1997) notes that if group actions and activities are part of a well-planned progression toward group goals, participants will find them useful and rewarding. If members don't have clear understanding or have different definitions of group goals, both meetings and group efforts will fall apart. If group members have a clear understanding of their goals and are working together toward these goals, getting together will be viewed as valuable time.

Jacques (1984:26-27) states that all groups have goals, some very long range and sometimes goals are defined clearly, specifically and publicly and other times they are vague, general and only implicit. Jacques (1984:28-31) notes that there are group maintenance and group task functions, enabling a group to function properly. Group building and maintenance roles - those which contribute to building relationships and cohesiveness among the membership (social dimension) and group task roles - those which help the group do its work (the task dimension). The first set of functions is required for the group to maintain itself as a group; the second set, for the locomotion of the group toward its goals.

Jacques (1984:29) suggests the following task functions for a group:

- ▶ Initiating - suggesting new ideas or a changed way of looking at the group problem or goal, proposing new activities.
- ▶ Information seeking - asking for relevant facts or authoritative information.
- ▶ Information giving - providing relevant facts or authoritative information or relating personal experience pertinently to the group task.
- ▶ Opinion giving - stating a pertinent belief or opinion about something the group is considering.
- ▶ Clarifying - probing for meaning and understanding, restating something the group is considering.
- ▶ Elaborating - building on a previous comment, enlarging on it, giving examples.
- ▶ Co-ordinating - showing or clarifying the relationships among various ideas, trying to pull ideas and suggestions together.
- ▶ Orientating - defining the progress of the discussion in terms of the group's

goals, raising questions about the direction the discussion is taking.

- ▶ Testing - checking with the group to see if it is ready to make a decision or to take some action.
- ▶ Summarising - reviewing the content of past discussion.

Goal setting is seen as a task dimension of group work, and is vital in ensuring the functioning of the group.

Abrami *et al.* (1995:56) states that classes that have some prior familiarity with an upcoming topic of study can engage in a group goal-setting process that will encourage commitment and reduce conflict. This process consists of a series of steps adjusted to the group's task and time limits. The steps in the goal setting process are:

1. Without consulting other group members, list the goals you would like to accomplish while working on (topic, unit, course) during the upcoming (lesson, unit, term, six months).
2. Individually, number your items in order of priority, putting number 1 beside the most important.
3. Each student reads his or her list to the group, while a recorder collates the information on a large sheet of newsprint (chart paper).
4. Use lines to connect similar items or different coloured markers to circle similar items in order to determine common objectives.
5. Discuss and set group, subgroup and individual priorities. Decide which items will be worked on by the whole group, which will be worked on by pairs or smaller subgroups, which will be done by individuals, and which will be dropped.
6. Plan a timetable, making sure items are in a logical sequence so that the accomplishment of each goal contributes to subsequent ones.
7. Finally, decide how members will help each other achieve both common and individual goals.

2.7.1. **IMPLICATIONS OF CO-OPERATIVE GROUP WORK GOALS FOR EDUCATORS**

Locke and Latham's theory has specific implications for educators (in Pintrich & Schunk, 1996:217).

- ▶ Set clear and specific goals. Educators should set very clear and unambiguous goals, for the learners, in order to ensure that learners receive the maximum benefit from encouraging learners to do their best.
- ▶ Goals should be challenging and difficult, but not outside the range of student's capabilities. Learners should spend most of their time working on tasks that challenge them, but which are not beyond their capabilities so as to prove frustrating.
- ▶ Set both proximal and distal goals for students.
- ▶ Provide feedback that increases student's self-efficacy for obtaining the goal.

2.8. **COOPERATIVE GROUP ROLES**

Muchmore (in Book & Galvin, 1975:9) states that a role may be defined as the collection of rights, duties, attitudes and values that constitute norms defining behaviour appropriate to performing a given function in a given group, and Luft (1970:33) states that a role is a pattern of behaviour which characterises an individual's place in a group. Borman (1975:201) defines a role in the small group as that set of common perceptions and expectations shared by the members about the behaviour of an individual in both task and social dimensions of group interaction.

Fernandez *et al.* (1994:197) found that students may have difficulty in working in groups and that by assigning each member a group role, it could help in students overcoming any difficulties they may experience. Further more, it is suggested that in pair tutoring, one student be given a problem to solve, while the other student listens and monitors the solver's actions and asks questions to understand the solver's

thinking. This also aids in the understanding process, as learners have to actively be engaged in the problem solving dilemma, and have to ask questions and explain answers in order to clarify the goal and outcome of the problem solving. Write Environment, Inc (2000) states that it will encourage group functioning if the facilitator assigns roles to group members (i.e. leader, recorder, questioner, summarizer, etc.). Periodically reassign the roles to others in the group.

Schneidewind and Davidson (2000:26) state that research has found that differentiated social learning can be assisted, by assigning group roles appropriate to student's current skill levels. Materials manager and timekeeper roles fit the needs of students with basic social skills, and facilitator or harmonizer roles are better for students with more highly developed group work skills. Teachers can for instance, assign the most demanding group roles, such as process observer, to students who will be least challenged by the cooperative task.

Abrami *et al.* (1995:74) identifies interpersonal, cognitive and functional roles in group work. The interpersonal roles are defined as: the *facilitator* who is responsible for inviting everyone to participate and for ensuring that the group is working together harmoniously. The *encourager* whose job it is to encourage the teammates, praise their contributions, and keep up morale in the group. The *observer* who will observe how well the group works together and will note any difficulties that arise. The *quiet monitor* who must make sure that the group is working quietly together and not disturbing other groups.

The cognitive roles are defined as follows: The *summarizer*, whose job it is to summarize the ideas the group and the teammates come up with on a regular basis during the group's discussion. The *checker* who has the job to check that every member of the group understands the material and can explain how to do the task or the rationale behind the group's behaviour. The *prober* whose job it is to get the teammates to think more deeply about the material and the ideas they come up with. The *elaborator* who has the job of building on the teammates' ideas and to encourage

them to do so by, for example, considering additional alternatives or consequences.

The functional roles are defined as: the *recorder* who is responsible for writing down the group's responses. The recorder must carefully record what the entire group decides. The *reader* who will read aloud the materials to the teammates. The reader must remember to read slowly and clearly, and to check that the teammates are able to follow. The *time manager* who is in charge of keeping the group on schedule, ensuring that the work is completed in the allotted time. The *materials manager* who is responsible for gathering the materials needed for the groups' task and for keeping them organized.

2.8.1. THE ROLE OF LEADERSHIP IN THE COOPERATIVE GROUPS

Lesmeister (1992) outlines popular definitions of leaders and leadership and these include the following: leaders help others (individual communities) achieve things they want to accomplish, and leadership [is] about accomplishing tasks and reaching goals through the efforts of other people, a leader is an individual in any situation in which his/her ideas and actions influence the thoughts and behaviour of others and if leadership is the process of influencing people by ideas, then there is no limit to the number of leaders that can influence within a group. In fact, the more the better because the very act of leadership develops initiative, creativity and responsibility.

Lesmeister (1992) states that there are reasons as to why a group needs leadership.

A leader helps a group to:

- (1) Get organised: Leaders help members understand the purpose of the group and reasons for their involvement. They help members identify the skills they have to share with the group.
- (2) Develop its program: Leaders help define group goals. Group leaders see how the group relates to the larger community. They invite individuals from outside the group to join forces to accomplish their goals, too. Leaders help members explore options for accomplishing goals.

- (3) Grow as an effective group: Leaders help members understand the phases of group development and assist in working through the phases successfully. Leaders help the group evaluate itself, its members and its program.
- (4) Enhance individual growth: Leaders help individuals get to know one another, communicate openly and effectively and expand their skills.

Lesmeister (1992) also states that the group benefits when its leaders grow as individuals, too. Group leaders need to continually share their skills, take risks, model positive group behaviour, learn and evaluate themselves.

Bertcher (1994:47) states that the group leader (or convening member) describes and discusses his or her expectations about the operation of the group. This includes telling the group what they can and cannot expect of her or him, what he or she should expect of each other, that is, their roles. Members should understand that their roles include being helpful to one another by doing such things as listening, giving suggestions, seeking or giving information that might be useful, giving support, and so on. Lesmeister (1992) states that there is nothing mysterious about being a leader. Leadership is a learned behaviour. Everyone can improve leadership skills through practice. Every person within a group can provide some type of leadership. Everyone has different personality traits and skills. Some members may use their leadership skills continuously, while others are leaders only during a specific project.

Borman (1975:253) notes that an important principle of role development is that the role a person takes is worked out by the individual and the group together. Thus, the observed behaviour of a given group leader is to some extent idiosyncratic. It is noted that each leader will behave differently in any given group, and thus, his/her behaviour will be seen as differing in various group contexts.

2.8.2. DIFFERENT TYPES OF LEADERSHIP ROLES IN THE COOPERATIVE GROUP

According to Lesmeister (1992) a group needs people to fulfil three basic types of leadership roles; task roles, maintenance roles and individual roles.

2.8.2.1. TASK ROLES

The leader in a group helps to coordinate a group to get something accomplished, and helps to identify its goals, outline tasks that need to be completed and ensure that tasks are completed, according to Lesmeister (1992). These task roles can be defined as the following:

- ▶ **Facilitator** : guides the group through the process of achieving it goals.
- ▶ **Idea Person** : is enthusiastic, creative and engaging. All things are possible to this member.
- ▶ **Quality Controller** : questions, inspects and challenges ideas and decisions to keep the group focussed.
- ▶ **Doer** : is task orientated and gets things done. This person may be impatient with slow progress.

2.8.2.2. MAINTENANCE ROLES

According to Lesmeister (1992) leaders fulfilling these roles are concerned with relationships within the group. They help individuals get along, communicate, deal with conflict and work together successfully. These maintenance roles can be defined as the following:

- ▶ **Team builder** : is concerned with group morale and working together.
- ▶ **Synthesizer** : blends the individual ideas to provide an overall

group plan.

- ▶ Recorder : serves as the “group memory”. This may be a formal secretarial role or recorder for one event.

2.8.2.3. INDIVIDUAL ROLES

Lesmeister (1992) states that individual needs may be different from group needs. Leaders fulfilling these roles promote individual development in and out of the group, observe individual behaviour and channel energy in a way that is helpful to individuals and the group. There are two main individual roles for leaders in a group:

- ▶ External contact : provides access to resources outside the group.
- ▶ Mentor : helps individuals within the group find ways to expand their skills and resources.

2.8.3. THE ROLE OF GATEKEEPING IN CO-OPERATIVE GROUP WORK

Gatekeeping is behaviour that helps all members of the group participate more or less equally by limiting those members who monopolize the discussion by encouraging low participators to talk more. Although no group achieves total equality of participation among its members, gatekeeping is used to achieve fairly equitable distribution of participation among its members (Bertcher, 1994:114).

2.9 KEYS TO EFFECTIVE FUNCTIONING OF COOPERATIVE GROUP WORK: RESEARCH FINDINGS

Ngeow (1998) identifies principles that are common to any group learning approach:

- ▶ A group-learning task is designed based on shared learning goals and outcomes.
- ▶ Small-group learning takes place in groups between 3-5 students.

- ▶ Cooperative behaviour involves trust-building activities, joint planning and an understanding of team support conduct.
- ▶ Positive interdependence is developed through setting mutual goals and individual accountability, role fulfilment and task commitment are expected of students.

Stahl (1994) states that students completing cooperative learning group tasks tend to have higher academic test scores, higher self-esteem, greater numbers of positive social skills, fewer stereotypes of individuals of other races or ethnic groups and greater comprehension of content and skills they are studying, yet to be successful in setting up and having students complete group tasks within a cooperative learning framework, a number of essential elements or requirements must be met and research has shown that the following elements are essential. These elements/requirements as named by Stahl (1994) are as follows (other author's opinions will be incorporated):

2.9.1. A CLEAR SET OF SPECIFIC STUDENT LEARNING OUTCOME OBJECTIVES

It is imperative that facilitators use unambiguous language when describing the academic content, attitudes, or skills that the learners are to engage in and achieve by the end of the collaborative group experience. Write Environment, Inc (2000) states that the first few tasks should be very specific and objective. Students should know exactly what is expected of them in terms of both behaviour and content learning.

2.9.2. ALL STUDENTS IN THE GROUP 'BUY INTO' THE TARGETED OUTCOME

Learners have to make the outcomes of the lesson their own, and in order to do this, the learners have to select their own objectives in order to meet the groups objectives.

2.9.3. CLEAR AND COMPLETE SET OF TASK-ORIENTATED DIRECTIONS OR INSTRUCTIONS

The facilitator has to state clearly, what directions the learners are to follow and the instructions have to be targeted at the mastery of the content and skills described in the outcomes.

2.9.4. HETEROGENEOUS GROUPS

Facilitators should organise the 3, 4 or 5 member groups according to mixed academic abilities, and then on the basis of ethnic backgrounds, race and gender. Learners should not be allowed to join friends in groups and should be encouraged to interact on levels that are rarely found in other instructional strategies. Write Environment, Inc (2000) agrees with this and states that the teacher should choose the group members mixing a variety of factors such as sex, maturity, verbal proficiency, general skill levels.

2.9.5. EQUAL OPPORTUNITY FOR SUCCESS

Every learner has to believe that he/she has an equal opportunity to succeed in the co-operative group. The learners should never feel alienated or marginalized because of academic ability.

2.9.6. POSITIVE INTERDEPENDENCE

The facilitator should structure group activities so that all members of the group feel responsible for the groups success. Abrami *et al.* (1995:69) states that positive interdependence among students provides the energy for students to cooperate and directs it toward a specific learning goal. Positive interdependence exists when one student's success positively influences the chances of other students' success. Learners must learn to depend on one another for the success of the group.

Gelderblom and de Kock (1995:59) also state that each group member must realise that he/she is responsible for learning the assigned material as well as for ensuring that all members of his/her group do the same. Incentives for attaining interdependence could be built into the system, for example all members have to score above a specified criterion when tested individually, bonus marks are added to individual marks when every member achieves the criterion, limiting resources available to a group or creating a division of tasks between group members.

Abrami *et al.* (1995:71-77) identifies various types of positive interdependence. The various types of positive interdependence are displayed in the table below with a discussion which follows.

Table 2.2 Various types of positive interdependence

OUTCOME INTERDEPENDENCE	MEANS INTERDEPENDENCE	INTERPERSONAL INTERDEPENDENCE
Goal Interdependence Reward Interdependence Outside Force Interdependence	Resource Interdependence Task Interdependence Role Interdependence Communication Interdependence Environment Interdependence	Identity Interdependence Simulation Interdependence

- ▶ Goal interdependence can be summarised as existing when all group members must work toward a common goal for the group to succeed.
- ▶ Reward interdependence exists when all members of the group receive the same recognition for the groups' accomplishment.
- ▶ Outside Force interdependence is also referred to as a threat or outside enemy interdependence. In some groups, other groups may act as the threat, while some groups experience time as a powerful outside force.
- ▶ Resource Interdependence exists when group members must share materials in order to accomplish a learning task.
- ▶ Task interdependence divides the learning task so that each group member is responsible for completing part of it.

- ▶ Role interdependence relies on group members being assigned different roles with different responsibilities to perform. The group depends on team members fulfilling these roles successfully in order to complete the activity successfully.
- ▶ Communication interdependence exists when all group members must communicate directly with one another in order to complete a task.
- ▶ Environmental interdependence relies on structuring the physical setting so that all group members are encouraged to interact with one another and promotes student interdependence.
- ▶ Identity interdependence exists when group members establish a collective identity through activities that highlight characteristics they have in common.
- ▶ Simulation interdependence is also referred to as fantasy interdependence, and is created in an activity when students pretend to be in a situation in which they need to depend on one another or need to adopt roles different from the ones they usually play.

2.9.7. **FACE-TO-FACE INTERACTION**

It is essential that group members are seated in a way that lends to eye-to-eye contact and face-to-face interaction. It is preferable to have group members facing each other. Gelderblom and de Kock (1995:59) agree with this statement and note that group members need to spend time together to complete assignments, to encourage and facilitate each other's efforts. Signs of face-to-face promotive interaction should be rewarded by the teacher.

Abrami *et al.* (1995:150) identifies characteristics of promotive face-to-face interactions. These include:

- ▶ providing each other with assistance
- ▶ sharing resources
- ▶ giving each other feedback
- ▶ challenging each other's ideas

- encouraging each other to work hard
- demonstrating enthusiasm

Abrami *et al.* (1995:150) notes that advocates of learning together suggest that the process of encouraging promotive interaction involves scheduling regular times for groups to meet, emphasising how interdependent group members are, and promoting interaction by monitoring groups and recognising effective interactions.

2.9.8. POSITIVE SOCIAL BEHAVIOURS AND ATTITUDES

Facilitators are expected to describe the behaviours that learners are required to exhibit within the collaborative group. Learners should be assigned group roles, and these roles should be defined clearly, so that there is no confusion as to what is expected of the learners.

2.9.9. ACCESS TO MUST-LEARN INFORMATION

Facilitators should give learners access to the specific information to be learned, in a manner that is easy to comprehend. The content should be aligned with the specific outcomes of the co-operative group work and the assessment that will occur when the collaborative group work task has been completed.

2.9.10. OPPORTUNITIES TO COMPLETE REQUIRED INFORMATION-PROCESSING TASKS.

Learners should be allowed to perform a number of internal information-processing tasks which are aligned with the objectives of the collaborative group task. These tasks include comprehending, translating, making connections, assigning meanings, organizing the data and assessing the relevant internal processing tasks they need to complete.

2.9.11. **SUFFICIENT TIME SPENT LEARNING**

Learners should be allowed enough time to engage with content, in order to meet the objectives of the co-operative group task. Learners should also be allowed to remain in their specific heterogenous groups for at least 4 weeks, in order to master the communication skills needed to meet the objectives of the task. Learners can only begin to learn how to communicate effectively when given time. Write Environment, Inc (2000) states that a time limit must be specified. Students need to know how much time they have to complete the task. Usually this should be a time limit which is close to being realistic, but which is a bit short. This gives the students a chance to request more time and for the teacher to reward groups for working together and keeping on task.

2.9.12. **INDIVIDUAL ACCOUNTABILITY**

One of the reasons why teachers put students in cooperative learning groups is so that all students can achieve higher academic success individually than were they to study alone. This implies that learners should be held responsible and accountable for their and the groups success. It is therefore imperative that learners are assessed individually to evaluate whether all group members have retained the content that was to be mastered.

Gelderblom and de Kock (1995:59) go on to state that every member is held responsible for his/her fair share to the group's success. This means that the size of the group should be kept small, that each group member should be required to teach what they have learnt to someone else, and that members must write individual tests.

Abrami *et al.* (1995:82) defines individual accountability as each group member is individually responsible for his or her own learning and each member is responsible for helping the other members of the group learn.

Abrami *et al.* (1995:85) goes on to identify examples of individual accountability structures. These structures fall into the following categories; outcome accountability, means accountability and interpersonal accountability.

Outcome accountability is defined as follows: individual testing and evaluation, group rewards based on individual improvement scores, grades based on the average of team members' scores, grades based on random selection of team members' answers, giving the group one point for each person who reaches his or her criterion and peer and self-assessment of individual academic contribution (e.g. evaluation of individual contribution to the group product).

Means accountability is defined as follows: role assignment (with each role necessary for task completion), task division (e.g. mini-topic presentations), member signature denotes agreement and participation and participation regulation (e.g. Talking Chips).

Interpersonal accountability is assessed in the following manner: observation and feedback about individual participation and social skills, team building activities that require individual input (e.g. uncommon commonalities), and group identification that requires individual contribution (e.g. a group name composed of letters of teammates' names).

2.9.13. PUBLIC RECOGNITION AND REWARDS FOR GROUP ACADEMIC SUCCESS

The learners who meet or surpass high levels of achievement should be rewarded publicly and value should be placed on these rewards.

2.9.14. POST-GROUP REFLECTION (OR DEBRIEFING) ON WITH-IN GROUP BEHAVIOURS

Learners should be given time, once the co-operative group task has been completed,

to reflect on how they worked together in the group, and to what extent individuals within the group mastered the content. The attitudes and values of the group should also be reflected upon, and suggestions of how the group could function more effectively should be explored.

Ngeow (1998) states that there are practices in group learning that may vary among group-learning approaches: these include, (1) group procedures (e.g. forming homogenous or heterogeneous groups in terms of skills/levels/interests, role assignment, short or long term group assignment); (2) development of group work skills (e.g. explicit teaching, small group team-building exercises, or promotion of reflection on group dynamics); (3) setting of interdependence structures (e.g. goal achievement and incentives, resources, division of tasks); (4) evaluation procedures (e.g. individual, peer or group grading, peer evaluation or self-reflection); and (5) definition of the teacher's role, which is complex and may differ in various phases of the group learning activity. The teacher may be supervisory, evaluative, or supportive in maintaining cooperative norms at different stages of student learning.

2.10. DIFFERENT TYPES OF COOPERATIVE GROUP WORK

According to Zabel and Zabel (1996:137) cooperative learning approaches can be used across a wide range of curricular areas and can simultaneously benefit academic achievement, socialization, and self-esteem. Co-operative learning provides instructional formats that facilitate small groups of students working together rather than independently or competitively. Furthermore, compared to competitive and individualized instructional approaches, co-operative learning teaches skills interdependently that can better prepare students for real-life conditions necessary for effective functioning in families, workplaces and communities. The review of the relevant literature in this study, has shown that co-operative group work models often overlap, with models functioning interdependently, often relying on other co-operative group work models to function effectively.

2.10.1. JIGSAW MODEL

Aronson (2000) states that the jigsaw classroom is a specific cooperative learning technique with a three-decade track record of success. Just as in a jigsaw puzzle, each student's part is essential for the completion and full understanding of the final product. *Jigsaw* is a cooperative learning activity that is also used in other cooperative learning programs. This approach is especially appropriate for teaching subjects like social studies, literature, and areas of science where material is in narrative form and where concepts and skills, are the learning goals. In *Jigsaw* each student in a group of three or four reads and studies part of a selection such as a story, and then teaches what he or she has learned to the other members of the group. Each student then quizzes group members to ensure they understand according to Zabel and Zabel (1996:141).

Abrami *et al.* (1995:143) notes that the name Jigsaw captures the essence of this cooperative learning strategy. The material to be learned is divided, or 'jigsawed' into pieces with each piece given to only one team member. The puzzle - learning about all the content - cannot be solved until all the pieces are reassembled. Consequently, the responsibility of each team member is to master his or her piece of the content and then teach it to other team members.

Gunter *et al.* (1999:271) sets out the steps one should employ when using *Jigsaw Models* in the classroom, and these include,

- ◆ *Introduce Jigsaw:* Explain the process to the class and explain that they will be working for both individual and team scores.
- ◆ *Assign heterogeneously grouped students to study teams:* The teams are assembled and the rules for the process are explained. Abrami *et al.* (1995:144) agrees with this statement and notes, assign students to heterogeneous Jigsaw groups of three to seven members.
- ◆ *Assemble expert groups to study material:* The students from the teams meet with their expert groups and are provided material to be mastered. Abrami *et al.*

(1995:145) also states that during this phase of the model, students meet in their jigsaw groups to get their text and any last-minute instructions from their group leaders before meeting with their counterpart groups to learn the academic content.

- ◆ *Experts teach their study teams:* Each expert is responsible for teaching their teammates the learned material. Abrami *et al.* (1995:145) notes that to become experts in their units of academic material, students re-form into counterpart groups composed of individuals from different jigsaw groups working on the same content. Counterpart group members work together to understand the material and discuss how they will teach it to their jigsaw group members.
- ◆ *Evaluate and provide team recognition:* The scores are calculated and grades assigned. Abrami *et al.* (1995:145) notes that after the jigsaw groups' review, students take individual tests on all the material. The task interdependence used in jigsaw means that students can do well on the individual test only if they cooperate effectively.

Aronson (2000) states that the jigsaw classroom is very simple to use and offers 10 easy steps which aid in the implementation of this model in a cooperative classroom. These steps are:

- X ◆ Divide students into 5- or 6 person jigsaw groups. The groups should be diverse in terms of gender, ethnicity, race, and ability.
- X ◆ Appoint one student from each group as the leader. Initially, this person should be the most mature student in the group.
- ◆ Divide the day's lesson into 5-6 segments. For example, if you want history students to learn about Eleanor Roosevelt, you might divide a short biography of her into stand-alone segments on: (1) Her childhood, (2) Her family life with Franklin and their children, (3) Her life after Franklin contracted polio, (4) Her work in the White House as First Lady, and (5) Her life and work after Franklin's death.
- X ◆ Assign each student to learn one segment, making sure students have direct

access only to their own segment.

- X ♦ Give students time to read over their segment at least twice and become familiar with it. There is no need for them to memorize it.
- X ♦ Form temporary 'expert groups' having one student from each jigsaw join other students assigned to the same segment. Give students in these expert groups time to discuss the main points of their segment and to rehearse the presentations they will make to their jigsaw groups.
- X ♦ Bring the students back into their jigsaw groups.
- X ♦ Ask each student to present her or his segment to the group. Encourage others in the group to ask questions for clarification.
- X ♦ Float from group to group, observing the process. If any group is having trouble (eg., a member is dominating or disruptive), make an appropriate intervention. Eventually, it's best for the group leader to handle this task. Leaders can be trained by whispering an instruction on how to intervene, until the leader gets the hang of it.
- X ♦ At the end of the session, give a quick quiz on the material so that the students quickly come to realize that these sessions are not just fun and games but really count.

Aronson (2000) states that there are benefits to incorporating jigsaw into a classroom. First and foremost, it is a remarkably efficient way to learn the material. But even more important, the jigsaw process encourages listening, engagement, and empathy by giving each member of the group an essential part to play in the academic activity. Group members must work together as a team to accomplish a common goal; each person depends on all the others. No student can complete the task unless everyone works well together as a team. This 'cooperation by design' facilitates interaction among all students in the class, leading them to value each other as contributors to their common task.

De Villiers and Grobler (1995:134) conducted research concerning the implementation of various forms of cooperative group models used by first year Informatics students

at the University of South Africa and the University of Pretoria. They concluded that the case study was experienced positively by the students and created an awareness of the working world, where teamwork is essential. The use of expert groups is an important part of the jigsaw co-operative learning environment. The expert groups were evaluated separately in this case study and can be judged to be effective. The following are some of the positive observations made during the case study: An enthusiasm amongst students about interacting with fellow students; an increased respect for diversity, implying that students learn to appreciate and respect one another; highly motivated students; increased self-confidence and self-esteem; an initial horizontal learning curve which later changed into a steep curve; a willingness to be successful; a growing interest in the subject; and an awareness of the working world, where teamwork is essential. Very few negative observations emerged namely: No group cohesion in a few groups, preference for individual, lecture-driven studies; free-rider effect (although this applied to only about 7% of the students); and too time-consuming from a student perspective.

2.10.1.1. **JIGSAW II**

Slavin (in ERIC Digest No 20, 1985) has modified the Jigsaw method of Aronson (1978) into Jigsaw II. Students in six-member groups each read a common narrative, then each is given a topic on which to become an expert. Students from different groups meet with other experts to study their assigned topic, then return to their own groups to share what they have learned. Students take individual quizzes, which are formed into team scores. The highest scoring teams and individuals are recognized in a class newsletter.

Slavin (in Abrami, *et al.* 1995:146) has concluded that to use the Jigsaw II, the content to be learned is highly structured; specific materials are always prepared and divided evenly into small chunks that groups can master in a short period of time. No group facilitator is assigned. No team building is used. Finally, a group reward based on individual improvement is introduced. Thus, Jigsaw II includes task interdependence,

reward interdependence and individual accountability.

2.10.1.2. PARTNER JIGSAW

Abrami *et al.* (1995:148) notes that partner Jigsaw is one variation of the original Jigsaw that simplifies the strategy by eliminating the reorganization involved in having large exploration groups. Partner Jigsaw is like the original Jigsaw except that students meet to learn their material with only one other student. It is often used for brief Jigsaw lessons or when the material to be mastered is not too complex. Partner Jigsaw takes less co-ordination than original Jigsaw, since each student pairs up with a student from a nearby group who has the same material.

2.10.1.3. WITHIN-TEAM JIGSAW

Kagan (in Abrami *et al.* 1995:148) has devised many variations of Jigsaw. Within-Team Jigsaw is even simpler than Partner Jigsaw and also requires less reorganization of groups. Students simply work on separate material individually and then teach that material to their Jigsaw groups. There is no counterpart or expert group. Within-Team Jigsaw should be used only for very basic content that you are sure all students will have no difficulty mastering and teaching to their group members.

2.10.1.4. TEAM JIGSAW

Kagan (in Abrami *et al.* 1995:148) has also developed another form of Jigsaw called Team Jigsaw. This strategy eliminates the first Jigsaw group meeting. In Team Jigsaw, students begin in exploration teams of four students, and then pairs or individuals from each exploration team teach their material to students from other exploration teams.

2.10.2. COOPERATIVE READING GROUPS.

Zabel and Zabel (1999:141) state that in cooperative reading groups one individual is

assigned to be the reader, another the recorder, and the third the checker. The students write several answers to each question and indicate the best response. All members of the group must certify that they understand and agree on the correct answers.

Burnette (1999) has concluded that various research findings indicate that alternative groupings can produce better reading outcomes for students with and without disabilities than whole-class instruction. Such grouping formats include peer (same-age) tutoring, cross-age tutoring, small learning groups, and combined grouping formats.

2.10.2.1. PEER TUTORING IN COOPERATIVE READING GROUPS

Burnette (1999) has found that peer tutoring has repeatedly been found to be an effective method of teaching reading to students with disabilities, and, research has shown that students with disabilities can perform effectively either as tutors or tutees, as well as in a reciprocal tutoring role. Reciprocal-role tutoring may offer an additional benefit of boosting student's self-esteem through the teaching role.

3.10.2.2. CROSS-AGE TUTORING IN COOPERATIVE READING GROUPS

Moody *et al.* (1997:354-356) revealed in their research that students with disabilities derive considerable benefit from tutoring younger students. However, it shows less benefit for tutees, whether or not the tutors have disabilities. Students with disabilities who were tutored by older students did not appear to benefit academically from this type of tutoring. Using this technique requires more planning, since students tutor children who are at least one grade level lower. Like peer-tutoring this technique involves tutor training and careful monitoring to ensure that both tutors and tutees are benefiting from the tutoring.

2.10.2.3. SMALL LEARNING GROUPS IN COOPERATIVE READING GROUPS

Burnette (1999) notes that small group reading instruction has been shown by many research studies to be more effective than whole-class instruction, but most of these studies did not include children with disabilities. Smaller groups appear to be better - groups of 3 to 4 students are usually more efficient than larger groups of 5 to 7 students in terms of teacher and student time, lower cost, increased instructional time, increased peer interaction and improved generalization of skills.

2.10.2.4. COMBINED GROUPING FORMATS IN COOPERATIVE READING GROUPS

Burnette (1999) states that by using a combination of formats produces measurable reading benefits for students with disabilities. The research goes on to say although combined formats have not yet been studied extensively, they appear to offer promise for inclusive teachers and their students.

2.10.3. PROBLEM SOLVERS

Zabel and Zabel (1999:141) state that problem solvers as a group work technique, involves giving each group a problem to solve. The group determines what each member will contribute to completing the problem. For example, to practice multiplication problems, one student could write down the problem, a second could complete the calculation, while a third could write down the answers. Students rotate responsibilities throughout their group, so that each member practices each skill. Since you hold all members of the group responsible for knowing how to do the problems, they help one another by instructing and correcting one another.

2.10.4. WRITING-RESPONSE GROUPS.

Zabel and Zabel (1999:141) goes on to identify a further group work technique, writing-

response groups, students read and respond to the written work of the members of their group. For example, you might ask students to mark what they like with stars, mark what they do not understand with question marks, and then discuss the paper with the writer. Next, you might ask them to mark spelling, grammatical, punctuation and other problems and discuss them with the writer. Finally, you can have group members proofread the final draft and point out any errors that need to be corrected.

2.10.5. GROUP REPORTS

Zabel and Zabel (1999:141) state that students jointly research topics using this group work technique. You assign each student with a responsibility for checking different sources and sharing information. Then each student writes part of the report.

2.10.6. PEER TUTORING

Peer tutoring involves placing a student who has mastered a particular skill in a one-to-one relationship with a student who has yet to master that skill (Zabel & Zabel, 1996:144). Tutoring is broadly defined as an individual teaching approach in which one person teaches another. Both people can be either of similar abilities or ages (peer tutoring) or of different abilities or ages (cross-age tutoring) according to Abrami *et al.* (1995:184).

Zabel and Zabel (1996:145) goes on to say, that peer tutoring offers a means for you to accommodate and even take advantage of your student's individual differences in one-to-one or small group arrangements. Herrmann (1989) states that by implementing peer writing groups, teachers encourage students to give, seek, and react to oral feedback among themselves as they write, in addition to reacting to the teacher's traditional comments on finished papers.

Typically, three variations of peer tutoring models may be employed by teachers in the classroom according to Zabel and Zabel (1996:145). Interschool programs typically

involve older students paired with younger students: intergrade programs, pair students in higher grades with students in lower grades, and with-in class programs pair more advanced students with less advanced students in the same class.

Zabel and Zabel (1996:145-147) suggests guidelines for developing a Peer Tutoring Program. These include:

- ▶ Tutors should have at least adequate skills in the material to be taught.
- ▶ In addition to age, grade and ability, some interpersonal skills are important for tutors.
- ▶ Tutoring should be regularly and carefully scheduled.
- ▶ Tutors must be trained, and tutoring must be carefully monitored.
- ▶ It is important to provide feedback, encouragement, support and recognition to tutors.

2.10.6.1. RESEARCH FINDINGS CONCERNING PEER TUTORING

Reid (in Herrmann, 1989) states that collaboration provides writers with an opportunity to read their drafts aloud and to discuss them face-to-face with a peer audience while the written product is taking shape.

Legge (in Herrmann, 1989) has found that small groups can help apprehensive or blocked writers become more fluent and can provide an audience that assists the writer in revising.

A study conducted by Kantor (in Herrmann, 1989) concluded that the development of a peer community fostered growth from egocentrism to audience awareness and that knowing the audience helped students become more aware of possible strategies for revising the written message.

It is interesting to note that research has also indicated mixed effects. Gere and

Stevens (in Herrmann, 1989) found that although students often incorporated peer reactions into subsequent revised versions of drafts that were submitted, there were incidents of unproductive even hostile verbal exchange, and in some groups students hurried through the group work in a "robot like monotone".

Russel (in Herrmann, 1989) conducted a study of four children with low, average and high abilities in writing, and the results indicated that in revising, poor writers were dependent on the questions of other students, whereas average and good writers tended to become their own audience and revise on their own.

In a summation of research results on peer assisted computer classrooms, Herrmann (1989) concluded that preliminary evidence suggests that the nature of peer collaboration and feedback in classrooms where computers were used to teach writing differs from that in regular writing classrooms. Under certain conditions, computers as writing tools appear to promote a collaborative environment, both in learning to write and in learning to use the technology.

Herrmann (1989) concludes by stating that the literature suggests that the effects of peer comments on revision is not a simple cause and effect matter, but rather a complex one, dependent upon the interrelationship of multiple factors within the evolving social environment. While some of the students studied appeared to benefit from the comments of their peers, not all students in all classrooms did. Some students were unable, unwilling, or even ill-advised to follow peer reactions in revising what they had written. While there may be no one-to-one relationship between peer comments and revision, these studies, particularly the qualitative ones, suggest a range of real and potential benefits for students participating in an effective community of responsive peers.

2.10.7. ROLE PLAY MODEL

Joyce *et al.* (1997:105) has the following to say concerning role playing as a model of

learning and teaching: "Role playing as a model of teaching has roots in both the personal and social dimensions of education, because it attempts both to help individuals find personal meaning within their social worlds and to resolve personal dilemmas with the assistance of the social group. In the social dimension, it allows individuals to work together in analysing social situations, especially interpersonal problems, and in developing decent role playing in the social family of models because the social group plays such an important part in human development and because of the unique opportunity that role playing offers for interpersonal and social dilemmas."

Chesler and Fox (1966:64-66) have researched role playing and conclude that role playing is not likely to succeed if the educator simply tosses out a problem situation and persuades a few learners to act it out. The benefits of role playing depend on the quality of the enactment and especially on the analysis that follows. They depend also on the students' perceptions of the role as similar to real-life situations. Children do not necessarily engage effectively in role playing or role analysis the first time they try it. Many have to learn to engage in role playing in a sincere way so that the content generated can be analysed seriously according to Joyce *et al.* (1997:109).

Joyce *et al.* (1997:109) note that role playing is designed specifically to foster the analysis of personal values and behaviour, the development of strategies for solving interpersonal (and personal) problems and the development of empathy toward others.

Gunter *et al.* (1996:275) recommends the following steps should be adhered to when introducing the *role playing model*, as a group work activity.

- ◆ Choose an interesting situation: Select a situation that provides a variety of possible outcomes and character interpretations. Joyce *et al.* (1997:110) adds that the problem must be explicit and that the educator should explain role playing to the learners.
- ◆ Select the teams: Choose team member for both academic and social characters. Joyce *et al.* (1997:110) notes that an analysis of the roles should

occur during this phase.

- ◆ Assign the problem and explain the task: Emphasize cooperation and communication in the process. Joyce *et al.* (1997:110) states that the educator should use this phase of designing a role playing situation to set the line of action, and get inside the problem situation.
- ◆ Teams prepare the role play and select the players: The team determines the characters of the players and the general direction of the action.
- ◆ Assign tasks to the observer: Determine what the observers are to focus on during the activity. Joyce *et al.* (1997:110) notes that the observers should be assigned observation tasks and the learners should decide together what to look for.
- ◆ Teams present their role plays: Set time limits and choose the method for follow-up. Joyce *et al.* (1997:110) notes that there are three distinct phases in the presentation of the role play, 'begin role play, maintain role play and break role play'.
- ◆ Teams return to their groups to discuss the role playing experience: The team leader will prepare to report the results of this discussion to the class. Joyce *et al.* (1997:110) suggests that teams review the action of the role play, the events, position and the realism of the role playing situation and the teams should then discuss the major focus of the role play situation.
- ◆ Class discussion: The teacher leads the group in reviewing the process. Joyce *et al.* (1997:110) notes that the class discussion should relate the problem situation to real experiences and current problems experienced in society, and should then explore general principles of behaviour of the teams as related to generalized situations in the learners' everyday lives.
- ◆ Evaluate: A written report or taped record of the process should be kept for future references.

The role playing model is instrumental in fostering feelings of empathy and respect, and in aiding learners in analysing their personal values and behaviours while developing strategies for solving interpersonal problems. This model also develops the

skills needed for expressing opinions, skills required for negotiating and integrating academic content.

2.10.8. **THE TEAM INTERVIEW MODEL**

The team interview model (Zabel & Zabel, 1996:276) may be used as a getting-acquainted activity, a team-building activity, a method of checking reading comprehension or a method of group reading book reports. The following steps are followed when conducting the team interview model:

- ◆ Assign students to teams.
- ◆ Instruct team members.
- ◆ Conduct interviews.
- ◆ Continue interviews.
- ◆ Debrief.

2.10.9. **GRAFFITI MODEL**

Abrami *et al.* (1995:58) states that co-operative graffiti is a simple structure ideal for group members to brainstorm aspects of a topic simultaneously. It can be used effectively as a team building or classbuilding activity, and for eliciting prior knowledge or opinions on topics related to academic material. Graffiti is a co-operative learning structure in which students are asked to give written responses to questions posed by the teacher. Graffiti is an excellent way in which to check for understanding, to evaluate instruction, or to do an informal needs assessment according to Zabel *et al.* (1996:277). The steps in the Graffiti Model are:

- ◆ Prepare Graffiti questions. The teacher prepares four review questions for the unit and writes each question in large print on a large sheet of paper.
- ◆ Distribute materials. Coloured markers are distributed to team members so that each student has a different coloured marker.

- ◆ Answer questions. Each team is given a question, and team members write their responses for a set amount of time. Abrami *et al.* (1995:58) suggests that each team member writes down as many responses to a given topic, on a large single sheet of paper, using different coloured pens.
- ◆ Exchange questions. At the end of the timed interval, question sheets are exchanged. The process continues until each team has had an opportunity to answer all four questions. Abrami *et al.* (1995:58) suggests that after a predetermined time, the group members put their pens down, and proceed to categorize their ideas, looking for similarities, differences and relationships amongst these ideas.
- ◆ Return to original question. Each team returns to its original question. Team members review all the answers on their graffiti sheet, arrange the answers in categories, and arrives at generalizations regarding the categories.
- ◆ Share information. Each group is given the opportunity to share the information of its graffiti sheet with the full class.

Abrami *et al.* (1995:58) also notes that there is a variation to the traditional graffiti model and this is called the 'rotational graffiti model'. To give all groups in the class an opportunity to contribute ideas on each of several topics, a rotational graffiti can be used. Each group is assigned a topic, which is written on a large sheet of paper. Allow each group to write graffiti about their topic. After a short time, tell students to put down their pens and rotate the sheets to the next group in a clockwise direction. Each group then checks the topic on the sheet passed to them and begins immediately to add to the graffiti on this topic. Repetition of ideas is not a problem. Encourage students to write as many ideas as possible, without taking time to read those of others at this stage. This procedure continues until all groups have written graffiti on each topic and are passed back the sheet they started with. Each group then works together to categorize the ideas expressed by all groups.

2.10.10. THE THINK- PAIR- SHARE MODEL

Abrami *et al.* (1995:57) notes that the think-pair-share is a useful structure for eliciting students' opinions on and experience with a particular topic. Think-pair-share offers all students an opportunity to express their responses to a question. In a typical classroom, the teacher asks a question, and only one or two students raise their hands to answer. Using think-pair-share, the teacher asks a question, the students are given some "private" time to think about their responses with their partners. This allows all students to respond to the question, receive feedback, and engage in a brief discussion of their ideas. Students are then invited to share their responses with the whole class. Since students are able to "test-out" their ideas before sharing them with the class, this method is also likely to improve the quality of the subsequent whole-class discussion.

The think- pair- share model (Zabel & Zabel, 1999:279) is a simple technique with great benefits. It results in increased student participation and improved retention of information. The following steps are suggested:

- ◆ Teacher poses question. Think- pair- share begins when the teacher poses thought provoking question for the entire class. Abrami *et al.* (1995:56) notes that the question should be one that interests the learners and that the learners probably have prior knowledge of.
- ◆ Students think individually. At a signal from the teacher, the students are given a limited amount of time to think of their own answer to the problematic question.
- ◆ Each student discusses his or her answer with a fellow student. Together each pair of students can formulate a common answer based on their collective insights to possible solutions to the problem.

Abrami *et al.* (1995:57) also proposes a variation to the think-pair-share model, and this is called the think-note-pair-share model. After students have taken some time to think about the assigned question or topic, ask them to make brief notes on their ideas before sharing them with their partners. This variation increases the individual

accountability and contribution component of this structure. It also helps students consolidate their individual thoughts on a topic, thereby reducing the risk of shy students being overpowered by more assertive ones.

2.10.11. **THE SYNECTICS MODEL**

Joyce *et al.* (1997:61) notes that through the metaphoric activity of the synectics model, creativity becomes a conscious process. Metaphors establish a relationship of likeness, the comparison of one object or idea with another object or idea by using one in place of the other. Through these substitutions the creative process occurs, connecting the familiar with the unfamiliar or creating a new idea from familiar ideas.

Gunter *et al.* (1999:151) identifies what is called the 'synectics excursion' which involves using three forms of analogy to solve a problem, 'direct, personal and symbolic'. Joyce *et al.* (1997:61) agrees with this and states that in teaching persons to use synectics, three types of analogies are used as the basis of instructional exercises: personal analogy, direct analogy and compressed conflict.

Personal analogies require that learners empathize with the idea or object to be compared, and learners must feel that they have become part of the problem. The identification of the problem may be with a person, plant, animal or nonliving thing, and the learner is asked to describe the feelings involved with being this object, according to Joyce *et al.* (1997:61).

A direct analogy is a simple comparison of two objects or concepts. Joyce *et al.* (1997:61) notes that the comparison does not have to be identical in all respects, but rather the function of the analogy is to transpose the conditions of the real topic or problem situation to another situation in order to present a new view of an idea or problem. This involves identification with a person, plant, animal or nonliving thing.

Compressed conflict involves a two worded description of an object in which the words

seem to be opposites or to contradict each other. 'Tiredly aggressive' and 'friendly foe' are examples of this conflict according to Joyce *et al.* (1997:62). The purpose of this compressed conflict is to reflect the students' ability to incorporate two frames of reference with respect to a single object. The greater the distance between frames of reference, the greater the mental flexibility of the learner.

The steps in the Synectics Excursion (Gunter *et al.* 1999:151) are:

1. Present the problem. Joyce *et al.* (1997:73) states that the educator has students describe the situation or the situation as they see it now.
2. Provide expert information (the educator has to provide this information)
3. Question the obvious solutions and purge (hold a class discussion where alternatives are presented)
4. Generate individual problem statements (group discussion)
5. Choose one problem statement for focus
6. Question through the use of analogies
7. Fit analogies to fit the problem
8. Determine a solution from the new viewpoint
9. Evaluate (the group has to decide whether their solution is practically workable and whether it can be implemented). Joyce *et al.* (1997:73) note that the educator has students move back to the original task or problem and use the last analogy and/or the entire synectics experience.

2.10.12. **GROUP INVESTIGATION MODEL**

ERIC Digest No 20 (1985) notes that in addition to the competitive/co-operative structure, there has also been extensive research on the group investigation model, which attempts to eliminate competition entirely. This model involves cooperative group inquiry emphasizing data-gathering by pupils, interpretation of information through group discussions, and synthesis of individual contributions into a group project. The parallels between the group investigation model and the inquiry approach to social

studies education are striking.

Joyce *et al.* (1997:97) states that the group investigation begins by confronting the students with a stimulating problem. The confrontation may be presented verbally, or it may be an actual experience, it may arise naturally or it may be provided by a teacher. If the students react, the teacher draws their attention to the differences in their reactions - what stances they take, what they perceive, how they organise things and what they feel.

Joyce *et al.* (1997:102) identifies the following phases in the group investigation model:

- ▶ Phase 1: Students encounter puzzling situation (planned or unplanned). Abrami *et al.* (1995:161) identifies steps in the group investigation model and Step 1 involves identifying the topic and organising students into groups.
- ▶ Phase 2: Students explore reactions to the situation. Abrami *et al.* (1995:161) identifies the next step in this model as planning the learning task.
- ▶ Phase 3: Students formulate study task and organise for study (problem definition, role, assignments etc). Abrami *et al.* (1995:161) notes that the next step in the group investigation model is investigating the topic.
- ▶ Phase 4: Independent and group study.
- ▶ Phase 5: Students analyse progress and process.
- ▶ Phase 6: Recycle activity.

Abrami *et al.* (1995:161-162) identifies the steps in the group investigation model that differ slightly from that proposed by Joyce *et al.* (1997:102). The steps differ in the following manner.

- ▶ Step 4 involves preparing the final report. Groups are encouraged to focus on the major topics and ideas that were part of the investigation.
- ▶ Step 5 involves presenting the final report, when the learners take on the role of the educator, and teach the relevant materials to the group and later, to the

entire class.

- The final step identified by Abrami *et al.* (1995:162) is Evaluation. The educator should assess how the learners approached the problem that was investigated, the process that the learners employed when carrying out the investigation, the higher level skills employed, and the ability to apply the knowledge that they gained.

The group investigation model is a highly versatile and comprehensive model of learning and teaching: it blends the goals of academic inquiry, social integration and social process learning. It can be used in all subject areas and with all age levels, when the teacher desires to emphasize the formulation and problem solving aspects of knowledge rather than the intake of preorganized, predetermined information according to Joyce *et al.* (1997:101).

2.10.13. **CLASSROOM DISCUSSION MODEL**

Discussion in class is one of the most common strategies promoting active learning with good reason. If the objectives of a course are to promote long-term retention of information, to motivate students toward further learning, to allow students to apply information in new settings, or to develop student's thinking skills, then discussion is preferable to lecture according to McKeachie *et al.* (in Bonwell & Eison, 1991).

Gunter *et al.* (1999:195) suggests the following procedures for implementing the classroom discussion model:

- Read the material and prepare the questions: select and prepare the material for discussion by reading and rereading the text and developing factual, interpretive and evaluative questions.
- Plan and cluster the questions: preferably with a co-leader, compare ideas, reactions and questions. The questions are clustered and sequenced in preparation for the discussion.

- ▶ Introduce the model to the students: through a series of questions about what students think they should learn, explain the benefits of the discussion model. Next, introduce the students to the process and assign the reading. Finally, ask the students to prepare questions for discussion.
- ▶ Conduct the discussion: conduct the discussion and maintain a nondirective role as much as possible. Encourage the students to listen carefully and respond to the opinions of others and to validate their own opinions by referring to the text whenever possible.
- ▶ Review the discussion and summarize the students' observations: review the major points made during the discussion or encourage the students to jot down ideas that impressed them. Ask for their contributions.
- ▶ Evaluate the discussion: talk with your co-leader about the direction of the discussion, the enthusiasm of the students, the caliber of their contributions. If necessary, make suggestions for the next discussion.

Often, the quality of those discussions determines the extent and quality of students' learning. The better the discussion with respect to its intellectual demand and objective, the better the students' thinking and the more permanent their learning according to Gunter *et al.* (1999:180).

2.11. **ASSESSMENT IN COOPERATIVE GROUP WORK**

The Department of Education (1997:LLC8-11) provides us with a perspective of assessment as applied to the OBE curriculum in South Africa.

According to this document, the general perspective of assessment is, like Learning Programmes and instruction, assessment - how progress is measured - determines what and how well students learn. A new system of learner assessment should support the learning and instructional programmes. It must be a system that provides facilitators with continuous and constructive information about learner performance. Information that specifies how learners are developing relative to the Assessment Criteria of each

Specific Outcome and assists facilitators in drawing up learning programmes tailored to each learner's needs.

The Department of Education (1997:LLC8-9) goes on to state that assessment should contribute to :

- A. Improving the quality of education and training
- B. Improving the relevance of education and training
- C. Developing national standardization throughout education and training
- D. Various components of assessment can be identified on a continuum with particular skills being assessed in the workplace and competences such as underpinning knowledge and understanding
- E. The basic assessment principles (criteria) are:
 - 1. Validity
 - 2. Reliability
 - 3. Flexibility
 - 4. Fairness
 - 5. A holistic approach to assessment
- F. The Process of assessment based on outcomes, unit standards and moderation
- G. Planning the assessment systems at all levels; transfer of assessment results from one level to another; from one province to another; from one school to another.

Particularly for Language, Literacy and Communication, the Department of Education (1997:LLC9) identifies the following forms of assessment that would be applicable for this particular learning area. Achievement Assessment, Criterion-referencing, Mastery learning (plotted on a continuum), Continuous Assessment (with fixed assessment points), Formative assessment, Summative Assessment, Direct Assessment, Indirect Assessment, Performance Assessment, Subjective Assessment, Checklist Rating, Impression, Guided Judgement, Holistic Assessment, Analytic Assessment, Series Assessment, Category Assessment, Assessment by others and Self Assessment.

Reporting is also suggested as a form of assessment in LLC. 'A form should be developed on site by means of which parents and learners are fully informed of the development of the learner in his/her progress towards the eventual achievement of outcomes. This form should be anecdotal and diagnostic in nature. The following information could, for example, be considered: Name, Phase, Group Skills, Knowledge, Participation, Project Work, Group Involvement, etc. (The Department of Education, 1997: LLC11).

Abrami *et al.* (1995:104) refers to assessment as evaluation and state that evaluation refers to the appraisal of students' knowledge and skills. In cooperative learning, both content acquisition and interpersonal and cognitive skills should be considered for evaluation. Summative evaluation determines students' grades. The word 'summative' indicates that this type of evaluation sums up information about what a student has learned. When summative evaluation is based on a group product, as sometimes happens in cooperative learning, you should structure some form of individual accountability to ensure that all group members have completed their share of the task. Formative evaluation gives feedback to teachers and students about their current progress, and provides information about where they need to improve their respective teaching and learning. Formative evaluations can help you align your expectations with your students' outcomes and help you adjust your pacing and/or teaching strategy. The feedback that students receive from formative evaluation can help them decide where they need to improve, thus, where to focus their efforts.

Reflection refers to students' or groups' self-analysis of their learning for formative evaluation purposes. Sometimes referred to as processing, reflection involves students thinking about and discussing how effectively they performed as individuals and/or as a group. Reflection plays a critical role in cooperative learning by helping group members learn to work together effectively according to Abrami *et al.* (1995:104).

Write Environment, Inc (2000) notes that when students work in groups, the teacher will need to adjust the types of assessments and the methods of evaluation that are used.

The following ideas may help you to get started:

- ▶ The facilitator should keep anecdotal records of group progress, products and how well the students work together. It is imperative that the facilitator informs the learners of the fact that notes are being taken on their involvement and learning.
- ▶ Have the students evaluate the group's functioning and their own participation frequently.
- ▶ Make individuals accountable for the functioning of the group. Assess the group as a whole and also assess the individuals who are making the best progress.
- ▶ Tape record each group periodically, in order to give the group feedback.
- ▶ Once the groups are working well, decrease the emphasis on group functioning and increase the focus on content learning, but do not ignore the former.

Jacques (1984:224-228) suggests some ideas for evaluating small groups. Observation refers to the educator observing the behaviours of the group members, and the group members observing each other. Diaries are suggested as a tool for evaluation as they allow members to make notes on their experiences, ideas generated by the group, information learned and how the members perceived the group as a whole. Reporting back involves having members report back at the beginning of a group session, what was discovered or learned in the previous meeting. Checklists allow group members to determine their own criteria for evaluation, and these criteria act as triggers to keep the group on track. Self-made evaluation is used when the educator wants to assess whether the group has determined for themselves, what aspects of the learning task was important and whether or not the learners are aware of the objectives that are to be met.

2.11.1. **PORTFOLIO ASSESSMENT**

Abrami *et al.* (1995:105) states that one alternative to frequent testing is to use individual portfolios comprised of varied samples of students' work. These portfolios

can also include copies of work completed in a group and feedback from observations. Portfolios allow for a more balanced and thorough evaluation of your students' learning. They may also include results from self- and peer evaluations.

Farr (1991) notes that the portfolios, if defined as collections of work stored in folders over a period of time, will have little value either to the students or the teachers. In order to be of use, the portfolio runs the risk of becoming a resource file. There are various emphases which can be employed when initiating the use of portfolios as assessment tools.

2.11.1.1. PORTFOLIOS ADDRESS GOALS

Farr (1991) has found that portfolios place emphasis on (1) an integration of all aspects of language arts including reading, writing, listening and speaking, (2) a focus on the process of constructing meaning, (3) the use of literature that inspires and motivates readers, (4) an emphasis on problem solving and higher-order thinking skills, and (5) the use of collaboration and group work as an essential component of learning.

2.11.1.2. PORTFOLIOS AS AUTHENTIC ASSESSMENTS

Farr (1991) states that performance assessment is nothing more than the development of an activity that actually represents the task to be performed on the job - or the total behaviour that is the goal of instruction. Language arts portfolios should:

1. Have both value to both teachers and students beyond the assessment information provided by the test.
2. Require students to construct responses rather than merely recognising correct answers. This forces students to recognise the value of the written work, above selecting a multiple choice answer, and it also forces learners to practice their writing skills.
3. Require students to apply their knowledge. This is an open ended assessment

which allows the learners to construct their own meaning, and apply their own knowledge and skills, rather than supply an expected answer to a test.

4. Pose problems for students for which they have to use multiple resources. The solution to real problems necessitates the use of multiple resources. The writing of a report, for example, is based on the use of various source materials, reference aids and the writer's background knowledge. Assessments which attempt to replicate those situations will provide information about the student's abilities to use multiple sources. Such assessments should also determine if students are able to select pertinent information from the available resources and put the selected information together in a way that solves the problem posed by the assessment.
5. Present students with tasks that have a realistic focus. Tests often only ask for the right answer, while portfolios allow a more realistic focus, allowing learners to integrate their 'learned' content with everyday situations, and their responses will reveal how the learner has understood the materials on which the response is based.

Farr (1991) states that taken together, the general attributes of performance assessment and the specific goals of portfolios represent an integrated approach for language arts assessment. Since the contents of the portfolio are generated by the student, may be typical or exemplary examples, and require continuous evaluation or reading and writing, students are actively engaged in their own growth and development as language users.

2.11.2. **SELF AND PEER EVALUATION**

Some teachers view student participation in grading as part of the process of making schools more democratic. You can have individual students evaluate their own performance, group members rate each other's participation in group activities, and/or have all students evaluate group projects or presentations according to Abrami *et al.* (1995:108).

Hunter *et al.* (1998:126) notes that self and peer feedback is reflection focusing on individual performance. The focus is more on the person than with the project. Each individual assesses their own performance and then gets feedback from others.

Abercrombie (1980:25) notes that in each group the students examine each other's designs; they are encouraged to try to understand rather than to criticize in the adverse sense. This stimulates a student to be analytically interested in other solutions than his own, gives him practice in sorting out main principles and puts him in a more mature relationship to work, both his own and others. This is called 'self-assessing groups.'

2.12. **GROUP WORK AND THE ESL LEARNER**

Kamwangamalu (1999:69) notes that peer-tutoring amongst Zulu-speaking students contributed to the academic development of Zulu-speaking students and provides an opportunity to appreciate English, in an English-only environment. Assinder (1991) agrees with this statement and found that peer-tutoring increases participation and interest and sustains motivation among the learners. Kimberly (1999:51) goes on to say that co-operative learning makes sense for all teachers who have limited English proficient pupils in their classes because all students are given frequent opportunities to speak, a spirit of co-operation and friendship is fostered among classmates, and this fosters communities of learning.

Brice and Roseberry-McKibbin (1999:53) state that many traditional methods used in regular and ESL classrooms can be confusing for non-English-speaking students with language-learning disabilities. Teachers use English when asking questions, providing information and giving feedback. Teachers give instructions at a fast pace, and student learning often depends on teacher lectures. Students receive many directions during a short period of time and few opportunities to ask for clarification or to seek help.

Brice and Roseberry-McKibbin (1999:54) suggest the following strategies to include

marginalized ESL learners in the classroom:

- ▶ Make sure students understand tasks before they begin to work on them.
- ▶ Seat students from similar cultural and linguistic backgrounds near one another. Students help one another understand complicated instructions, which will save time for the teacher. Also students do not feel singled out if peers help them instead of the teacher.
- ▶ Repeat leading statements as 'students who are learning English and have language-learning disabilities will profit from hearing lead statements repeated.
- ▶ Call on students to keep them focused, but ask the question before naming the respondent.
- ▶ Refrain from asking rhetorical questions as some students may not understand them.
- ▶ Give enough wait time after questions have been asked
- ▶ Ask for a brief summary of what the students have just heard.
- ▶ Ask for students opinions of the material.
- ▶ Speak slowly and pause often.
- ▶ Avoid the use of slang and idiomatic language.
- ▶ Emphasize key words through increased volume and slightly exaggerated intonations or rising pitch (Brice & Roseberry-McKibbon, 1999:55).
- ▶ Relate the students learning to everyday experiences and background knowledge.
- ▶ Allow opportunities for hands-on activities and collaborative group work.

According to Brice and Roseberry-McKibbon (1999:55) research shows that many students from diverse cultural backgrounds are quiet and do not take initiative in classrooms and Hispanic adolescents did not express themselves in the classroom, they did not initiate and finish classroom discussions. Classroom teachers can help students with language-learning disabilities improve their language skills by facilitating student interaction and collaboration.

Brice and Roseberry-McKibbon (1999:55) state that students make more progress when their teachers implement specific strategies in the classroom every day than when students meet just once or twice a week in a small group.

Kagan (1995) has noted that language acquisition is determined by a complex interaction of a number of critical input, output, and context variables. An examination of these critical variables reveals co-operative learning has a dramatic positive impact on almost all of the variables critical to language acquisition.

Kagan (1995) recognises that language acquisition is fostered by input that is comprehensible, developmentally appropriate, redundant and accurate.

'Comprehensible' derives its meaning from the fact that learners working together in cooperative groups need to make themselves understood, and so input must be adjusted to be made comprehensible (understood). In the small group setting, the speaker is able to make themselves understood, and so negotiate the meaning that is generated by the listener, by adjusting their speech in order to be understood, a luxury which is not granted to an educator speaking to an entire class. Speakers are also able to check for understanding, and input is made comprehensible because it is linked to specific, concrete behaviours.

The developmental level of any student is what he or she can do alone; the proximal level is what he/she can do with supportive collaboration. The difference between the developmental and proximal levels is called the zone of proximal development. The nature of a cooperative group focuses input in the zone of proximal development, simulating development to the next stage of language development (Kagan, 1995). This is the essence of the input of cooperative learning being 'developmentally appropriate'.

A student may receive comprehensible input in the zone of proximal development, but that will not ensure language acquisition unless the input is received repeatedly from a variety of sources. The cooperative learning group is a natural source of redundant

communication. As the students in a small group discuss a topic, they each use a variety of phrases providing the opportunity for the listener to triangulate in on meaning as well as receiving the repeated input necessary for learning to move from short-term comprehension to long-term acquisition (Kagan, 1995).

According to Kagan (1995) accurate input, which is communication which is grammatically correct with the proper usage of words and pronunciation, will facilitate language acquisition. It is noted that in this sense, the traditional classroom may have an advantage over the co-operative group, as the educator is the source of the spoken word. Frequent communicative output produces speech acquisition far more readily than formal accurate input. This means that the effects of the spoken word generated in the cooperative group, has benefits that outweigh the benefits of the input generated by the formal educator.

Swain (in Kagan, 1995) states that language acquisition is fostered by output that is functional and communicative, frequent, redundant and consistent with the identity of the speaker.

Kagan (1995) notes that if speech is not representative of the manner in which speakers conduct everyday conversations, this will not add to the communicative competence of the ESL learner. Memorization of vocabulary lists or verb conjugations does not increase fluency, because learning about a language is quite different from acquiring the language. Display behaviour such as, 'The clock is on the wall' or 'this is a glass', is not representative of actual speech, and practice of formal, de-contextualized speech creates transference problems that hinder acquisition. The cooperative group provides the arena for expressive, personally relevant, representative language output that is critical for language acquisition. In cooperative groups, the output of speech has to be functional and communicative in order for language acquisition to be successful.

For speakers to acquire a language the level of frequency with which they speak has

to occur frequently, as speakers learn a language by speaking it. The single greatest advantage of co-operative learning over traditional classroom organization for the acquisition of language is the amount of language output allowed per student. In the traditional classroom, students are called upon one at a time. During this whole-class question-answer time, the teacher actually does more talking than the students, because the teacher must talk twice for each time a student talks: first asking the question, and then providing feedback in the form of praise, comment or correction opportunity. Thus, in a classroom of 30 to provide each student one minute of output opportunity takes an hour. In contrast, to provide each student one minute if the students are in a pair-discussion takes little over two minutes. In the cooperative setting, with regard to language output, we can do in two minutes what takes an hour to do in the traditional classroom, according to Kagan (1995).

Kagan (1995) notes that learners will become fluent in a language if they are offered the opportunity to speak repeatedly on the same topic. Allowing students to speak repeatedly on the same topic is referred to as 'redundancy'. It is noted that there is not enough time to accomplish redundancy in the traditional classroom.

Practising classroom speech that is not consistent with a student's identity will not lead to later fluency, because the student will not want to project the identity associated with that speech. Cultural groups will resist acquisition of the dominant language if the very use of that language signals assimilation that is being resisted. The less formal, peer-orientated, expressive use of language in the cooperative group represents language use closer to the identity of many students than the formal use of language practised in whole-class settings. The more identity-congruent language facilitates language acquisition according to Kagan (1995), and this indicates that an output function of language is that it is 'identity congruent'.

When referring to the context in which language acquisition occurs, Kagan (1995) states that language acquisition is fostered if it occurs in a context that is supportive and motivating, communicative and referential, developmentally appropriate and

feedback rich.

The cooperative group is seen as supportive and motivating. The traditional classroom is far from supportive as students are 'right' or 'wrong' as they are called upon to answer questions before the whole class. Students in a cooperative group are more motivated to speak and feel greater support for a variety of reasons: (1) they are more frequently asked questions; (2) they need to communicate to accomplish the cooperative learning projects; (3) peers are far more supportive than in the traditional classroom because they are all on the same side; (4) cooperative learning structures demand speech; (5) students are taught to praise and encourage each other; and (6) students are made interdependent so they need to know what the others know. Because of these factors, students 'bring out' their teammates, providing words or phrases to make speech inviting and easy. Cooperative learning provides a supportive, motivating context for speech to emerge according to Kagan (1995).

Cooperative groups are seen as communicative and referential as learners speak in real time, about real events and objects, in order to accomplish real goals. The communication is functional and refers to what is happening at the moment. This communicative language facilitates language acquisition, and it is quite in contrast to the abstract 'talking about' topics that often characterize whole-class speech (Kagan, 1995).

In order for cooperative groups to be developmentally appropriate, learners should be allowed to communicate in a one-to-one basis, as speech to a whole class is often formal and less contextualized than speech within a cooperative group according to Kagan (1995). Learners within a small group have more opportunities to enter into discourse at a level which is more appropriate to their own developmental level.

Learners are able to provide immediate feedback and correction opportunities to fellow learners within the small group. Feedback and correction in the process of communication leads to easy acquisition of vocabulary and language forms, whereas

formal correction opportunities lead to self-consciousness and anxiety, which inhibit rather than facilitate language acquisition according to Kagan (1995).

Kagan (1995) concludes by noting that as we examine how cooperative learning transforms input, output and context variables in the direction of facilitating language acquisition, we conclude: cooperative learning and the ESL classroom - a natural marriage.

2.13. **CONCLUSION**

Cooperative group work is a complex and versatile teaching method. It requires planning and constant vigilance on the part of the educator, and input and participation from the learner. The value derived from the learning experiences generated by a cooperative group setting far outweighs the negativity experienced by the educator and the learners, and educators should strive to be competent, and enthusiastic in the correct implementation of the various models available.

Teachers and learners have to familiarize themselves with the dynamics of cooperative learning if they are truly to experience the exciting benefits of this teaching/learning approach. The secret lies in grouping learners in various ways, using appropriate cooperative learning models, matching subject matter with appropriate models, and creative utilisation of the available classroom space (Gelderblom & de Kock, 1995:59). It is essential that educators are made aware of the varying principles underpinning group work, and the manner in which various models are implemented.

Lyman (1988) notes that early childhood educators can use many of the same strategies and activities currently being used to encourage cooperation and interaction in older children. Effective cooperative learning experiences increase the probability of children's success throughout their school years. Research has shown that the educational benefits of cooperative group work far outweigh the benefits of traditional direct teaching methods. In this regard, educators should be encouraged to see these

benefits for themselves, and should strive to create positive cooperative group work settings in their classrooms.

Bonwell and Eison (1991) have found through their research that it appears that previous classroom initiatives and written materials about active learning have all too often been isolated and fragmented. The resulting pedagogical efforts have therefore lacked coherence, and the goal of interactive classrooms has remained unfulfilled.

The following chapter will deal with the issue of communication apprehension. This study aims to determine if a link exists, between group work and communication apprehension, and whether group work is able to reduce communication apprehension in ESL learners.

COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION AND THE ESL LEARNER

INTRODUCTION

Before we attempt to define what communication apprehension (CA) is, one should first identify what communication entails. It is essential that one understands the communication process entails, before one tries to determine how communication apprehension negatively affects this process. A definition of what communication apprehension is also be supplied. One of the aims of this study is to determine if ESL learners experience communication apprehension.

THE COMMUNICATION PROCESS

Before communication apprehension can be undertaken, it is imperative that communication be defined. One cannot study a variable if the source is not defined. Communication can be defined as to make opinions, feelings, known or understood by others by speech, writing or bodily movements (Kistler, 1989:1).

According to Kistler and McCroskey (1989:1) human communication is the process in which one person (or persons) stimulates meaning in the mind of another person (or persons) through the use of verbal and/or nonverbal messages. According to Kistler (1989:1) communication is composed of three different types of communication, interpersonal communication (face-to-face), intrapersonal communication (communication with our senses send to our brain) and mass communication (television, radio, etc.). As we are dealing with communication within the classroom, interpersonal and intrapersonal communication will be studied, and the effect of communication apprehension will be discussed. The crucial aspect that is identified in the study of communication, is the fact that meaning is stimulated through

communication, and learning cannot occur without meaning being generated for the learner, so that comprehension can occur. It is then safe to assume then, that communication is vital for optimal learning to take place. Le Roux (1990:41) agrees with this statement and states that without communication no educational occurrence is possible.

3.3. ESL AND THE COMMUNICATION PROCESS

ESL is an acronym meaning English as a Second Language (The Castle Group, 2000), but it is important to note that other distinctions are made concerning the definition of the term ESL which could lead to confusion, and therefore should be clearly defined.

The domain of Second Language is littered with concepts defining exactly what constitutes a Second Language and a Second Language speaker. The Castle Group (2000) identifies different kinds of Second Language Speakers.

LEP (Limited English Proficient), refers to a student who is not fully English proficient, and speaks a language other than English at home, and because of this, do not demonstrate English language skills of comprehension, speaking, reading and writing what would place him/her in a mainstream, English only class. These students can also be referred to as PEP (Potentially English Proficient). According to LeLoup (2000) many states in the USA use the definition of limited English proficiency found in Title VII of the Improving America's Schools Act of 1994 (IASA), which states that an individual who was not born in the United States or whose native language is a language other than English and comes from an environment where a language other than English is dominant, is considered to be LEP.

Lemmer (1995:89) states that the distinction between the ELS pupil and the LEP pupil is a useful one when adapted to the South African Context. In South Africa, the ESL learners in the English schools could fall under any of the following definitions. LMS (Language Minority Student) refers to a student who has not yet acquired full

proficiency in English. EFL (English as a foreign Language) refers to English taught to students as a second language while they are in their native country. NES (Non-English Speaker) refers to a student that cannot speak English at all.

In research, ESL is often referred to as L2, meaning the 'second language' or 'English' while L1 refers to the 'primary or native language' of the student.

CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency) align the aspects of language linked to literacy and academic achievement. These skills usually take five to seven years to fully develop in second language learners. The learners that are going to make up the subjects of my research are ESL learners, learners who speak a language other than English at home, with a high level of CALP, due to the fact that they have all been in English medium schools since Grade 1. Lemmer (1995:89) states that a problem that often occurs with ESL students is the fact that although they are sufficiently fluent in English to have passed the language proficiency test, they often lack the command of English that is necessary for school success, and when these students are placed in the same classes as native English speakers, they find themselves at risk of underachievement. Bliss (1995) noted that it is not desirable to 'lump' all ESL students from different backgrounds together, as this ignores differences in culture, background and language, which could lead to problems when trying to assimilate English as a second language.

3.4 COMMUNICATION IN THE CLASSROOM

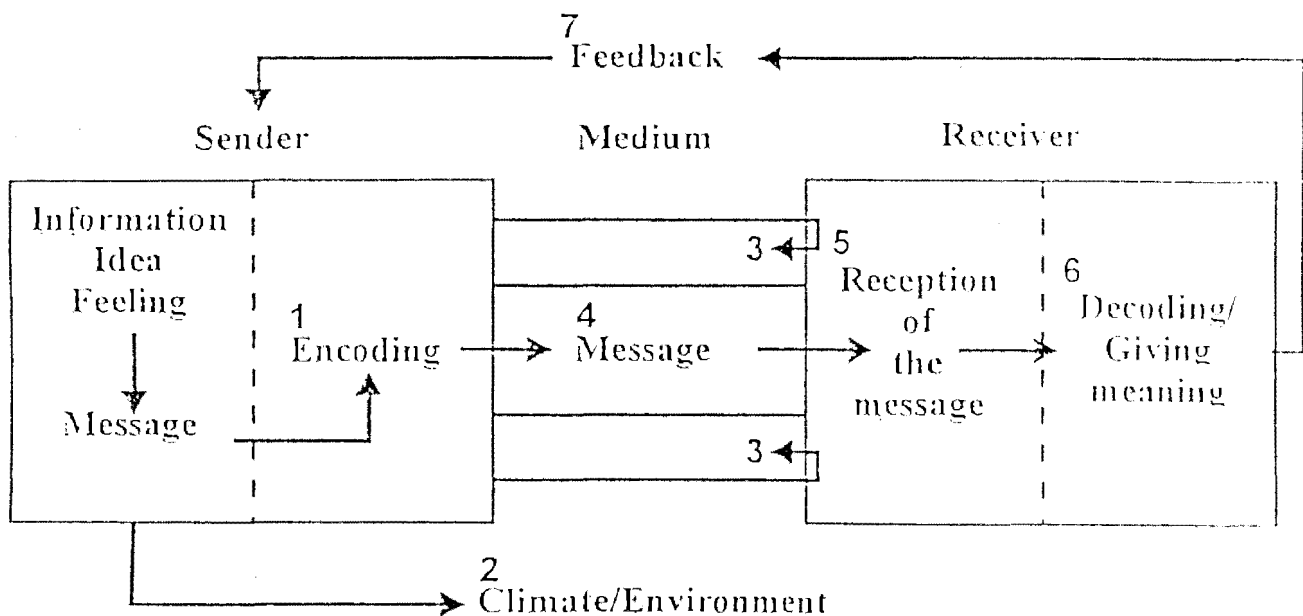
Vreken (1996:6-7) states that the aim of any (communication) model is to make a visual representation of a complicated matter or process, to give order and structure to a process and to make it clear. Vreken (1996:7) goes on to say communication in the classroom takes place between a teacher and the students, with the teacher being the sender of messages, while the learners are the receivers of that message. Communication can also take place between the learner and the teacher, between a learner and another learner, and between the teacher and the entire class. At different

times, various people will be the sender, and at other times different people will be the receiver. The role of the sender/receiver changes all the time. The communication that occurs in the classroom, is represented in a Classroom Communication Model as presented by Vreken (1996:7).

3.4.1. CLASSROOM COMMUNICATION MODEL

Vreken (1996:8-9) states that there are 7 facets which comprise the Classroom Communication Model. For the situation where the educator is the sender and the learner(s) is (are) the receiver(s), the process is as follows:

Figure 3.1 Classroom communication model



Facet 1 is the encoding of the message. This facet involves two steps, the first being when the educator changes the information that he/she wants to transmit, whether it be

academic content, an idea, feelings or thoughts. The second step of this facet is when the message is changed into a code or medium so that it can be transmitted to the learner.

This facet involves planning and preparation as the message is prepared for transmittance.

Facet 2 is creating the climate. For communication and learning, and thus teaching, to occur, the educator has to create a learning climate that is conducive to communication and learning. Vreken (1996:8) states that an efficient learning climate in the first instance includes a calm, quiet environment, sufficient fresh air, moderate temperature, good lighting and other physical factors that can have a positive influence on learning. Secondly, it concerns the positive psycho-social environment in which the teaching must take place. This includes the creation of a good learning climate (task alignment, participation, preparedness, mutual acceptance and trust between the educator and the students, a good degree of class control, order and discipline).

Facet 3 involves preparing the student to be an active receiver in the communication process. Whether or not an educator is able to catch the learners attention and maintain it, is a prerequisite of the communication process. The educator plays an important role and must possess the necessary skills in order to accomplish this.

Facet 4 comprises the transmittance of the message. The message that the educator transmits to the learners must be clear and unequivocal, and be transmitted in such a manner that the learner is able to understand it well.

Facet 5 is when the receiver receives the message. The senses play an important part in the receipt of the message. Learners receive the message through their senses and it is the educators task to ensure that the learner uses all his/her senses to maintain the attention necessary in the receipt of the message.

Facet 6 involves decoding or giving meaning to the message. Once the learner has received the message, the learner will then consider and process the message. The learner will interpret the message and ascribe meaning to the message received. This involves assimilating the message with prior knowledge, and incorporating the message with his/her frame of reference, by making associations and applying it. The educator has a special task in leading the learner through these thought processes.

Facet 7 involves the feedback that is given and received by the sender and the receiver. As feedback occurs both internally (feedback that educator receives by listening and thinking about the message) and externally (feedback that educator receives through the verbal or non-verbal responses of the learner). It is during this facet that the educator can deduce whether or not the learner has received the message clearly, and whether or not the learner has ascribed meaning to the message.

3.5. COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION: RESEARCH FINDINGS

Not all communication is optimal though, and various variables can interfere with the communication process. Communication apprehension is one of these variables that has been recognised and studied extensively. Communication professionals recognize that communication apprehension and avoidance (CAA) can be a significant threat to communication effectiveness for many students (Booth-Butterfield & Cottone, 1991:172). But what exactly is communication apprehension? According to Richmond and McCroskey (1989:37) communication apprehension is an individual's level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons. Pitt and Nel (1990:67) agree with this definition, and add that a person suffering from communication apprehension will avoid situations where this fear or anxiety will be experienced.

3.5.1 DIFFERENT TYPES OF COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION

Richmond and McCroskey (1989:39) and McCroskey and Richmond (1988) have

identified four different forms of communication apprehension and these are:

- ◆ Traitlike communication apprehension
- ◆ Context-based communication apprehension
- ◆ Audience-based communication apprehension
- ◆ Situational communication apprehension

3.5.1.1. TRAITLIKE COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION

The term traitlike was chosen because it indicates a distinction between an actual trait (e.g. eye colour, height, weight, and so on) and something that is traitlike. A true trait is something that is 'invariant' and cannot be changed and individuals, usually as adults, may succeed at consciously changing aspects of their personalities, but as changes are usually accomplished in conjunction with some treatment program (Richmond & McCroskey, 1989:39). Traitlike communication apprehension is seen as relatively enduring, personality-type orientation toward a given mode of communication across a wide variety of contexts (McCroskey, 1984:16). Pitt and Nel (1990:68) state that no-one is born apprehensive, apprehension is a trait that is conditioned through reinforcement of the child's communication behaviours. One can surmise from this definition that traitlike communication apprehension is often part of a person's personality, whether it is a learned behaviour or not, and may be difficult to overcome due to the fact that a person sees this apprehension as part of who he/she is.

3.5.1.2. CONTEXT- BASED COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION

Context-based communication apprehension relates to people who are fearful or anxious about communicating in one type of context, while having no fear or anxiety in other contexts (Richmond & McCroskey, 1989:41). Context-based communication apprehension is viewed as a relatively enduring, personality-type orientation toward communication in a given type of context (McCroskey, 1984:16). Context-based communication apprehension is experienced in specific contexts like public speaking, or singing, or personal conversations, and can have a detrimental effect on the

communication process in the classroom, as it may cause learners to be afraid to communicate, in given situations. Blatzer (1997) notes that public speaking is widely known as one of the top fears that people have, in fact listed as the number one fear of Americans. However communication apprehension can also occur one-to-one, in small groups and during meetings.

3.5.1.3 AUDIENCE-BASED COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION

Audience-based communication apprehension deals with a person's reactions to communicating with a given individual or group of individuals across time (Richmond & McCroskey, 1989:42). How a given person, namely your educator, parent, peer group or authority figure, is perceived, determines the fear or anxiety that will be experienced in the communication process. Learners often suffer no anxiety when communicating with their peer group, yet will experience high levels of fear or anxiety when communicating with an educator or headmaster.

3.5.1.4. SITUATIONAL COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION

Situational communication apprehension is viewed as a transitory orientation toward communication with a given person or group of people (McCroskey, 1984:18). This means that at certain times, communication apprehension is experienced only with a given person in a single situation. As we are all different and unique creations of God, we all experience anxiety differently, and this also applies to the communication process. What seems like a totally normal situation to you or I, may fill another person with fear, and communication apprehension will be experienced by this person if they are required to convey a message. This form of communication apprehension may become apparent when a learner has to communicate with the educator, either on a one-to-one basis, or in front of the whole class.

The different causes of communication apprehension have been studied extensively. It is interesting to note that McCroskey and Richmond (1988) have identified three causes of communication avoidance, which lead to CA, and these are:

- social introversion
- alienation
- ethnic or cultural divergence.

Hart (1999) identifies *novelty*, as a cause of communication apprehension, when people are exposed to new situations and experience apprehension because of this.

Formality is also identified as a variable by Hart (1999), that influences communication apprehension, as in everyday situations people are not exposed to formal situations which do not allow flexibility and because of this, anxiety is experienced.

Also identified by Hart (1999) is *conspicuousness*, when the focus of attention is placed on you, heightens the anxiety that is felt by many people in formal communication situations. Often people feel that they are not capable of delivering a presentation, and due to a *lack of skills*, and they experience anxiety or fear in the communication situation. McCroskey and Richmond (1988) agree with this and state the skill deficiency leads to communication avoidance and ultimately CA.

In the classroom situation, learners often experience anxiety that *evaluation* will occur, and this naturally makes learners more apprehensive according to Hart (1999). It is essential to make learners aware of the fact that evaluation forms an integral part of the classroom situation, and because of this, it cannot be ignored. Learners and educators should strive to eliminate this anxiety by stating clearly what is expected from the learner during the evaluation.

Pitt and Nel (1990:67) also identify the degree of unpredictability as a further contributing factor in communication apprehension. When exposed to a situation that is unpredictable, the greater the apprehension. An individual's prior success's or failure's, concerning communication situations, will also greatly influence his/her responses to new communication situations.

General personality traits such as quietness, shyness and reticence frequently precipitate CA (Holbrook, 1987). McCroskey (in Holbrook, 1987) lists seven factors which could result in a quiet child being identified. These are:

- ▶ Low intellectual skills
- ▶ Speech skill deficiencies
- ▶ Voluntary social introversion
- ▶ Social alienation
- ▶ Communication anxiety
- ▶ Low self-esteem
- ▶ Ethnic/cultural divergence in communication norms.

While CA is but one of these factors, the others can lead to CA. At the same time, their presence should not necessarily be interpreted as CA according to Holbrook (1987).

3.7. EFFECTS OF COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION

Richmond and McCroskey (1989:59) identify the internal and external effects of communication apprehension'. Internal effects are characterised by the internal feelings associated with communicating while suffering from communication apprehension. These internal effects may not be noticeable to an observer, but are only experienced by the person experiencing the effects. The external effects of communication apprehension are manifested in a physical manner that is often apparent to an onlooker.

3.7.1. INTERNAL EFFECTS OF COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION

McCroskey (1984:33) states that communication apprehension is experienced in an internally expressed feeling of 'discomfort'. Certain physical side-effects of apprehension are manifested in the form of rapid heart rate, queasy stomach, increased perspiration, shakiness and a dry mouth.

3.7.2. EXTERNAL EFFECTS OF COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION

The external effects of communication apprehension manifest themselves in aspects of a person's behaviour according to Richmond and McCroskey (1989:60). These behavioural patterns include communication avoidance, communication withdrawal and communication disruption. Pitt and Nel (1990:68) also identify these behavioural patterns and go on to say that as a result of their withdrawal and avoidance behaviours, and in conjunction with the negative perceptions fostered by these behaviours, people who experience a high level of communication apprehension, will be negatively impacted in terms of their economic, academic, political and social lives. This has serious implications for the teaching-learning situation, as learners who do not learn to communicate without fear, seem doomed to develop into adults, who experience serious problems in their ability to function as holistically developed beings.

Butler (in Blatzer, 1997) also notes that the high CA students were characterised by emotional instability, restraint, submissiveness, timidity, low self-assurance, conservatism and tension.

3.7.3. EFFECTS OF COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION ON THE COMMUNICATION PROCESS

Richmond and McCroskey (1989:66) note that communication apprehension impacts on the ability of a person to communicate effectively. It is noted that a learner who displays communication apprehension and communication avoidance, is seen to be

less competent than a talkative learner. As quiet people, who avoid communication situations, accept fewer opportunities to practice their communication skills, their communication skills are less developed than those of a person who actively seeks out communication opportunities. Quiet people are perceived to be more anxious about communicating than talkative people. Greene *et al.* (1998:337) agree with this statement and state that it is typically held that anxious or apprehensive individuals tend to exhibit interaction behaviours that are perceived as less skilful or appropriate than those of their non-anxious counterparts. People who suffer from communication apprehension are also seen to be less responsive and assertive in communication situations. They are also seen to be less sociable and friendly (Richmond & McCroskey, 1989:68). This impacts on the everyday life of a person suffering from communication apprehension, as it influences the way that these people are perceived by others, and affects the expectations that are placed on those who have difficulty communicating because of anxiety or fear.

3.7.4. EFFECTS OF COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION ON SCHOOL PERFORMANCE

Within the school environment, the impact of communication apprehension can have dire consequences for the learner. Quiet children often are incorrectly perceived as poor readers or lazy students and thus placed in 'slow' groups. Many are never able to overcome this poor start, and they become what they were incorrectly perceived as being - the slow student (Richmond & McCroskey: 1989:70). The ultimate effect of quietness, as displayed by a learner suffering from communication apprehension, is less learning. The school environment requires effective communication on the part of the learner and the educator, for learning to occur.

Holbrook (1987) states that the consequences of CA are emotional, educational and social. Shyness and reticence affect the social skills necessary for children to make friends. Shy students tend to confine their career aspirations to vocations that require little oral communication. They seem to have a higher need to avoid failure and they

have less achievement or success motivation than other students. In the classroom, the teacher may regard quiet students as 'perfect' in that they are not discipline problems. But often the CA student's lack of response or participation has a negative, spiralling, affect. These students are perceived as less capable, and are thus called on less frequently in class discussion.

Le Roux (1990:42) states that in the educational situation, the educator has to be sensitive to basic factors which could influence communication in the classroom and these factors include communication skills, attitudes, knowledge, culture and the social environment in which the communication takes place. Greene *et al.* (1998:344) states that skills training is often recommended as a means of addressing problems associated with communication anxiety, but there is a reason to believe that the intrusive thoughts that tend to accompany anxiety might interfere with skill acquisition by diverting attention away from skill-relevant information. The educator seems to be presented with a problem that is a double- edged sword. The question one has to ask, is what is the educator to do? Educators have to be sensitised to focusing on developing communication skills in the learners in their classroom. McCroskey and Richmond (1988) also note that CA has a specific effect on discussions and this includes the amount of talk, nonverbal communication, communication content (disruption and irrelevancies), avoidance of disagreement, and failure to generate ideas (possible disruption of thought processes). These specific effects on discussions, hold serious implications for the group work process, and the implementation thereof.

Pretorius (1997:88) noted that learners whose academic achievement falls in the interval between 0%-49% experienced the highest communication apprehension in each context, indicated in the PRCA (Personal Report on Communication Apprehension). Learners whose academic achievements fall in the interval 80%-100% experienced the lowest communication apprehension in each context. It is clear from this research, that communication apprehension does effect school performance.

3.7.5. **GROUP WORK AND COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION**

McCroskey (2000) notes that it has been established that people suffering from communication apprehension also behave differently in small group communication contexts. Wells and Lashbrook (in McCroskey, 2000) found that high apprehensives interacted less in small groups and when they interacted, their interactions were less relevant than those of their peers who did not suffer from communication apprehension.

Hamilton (in McCroskey, 2000) found that high apprehensives showed more tension, less interest, and talked less in small groups than low apprehensives. It was also found that these behaviours have also been found to have an impact on other group members.

Quiggins (in McCroskey, 2000) noted that high apprehensives were perceived by other group members to be less extroverted, composed, and task-attractive than low apprehensives. Further, low apprehensive group members saw high apprehensives as less competent and socially attractive than other low apprehensives.

McCroskey (2000) notes that more recent research has confirmed the negative impact of communication apprehension on interpersonal attraction and on perceived credibility. It has also been found that high communication apprehensives are less likely to be turned to for opinion leadership than low apprehensives.

Abrami *et al.* (1995:123) notes that when you group a shy student with a compassionate student, be sure to brief the compassionate student on how to help the shy student get involved before the group activity begins. Such advance briefing will help the more outgoing student see that working with a shy classmate is not a punishment but an important role in a small group.

3.7.6. GENDER AND COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION

Borich and Tombari (1995:609-610) note that because of the different manner in which educators relate to males and females, the manner in which males and females relate to the teaching process may differ. Because males are called on more to answer questions in the mathematics or science classes, and females are called on more to answer questions in the language and art classes, highlighting these gender differences could lead groups to feel inferior and result in low morale, the boycotting of certain classes, avoiding school and severe frustration.

3.8. MANAGING COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION

Once it has become apparent that a learner in class is suffering from communication apprehension, it is essential that the educator is aware of what can be done to rectify the situation. There are various methods of controlling communication apprehension and these are discussed below.

3.8.1. SYSTEMATIC DESENSITIZATION

Friedrich and Goss (in Holbrook, 1987) state that the most commonly used treatment for CA has been 'systematic desensitization', which includes training in deep muscle relaxation, construction of anxiety-creating stimuli, and the graduated pairing, through imagery, of these anxiety stimuli with the relaxed state. Rosenfield, Grant and McCroskey (in Blatzer, 1997) recommend systematic desensitization for those who have communication apprehension in speaking in groups and the same for those uncomfortable in dyads. They recommend focused training that tackles specific needs, for example, if someone has CA in talking to strangers, then they would suggest skills training focusing on talking to strangers. Their studies showed this did produce the desired results of reducing apprehension and improving performance on schoolwork. This form of treatment exposes the person suffering from communication apprehension

with small doses of anxiety-inducing communication experiences. The goal is to train the person to incorporate a new response to the anxiety in their cognitive process. Learning to experience relaxation in the face of anxiety gradually diminishes the anxiety at that level. After experiencing success at reducing the anxiety response at one level, a new situation is presented, which is a bit more anxiety inducing. Step by step, facing the anxiety and learning a more relaxed way of responding to it, produces new levels of mastery over the anxiety (Marston, 2000).

The benefits of these strategies are of vast importance. If a learner is aware of why he/she is experiencing communication apprehension, and has the skills to deal with the communication situation and understands the importance of overcoming this apprehension, the learner will be able to develop his/her skills to the point of becoming an active member of a social situation, where their input in society will be taken seriously. Blatzer (1997) however, notes that there is a draw back when using systematic desensitisation, and that is that it is time consuming and requires individualized training with each student.

2.8.2. VISUALISATION

Visualization was associated with lowering self-reported CA as well as increasing social interaction. Based on the studies done, visualization would be a relatively easy implement treatment to help people cope with CA in both public speaking situations and with interactions with others, like a job interview (Blatzer, 1997). Marston (2000) notes that guided mental imagery has proven helpful in changing confidence levels in people with high levels of communication apprehension. Visualisation involves stressing positive thinking and ignores negative thinking.

3.8.3. MANAGING COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION IN THE SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT

According to Friedman (in Holbrook:1987) the school environment can play a vital role

in the prevention of communication apprehension. For example, thirty elementary and secondary teachers focused attention on the prevention of reticence and identified several characteristics of a healthy classroom. These included - creating a warm, easygoing climate in the classroom - helping students get to know one another at the beginning of the year - using drama and role-playing situations - having students speak to the class in groups or panels, rather than individually - allowing students to work with classmates with whom they feel comfortable - having students speak from their seats rather than from the front of the room - presenting students with oral activities in a developmental sequence.

Bond (in Holbrook: 1987) notes that it may be more advisable to address CA on a 'somewhat broader level', and proposes a four-phase strategy: (1) require teachers in training to take more than an introductory course in oral communication, (2) create basic communication courses in the earlier elementary grades, (3) provide specialized treatment for quiet/shy students on a voluntary basis, and (4) develop classroom activities that encourage oral communication.

Hart (1999) states that public speaking is the number one fear of Americans. Hart (1999) goes on to recommend ways in which one can combat anxiety in public speaking.

1. Research and prepare your speech well in advance. Procrastination only leads to increased anxiety.
2. Rehearse your speech in front of someone else. Having a real audience of one or two people will help you simulate the presentation experience.
3. Rehearse your speech many times. The more you rehearse, the calmer you will be on the presentation day.
4. Exercise before your speech.
5. Avoid caffeine on the day of your speech.
6. Replace negative self-talk with positive self-talk. Speakers who can turn these statements into positive comments feel better about themselves, and can

approach their speeches in a more relaxed frame of mind.

7. Visualize your speech as a success.
8. Attempt to practice in the actual room. If this is not possible, imagine the room when you rehearse, as it will make you feel more comfortable.
9. Check all equipment in advance.
10. Take a moment before speaking to get relaxed and adjust to your audience. Breathe for a moment before you begin speaking. Too frequently students rush up to the podium and begin speaking before they have a chance to think.
11. Learn more about public speaking. If you are in doubt about how to organize, practice or deliver your presentations, find several sources of information to help you.

It is essential that educators, parents and learners themselves, be aware of what communication apprehension is, and how it can be effectively reduced, to ensure optimal communication, which will lead to optimal learning. Communication apprehension is a problem which faces all people at some stage of their lives, but by the intervention of caring educators and parents, communication apprehension should be an aspect of the communication process which is understood and dealt with in a manner that leads to effective education and not the alienation of the child from all aspects of their social development. Preventing or alleviating communication apprehension for every student is a monumental if not impossible task. But simply recognising that CA is a frequent phenomenon that often occurs early in student's lives can be a spur toward eliminating many factors that contribute to the quiet child's withdrawal from communication (Holbrook, 1987).

Frymeir (in Blatzer, 1997) states that the role of the educator cannot be minimized in the classroom setting. Student motivation is developed through teacher modelling and communication of expectations. An enthusiastic teacher will transfer that enthusiasm to most students. If the teacher creates a supportive environment, that eliminates an anxiety that high CA students may have. High CA students hesitate to participate due to fear of making a mistake. Therefore when students had a highly verbal immediate

teacher, motivation to study was higher regardless of the students' level of CA.

3.9. MEASURING COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION

Richmond and McCroskey (1989) have designed various instruments which are implemented in the use of measuring communication apprehension in various contexts. These instruments can be very useful in the teaching context if the educator wishes to determine the levels of CA experienced by learners in any given context.

3.9.1. SHYNESS SCALE (SS)

The Shyness Scale (SS) measures a persons shyness in various contexts by asking questions relating to how people perceive their own shyness, in these contexts. The scale is answered very simply with YES or NO answers and the responses are each given a numerical value. These values are then added up using a formula. Scores >52 indicate a high level of shyness and scores <32 indicate a low level of shyness. Scores between 32 and 52 indicate a moderate level of shyness (Richmond & McCroskey, 1989:113).

3.9.2. WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE (WTC)

The willingness to communicate (WTC) scale introduces twenty situations in which a person might choose to communicate or not to communicate. 'The WTC is designed to indicate how willing you are to communicate in a variety of contexts with different types of receivers. The higher your score of the WTC total score, the more willing you are to communicate generally. Similarly, the higher your given subscore for a type of context or audience, the more willing you are to communicate in that type of context or with that type of audience' (Richmond & McCroskey, 1989:116).

The norms of WTC scores are: (Richmond & McCroskey, 1989:117)

▶ Group discussion	>89	High WTC
	<57	Low WTC
▶ Meetings	>80	High WTC
	<39	Low WTC
▶ Interpersonal conversations	>94	High WTC
	<64	Low WTC
▶ Public speaking	>78	High WTC
	<33	Low WTC
▶ Stranger	>63	High WTC
	<18	Low WTC
▶ Acquaintance	>92	High WTC
	<57	Low WTC
▶ Friend	>99	High WTC
	<71	Low WTC
▶ Total WTC	>82	High overall WTC
	<52	Low overall WTC

3.9.3. **WRITING APPREHENSION TEST (WAT)**

The writing apprehension test (WAT) uses Likert scales to determine the level of apprehension people experience when writing. Likert scales use the method of summated ratings and therefore are also known as summated rating scales. A Likert scale is constructed by assembling a number of statements about the attitudinal object of which about half express favourable attitudes and about half unfavourable attitudes about the object (Monteith & Steyn, 2000:11).

3.9.4. **TEST OF SINGING APPREHENSION (TOSA)**

This instrument is composed of twenty statements concerning feelings about singing and about communicating with other people (Richmond & McCroskey, 1989:121). Scores >68/100 indicate a high level of singing apprehension, while scores <37/100

indicate a low level of singing apprehension. The range of scores between 68 and 37 represent the 'normal range' of apprehension about singing.

3.9.5. PERSONAL REPORT OF COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION (PRCA-24)

This instrument is composed of twenty-four statements concerning feelings about communicating with other people (Richmond & McCroskey, 1989:123). It is interesting to note that this instrument measures a form of Traitlike CA (Richmond & McCroskey, 1989:124). This instrument also uses Likert scales, to indicate the level of apprehension that is felt by a person when communicating. Score on the four contexts (groups, meetings, interpersonal conversations and public speaking) can range from a low of 6 to a high of 30. Any score above 18 indicates some degree of apprehension (Richmond & McCroskey, 1989:125). This is the instrument which has been used in this communication apprehension study.

3.9.6. PERSONAL REPORT OF PUBLIC SPEAKING ANXIETY (PRPSA)

This instrument is composed of thirty-four statements concerning feelings about communicating with other people (Richmond & McCroskey, 1989:127) and this instrument measures a Context-based CA. Scores should range between 34 and 170. This instrument also uses the Likert scales, to determine levels of apprehension experienced by people.

3.9.7. COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION IN GENERALIZED CONTEXTS

This instrument is composed of fifty statements concerning your feelings about communicating with other people, divided into five categories (Richmond & McCroskey, 1989:129), and these categories are general, group discussions, meetings, interpersonal conversations and public speeches.

3.9.8. **SITUATIONAL COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION MEASURE (SCAM)**

This instrument determines the level of apprehension experienced by people who interact with others in a supervisory role, over them. Your score should be between 20 and 140. This is an audience-based CA (Richmond & McCroskey, 1989: 134).

3.9.9. **SELF-PERCEIVED COMMUNICATION COMPETENCE SCALE (SPCC)**

The self-perceived communication competence scale (SPCC) introduces twelve situations in which people might need to communicate. People's abilities to communicate effectively vary a lot, and sometimes the same person is more competent to communicate in one situation than in another (Richmond & McCroskey, 1989:135).

The norms of the SPCC are: (Richmond & McCroskey, 1989:136)

▶ Public	>86	High SPCC
	<51	Low SPCC
▶ Meeting	>85	High SPCC
	<51	Low SPCC
▶ Group	>90	High SPCC
	<61	Low SPCC
▶ Dyad	>93	High SPCC
	<68	Low SPCC
▶ Stranger	>79	High SPCC
	<31	Low SPCC
▶ Acquaintance	>92	High SPCC
	<62	Low SPCC
▶ Friend	>99	High SPCC
	<76	Low SPCC
▶ Total SPCC	>87	High SPCC
	<59	Low SPCC

Higher SPCC scores indicate higher self-perceived communication competence with basic communication contexts (public, meeting, group, dyad) and receivers (strangers, acquaintance, friend) according to Richmond and McCroskey (1989:136).

3.9.10. **ASSERTIVENESS-RESPONSIVENESS MEASURE**

This questionnaire lists twenty personality characteristics, and using Likert scales, the person is asked to indicate to what degree they believe each of these characteristics applies to them while interacting with others. Scores above 34 indicate high assertiveness or responsiveness. Scores below 26 indicate low levels of assertiveness or responsiveness. Scores between 26 and 34 indicate moderate levels of assertiveness or responsiveness (Richmond & McCroskey, 1989:138).

3.10. **CONCLUSION**

This chapter indicates that communication apprehension exists in individuals, although it may manifest itself in various contexts and situations and at different times. It is interesting to note that some individuals may experience communication apprehension all the time, while others may only experience communication apprehension in specific contexts.

The causes of communication apprehension and the effects that these causes have on individuals are of paramount importance to the teaching process. If an educator is aware of what causes communication apprehension, what the effects of communication apprehension are, and how communication apprehension can be managed, this should provide the appropriate channels for communication to be free from impediments, which would hinder the teaching-learning process.

Researchers have provided numerous instruments which measure communication apprehension in various contexts, and educators should use these instruments to determine whether or not learners are experiencing communication apprehension, and

so ensure that learners do not suffer unnecessarily when trying to communicate in the classroom.

This study aims to determine which models of classroom teaching, specifically group work models, can effectively reduce communication apprehension, and ease communication processes for the ESL learner.

THE EDUCATOR AS FACILITATOR

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The role of the educator in the classroom varies according to the various teaching models which are employed by the educator at any one time. One of the theoretical aims of this study is to determine how the role of the educator changes when one employs group work as a teaching model. (See 1.3.1) To achieve the aim of this study, it is essential that educators realise that their 'traditional' role is vastly different from their 'new' role. Not only in attempting to reduce CA amongst L2 learners, but in order to have group work models work effectively in the classroom, the role of the educator needs to be redefined. This chapter aims to define the traditional role of the educator, and offer an alternative role, that of facilitator, to enable educators to implement group work models effectively in their classrooms. The skills which exemplify an 'effective' educator will also be discussed.

4.2 A DEFINITION OF TEACHING

Before one can begin to define the role of the educator as facilitator, one should formulate a definition of teaching. Fenstermacher (in Steyn, 1988:160) notes that there are specific characteristics when dealing with the definition of what teaching is. It is stated that there must be at least two persons, one who possesses some knowledge, skill or other form of content and the other does not, and the possessor intends to convey the content to the one who lacks it, leading to the formation of a relationship between them for this purpose. Steyn (1988:160) goes on to state that a particular situation can only be conceptualized as teaching when the following characteristics appear simultaneously and in an interrelated way: A teaching aim/intention; curriculum/content; teacher; learner(s) and a live, guided interaction between teacher and learner. According to Perrott (1982:1) good teaching cannot be defined because

the criteria differ for every instructional situation, but Kyriacou (1986:9) says that effective teaching is essentially concerned with how best to bring about the desired pupil learning by some educational activity. These definitions overtly imply a direct relationship between the educator, the learner, the content of the curriculum and the activities associated with the learning of this knowledge.

4.2.1 THE AIM OR INTENTION OF TEACHING

Steyn (1988:160) states that the first fundamental characteristic of any teaching situation is the aim towards which the educator directs his/her action. Before one can begin to look at the aims of teaching, the educator has to determine what the aims of the curriculum are, and then attempt an analysis of how they are going to bring about the fulfilment of these aims in the teaching and learning situation.

Schubert (as quoted by Steyn, 1998:25) notes that there are procedural criteria for selecting aims in the curriculum. This means that the educator has to formulate their own aims, aims which are directly linked to the teaching and learning situation, in order to ensure that the learners interact with the content and to ensure that meaningful learning occurs. Schubert (as quoted by Steyn, 1998:25) notes that the criteria for selecting aims are: that the aims are representative, and refers to the teaching time that is available to meet these aims, the available resources and the level of student knowledge and skill acquisition. Clarity, as a criteria, refers to the use of terms which enable the educator and the learners alike to fully comprehend what is expected of them, defensibility refers to why you are selecting these aims, consistency refers to the level of harmony in the learning content and the classroom climate, and also helps the learners understand where they are headed in their learning as there is a consistent manner in which they are expected to achieve their aims, that they set for themselves and which the educator sets for them. And the final criteria for selecting aims, is feasibility, and this implies the involvement of finances, resources, attitudes and support for reaching the pre-determined aims set in the classroom. It is important that one use the correct teaching strategies, like cooperative learning or guided peer

interaction, role play situations or research work, in order that the learners experience the greatest interaction possible with their course work, in order to meet the aims that have been set for the lesson.

It is clear from the onset that the aims of the lesson, are inter-related with the content, the role of the educator, the role of the learners, and the guided interaction of all these elements to ensure that teaching occurs.

4.2.2. THE ROLE OF THE CURRICULUM IN TEACHING

According to Steyn (1988:161) the second fundamental characteristic of any teaching situation is the curriculum/content, a systemized body of knowledge, skills and attitudes or any particular sub-unit of content that the teacher wants to teach. Nicholls (as quoted by Vermeulen, 1997:17) states that the question of what is taught focuses on the learning content selected and organized for the purpose of attaining the aims or outcomes of the curriculum. The learning content is the means for teaching and educating the learner with a view of achieving the aims of the curriculum. Steyn (1998:27) identifies content as knowledge that can be transmitted from educators by means of teaching. Content needs to be implemented, and one needs to consider how the content will be implemented when selecting the content and this refers to learning activities. Learning activities promote ways in which content can be taught, and cooperative learning experiences can be used to implement the aims of the curriculum, due to the fact that the most effective way to learn something is for us to have to teach it to someone else according to Reynell and Groenewald (1999:23). Educators need to develop learning experiences that are linked with the content, and will ensure that the content is taught, so that the aims of the curriculum are met. Once again, the inter-relatedness of the characteristics of teaching is highlighted in the selection of the content.

Learning experiences can be defined as the guidance of the learner on his learning path so as to make sure that the worthwhile aims of the curriculum can be met,

according to Steyn (1998:29). Nicholls (as quoted by Vermeulen, 1997:17) states that the question of how the learning content should be taught requires information regarding the teaching-learning experiences, opportunities and activities appropriate for teaching the learning content. Learning experiences will occur during learning activities, and as such the two concepts are interrelated with content. These concepts cannot exist on their own and need to be seen as a whole, in order to implement the aims of the curriculum.

The needs and interests of the learners and their developmental level needs to be considered when selecting content. Cultural differences, language barriers, emotional development and intellectual development all form part of the needs of certain learners, and educators need to pay special attention to these needs when selecting content.

4.2.3. THE ROLE OF THE EDUCATOR IN TEACHING

According to Steyn (1988:161) the third fundamental characteristic of any teaching situation is the presence of the educator as the possessor or provider of knowledge or skill. Kindsvatter *et al.* (1988:152) notes that the key to effective teaching is wise and informed educator decision making, within the context of a particular class in a particular school, and Cooper (as quoted by Kindsvatter *et al.* 1988:57) notes that the effective educator is one who is able to bring about intended learning outcomes.

The educator has to be aware of the fact that they are responsible for guiding the interactional nature of the learners learning. Le Roux (1990:428) notes that there are certain variables in the interactional context of learning. The context variables are the conditions to which the educator must respond, such as the abilities of the students, class size, instructional materials, resources of the community and school, and physical environments of the class. The process variables which affect the instructional nature of learning are the actual behaviours of the educator and learner, and here the emphasis falls on language - especially the verbal and non-verbal language used in communication by educators in interaction with learners.

Le Roux (1990:429) concludes his discussion on the essence of classroom communication by noting that communication is the very essence of educating children. Without communication no instruction or teaching and ultimately, learning is possible. The didactical aspect of education is always founded on, embedded in or transmitted through the social aspect. Education is always of a social, interactive or communicative nature. Effective education depends on effective communication.

Burns (1986:151) notes that there is specific research which indicates that effective educators differ from ineffective educators in the following manner:

- effective teachers have a willingness to be more flexible
- an empathetic ability, sensitive to the needs of the pupils
- an ability to personalize their teaching: an appreciative reinforcing attitude
- an easy informal warm conversational teaching manner
- and the ability for emotional adjustment.

The characteristics that are displayed by educators, ultimately affect the effectiveness of their teaching. Borich (1988) states that the characteristics displayed by effective educators include the ability to see all aspects of the classroom at once, being able to perform over-lapping activities, being less autocratic and authoritarian, allowing freedom of expression and spontaneity among the learners and promoting an adult like cooperative learning environment.

The role of the educator in the teaching-learning situation is of vast importance, as different teaching styles, mean that different learners relate differently to those styles. Zabel and Zabel (1993:25) state that student motivation and achievement can be linked to an educator's trust, respect, optimism, and intentionality. Invitational teaching is also recommended as it asserts that the primary goal of teaching is to cordially summon individuals to see themselves as able, valuable and responsible and to behave accordingly, according to Rogers (as quoted by Zabel & Zabel, 1993:25). Kyriacou (1986:19) noted in a study that educators with a 'formal' teaching style, seem

to have more academic success in the classroom situation.

4.2.4. THE ROLE OF GUIDED INTERACTION IN TEACHING

Teaching and learning as an interactive process in a classroom are always communicative in nature. Educators communicate with students, while students also communicate with their peers and educators, according to Puro and Bloome (as quoted by Le Roux, 1990:41). Le Roux (1990:42) also notes that without communication, no educational occurrence is possible, while communication between educator and learner does not automatically imply education. Within the educational classroom context the HOW, WHAT and WHEN of communication is of importance. Of importance in educational communication is how a message is conveyed or sent across. This implies the existence of interaction or communication in the classroom. Steyn (1988:161) notes that the fourth characteristic of teaching is linked with the characteristic of the role of the educator, and this characteristic implies an active, live and guided interaction between educator and learner.

An educator can work out the best aims, select the most appropriate content, and equip the learners with learning strategies to learn the content presented, but if there is no interaction between the educator and learner, between the learner and other learners, and between the learner and the content, no learning will occur. By implementing guided interaction in the classroom, the educator will ensure that learning and effective teaching occurs in their classroom.

Kounin (in Pintrich & Schunk, 1996:354) noted through observations of student-educator interactions in group work situations, that certain distinct educator behaviours produced high rates of learner work involvement and low rates of deviancy, while other educator behaviours actually encouraged distraction and deviancy. These effective classroom communication and management techniques are identified as withitness, overlapping, smoothness, momentum and slowdowns, maintaining group focus and avoiding satiation with variety and challenging activities.

Favela (2000) has noted however that there is a critique of Kounin's work. Kounin studied the role good lesson management plays in discipline. Because he did not study the techniques that good disciplinarians use to correct misbehaviour, he has been criticized of not having a well-rounded approach to discipline.

Kounin (In Pintrich & Schunk, 1996:354) also identifies qualities of desists. These include clarity, firmness and roughness. Favela (2000) notes that desists occur when the educator tells a student to stop a behaviour. Desist influence on the ripple effect in three areas: CLARITY, FIRMNESS AND ROUGHNESS. Clarity refers to how much information is given. A simple 'Stop that' had less ripple effect than, 'in school we ask for things, we don't just grab'. Firmness is the degree the teacher carries an 'I-mean-it' and a 'right now!' quality in the desist. Roughness refers to the amount of anger or exasperation the educator expresses. Roughness is not simply more firmness and seems to have little effect on the ripple effect. Clear firm desist tends to work the best'.

4.2.4.1 **WITHITNESS**

Withitness is defined by Kounin (in Pintrich & Schunk, 1996:355) as an educator's communication to the children by his/her actual behaviour, that he/she knows what the children are doing, or has the proverbial eyes in the back of his/her head. The withit educator must be aware of timing mistakes, to nip the bad behaviour of individual learners in the bud before it escalates out of control, and the bad behaviour becomes a distraction to the other learners in the class (Zabel & Zabel, 1996:174). Favela (2000) notes that withitness means that an educator knows what is going on in the classroom at all times.

United Federation of Teachers (2001) notes how an educator can manage or prevent problems before they occur. No-one can be everywhere at the same time, but giving the impression of being with every student - with-it-ness - can help nip behavioural problems in the bud. With-it-ness involves:

- ▶ Frequently scanning the entire class and spot checking interactions with individual learners. This sends cut-off signals to others who may want to disrupt the class and reinforces for all students the importance of staying on task. The result is that potential disruptors tend to abandon plans for misbehaviour.
- ▶ Directly interacting with learners.
- ▶ Standing or lifting one's head occasionally to let learners know that there is constant contact.
- ▶ Accurately targeting misbehaving learner(s). Blaming the wrong learner for a rule infraction can result in learners' sensing that the educator doesn't know what is going on.
- ▶ Enforcing consequences for misbehaving learners fairly.

4.2.4.2. **OVERLAPPING**

Kounin (1970:83) states that overlapping refers to an educator's ability to deal with more than one activity at a time. Pintrich and Schunk (1996:356) note that overlapping correlates positively with work involvement and freedom from deviancy during recitation and seatwork, although its correlations are stronger with freedom from deviancy than with encouraging work involvement. Highly withit educators generally can attend two issues simultaneously.

Favela (2000) states that overlapping is closely related to withitness and is the ability to attend to two incidents at the same time.

4.2.4.3. **SMOOTHNESS**

According to Pintrich and Schunk (1996:356) a third important attribute, movement management, reflects how smoothly educators keep lessons moving and make transitions between activities. Kounin (1970:83) notes that there are group management techniques that reflect how educators can smoothly initiate, sustain and terminate activities.

Favela (2000) notes that smoothness is maintaining direction in the lesson and not being diverted by irrelevant incidents or information.

Kounin (1970:83) notes that educators can achieve smoothness by managing these transitions and by avoiding jerkiness, flip-flopping and stimulus boundedness.

According to Zabel and Zabel (1996:175) jerkiness is characterized by abrupt changes from one learning activity to the next. Jerkiness can be identified by thrusts, which are an educator's abrupt interruptions of a group activity by interjecting a statement, an instruction or a question, without the learner being ready to deal with it. Another form of jerkiness that has been identified is called dangles, which involves directing learners attention to another activity other than the activity at hand, but then to just leave them 'dangling'. Sadker and Sadker (2000) note that dangles occur when the educator begins a thought, and then leaves it hanging without completion. Once learners have just been left dangling, no guidance is given by the educator as to which direction learners should take in order to complete the task at hand.

Zabel and Zabel (1996:176) also identify flip-flopping as an obstruction to smoothness. Flip-flops occur when an educator starts students on one activity and then interferes with their pursuing it by introducing distractions. Introducing activities which have nothing to do with the task at hand, will disrupt the pattern of discipline within the classroom and lead to distractions. Sadker and Sadker (2000) note that flip flops occur when the educator terminates one activity, begins another, then returns to the original activity. Flip-flopping should be avoided at all costs.

Zabel and Zabel (1996:176-177) also identify stimulus boundedness as having a negative impact on smoothness. An educator who is stimulus bound is easily distracted from the relevant learning activity and thus distracts the learners as well. By interrupting learners' concentration with irrelevant interruptions, causes a loss of concentration for the learners. Commenting on suitcases lying on the floor, confuse and distract the learners, and an educator should avoid being stimulus bound at all costs.

An educator should deal with these disruptions at the beginning of the lesson, before the learners have become engrossed with the learning material.

United Federation of Teachers (2001) notes that it is important to make smooth transitions from one classroom activity to another and to move through lessons without undue distraction. That keeps learners interested and not disruptive. Good transitions are the key. For example:

- ▶ Use signals to prepare learners for transitions that clearly end one activity and indicate the start of another.
- ▶ During transitions, selectively ignore minor misbehaviours that can be handled just as effectively in private or after the learning activity has ended.

4.2.4.4. MOMENTUM

Kounin (in Zabel & Zabel, 1996:177) notes that another general category of educator behaviour, momentum, refers to the pacing of group activities. Effective classroom managers are careful to move neither too quickly nor too slowly through an activity and to be aware of learner behaviour that indicates the pace is appropriate. Favela (2000) states that momentum refers to the force and flow of a lesson. An effective lesson pulls the learner along. A skilled educator conducts lessons at a brisk pace and provides continuous tasks for students to focus on. To build momentum that will keep learners' interest at a high level according to the United Federation of Teachers (2001) include the following:

- ▶ Tell learners what they are expected to do at each step of the learning activity.
- ▶ Carefully plan what materials you need and keep them readily accessible.
- ▶ Avoid any behaviour that may slow down a lesson or reduce student interest, such as giving long, drawn-out directions or information, lecturing on learner behaviour or breaking down activities into steps that are too small.

Overdwelling means giving more attention to a behaviour or incident than is necessary according to Zabel and Zabel (1996:177). Sadker and Sadker (2000) note that overdwelling is when the educator spends more time than is necessary to correct an infraction of classroom rules. Overdwelling is an aspect of classroom management that slows down momentum and lead to a disruption of classroom discipline. Overdwelling on an incident should be avoided.

Zabel and Zabel (1996:177) also note that group fragmentation can also hinder group momentum. Sadker and Sadker (2000) note that fragmentation occurs when the educator breaks directions into choppy steps instead of one fluid unit. Fragmentation could lead to the learners attention being divided and the learners not being sure what to focus on. This will severely impede the momentum of the lesson.

4.2.4.5. GROUP FOCUS

Kounin (in Zabel & Zabel, 1996:177-178) notes that two ways in which educators can maintain group focus on instruction, are group alerting and accountability.

Group alerting means the degree to which you are able to involve the non-participating students in group tasks and maintain their attention, while accountability means making students responsible for their performance.

4.3. THE ROLE OF THE LEARNER IN TEACHING

The fifth and final characteristic of teaching according to Steyn (1988:162), in any learning teaching situation is the participation of a learner. This characteristic originates almost automatically from the active, live and guided interaction.

According to Shuell (1988:277) learning is an active, constructive, cumulative, goal-orientated process. It is active in that the learner must do certain things while processing incoming information in order to learn the material in a meaningful manner.

It is structure in that the new information must be elaborated and related to other information in order for the student to retain simple information and understand complex material. It is cumulative in that all new learning builds upon and/or utilizes the learners prior knowledge in ways that determine what and how much is learned. It is goal orientated in that learning is most likely to be successful if the learner is aware of the goal toward which he or she is working and possesses expectations that are appropriate for attaining the desired outcome.

Shuell (1988:285) also lists learning functions which represent an attempt to identify those things which a learner must do when learning from instruction. Learning functions are:

- Expectations, when learners have to identify the purpose of the lesson
- Attention, when learners take notes, underline and ask questions
- Encoding, when learners place the content of the lesson in specific contexts and rely on their prior knowledge to aid in their understanding of the content of the work being studied
- Comparison, when learners look for similarities, draw diagrams or charts and compare their findings with other learners in the class
- Hypothesis generation, when learners have to generate possible alternatives and corresponding solutions
- Repetition, where learners have to apply systematic reviews to their work
- Feedback, when learners seek answers to self-posed questions
- Evaluation, and learners are expected to question what is known and what is not known
- Monitoring, when learners monitor their performance and apply self-testing
- Combination, integration and synthesis, when learners establish categories and seek higher order relationships in their learning styles and strategies.

The ability of the learner is a variable that effects the teaching-learning situation within the OBE context. Due to the fact that learners are expected 'to discover knowledge'

places a great responsibility on the educator, who has to provide opportunities for the learners to discover knowledge, yet noting the individual differences between learners. Vermeulen (1997:38) notes certain influences that OBE will have on the ability of the learner, and these include the fact that learners do not learn at the same rate, and in the same way, learners will not be expected to attain the specific outcomes in the same time or at the same place or in the same manner. Bertrams *et al.* (as quoted by Vermeulen, 1997:38) also notes that each learner is unique and that there are great differences between learners in the same grade. A learner's competence should be acknowledged and different abilities should be recognised and understood.

It is essential that the learner be aware of the role that he/she plays in the effective teaching situation. If the learner is not aware of the fact that he/she has a very specific role to play, then he/she will not be part of the guided interaction which is needed to ensure that effective learning and effective teaching occurs. It is the educators responsibility to empower the learners, and allow them to take responsibility for their own learning.

4.4. ELEMENTS OF EFFECTIVE TEACHING

As the learning experience of the learner is, to a large extent, determined by the educator, the characteristics displayed by the educator will determine whether the learning environment and learning experience of the learner are effective.

Organising the classroom in a way that satisfies the educator and that learners understand is the first step in providing effective teaching and learning (McGraw-Hill, 2000). The manner in which the classroom is physically set out, and the routines that the educators employ are very essential features of effective teaching. If the learners have no routine, and are allowed to do as they please without any structure, chaos will reign. Langlois and Zales (1993:18) state that routines let educators spend less time giving instructions and that where educators haven't established routines, instruction often has to be interrupted to answer learners questions on procedure, and learners

therefore have fewer opportunities for participation and teachers have lower academic expectations. Borich (1988:233) agrees with this and states that establishing rules and procedures to reduce the occurrence of classroom discipline problems is one of the most important classroom management activities. Classroom discipline is a feature of teaching that can either lead to effective or ineffective teaching.

This introduces the next essential element of effective teaching. Establishing of rules in the classroom not only leads to order, but also to effective teaching. Zabel and Zabel (1996:167) identify the fact that classroom rules and procedures are a means of formalizing some behavioural expectations and classroom rules are best devised by all those who have a stake in their maintenance. Borich (1988:233) identifies four different areas that rules should be divided into, and these are rules related to academic work, rules related to classroom conduct, rules that must be communicated on your first day and rules that can be communicated at a later stage.

Time spent on task is also identified by a number of researchers as an essential element of effective teaching. Kindsvatter *et al.* (1988:158) note that more effective educators spent more time in academic involvement and more time organized in a single large group with the educator in charge. When learners were doing seatwork, they were supervised closely. Langlois and Zales (1993:18) observed that effective educators seek to minimise class time that is lost to activities other than instruction. Zabel and Zabel (1993:129) differentiate between 'academic learning time' and 'academic engaged time' and state that learners learn most efficiently when they are engaged in activities that are appropriate to their developmental and achievement levels, and the educator's instructional and management skills.

Feedback and praise, are essential to effective teaching. Kindsvatter *et al.* (1988:173) states that educator feedback is information given to students concerning the correctness, quality and remediation of their performance and that effective teaching behaviours are those that acknowledge and praise, while Langlois and Zales (1993:19) state that effective educators have routines for checking and collecting work, and they

provide feedback on academic work and that effective educators praise by stressing not only the learner's accomplishment but the process the learner used. Zabel and Zabel (1993:134) categorically state that with feedback, you should overtly acknowledge correct responses. It is clear that effective teaching relies heavily on how the educator interacts with the learner, and it is clear that without praise and feedback, communication between educator and learner is severely hampered, thus leading to ineffective teaching.

The use of appropriate teaching styles and different didactic methods, also leads to effective teaching. Learner motivation and achievement can be linked to an educator's trust, respect, optimism, and intentionality according to Zabel and Zabel (1993:25) and Longlois and Zales (1993:18) reaffirm this in their findings, and state that effective educators create a supportive atmosphere and plan carefully, delivering instruction interactively by listening sensitively to learners and treating them with trust and respect. Kindsvatter *et al.* (1988:100) found that learners react positively to educators that employ a variety of different behaviours or 'teaching styles'. McGraw-Hill (2000) also state that subject matter experts agree that skilful delivery of fundamental concepts include the use of a conspicuous strategy, strategically integrated training, scaffolding and structured review sessions.

Many other features are identified in a myriad of research that is available, and a few will be mentioned. McGraw-Hill (2000) state that subject matter knowledge is one of the essential characteristics of an effective educator. Langlois and Zales (1993:19) state that the effective educator always strives to make lessons more interesting, and incorporates the use of media into lesson plans. Researchers indicate that using technology, such as multimedia and the Internet, can also significantly improve instruction and learners learning in the classroom (McGraw-Hill, 2000). Questioning strategies are incorporated in teaching style, and also determine the level of effectiveness in a lesson. Questioning also forms part of feedback, not only from the educator, but from the learners too. Borich (1988:14) says that the art of questioning must be included amongst important educator behaviours and Longlois and Zales

(1993:19) state that effective educators ask precise, content-related questions of varying difficulty and ask before calling on some-one.

It can therefore be deducted that effective teaching is encompassed in the effective educator. Teaching is a process of communication, and it is imperative that the educator use every available tool to ensure that effective communication occurs, and the features of essential teaching, highlight what an educator needs to do, to achieve effective learning, through effective teaching.

4.5. THE INFLUENCE OF TEACHING MODELS TOWARD EFFECTIVE TEACHING

As a definition of effective teaching has been offered, one now has to ask the question, how could the models of direct or indirect teaching influence effective teaching in classrooms? Before one can answer this question, definitions of what direct teaching and indirect teaching are and involve, needs to be clarified.

Kindsvatter *et al.* (1988:80) identifies 'direct teaching' as - academically focused educator-directed classroom instruction using sequenced and structured materials, while Borich (1988:143) states that direct teaching occurs when the educator is the provider of information, and it is the educator's role to pass on facts, rules or action sequences on to the students in the most direct way possible and this usually takes the form of lectures. It can also be called the product-process view of teaching. Ausubel (as quoted by Armstrong, 1998) is a proponent of the direct teaching model, and states that direct teaching is needed to convey vast quantities of information to learners. Often, it is of vital importance, that educators use the direct method of teaching, as learners need to know the content, and knowledge needs to be imparted to them. Skinner (as quoted by Armstrong, 1998) agrees with this, and states that in subjects like social sciences, life sciences, English, or any other subject requiring reading as a primary basis for knowledge, should apply the 'daily test approach', with the educator in charge, as learners are not motivated to read by themselves, and this is reflected in test scores. Concepts like social interaction, inquiry or process objectives, require other

teaching methods.

Indirect teaching is defined by Borich (1988:163) as involving the teaching of concepts, patterns and abstractions and is often associated with words like, inquiry, problem solving and discovery learning. The process is seen as *inquiry*, the result is *discovery* and the learning context is a *problem*. Schwab (as quoted by Armstrong, 1998) notes that problem solving is one example of indirect teaching that has proved to be successful. Learners are expected to solve problems posed by the educators, and students actively seek to learn process as well as product. This indirect model, allows the learners to utilize the concepts of knowing, observing, inferring, predicting, graphing, communicating, classifying and collaborating. Suchman (as quoted by Armstrong, 1998) examines the indirect model of problem solving from another angle, and this is 'inquiry'. The inquiry is initiated by presenting a puzzling problem, and learners are to propose hypotheses and ideas that would explain the phenomenon by asking questions. Learners may wish to pursue the solution by way of research. Dewey (as quoted by Armstrong, 1998) also identifies 'group investigation' as an indirect teaching model. Children should learn by experience, or by 'doing' and should not be idle, passive recipients of knowledge poured in by educators.

The rationale behind OBE is to introduce the idea that, a competence-based curriculum implies a new attitude to education where the emphasis is on learning not teaching, on demonstrating competence, not cramming for exams, where competence is valued not partial knowledge, where the emphasis is on what learners are able to do, rather than what they cannot do. The system becomes outcomes-based or results orientated rather than input driven according to the North West Province (as quoted by Vermeulen, 1997:32). Vermeulen (1997:39) goes on to identify the fact that learners should display the characteristics of effective learning, and these include,

- ◆ see practical applications for what they are learning
- ◆ have an active role in the process of learning
- ◆ use their initiative, exercise imagination and think for themselves

- ◆ acquire knowledge and develop skills
- ◆ receive constructive assessment from teachers and fellow students
- ◆ change their way of thinking about a subject or issue

Reynell and Groenewald (1999:18-26) identify various methods of determining whether learning has been effective, within the OBE context. These include, working in pairs and peer evaluation, cooperative group work and cooperative evaluation, introduction of rubrics by educators, for assessment, portfolio work, self-assessment and journals. Exhibitions and demonstrations can also be used as a display of students learning.

Educators, are trained to impart knowledge to learners who are waiting to grow in the knowledge that the educators will provide. But it is not as simple as that. Research has shown that 'traditional' teaching styles are seen to be outdated, and not fulfilling the individual needs of each student.

According to Zabel and Zabel (1993:128) 'process-product' studies examine how specific instructional behaviours (or processes) result in specific learning outcomes (or products). Kyriacou (1986:10) goes on to identify certain 'process' and 'product' variables. Process variables include, characteristics of educator and learner behaviour and of the learning task and activities which take place in the classroom. Product variables are defined as all those variables that refer to educational outcomes which are desired by educators and which have formed the basis of either educators' planning of the learning activities and/or of objectives or criteria which can be used to monitor effectiveness. Rosenhine and Stevens (1986:377) state that process-product teaching entails the breaking down of learning content into small 'chunks' which are then systematically 'transferred' to learners by means of a fixed set of specific instructional procedures in order to cause desired learning results. Gagne (as quoted by Armstrong, 1998) identifies the fact that although it is often more desirable to use indirect methods of teaching, it is impossible to ignore 'direct, guided instruction', and stated that learning activities are followed by an evaluative measure that seeks evidence that the objective has been accomplished. Ausubel (as quoted by Armstrong)

also uses the direct method or process-product view of teaching, as a model to communicate subject with huge amounts of information, by the use of Advance Organizers, where the educator outlines the organization of the information, and then presents lectures or other assignments for the students to complete.

The classroom could no longer be characterised by rigid prescriptive instructional measures and one-way traffic, but by warm and live authentic human interactions and communication, focused on relevant and meaningful activities and outcomes . Kyriacou (1986:11) identifies various 'context' variables and these include looking at educator and learner behaviours and interactions, identifying the goals that are to be achieved and how these goals will emphasise cognitive aspects of learning of affective aspects of learning. Schwab (as quoted by Armstrong, 1998), was a constructivist, and believes that children learn, interpret and organize information as individuals and that these processes are personal, and notes that genetics and social and cultural environment meet to form unique interpretations. Dewey (as quoted by Armstrong, 1998) who was also a Constructivist, stated that children should learn by 'doing', and that all educational methods should be adapted to children's interests, needs and concerns.

4.6 THE CHANGING ROLE OF THE EDUCATOR

Gelderborn and de Kock (1995:59) have stated that the cooperative teaching model, changes the role of the educator from the bearer and interpreter of knowledge to that of skilled observer, interpreter and facilitator of thinking processes, group dynamics and learning outcomes. Learners are no longer recipients of the educator's assumed superior knowledge and insight, but are actively involved in and accountable for their own learning.

4.7. THE ROLE OF THE FACILITATOR

Neville (1998) notes that 'the role of the instructor requires revision in the PBL (problem based learning) setting. New skills are required of the teaching faculty so that they are

willing and competent to allow students to take an active role in guiding their own learning and in teaching one another. Holmes (1994) notes that in the traditional model, an educator does your learning for you. Self-discovery is the only way we really learn anything. How can we plan or control such an existential process? Enter the facilitator, or coach. This is a re-focusing of the teaching role, not a replacement. A learning facilitator does not tell you the answer.

Neville (1998) goes on to say that educators have a major role to play in facilitating learning, namely to correct at an early stage basic misconceptions that may lead individuals or the group astray. This requires that tutors remain alert to the content and direction of discussion and have sufficient expertise in the problem area to both recognise and correct misconceptions.

4.8. CHARACTERISTICS OF A FACILITATOR

Wittmer *et al.* (1989:40) state that a facilitative educator exhibits certain characteristics. These include being attentive, genuine, understanding, respectful, knowledgeable and communicative. Thiagarajan (1998) also states that after 10 years of research, and re-examining the research data that has been compiled, five conclusions concerning facilitators can be concluded, and these are: effective facilitators are flexible, adaptive, proactive, responsive and resilient. Facilitators should be able to modify their group activities before and during the use of these groups, they should be able to modify their activities according to the tensions which exist in groups, they should be able to modify activities to meet and compliment the basic differences which exist between the individuals in the group, and accept the consequences of group activities as valuable data, and continue smoothly with the activity.

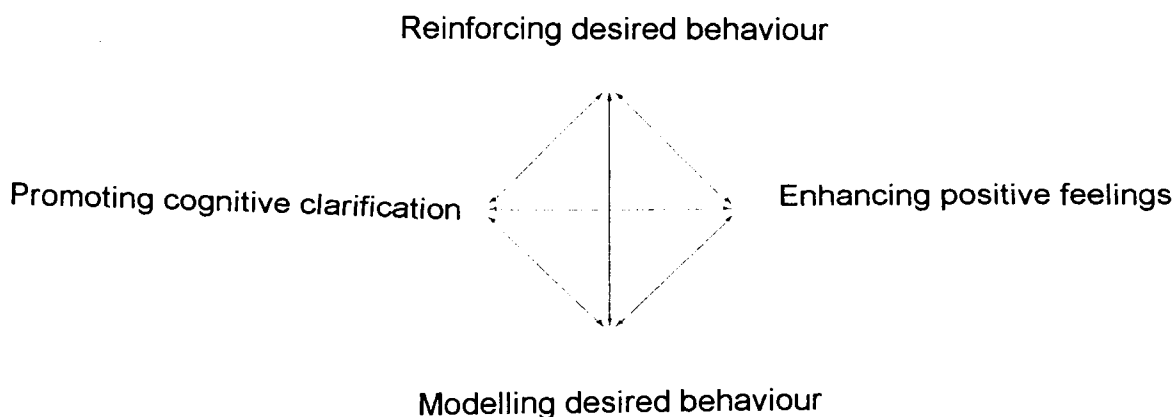
- **Attentive facilitator:** Wittmer *et al.* (1989:40) have found that problems in communication often result from inattentiveness and poor listening.
- **Genuine facilitator:** Wittmer *et al.* (1989:43) states that effective listening and understanding inevitably depend upon a person's genuine interest.

- Understanding facilitator: Wittmer *et al.* (1989:44) states that although being genuine is important, it does not mean necessarily that a person will understand another.
- Respectful facilitator: Respect for individuals means recognizing and accepting their experiences as important influences on their lives (Wittmer & Myrick, 1989:45).
- Knowledgeable facilitator: Outstanding educators have a love of knowledge and a desire to help their learners discover the personal meanings that knowledge can have for them (Wittmer & Myrick, 1989:46).
- Communicative facilitator: Facilitative educators know the value of effective interpersonal skills. Communication in the classroom is dependent upon them. These educators also know that interpersonal skills do not just happen by chance. They are learned. They take practice. They need to be used until they are a natural or integral part of our personal and working relationships according to Wittmer *et al.* (1989:47).

4.9. SMITH AND LUSTERMAN'S MODEL OF LEARNING FACILITATION

Smith and Lusterman (1979:247) offer a model of learning facilitation.

Figure 4.1 Smith and Lusterman's Model of Learning Facilitation



This model includes four types of behaviours that an educator should use to promote learning. Modelling desired behaviour, enhancing positive feelings, promoting cognitive clarification and reinforcing desired behaviour (Smith & Lusterman, 1979:249) are seen as the 'tools or behaviours' to be used. It is important to note that the model is concerned with the educator's role in eliminating conditions or factors which would inhibit optimal learning in the classroom.

4.10 THIAGARAJAN'S PROCEDURAL MODEL OF FACILITATION

Thiagarajan (1998) offers the so-called procedural model for effective facilitation. Facilitation relies on tactics to ensure the balance of six tensions which exist between group members, namely: 'structure, pace, interaction, focus, concern and control'. Knowing these tactics does not guarantee you will become an effective facilitator. You need to know when and how to use them. A six-step procedural model is suggested, using the tension-adjustment tactics, before, during and after a small-group activity.

- ▶ Identify your preferences. It is important to note that the facilitator needs to be aware of personal preferences concerning small-group procedures, but that these preferences may not necessarily meet the needs of the group. An effective facilitator will adjust personal preferences to meet the needs of the group.
- ▶ Identify participant preferences. In order to meet the needs of every group member it is suggested that the facilitator interviews each group member individually, or be aware of the academic needs of various group members, to ensure that the needs of each individual group is met. An educator could group learners homogeneously, according to the specific academic needs of each learner, to ensure that a member of the group (learner) does not feel out of their depth.
- ▶ Design or revise the small-group activity to suit participant preferences. The group work situation should meet the needs of the individual group members, and it is imperative that the small-group activity meets these needs. The

individual preferences of the learners should be taken into account when designing the small-group activity.

- ▶ Conduct the small-group activity. During this phase, the facilitator should present an overview of the process, and get the group started on achieving the final product.
- ▶ Make modifications on the fly. As there is no such thing as a perfect small-group activity, the facilitator should be aware that certain tensions within the group will be prominent from time to time. The facilitator should wait to see if the group makes its own adjustments. It is interesting to note that the more experienced a group is, the more willing they will be to make their own adjustments to reduce tensions, while inexperienced groups may require the intervention of the facilitator.
- ▶ Debrief the group. It is essential that the facilitator debrief the group immediately after the session is completed, in order to collect information concerning the perceptions of the group members. The facilitator should make notes to use as a reference for future groups.

Thiagarajan (1998) states that the effectiveness of small-group activities depends heavily on the flexibility of the facilitator. You can improve your effectiveness by attending to and adjusting structure, pace, interaction, focus and concern of your small group activity.

4.11. THE FUNCTIONS OF A FACILITATOR

Many years ago, Egan (1973:36) already identified the functions of a facilitator, within the group, yet the educator can also learn from the functions attributed to the role assigned as facilitator of several groups. Egan (1973:36) stated that the facilitator has to be part of the initial structuring of the group, if there is to be some kind of structuring according to goals or a stated contract, such structuring should be done by the sponsoring agency before the group begins. Within the classroom context, the 'sponsoring agency' is the educator. The immediate affective impact that the facilitator

has on the group is relatively important. He is in a position of power, and if he acts in ways geared to arouse the antagonism of the other members, they will likely spend a great deal of time dealing with him rather than with one another. Egan (1973:37) also stated that another function of a facilitator is to have knowledge and experience at the service of the group. It is essential that the facilitator use this knowledge wisely, as because of his knowledge of group dynamics, he often knows, even before the group begins, the kinds of problems that will most likely arise naturally and impede the progress of the group. He is in the unique position, then, to help the group avoid wasting its time or at least to learn from mistakes made.

4.12. QUESTIONING AS A STRATEGY FOR THE FACILITATOR

Cotton (2000) states that a question is any sentence which has an interrogative form or function. In the classroom setting, educator questions are defined as instructional cues or stimuli that convey to learners the content elements to be learned and directions for what they are to do and how they are to do it. According to the University of Wisconsin (1999) questions are communication tools to help you gather relevant and reliable information on which to base judgements. The kinds of questions that you ask largely determine the kind of information you get back.

Questions in the classroom also serve a purpose according to Cotton (2000), and these include developing interest and motivating learners to become actively involved in lessons, to evaluate learners' preparation and check homework or seatwork completion, to develop critical thinking skills and inquiring attitudes, to review and summarize previous lessons, to nurture insights by exposing new relationships, to assess achievement of instructional goals and objectives and to stimulate learners to pursue knowledge on their own.

4.12.1. CLASSIFICATION OF QUESTION TYPES AND QUESTIONING STRATEGIES.

The classification of educational questions falls into the following categories. Questions can be classified according to thought levels and according to this classification, questions are divided into lower order and higher order cognitive questions. Lower order cognitive questions only require a student to recall from memory while higher order cognitive questions are the type that require one or other thought process from the learner when he does something with the information in his memory (Vreken,1996:31). Research conducted by Cotton (2000) has also found that higher cognitive questions are not categorically better than lower cognitive questions in eliciting higher level responses or in promoting learning gains. Cotton (2000) also goes on to say that lower cognitive questions are more effective than higher level questions with young (primary level) children, particularly the disadvantaged.

The next classification of questions is done according to direction. Closed (convergent) questions are those type of question where there is only one correct answer while open (divergent) questions are questions to which there can be different acceptable answers (Vreken,1996:32). The University of Wisconsin (1999) also identifies questions that are direction driven, and these include 'open-directed questions', which identifies specific issues but allows for a broader range of appropriate answers, and the purpose of these questions is to probe competencies in areas where more than one approach is possible. It is also stated that questions are 'closed', and this indicates that a specific issue is being addressed and allows only one correct answer, 'open-selected' which identifies an issue and directs the person to focus evaluatively on selected features of the issue, 'open-undirected' which identifies an issue area but has no definite acceptable answer. The Charles and Dana Centre (2000) also identify 'closed' and 'open' questions and define closed questions as 'what' or 'limiting' and define open questions as 'how' or 'why' and note that open questions are probing.

Classification of questions according to objectives was propagated by Bloom (in

Vreken, 1996:32) , and these questions are defined by the cognitive thought process, which includes skills like memorising, translation, interpretation, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation. Bloom's Taxonomy of School Learning (according to Cotton, 2000) has different levels of order of sophistication which questions can be framed as. These are, (1) knowledge, (2) comprehension, (3) application, (4)analysis, (5) synthesis and (6) evaluation.

Questions are also directed at memorising information and the types of questions that can be asked by the educator are those that test factual knowledge, subject terminology, definitions of concepts, principles, laws and general rules and other forms of knowledge ie. Knowledge of techniques and skills, knowledge of theories and models and knowledge of values and norms. Teaching and Learning Centre (2000) identifies these types of questions as affective' questions, and are seen as questions which elicit expressions of attitude, values or feelings of the student.

Questions aimed at application are also identified by Vreken (1996:48) and are noted to have two important characteristics, namely that these questions depend on knowledge that is transferable to other situations, and this question gives the minimum guidance or directives for answering the questions or solving the problems. The Teaching and Learning Centre (2000) identifies application questions as a type of higher order question, which require the learner to use a concept or a principle in a context different from that which he has learned.

Questions that are aimed at analysis are aimed at teaching the learner to analyse a situation or problem or to take it apart in order to acquire the information that will solve the problem (Vreken, 1996:49).

Questions which bring about synthesis are aimed at encouraging learners to think imaginatively and originally (Vreken, 1996:50). These questions have certain characteristics according to Vreken (1996:51) which include allowing the learner space in his quest for his answers, encourage the learner to use possible information and

thought processes and the 'product' of these questions can be a unique idea, a plan, a name, a model or something similar. Vreken (1996:51) also notes that there are certain problems or dangers inherent in synthetical problems/questions. These questions can lead to brain gymnastics which result in the learner really learning nothing new, or that the questions are beyond the learner's full understanding. It is also noted that these types of questions are objectively difficult to evaluate.

Questions aimed at evaluation are aimed at making a judgement or weighing an issue (Vreken, 1996:52). According to the Teaching Learning Centre (2000) questions aimed at evaluation are higher order questions and these questions require judgement, value or choice based upon comparing of ideas or objects to established standards.

Effective questioning techniques are essential to ensure that the learner is able to comprehend exactly what it is that the educator is asking and expects from them. It is essential that these techniques are followed by educators in order to ensure that questions are effective. Vreken (1996:54) proposes having target groups for questioning, during which time your target is determined by the number of learners to whom you ask the questions. It is also suggested that the questions be used in a series, in which the first question leads to the next, and so on. This leads to understanding what exactly the learner meant and brings greater clarity to answering the question correctly (Vreken, 1996:58). These include 'ascending series' which increase the cognitive challenge of difficulty, and all of the questions are linked together, and also include 'descending series' which is just the opposite of 'ascending series' and this series is used when the first question is too difficult for the learners to comprehend.

Vreken (1996:59) also suggests the 'redirecting technique' which is also called the 'pass-on' technique and it indicates that you pass a question from one student to another and this enables learners to compare their answers as they are able to answer directly after one-another. The Teaching and Learning Centre (2000) notes that redirecting questions form part of probing questions when learners are asked to explore

answers beyond their first response.

The 'prompting technique' states that if a learner cannot answer a question or answers incorrectly, it is better to assist the learner and encourage him to arrive at the correct answer. The prompting technique implies that the educator will help the learner who cannot answer by making suggestions, giving hints or reformulating the question so that the learner knows better what is expected of him (Vreken, 1996:61). The Teaching and Learning Centre (2000) identifies prompting questions as a type of 'probing question' where learners are encouraged to go beyond that first response.

The 'probing technique' is used when a learner does not answer a question with the necessary depth and the answer is not clear. Further questions will be used to allow the learner to think further and deeper. (Vreken, 1996:61). The Teaching and Learning Centre (2000) identify probing questions as a series of questions which require learner to go beyond the first response. Cotton (2000) identifies that probing is positively related to achievement when it is explicitly focused on clarity, accuracy, and the plausibility of learners responses.

The use of 'waiting time' allows the learner time to think about a question and to prepare a possible answer, and this time frame should be at least 3 seconds. Cotton (2000) identifies two kinds of 'wait-time', the first being the amount of time a educator allows to elapse after he has asked the posed a question and before the learner begins to speak, and the second 'wait-time' refers to the amount of time a educator waits after a learner has stopped speaking before he says anything. Research has found that by increasing wait-time, learners become more engaged and perform better the longer the educator is willing to wait.

Organisational requirements for effective questioning determine the factors that a educator needs to take into account and includes the 'do's and don'ts' in the organisation of questioning (Vreken, 1996:63). These requirements include,

- ask a group orientated question and give time for the learners to think about their answers
- avoid choral answers where everybody answers simultaneously
- involve all learners with your questions
- put questions to learners who do not participate spontaneously
- create a class climate where learners are prepared to risk an answer and where it is not wrong to make mistakes
- always ask clear, distinct, unambiguous questions
- ask only one question at a time
- maintain a good balance of higher order and lower order questions
- be a model of logical thinking
- avoid repeating questions
- learners must learn to listen attentively
- personify questions
- suggest partnerships with learners
- avoid asking a question and then answering it yourself
- do not interrupt a learner while he is answering a question
- do not use questioning as a form of punishment

Cotton (2000) also gives guidelines for classroom questioning which include incorporating questioning into classroom teaching, asking questions with focus, posing lower cognitive questions when one is trying to keep up a brisk instructional pace, keeping wait-time to 3 seconds, use redirection and probing as part of classroom questioning, avoid vague or critical responses to learners answers during recitations and during recitations use praise sparingly and make certain it is sincere, credible and directed only at learners' responses.

4.13 **CONCLUSION**

With the introduction of new teaching techniques and various teaching models in our schools, it is imperative that we redefine the role of the educator in the classroom.

Research has shown that tradition teaching methods of lecturing and direct instruction, are not always the most effective methods for introducing group work to a class. The educator needs to become a facilitator of learning, and this involves an adjustment of currently accepted teaching styles.

Although it may be difficult at first, educators should realise the benefits of becoming a facilitator of learning, and implement the notions that have been researched in order to become effective educators. After all, it is the learners best interests which we should all have at heart.

THE APPLICATION OF GROUP WORK IN ENGLISH FIRST LANGUAGE PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN THE KOSH AREA

5.1 INTRODUCTION

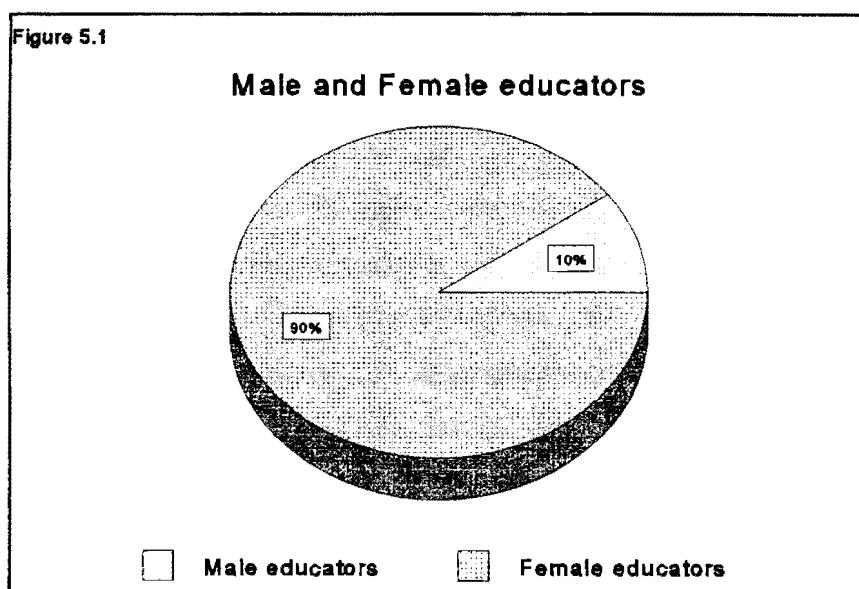
A general survey of the educators in English first language primary schools in the KOSH (Klerksdorp, Orkney, Stilfontein and Hartebeesfontein) area of the North-West Province was conducted to ascertain whether or not group work models are used in their classrooms. As the initial research conducted tries to ascertain whether or not group work models reduce communication apprehension in grade 7 learners, it is imperative that it be determined whether or not group work models are being employed in these schools. The general survey included questions concerning the following:

- ▶ The first language of the educators
- ▶ The gender of the educators
- ▶ The level of teaching qualifications obtained by the educators
- ▶ The number of years experience attained by the educators
- ▶ The position held in the school, whether it be educator, Head of Department, Deputy Head or Headmaster
- ▶ Whether or not formal training in group work techniques had ever been received by educators
- ▶ Whether or not group work models are used by educators, in the classroom situation
- ▶ The number of learners that these groups comprise
- ▶ The different types of group work models used by educators in the classroom
- ▶ How educators set up their groups - heterogeneously, homogeneously or no set structure

- Whether or not the educator assigns group roles to group members
- Whether negative or positive feedback is received from educators concerning the use of group work models in the classroom

5.2 STUDY POPULATION

The subjects that made up this general survey were 60 (n=60) educators from 4 English first language primary schools in the KOSH area of the North-West Province. All the educators were tested and this was not a sample group. The subjects comprised 6 male teachers (10.0%) and 54 female teachers (90.0%).

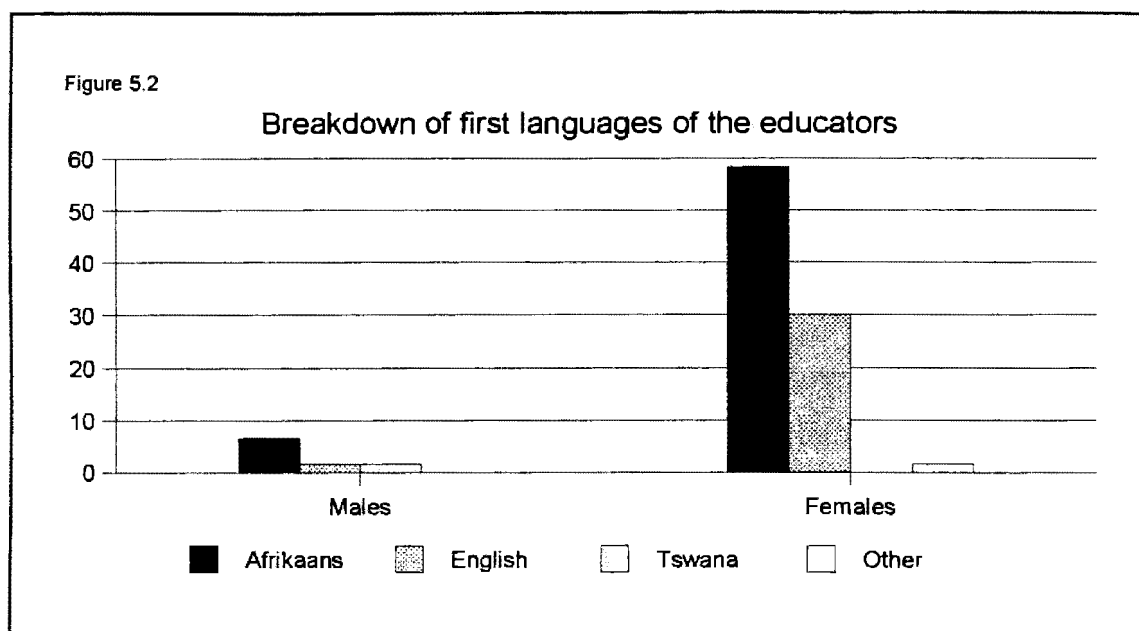


5.2.1. BREAKDOWN OF FIRST LANGUAGES OF EDUCATORS

The subjects tested comprised Afrikaans speaking educators (n=39), English speaking educators (n=19), Tswana speaking educators (n=1) and Other speaking educators (n=1).

The Afrikaans speaking educators comprised 4 Males (6.6%) and 35 Females (58.3%).

The English speaking educators comprised 1 Male (1.6%) and 18 Females (30%). There was one Tswana speaking male (1.6%) tested and one female speaker of Other languages (1.6%).

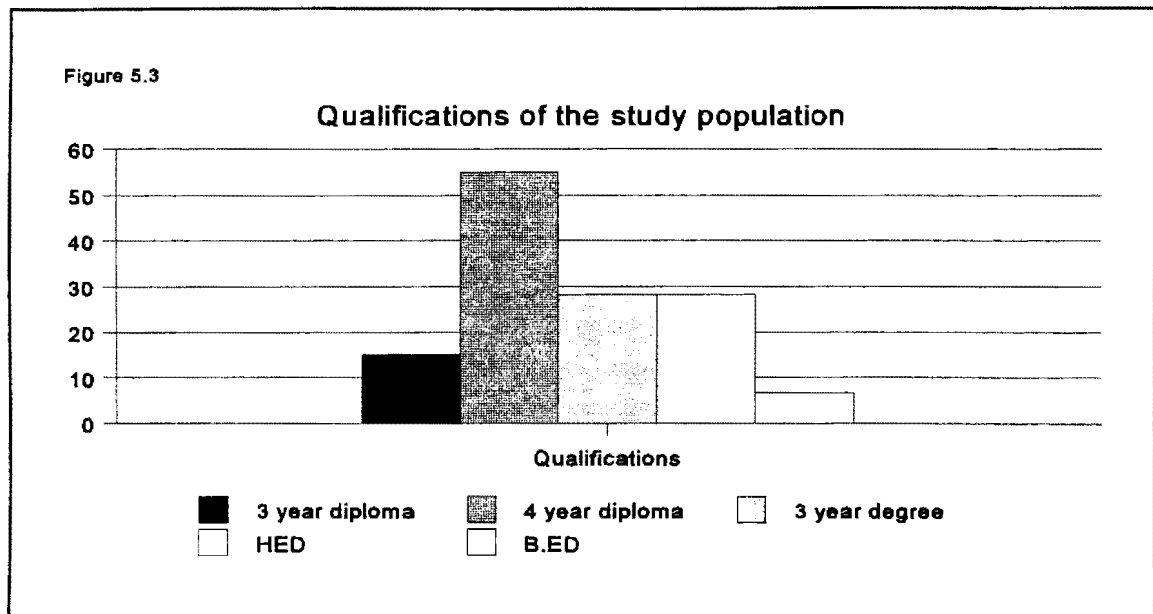


It is interesting to note, that the schools that were surveyed are all English first language schools, and that the predominant first language of the educators in these schools is Afrikaans. One can only assume that English first language speaking educators are not actively involved in primary school education in the KOSH area of the North-West Province.

5.3 QUALIFICATIONS OF THE STUDY POPULATION

The educators were asked to indicate the level of education that they have received in teaching. The following was indicated: 9 educators (15.0%) indicated that they possessed a 3 year diploma, 33 educators (55.0%) indicated that they possess a 4 year diploma, 17 educators (28.3%) indicated that they had obtained a 3 year degree, 17 educators (28.3%) indicated that they possess a HED (Higher Education Diploma), while 4 educators (6.6%) indicated that they had studied further for a B.Ed (Bachelor of Education).

The predominant qualification amongst these educators is a 4 year diploma, as 55% of educators in these schools possess this qualification.



5.4 YEARS OF EXPERIENCE

Educators were asked to indicate how many years teaching experience they had accumulated. The categories were: 0 - 5 years, 6 - 10 years, 11 - 15 years and 15 years or more. The following results were indicated:

Table 5.1 Years of experience

Number of years experience	0-5	6-10	11-15	15 or more
Afrikaans Male	0	3	1	0
Afrikaans Female	4	7	7	17
English Male	0	1	0	0
English Female	4	2	2	10
Other Female	0	0	1	0
Tswana Male	1	0	0	0
Total	9	13	11	27
Total percentages	15.0%	21.6%	18.3%	45.0%

According to the results indicated, there appears to be a dearth of educators in the 0 - 5 years experience bracket, particularly amongst males. In the 15 years or more bracket, it is indicated that the bracket is filled only by females, mostly Afrikaans.

In the English first language primary schools in the KOSH area of the North-West Province, it appears that newly qualified male educators are not opting to teach in this area, and that female educators that have 15 years or more experience, are in the majority. The 0-5 year teaching experience category has the lowest overall tally, and this could indicate a lack of newly acquired skills concerning the implementation of group work and the OBE model in general.

5.5 POSITION HELD AT THE SCHOOL

The educators were asked to indicate which position they held at the schools surveyed. The results indicated the following:

Table 5.2 Position held at the school

Position held	Teacher	HOD	Deputy Head	Headmaster
Afrikaans Male	3	1	0	0
Afrikaans Female	30	5	0	0
English Male	1	0	0	0
English Female	13	4	1	0
Other Female	1	0	0	0
Tswana Male	1	0	0	0
Total	49	10	1	0
Total percentages	81.6%	16.6%	1.6%	0

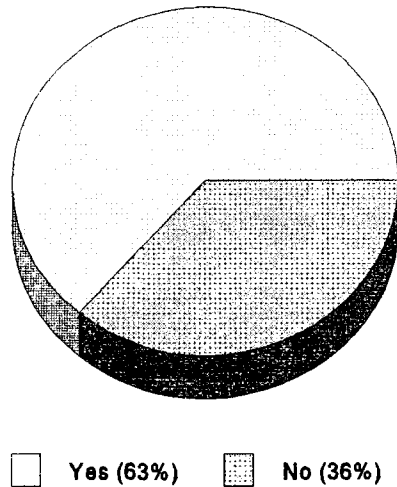
The majority of educators indicated that they hold the position of teacher in their schools. Only 1 educator indicated that he/she is a Deputy Head and none of the returned survey forms indicated that Headmasters answered the sheets, or that they are indeed teaching

5.6 TRAINING RECEIVED IN GROUP WORK PRACTICES

Educators were asked to indicate if they had ever received formal training in group work practices. 38 educators (63.3%) indicated that they had received formal training in group work practices, while 22 educators (36.6%) indicated that they had not received formal training in group work practices. This indicates that 63% of educators in the KOSH area received formal training in the implementation of group work models, versus 36% of educators who had not received formal training in the implementation of group work models.

Figure 5.4

Educators who received training in group work models

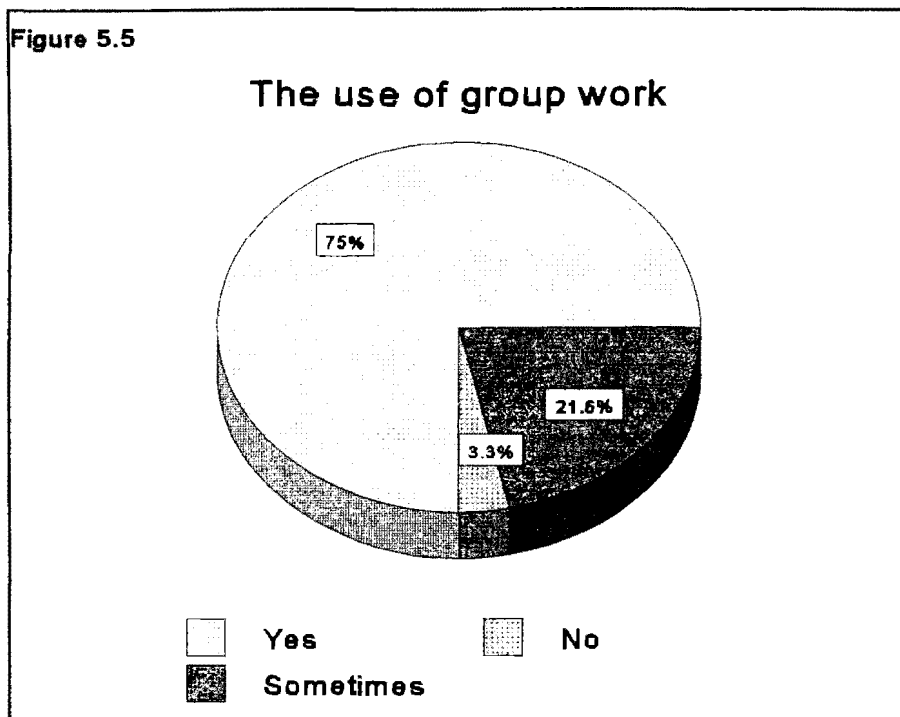


5.7 IS GROUP WORK USED IN CLASS?

The next question on the survey asked educators to indicate if they ever employed group work models in their classrooms. 45 educators (75.0%) indicated that they did employ group work models in their classroom as part of their teaching practice, while 2 educators (3.3%) indicated that they did not employ group work models as part of their teaching practice. 13 educators (21.6%) indicated that they sometimes employed group work models as part of their teaching strategy.

It is interesting to note that although 36.0% of the educators surveyed indicated that they had never received formal training in the implementation of group work models, only 3.3% of educators surveyed indicated that they did not use group work models in their classrooms. This indicates that although educators have not all received formal training in the implementation of group work in the classroom, it appears that they are attempting to integrate co-operative learning into the learning environment of the classroom.

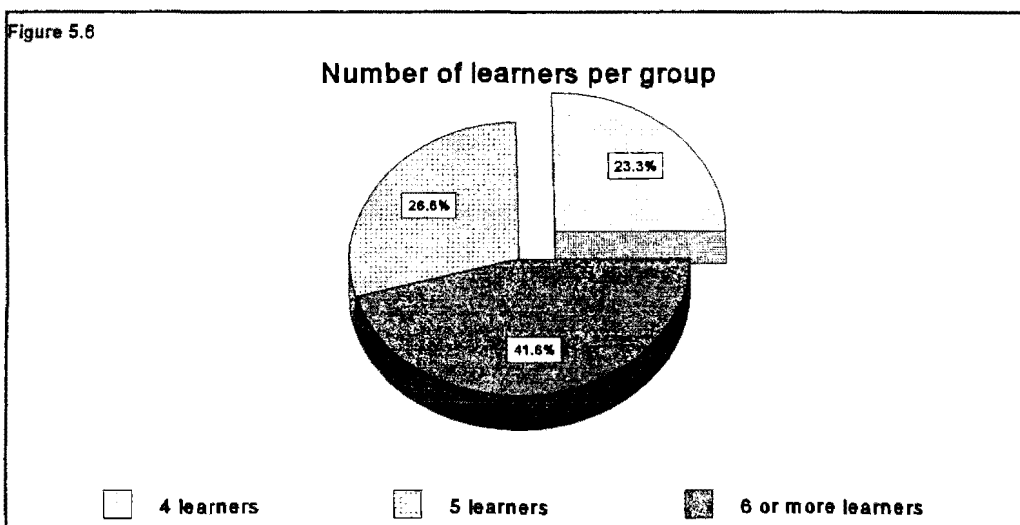
Figure 5.5



5.8 NUMBER OF LEARNERS THAT COMPRISE THESE GROUPS

Educators who had indicated that they do use group work models in their classroom were asked to indicate how many learners comprise these groups. No educators indicated that they used 3 learners in a group, while 14 educators (23.3%) indicated that they used groups of 4 learners. 16 educators (26.6%) indicated that they used groups that comprised 5 learners, while 25 educators (41.6%) indicated that they used 6 or more learners in their groups.

Figure 5.6



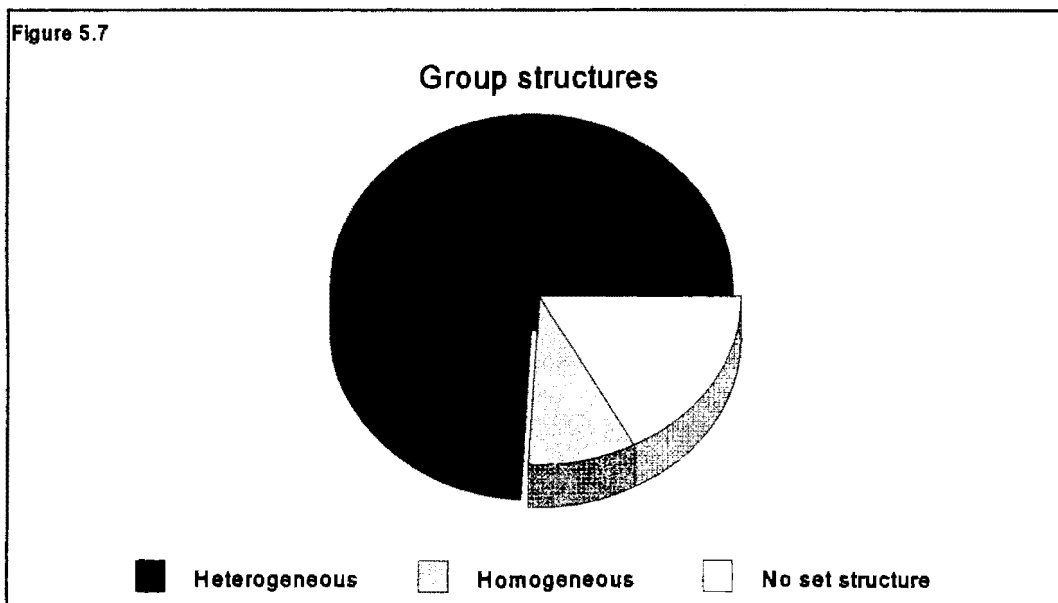
used by 75.0% of the educators surveyed.

It is interesting to note that the jigsaw group work model and the debate group work model are the least frequently used models, as indicated by the survey. Only 10.0% of these educators use these models.

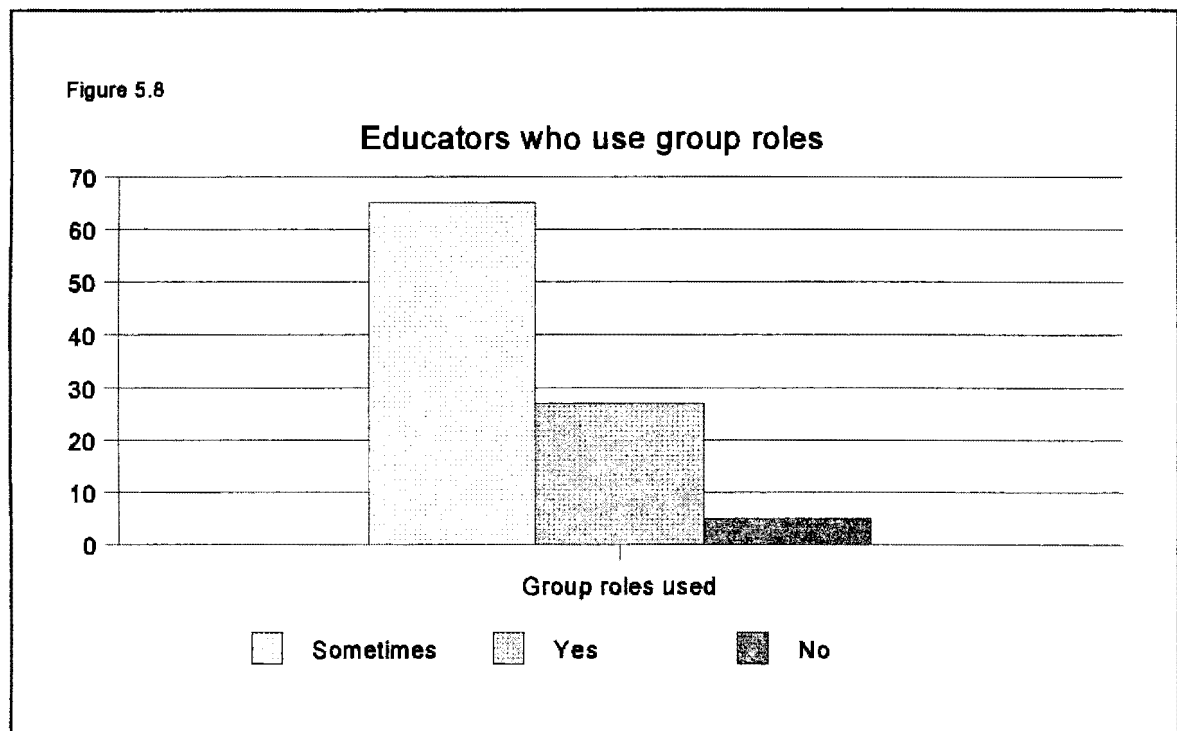
8.0% of the educators employ the controversy model, and it is interesting to note, that 1 of the educators surveyed indicated that he/she employed this group work model four times a week.

5.9 SET UP OF GROUPS

Educators were asked to indicate how the groups that are used in the classroom situation were set up, whether it be heterogeneously, homogeneously or with no set structure. The educators indicated the following: 43 educators (71.6%) indicated that they used heterogeneous groupings (mixed ability groupings) in their groups, while 5 educators (8.3%) indicated that they use homogeneous groupings (same ability groupings) in their groups, and 10 educators (16.6%) indicated that they use no set structure when determining the groupings of groups in the classroom.



The survey went on to ask educators to indicate whether learners were assigned specific group roles when group work models were implemented in the learning environment. 16 educators (26.6%) indicated that they always use group roles when conducting group activities, while 3 educators (5.0%) indicated that they never use group roles. 39 educators (65.0%) indicated that they use only use group roles sometimes.

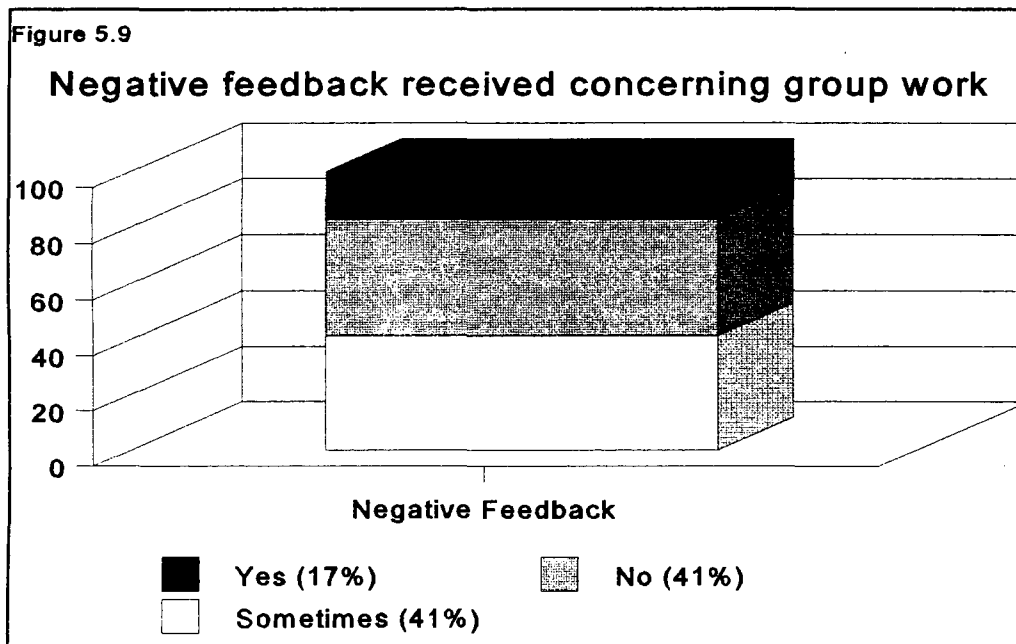


Educators were asked to indicate whether they had ever received negative feedback from using group work models in their classrooms. 10 educators (16.6%) indicated that they do receive negative feedback continuously, while 24 educators (40.0%) that they sometimes receive negative feedback. 24 educators (40.0%) stated that they never

receive negative feedback from using group work models in their classrooms. Some of the comments received as examples of feedback are discussed in paragraphs 5.11.1 to 5.11.4.

5.11.1 COMMENTS FROM EDUCATORS REGARDING NEGATIVE FEEDBACK RECEIVED FROM GROUP WORK SITUATIONS

10 educators indicated that they did receive negative feedback from group work situations. 3 of these educators indicated that they do use group roles while conducting group work in the classroom, while 7 educators indicated that they sometimes use group roles in the group work situations.



The following comments concerning negative feedback from group work situations were made by educators who use group work in their classrooms all the time.

- Some children do all the work, one person in a group cannot complete work due to overload, (an Afrikaans female educator, who indicates that she does use group roles)

- ▶ Some pupils do not do their part and receive marks they do not deserve (an Afrikaans female educator who indicates that she does use group roles)
- ▶ Children not participating, (this educator, an Afrikaans female educator , indicated that she does use group roles in group work situations)
- ▶ Not all pupils participate - some do not follow set instructions, especially when classes are bigger than 40. Space limited. Some learners do not function in a noisy environment, (an English female educator, who sometimes uses group roles).
- ▶ There will always be a child that doesn't do his/her part in the group, (Afrikaans male educator who sometimes uses group roles).
- ▶ A natural leader takes over. A 'lazy' or undisciplined learner disrupts group. All learners do not participate. Loners sit back. A strong minded learner may refuse to work in a group. (Afrikaans female educator who sometimes uses group roles).
- ▶ There are some learners that just cannot function in a group and are not prepared to work with somebody else. (English female educator who sometimes uses group roles).
- ▶ Children love to play and forget about the work (Afrikaans female educator who sometimes uses group roles).
- ▶ Noise is unbearable. Learners rely on stronger learners to do all the work. Frustration - slower learners keep the others up. (English female educator who sometimes use group roles).
- ▶ Weaker learners not co-operating (Afrikaans male educator who sometimes uses group roles).

5.11.2. NEGATIVE FEEDBACK RECEIVED FROM EDUCATORS WHO SOMETIMES USE GROUP WORK IN THE CLASSROOM SITUATION.

24 educators indicated that they only occasionally use group work in the classroom situation, and that they receive negative feedback from these group work situations.

5 of the educators indicated that they do employ group roles, 1 educator indicated that he/she does not employ group roles, while 16 educators indicated that they sometimes give group members group roles.

The following comments were made by educators who sometimes employ group work situations in their classrooms, and who have received negative feedback from these group work situations.

- ▶ Pupils complain that a group member does not do his/her part (Afrikaans female educator who does use group roles).
- ▶ Sometimes you get 1 child that would take over group and the rest would just sit back and let him/her do everything (Afrikaans female educator who does use group roles.)
- ▶ They are very noisy at times. One learner wants to be the leader every time they are doing group work. Your gifted pupil takes the lead every time and the others follow (Afrikaans female educator who uses group roles).
- ▶ Some of the learners just do nothing or copy (Afrikaans female educator who uses group roles).
- ▶ The group leader sometimes have to do all the work and the rest of the group don't always participate (English male educator who uses group roles).
- ▶ Not everyone seems to get involved (English female educator who does not use group roles).
- ▶ One child is doing everything. Some people do nothing (Afrikaans female educator who sometimes uses group roles).
- ▶ Lack of understanding. Not being positive to the subject (heading). Some children are slow learners (Tswana male educator who sometimes uses group roles).
- ▶ Some learners disrupt the group, cannot be part of a group. Some, very strong learners like to dominate (English female educator who sometimes uses group roles).
- ▶ Not all learners participate actively in their set roles (English female educator

who sometimes uses group roles).

- ▶ People don't always do their share (Afrikaans male educator who sometimes uses group roles).
- ▶ Children needs more guidance. Sometimes classes are too big. Some children are too passive with group work (Afrikaans female educator who sometimes uses group roles).
- ▶ Weaker pupils tend to rely on the brighter ones and do less or nothing (Afrikaans female educator who sometimes uses group roles).
- ▶ Disruptive children are a setback. Some children take over, some won't do any work (English female educator who sometimes uses group roles).
- ▶ Some learners do not support the group and react negative which upsets the rest of the group. Some learners do not like 'working in groups' - they prefer working on their own (Afrikaans female educator who sometimes uses group roles).
- ▶ The children talk, not always about the work. The weaker one's will do nothing, wait for the rest to do the work (Afrikaans female educator who sometimes uses group roles).
- ▶ Coping off each other. One learner dominates, others sit back (English female educator who sometimes uses group roles).
- ▶ Certain children don't like sharing. Clever children do all the work. Certain children copy. Others are more privileged than others (English female educator who sometimes uses group roles).
- ▶ Some learners don't want to participate or give any input (Afrikaans female educator who sometimes uses group roles).
- ▶ The leader sometimes complain about having to do all the work (Afrikaans female educator who sometimes uses group roles).
- ▶ Group work tends to be noisy. If you combine the wrong learners, you could experience problems eg. personality clashes etc. Some learners tend to sit back and let the rest of the group do all the work (Afrikaans female educator who sometimes uses group roles).
- ▶ Only some learners do the work, others only spectators (Afrikaans female

educator who sometimes uses group roles).

5.11.3. **POSITIVE FEEDBACK RECEIVED FROM EDUCATORS WHO EMPLOY GROUP WORK SITUATIONS IN THE CLASSROOM**

24 educators indicated that they did employ group work situations in the classroom, and that the feedback that they received from these group work situations was positive.

7 educators indicated that they did employ group roles in group work situations, 1 educator indicated that he/she did not employ group roles, while 14 educators indicated that they sometimes designated group roles to group members.

The following comments were made by educators who employ group work models in their classrooms and have received positive feedback from these group work situations.

- ▶ Pupils enjoy group work. They encourage others to participate (Afrikaans female educator who sometimes uses group roles).
- ▶ Peer tutoring works very well - children relate well - have a few instances this year alone (English female educator who does not use group roles).
- ▶ Learners enjoys group work. They help each other. Group work makes problem solving easier. (Afrikaans female educator who does use group roles).
- ▶ By using group work in big classes every learner is reached. Discipline is better - group competitions. Organizational function - group leader collects books and reports learners not coping (Afrikaans female educator who always uses group roles).
- ▶ Learners work as a team. Leaders can be identified. Shy and weaker learners also work and discuss the work (Afrikaans female educator who uses group roles).
- ▶ Slower learners can cope with support. Learners feel that they are part of a group. Academic and scholastic improvement. Learners' self-image improves (Afrikaans male educator who uses group roles)

- The slower learner feels more comfortable to share with the rest (Afrikaans female educator who uses group roles)
- A pupil/learner 'opens' information to the rest of the group. Fast readers help slow readers to get info quickly (Afrikaans female educator who uses group roles).
- Learners enjoy interacting with one another and seem to relish being given responsibilities involved in group roles especially being leader (English female educator who uses group roles).
- Learners become more independent. Give learners the opportunity to take leadership. See their personalities developing (English female educator who sometimes uses group roles).
- Children demonstrate tolerance. General work performance increases. Improved communication skills (i.e. confidence in smaller groups). Acknowledgement of different skills (English female educator who sometimes uses group roles).
- They enjoy working in a group (Afrikaans female educator who sometimes uses group roles).
- Learners learn to communicate and listen to meaning of others (Afrikaans female educator who sometimes uses group roles).
- They learned different ways of doing things from their friends (Afrikaans female educator who sometimes uses group roles).
- Children learn from one another. Children are more motivated (Afrikaans female educator who sometimes uses group roles).
- Everyone participate in group. Learners learn from each other (Afrikaans female educator who sometimes uses group roles).
- Everyone is involved. Weaker learners learn from stronger learners and develop their own skills. Get more confidence when they also contribute to discussions and group work (Afrikaans female educator who sometimes uses group roles).
- Group work facilitates the tasks given. Learners learn from each other's work, teach each other. Work is taught at their level. Solving problems as group makes the work interesting and it becomes a challenge in class to see which group finishes the task first (Other female educator who sometimes uses group

roles).

- ▶ Each pupil gets a chance to fulfil a specific role and to progress at his own level (Afrikaans female educator who sometimes uses group roles).
- ▶ Learners encourage each other (English female educator who sometimes uses group roles).
- ▶ Learners enjoy interacting with one another. Gives a sense of security when approaching work sometimes. Enjoy group rivalry (English female educator who sometimes uses group roles).
- ▶ Children enjoy working together and helping others. They feel important and have a sense of achievement when helping others (Afrikaans female educator who sometimes uses group roles).

Table 5.4 Type of feedback educators receive from group work situations

	Always	Sometimes	Total	Total percentages
Negative feedback	10	24	34	56.6%
Positive feedback	24	0	24	40.0%
No response			2	3.3%

5.11.4. EDUCATORS WHO DO NOT USE GROUP WORK

2 educators (3.3%) indicated that they do not use group work models in their classroom. Both educators cited 'insufficient knowledge concerning group work' as a reason for not employing group work models in their classroom.

5.12 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS OF SURVEY OF EDUCATORS

- i. This research has indicated that the majority of the educators in the study population are Afrikaans females, followed by English females, Afrikaans males, and lastly, English males, Tswana males and 'other' speaking females.

- ii. The majority of the educators surveyed hold a 4 year diploma, as a teaching qualification.
- iii. The majority of the educators surveyed had 15 years or more teaching experience, while the minority had only 0-5 years experience.
- iv. The most common position held in schools, by these educators, is that of teacher.
- v. 38 educators (63.3%) indicated that they had received formal training on how to employ group work models, while 22 educators (36.6%) indicated that they had not received formal training.
- vi. 45 educators (75.0%) indicated that they did employ group work models in the classroom, 13 educators (21.6%) indicated that they sometimes employed group work models, while 2 educators (3.3%) indicated that they never employed group work models in the classroom.
- vii. 25 educators (41.6%) indicated that they used groups that comprised of 6 or more learners, 16 educators (26.6%) indicated that they used groups that comprised 5 learners and 14 educators (23.3%) indicated that they used groups that comprised 4 learners.
- viii. Think-pair-share models, class discussions and problem solving models proved to be the most popular forms of group work employed by the educators surveyed, while jigsaw models and the controversy model proved to be the least popular.
- ix. 43 educators (71.6%) indicated that the groups in their classrooms are set up heterogeneously, while 5 educators (8.3%) indicated that they used homogeneous structures, and 10 educators (16.6%) indicated that they did not use any fixed structure when setting up groups.

EMPIRICAL STUDY ON COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapters, the concept of communication apprehension and group work have been discussed by means of a review of literature.

This chapter deals with the problem questions which were raised in 1.3.1. The data gleaned from the communication questionnaire, which was statistically analysed, will be presented in tables and graphical representations.

6.2 THE AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of the research (see par. 1.3) is to determine whether a relationship exists, between group work, the mother-tongue of the learners and communication apprehension of these Grade 7 learners.

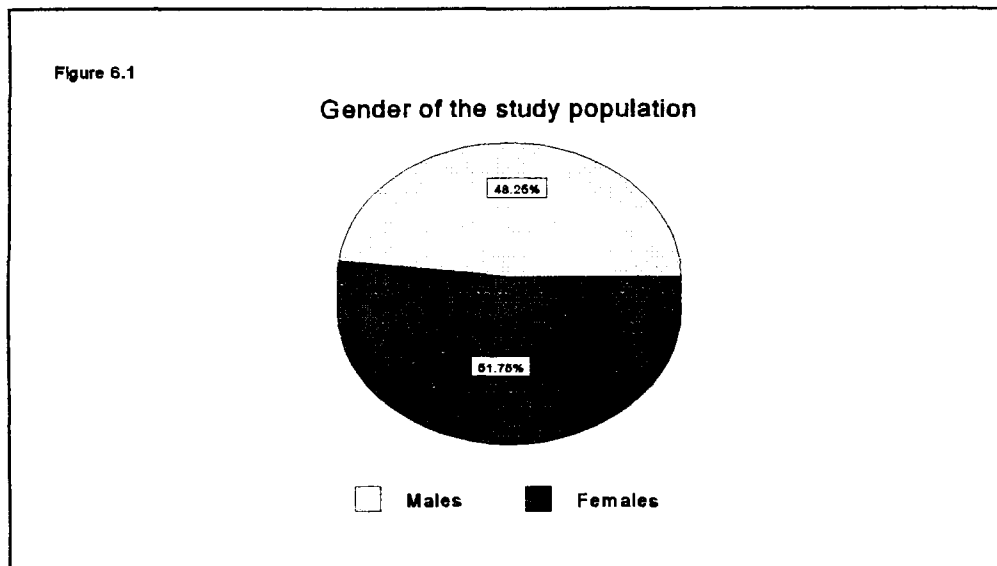
6.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH

This study hopes to determine whether group work lessens the degree of communication apprehension experienced by second language learners, in the classroom situation.

6.4 STUDY POPULATION

The target population of this study was all the Grade 7 learners in the four (4) English first language primary schools in the KOSH area of the North West Province. A total of 257 learners were tested. 124 (48.3%) of these learners were males, while 133

(51.8%) were females.



The breakdown of languages is depicted in Table 6.1. 'Other' indicates any first language spoken by the learner, other than English, Afrikaans or Tswana.

Table 6.1 Languages of study population

Language	Frequency	Percentage
English (1)	76	29.6%
Afrikaans (2)	7	2.7%
Tswana (3)	84	32.7%
Other (4)	90	35.0%
Total	257	100.0%

It is interesting to note that the schools tested, were all English first language schools, yet the majority of the learners are not English first language speakers. The English first language speakers make up 29.6% of the entire study population, while the rest of the population is made up of second language speakers (70.4%).

Throughout this study, the different languages will be referred to by the following

numbers.

English	=	1
Afrikaans	=	2
Tswana	=	3
Other	=	4

6.5 MEASURING INSTRUMENT

The research measuring instrument was discussed under paragraph 3.9.5.

The PRCA-24 instrument measures communication apprehension within the contexts of groups, meetings, interpersonal conversations and public speaking. The original PRCA-24 instrument has been adapted by Vreken and Vreken (1989) to include the context of the classroom.

6.6 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

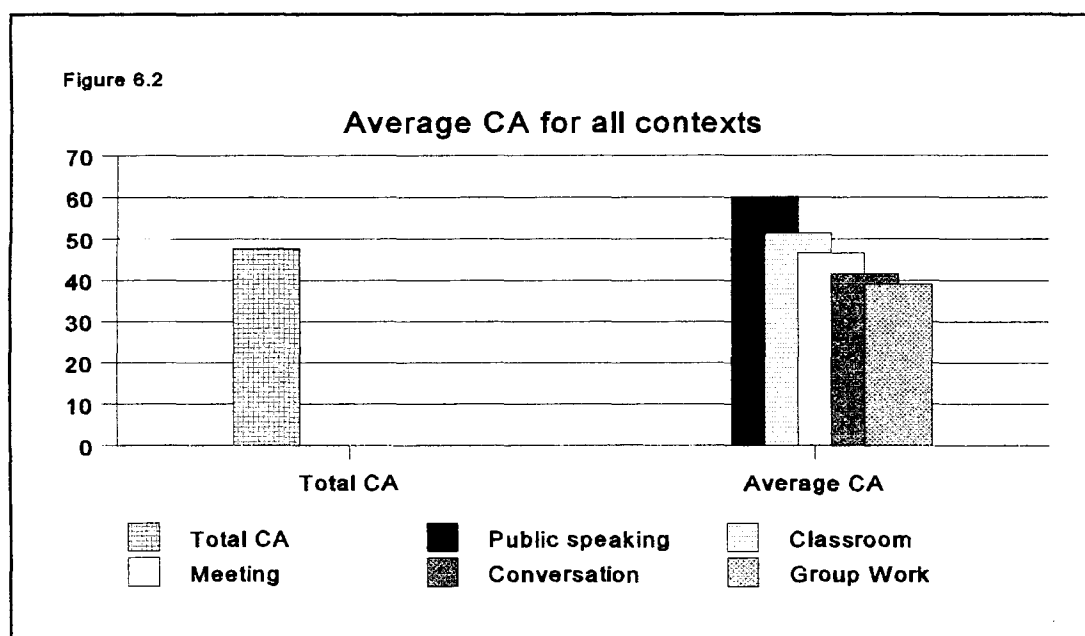
The raw data in the form of the questionnaire has been obtained from the participants, and the data was processed by the Statistical Consultation Services of the Potchefstroom University for CHE.

6.6.1 AVERAGE CA FOR ALL CONTEXTS

The table below (6.2) indicates the average communication apprehension of the entire study population, in all the contexts, namely group work, meetings, conversations, public speaking and the classroom. The entire group of Grade 7 learners in the English speaking first language schools in the KOSH area of the North West Province, indicated an average CA of 47.7%. The highest CA is indicated to be public speaking, (60.2%) while the lowest CA is group work (39.0%).

Table 6.2 **Average CA in all contexts**

	Average for entire study population
Group work CA	39.0%
Meeting CA	46.6%
Conversation CA	41.6%
Public speaking CA	60.2%
Classroom CA	51.4%
Entire study population (Average of Total CA)	47.7%



6.6.1.1 **FACTOR ANALYSIS FOR TOTAL CA**

The construct validity of the factor analysis for the total CA of the group declared 1 factor, as retained by the MINEIGEN criterion. For group work CA the variance was 64.82, for meeting CA the variance was 72.71, for conversation CA the variance was 67.85, for public speaking CA the variance was 60.50 and for classroom CA the variance was 66.26. The variance explained by each factor was 2.214. The communalities range from 52.8% to 36.6%.

The Cronbach Alpha Coefficient for the total CA is 0.830.

6.6.2. GROUP WORK CA

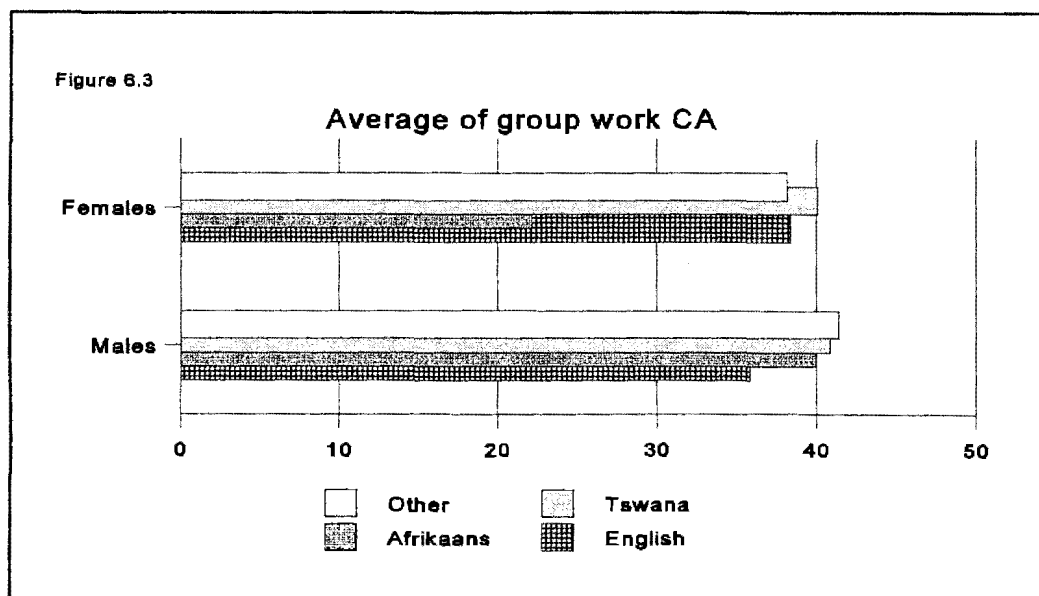
The general results for group work communication apprehension is represented in the table below (6.3).

Table 6.3 Average of group work CA

	English		Afrikaans		Tswana		Other	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Group work CA	35.9%	38.4%	40.0%	22.2%	40.9%	40.1%	41.4%	38.2%
Total CA	45.9%	48.7%	54.8%	44.2%	48.9%	47.2%	47.0%	48.2%

The information presented in Table 6.3 indicates that the group work communication apprehension experienced by all subjects is considerably lower than the general communication apprehension experienced by the same group.

Afrikaans females experience the lowest group work CA (22.2%) while male speakers of other languages experience the highest group work CA (41.4%).



6.6.2.1 PRACTICAL SIGNIFICANCE FOR GROUP WORK

The researcher conducted d tests to determine if any practical significance existed between the study groups. The formula that was used was the following:

$$\delta = \frac{\mu^1 - \mu^2}{\sigma}$$

δ = Standardised difference

μ^1 = Mean of population 1

μ^2 = Mean of population 2

σ = Error Mean Square

Table 6.4 Practical significance of group work

Group work - Males				
Languages	$\mu^1 - \mu^2$	σ	δ	Effect
4-3	0.4	13.81	0.03	Small effect
4-2	1.4	13.81	0.1	Small effect
4-1	5.52	13.81	0.4	Small effect
3-2	0.97	13.81	0.1	Small effect
3-1	5.1	13.81	0.4	Small effect
2-1	4.12	13.81	0.3	Small effect
Group work - Females				
Languages	$\mu^1 - \mu^2$	σ	δ	Effect
3-1	1.7	12.71	0.13	Small effect
3-4	1.88	12.71	0.2	Small effect
3-2	17.85	12.71	1.4	Large effect
1-4	0.23	12.71	0.02	Small effect
1-2	16.2	12.71	1.3	Large effect
4-2	15.97	12.71	1.3	Large effect

Amongst males, in all language groups, there is a small effect lower (=) than 0.2, which indicates that there is no practical significant difference between any of the language groups concerning group work communication apprehension.

Amongst females, a large effect is shown between Tswana speakers (3) and Afrikaans speakers (2), with a d-value of 1.4, being greater than ($\geq$) 0.8, and this indicates that the results are of practical significance. Amongst English speakers (1) and Afrikaans speakers (2) a large effect is shown, ($d=1.3$), while amongst speakers of other languages (4) and Afrikaans speakers (2), a large effect ($d=1.3$), is also shown. Between all other groups, a small effect lower ($=$) than 0.2 is indicated, which indicates that there is no practical significant difference in the communication apprehension for these groups.

6.6.2.2 FACTOR ANALYSIS OF GROUP WORK

The construct validity of the factor analysis for group work CA declared 2 factors, as retained by the MINEIGEN criterion, with 54.08 variance declared by these two factors. The communalities range from 72.3% to 20.7%.

The Cronbach Alpha Coefficient for group work CA is 0.629.

6.6.3 MEETING CA

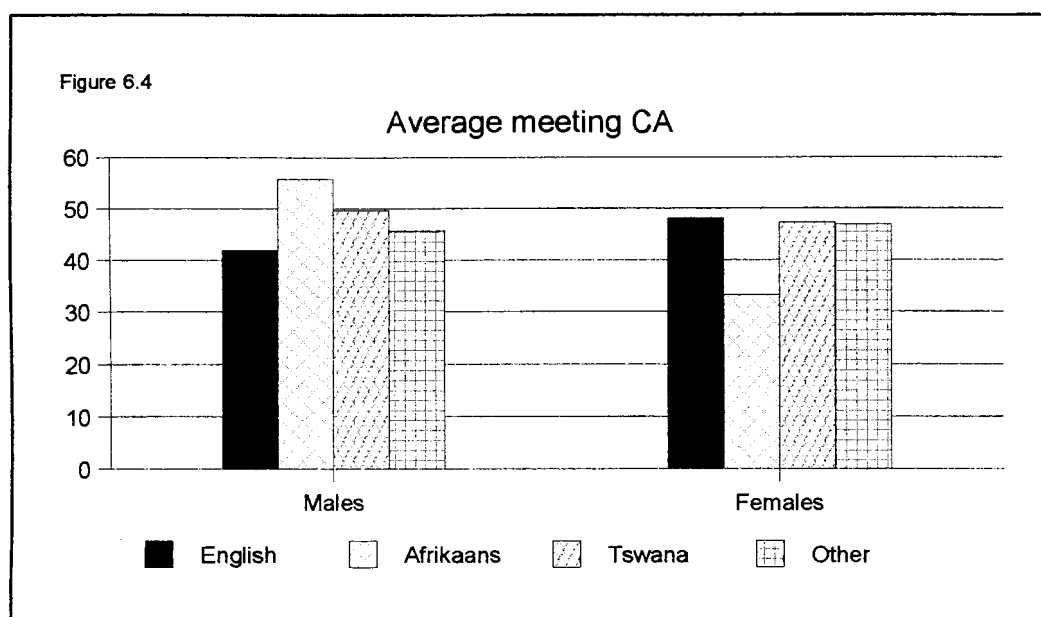
The table below indicates the results of meeting communication apprehension experienced by the study population.

Table 6.5 Average of meeting CA

	English		Afrikaans		Tswana		Other	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Meeting CA	41.9%	48.1%	55.8%	33.3%	49.7%	47.3%	45.8%	47.0%
Total CA	45.9%	48.7%	54.8%	44.2%	48.9%	47.2%	47.0%	48.2%

English female learners have a higher meeting CA (48.1%) than English male learners (41.9%), while Afrikaans male learners have the highest meeting CA (55.8%) of all the groups, compared to Afrikaans female learners who have the lowest meeting CA (33.3%) of all the groups. Tswana male learners experience higher meeting CA (49.7%) than their total CA (48.9%), while Tswana female learners have a comparative meeting

CA (47.3%) to their total CA (47.2%). Male learners who are speakers of other languages experience an average meeting CA of (45.8%) compared to female learners who are speakers of other languages, who have an average meeting CA of (47.0%).



6.6.3.1 PRACTICAL SIGNIFICANCE OF MEETINGS

Table 6.6 Practical significance of meetings

Meetings - Males				
Languages	$\mu^1 - \mu^2$	σ	δ	Effect
2-3	6.2	15.19	0.4	Small effect
2-4	10.1	15.19	0.7	Average
2-1	13.9	15.19	0.9	Large effect
3-4	3.9	15.19	0.3	Small effect
3-1	7.7	15.19	0.5	Average
4-1	3.8	15.19	0.3	Small effect
Meetings - Females				
Languages	$\mu^1 - \mu^2$	σ	δ	Effect
1-3	0.8	17.4	0.1	Small effect
1-4	1.04	17.4	0.1	Small effect

Meetings - Males				
1-2	14.7	17.4	0.9	Large effect
3-4	0.22	17.4	0.01	Small effect
3-2	13.9	17.4	0.8	Large effect
4-2	13.7	17.4	0.8	Large effect

Amongst male learners, a large effect (≥ 0.8) of 0.9 is shown between Afrikaans speakers (2) and English speakers (1). This indicates that there is a practical significant difference in meeting CA between these two groups.

There is an average effect ($=0.5$) of 0.7 between Afrikaans speakers (2) and speakers of other languages (4), while there is an average effect ($=0.5$) of 0.5 between Tswana speakers (3) and English speakers (1). This indicates that the practical effect is observable and could be of practical significant difference in meeting CA between these groups.

The rest of the groups indicated small effects ($=0.2$) which indicates that there is no practical significant difference between these groups.

6.6.3.2 FACTOR ANALYSIS OF MEETING CA

The construct validity of the factor analysis for meeting CA declared 2 factors, as retained by the MINEIGEN criterion, with 58.95 variance declared by these two factors. The communalities range from 75.2% to 44.8%.

The Cronbrach Alpha Coefficient for meeting CA is 0.717.

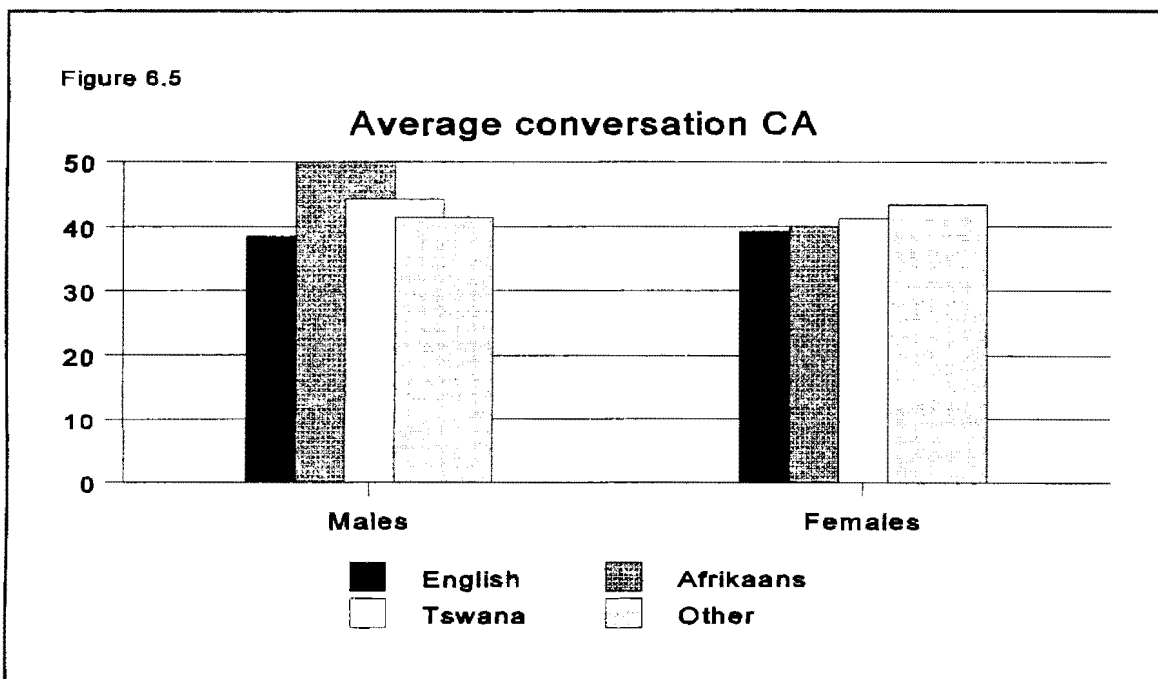
6.6.4 CONVERSATION CA

The table below represents the results of the study population's average conversation communication apprehension.

Table 6.7 Average of conversation CA

	English		Afrikaans		Tswana		Other	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Conversation CA	38.5%	39.2%	50.0%	40.0%	44.2%	41.2%	41.4%	43.4%
Total CA	45.9%	48.7%	54.8%	44.2%	48.9%	47.2%	47.0%	48.2%

Both English male learners (38.5%) and female learners (39.2%) have low conversation CA, in relation to their average CA. English male learners and female learners also have the lowest conversation CA of the entire study population. Afrikaans male learners have the highest conversation CA (50.0%) of the entire group. Afrikaans female learners have a conversation CA of (40.0%). Tswana male learners have a conversation CA of (44.2%) which is comparable to Tswana female learners conversation CA of (41.2%). The same can be said for speakers of other languages, where the male learners have a conversation CA of (41.4%) and the female learners have a conversation CA of (43.4%).



6.6.4.1 PRACTICAL SIGNIFICANCE OF CONVERSATION CA

Table 6.8 Practical significance of conversations CA

Conversation - Males				
Languages	$\mu^1 - \mu^2$	σ	δ	Effect
2-3	5.8	15.7	0.4	Small effect
2-4	8.6	15.7	0.6	Average
2-1	11.5	15.7	0.7	Average
3-4	2.8	15.7	0.2	Small effect
3-1	5.7	15.7	0.4	Small effect
4-1	2.9	15.7	0.2	Small effect
Conversation - Females				
Languages	$\mu^1 - \mu^2$	σ	δ	Effect
4-3	2.2	15.6	0.1	Small effect
4-2	3.4	15.6	0.2	Small effect
4-1	4.2	15.6	0.3	Small effect
3-2	1.2	15.6	0.1	Small effect
3-1	2.02	15.6	0.1	Small effect
2-1	0.8	15.6	0.1	Small effect

The male learners indicate that there is an average effect ($=0.5$) of 0.6 between Afrikaans speakers (2) and speakers of other languages (4), while there is also an average effect ($=0.5$) of 0.7 between Afrikaans speakers (2) and English speakers (1). This indicates that there is an observable effect, and this effect could have practical significance. The rest of the groups indicated a small effect ($=0.2$) which indicates that there is no practical significant difference in conversation communication apprehension between these groups.

6.6.4.2 FACTOR ANALYSIS OF CONVERSATION CA

The construct validity of the factor analysis for conversation CA declared 2 factors, as

retained by the MINEIGEN criterion, with 58.92 variance declared by these two factors. The communalities range from 75.7% to 35.3%.

The Cronbach Alpha Coefficient for conversation CA is 0.670.

6.6.5 PUBLIC SPEAKING CA

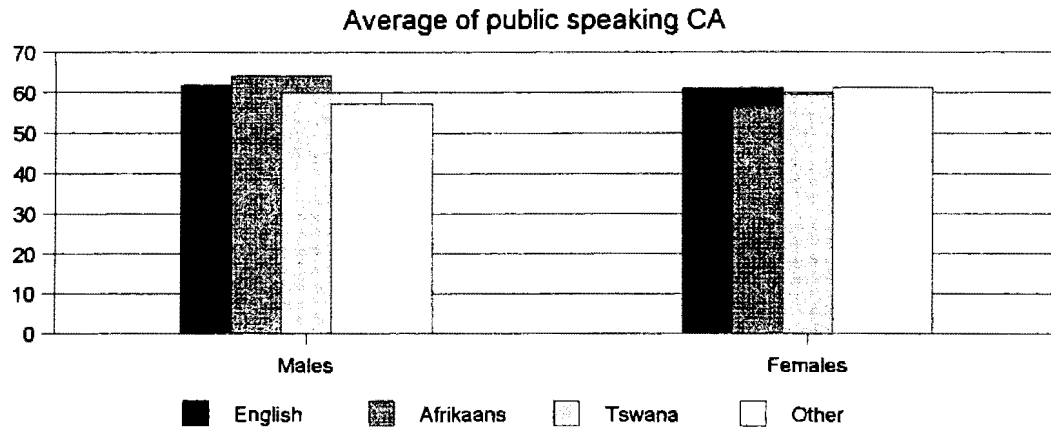
The table below indicates the results of the public speaking communication apprehension experienced by the study population.

Table 6.9 Average of public speaking CA

	English		Afrikaans		Tswana		Other	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Public speaking CA	62.0%	61.1%	64.2%	56.7%	60.1%	59.6%	57.6%	61.3%
Total CA	45.9%	48.7%	54.8%	44.2%	48.9%	47.2%	47.0%	48.2%

Public speaking communication apprehension is the highest communication apprehension for all the groups. English male learners experience a public speaking CA of (62.0%) while English female learners indicate a CA level of (61.1%) for public speaking, which are comparable with each other. Afrikaans male learners have an average public speaking CA of (64.2%) which is the highest for the group, while Afrikaans female learners have a public speaking CA of (56.7%) which is the lowest for the study population. Tswana male learners have a public speaking CA of (60.1%) while Tswana female learners have a public speaking CA of (59.6%), which are also comparable with each other. Male learners who are speakers of other languages have a public speaking CA of (57.6%) compared to the female learners, which have a public speaking CA of (61.3%).

Figure 6.6



6.6.5.1 PRACTICAL SIGNIFICANCE OF PUBLIC SPEAKING CA

Table 6.10 Practical significance of public speaking CA

Public Speaking - Males				
Languages	$\mu^1 - \mu^2$	σ	δ	Effect
2-1	2.2	17.8	0.1	Small effect
2-3	4.1	17.8	0.2	Small effect
2-4	6.9	17.8	0.4	Small effect
1-3	1.9	17.8	0.1	Small effect
1-4	4.8	17.8	0.3	Small effect
3-4	2.8	17.8	0.2	Small effect
Public Speaking - Females				
Languages	$\mu^1 - \mu^2$	σ	δ	Effect
4-1	0.3	18.1	0.01	Small effect
4-3	1.7	18.1	0.1	Small effect
4-2	4.6	18.1	0.3	Small effect
1-3	1.5	18.1	0.1	Small effect
1-2	4.4	18.1	0.2	Small effect
3-2	2.9	18.1	0.2	Small effect

For male learners, small effects ($=0.2$) were indicated for all the sub-groups, indicating that there is no practical significant difference in for these groups concerning public speaking.

For females, small effects ($=0.2$) were also indicated for all the sub-groups, indicating that there is no practical significance for public speaking for these groups either.

6.6.5.2 FACTOR ANALYSIS FOR PUBLIC SPEAKING CA

The construct validity of the factor analysis for public speaking CA declared 2 factors, as retained by the MINEIGEN criterion, with 58.48 variance declared by these two factors. The communalities range from 74.8% to 47.4%.

The Cronbach Alpha Coefficient for public speaking CA is 0.711.

6.6.6 CLASSROOM CA

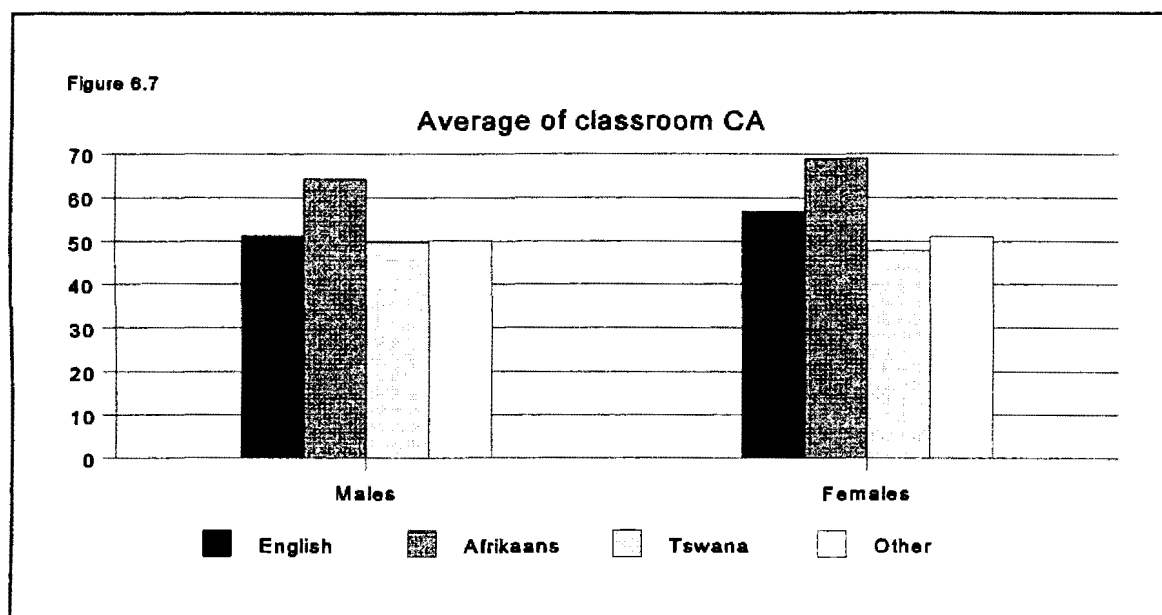
The information represented in the table below, indicates the average classroom CA for the entire study population.

Table 6.11 Average of classroom CA

	English		Afrikaans		Tswana		Other	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Classroom CA	51.3%	56.9%	64.2%	68.9%	49.7%	47.8%	50.1%	51.2%
Total CA	45.8%	48.7%	54.8%	44.2%	48.9%	47.2%	47.0%	48.2%

English males indicate an average classroom CA (51.3%) versus English female learners who indicate an average classroom CA of (56.9%). Afrikaans male learners indicate a classroom CA of (64.2%) while Afrikaans female learners indicate a classroom CA of (68.9%), which is very high, and is also the highest CA in the study population for this context. Tswana male learners have a classroom CA of (49.7%) and Tswana female learners have a classroom CA of (47.8%) which is the lowest CA for

this study population, for this context. Male learners who are speakers of other languages have a classroom CA of (50.1%) which is comparable to the female learners, who have a classroom CA of (51.2%).



6.6.6.1 PRACTICAL SIGNIFICANCE OF CLASSROOM CA

Table 6.12 Practical significance of the classroom CA

Classroom- Males				
Languages	$\mu^1 - \mu^2$	σ	δ	Effect
2-1	12.9	15.4	0.8	Large effect
2-4	14.1	15.4	0.9	Large effect
2-3	14.4	15.4	0.9	Large effect
1-4	1.2	15.4	0.1	Small effect
1-3	1.6	15.4	0.1	Small effect
4-3	0.3	15.4	0.02	Small effect
Classroom - Females				
Languages	$\mu^1 - \mu^2$	σ	δ	Effect
2-1	11.9	16.1	0.7	Average
2-4	17.7	16.1	1.1	Large effect

Classroom- Males				
2-3	21.1	16.1	1.3	Large effect
1-4	5.8	16.1	0.4	Small effect
1-3	9.2	16.1	0.6	Average
4-3	3.4	16.1	0.2	Small effect

Among male learners, there is a large effect (≥ 0.8) of 0.8 between Afrikaans speakers (2) and English speakers (1) concerning classroom CA. There is also a large effect (≥ 0.8) of 0.9 between Afrikaans speakers (2) and speakers of other languages (4). The last large effect (≥ 0.8) of 0.9 is between Afrikaans speakers (2) and Tswana speakers (3). This indicates that there is a large effect and also practical significance between these groups. The other sub-groups indicate small effects (≥ 0.2) and therefore indicates no practical significant difference in classroom communication apprehension between these groups.

Amongst female learners, there is a large effect (≥ 0.8) of 1.1 between Afrikaans speakers (2) and speakers of other languages (4), and a large effect (≥ 0.8) of 1.3 between Afrikaans speakers (2) and Tswana speakers (3). This indicates that there will be an observable difference between these groups and that there is a practical significant difference in the classroom communication apprehension of these learners.

There is an average effect ($=0.5$) of 0.7 between Afrikaans speakers (2) and English speakers (1), while there is also an average effect ($=0.5$) of 0.6 between English speakers (1) and Tswana speakers (3), and this indicates that the effect is observable and could hold some practical significant difference in classroom communication apprehension for these groups.

The d test between English speakers (1) and speakers of other languages (4), and between speakers of other languages (4) and Tswana speakers (3) indicated a small effect ($=0.2$), therefore indicating that there is no practical significant difference between these groups.

6.6.6.2 FACTOR ANALYSIS OF CLASSROOM CA

The construct validity of the factor analysis for classroom CA declared 2 factors, as retained by the MINEIGEN criterion, with 49.35 variance declared by these two factors. The communalities range from 69.1% to 23.9%.

The Cronbach Alpha Coefficient for classroom CA is 0.553.

6.7 ANALYSIS OF GROUP WORK CA FOR FIRST LANGUAGE SPEAKERS (L1)

The table below indicates the levels of CA experience by L1 speakers in all contexts.

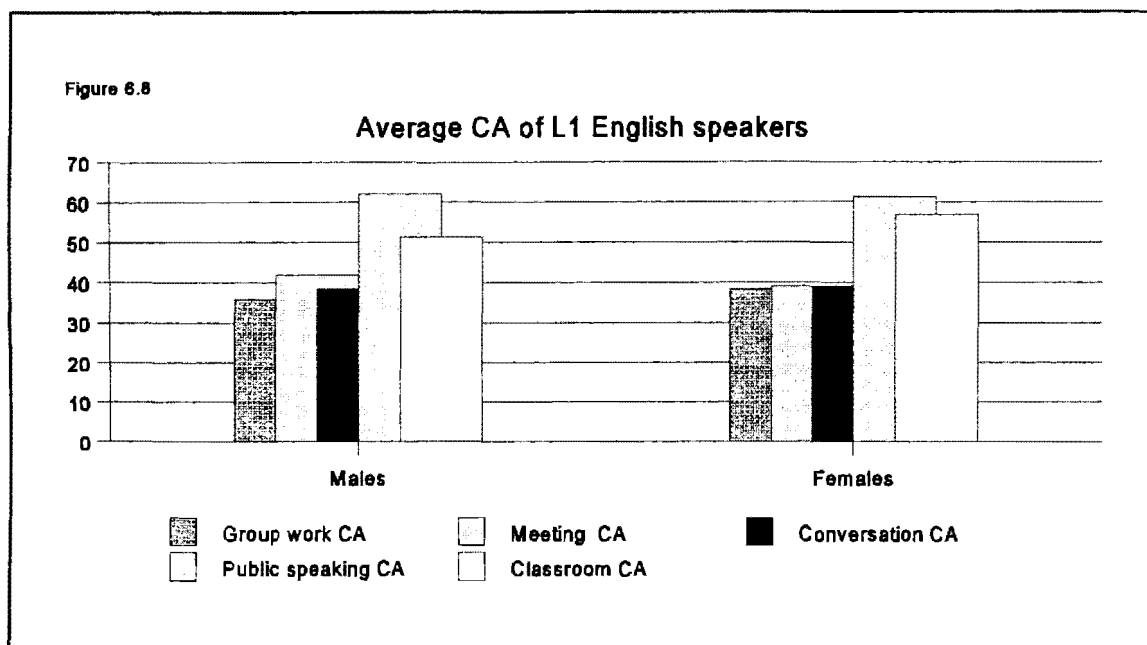
Table 6.13 Communication apprehension of L1 learners

Average CA	Males	Females
Group Work	35.9%	38.4%
Meetings	41.9%	39.2%
Conversations	38.5%	39.2%
Public Speaking	62.0%	61.1%
Classroom	51.3%	56.9%
Total CA	45.9%	48.7%

The total CA of the L1 male learners is 45.9% and their group work CA is 35.9%, while the total CA of L1 female learners is slightly higher at 48.7%, this is mirrored in their group work CA which is 38.4%. It can be noted that the group work CA of both male L1

speakers and female L1 speakers is lower than the other CA contexts and the total CA.

6.7.1 L1 GROUP WORK CA COMPARED TO MEETINGS CA



Group work average CA is lower than meeting CA in both L1 male learners and female learners. Although group work average CA is slightly lower than meeting CA average in male learners (35.9% vs 41.9%), there is not much of a difference between group work CA average and meeting CA average in female learners (38.4% vs 39.2%). It must be noted that the CA that has been measured in these contexts, is low.

6.7.2 L1 GROUP WORK CA COMPARED TO CONVERSATION CA

Conversation CA average is also low, at 38.5% for L1 male learners and 39.2% for L1 female learners. There is hardly a difference between the CA measured for group work and conversations, although the group work CA average is a percentage or two lower than that of conversation CA average for both L1 male learners and female learners.

The greatest difference between two CA contexts can be measured between group work CA average and public speaking CA average, for both L1 male learners and female learners. L1 male learners indicate that their public speaking CA average is 62%, while their group work CA average is 35.9%. L1 female learners indicate a public speaking CA average of 61.1%, compared to a group work CA average of 38.4%.

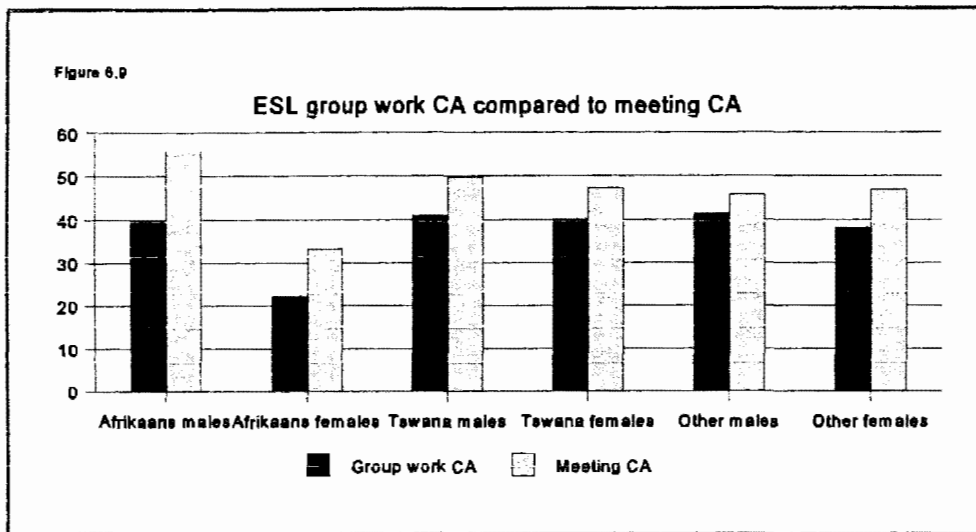
Group work CA average is also considerably lower than the classroom CA average experienced by both L1 male learners and female learners. L1 male learners indicated an average classroom CA of 51.3% compared to the group work CA average of 35.9% for the same group. L1 female learners indicated an average classroom CA of 56.9% compared to the group work CA average of 38.4%.

6.8 ANALYSIS OF GROUP WORK FOR SECOND LANGUAGE SPEAKERS (ESL)

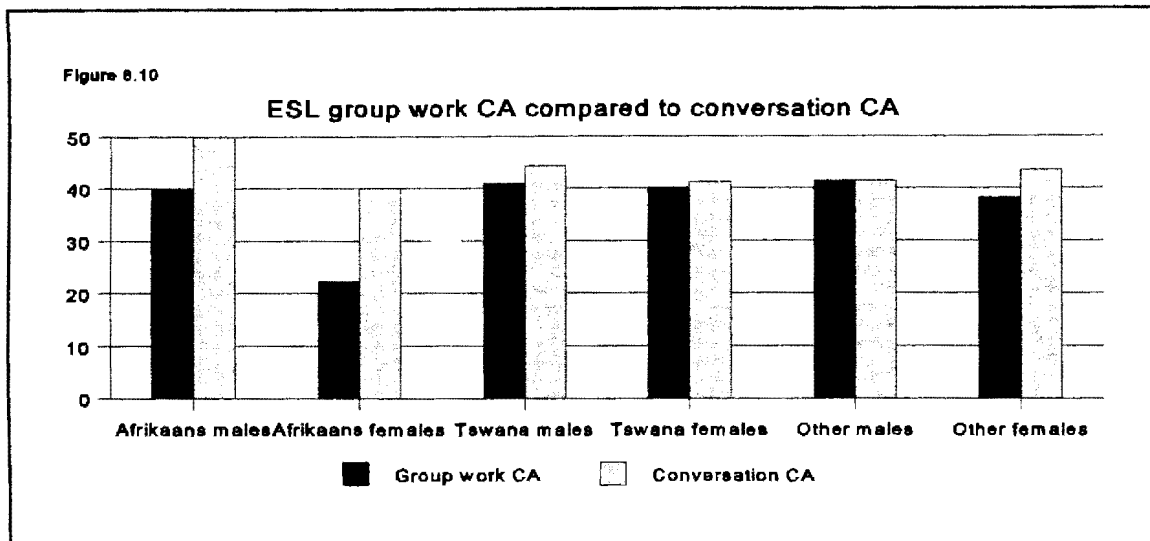
The table below compares the ESL learners group work CA with the averages of all other CA contexts.

Table 6.14 Communication apprehension of ESL learners

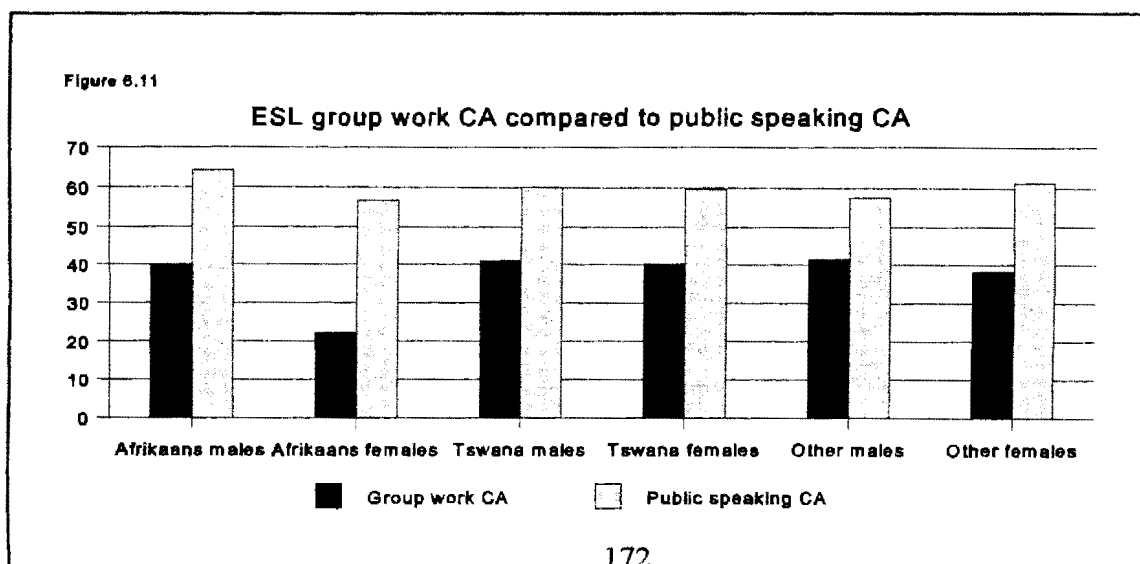
	Afrikaans		Tswana		Other	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Group work	40.0%	22.2%	40.9%	40.1%	41.4%	38.2%
Meeting	55.8%	33.3%	49.7%	47.3%	45.8%	47.0%
Conversation	50.0%	40.0%	44.2%	41.2%	41.4%	43.4%
Public Speaking	64.2%	56.7%	60.1%	59.6%	57.6%	61.3%
Classroom	64.2%	68.9%	49.7%	47.8%	50.1%	51.2%
Total	54.8%	44.2%	48.9%	47.2%	47.0%	48.0%



Group work CA average is lower than all other language groups meeting CA average. Afrikaans male learners have a meeting CA average of 55.8% compared to a group work CA average of 40.0%. Afrikaans female learners indicate a meeting CA average of 33.3% compared to a group work CA average of 22.2%. Tswana male learners indicate a meeting CA average of 49.7% and a group work CA average of 40.9%. Tswana female learners indicate a meeting CA average of 47.3% compared to a group work CA average of 40.1%. Speakers of languages other than English indicate that ESL male learners have a meeting CA average of 45.8% and a group work CA average of 41.4%, while female learners have a meeting CA average of 47.0% and a group work CA average of 38.2%.

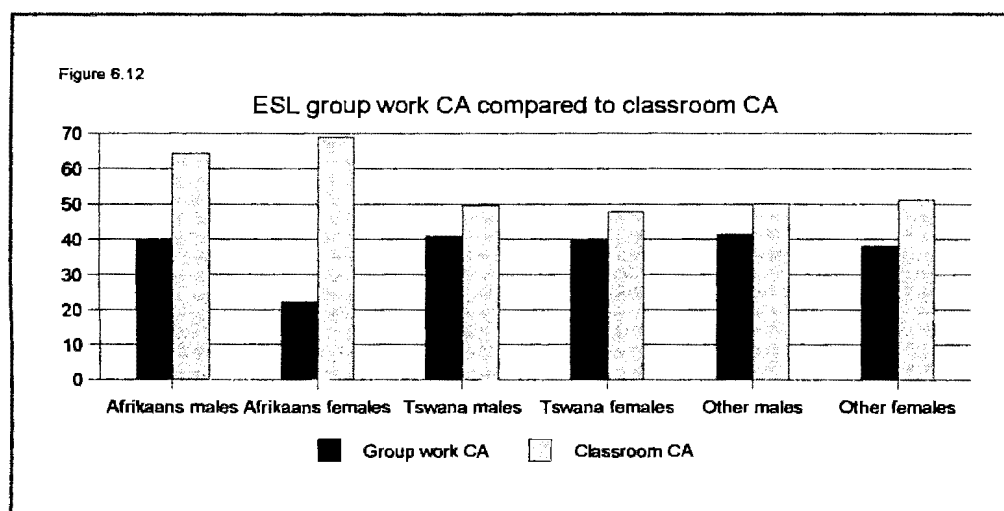


Group work CA is also lower than conversation CA for all the ESL groups. Afrikaans male learners indicate a conversation CA of 50.0%, Afrikaans female learners indicate a conversation CA average of 40.0%. Tswana male learners indicate a conversation CA of 44.2%, while Tswana female learners indicate a conversation CA average of 41.2%, and finally ESL speakers of other languages indicate that the male learners have a conversation CA average of 41.4% and the female learners have a conversation CA average of 43.4%.



It can be noted that the average public speaking CA is the highest CA for all entire ESL study population. Afrikaans males indicate an average public speaking CA of 64.2%, Afrikaans females indicate an average public speaking CA of 56.7%. Tswana males indicate an average public speaking CA of 60.1%, compared to Tswana females who indicate an average public speaking CA of 59.6%. ESL speakers of other languages indicate that males have an average public speaking CA of 57.6% while the females have an average public speaking CA of 61.3%. It can be noted, as illustrated in Figure 6.11, that the group work CA of all the ESL groups is considerably lower than that of the public speaking CA for the same ESL groups.

6.8.4 ESL GROUP WORK CA COMPARED TO CLASSROOM CA



Afrikaans male learners (64.2%) and Afrikaans female learners (56.7%) experience relatively high levels of CA in the classroom context. When these averages are compared to the averages of the group work CA for the same groups, it can be noted that the group work CA is very much lower. Tswana male learners indicate an average classroom CA of 60.1% and Tswana female learners indicate an average classroom CA of 59.6%. Both classroom CA averages are higher than the average group work CA experienced by this language group. ESL speakers of other languages, indicate an average classroom CA for male learners, of 57.6% and for female learners, 61.3%.

6.9 SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS OF THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

- i. 48.3% of the study population were males while 51.8% of the study population were females.
- ii. 29.6% of the study population were English first language speakers, while 70.4% of the study population were English second language speakers.
- iii. The English second language speakers comprised 2.7% Afrikaans first language speakers, 32.7% Tswana first language speakers, and 35.0% which were learners which spoke languages other than those mentioned before.
- iv. The entire study population, which included L1 and ESL learners, indicated an average total CA of 47.7%.
- v. The entire study population, which included L1 and ESL learners, indicated an average group work CA of 39.0%.
- vi. A Cronbach Alpha Coefficient of 0.5 is considered acceptable and reliable. The Cronbach Alpha Coefficient for the CA contexts were as follows:

▶	Total CA	-	0.830
▶	Group work CA	-	0.629
▶	Meeting CA	-	0.717
▶	Conversation CA	-	0.670
▶	Public Speaking CA	-	0.711
▶	Classroom CA	-	0.553
- vii. English first language males indicated a total CA of 45.9%, a group work CA of 35.9%, a meeting CA of 41.9%, a conversation CA of 38.5%, a public speaking CA of 62.0% and a classroom CA of 51.3%.
- viii. English first language females indicated a total CA of 48.8%, a group work CA of 38.4%, a meeting CA of 48.1%, a conversation CA of 39.2%, a public speaking CA of 61.1% and a classroom CA of 56.9%.
- ix. Afrikaans first language males indicated a total CA of 54.8%, a group work CA of 40.0%, a meeting CA of 55.8%, a conversation CA of 50.0%, a public speaking CA of 64.2% and a classroom CA of 64.2%.

- x. Afrikaans first language females indicated a total CA of 44.2%, a group work CA of 22.2%, a meeting CA of 33.3%, a conversation CA of 40.0%, a public speaking CA of 56.7% and a classroom CA of 68.9%.
- xi. Tswana first language males indicated a total CA of 48.9%, a group work CA of 40.9%, a meeting CA of 49.7%, a conversation CA of 44.2%, a public speaking CA of 60.1% and a classroom CA of 49.7%.
- xii. Tswana first language females indicated a total CA of 47.2%, a group work CA of 40.1%, a meeting CA of 47.3%, a conversation CA of 41.2%, a public speaking CA of 59.6% and a classroom CA of 47.8%.
- xiii. Male ESL speakers of other languages, indicated a total CA of 47.0%, a group work CA of 41.4%, a meeting CA of 45.8%, a conversation CA of 41.4%, a public speaking CA of 57.6% and a classroom CA of 50.1%.
- xiv. Female ESL speakers of other languages, indicated a total CA of 48.2%, a group work CA of 38.2%, a meeting CA of 47.0%, a conversation CA of 43.4%, a public speaking CA of 61.3% and a classroom CA of 51.2%.

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter comprises a summary of the research project described in the preceding chapters. The main aim of this study was to determine if there was a difference between the general communication apprehension of L1 and ESL learners in English first language primary schools in the KOSH area, and the group work communication apprehension of L1 and ESL learners, in the same schools. This research project also aimed to determine if the educators in these English first language primary schools in the KOSH area were implementing group work models in their classrooms, and what problems these educators faced in the light of the fact that they were implementing group work in their classrooms. A further literature study was conducted to determine the changing role of the educator from 'traditional' educator to facilitator.

7.2 SUMMARY OF LITERATURE STUDY

The review of literature followed a three-pronged approach. The purpose was to introduce the main concepts of cooperative group work, communication apprehension and the role of the educator.

The main purpose of Chapter 2 was to determine the rationale for using cooperative group work in the classroom and to discover the various ways that cooperative group work can be implemented in the classroom. As one of the main aims of this research project was to determine the levels of group work communication apprehension of L1 and ESL learners, it was imperative that a study of the available literature concerning cooperative group work was undertaken.

As one of the main aims of this study was to determine the degree of communication apprehension experienced by L1 and ESL learners in English first language primary schools, a review of the available literature concerning communication apprehension, its causes, its effects and how to manage it were under taken in Chapter 3.

The role of the educator as facilitator, in the group work model, was discussed. Chapter 4 comprises a review of literature defining what teaching entails, the elements of effective teaching and the changing role of the educator to that of facilitator, were discussed.

7.2.1 Cooperative group work

The rationale for cooperative group work lies in the assumption that learners should be confronted with real-life situations, where teamwork, effective communication and division of tasks to achieve mutual goals is the order of the day (see par. 2.2). Cooperative group work has been credited with promoting critical thinking and improved problem-solving skills according to Artz and Newman (1990:450).

Research findings collaborate the rationale for cooperative group work and it has been stated by Bitzer (1994:43) that cooperative group work can be used to promote the development of higher level learning and problem solving skills. Kimberley (1999:53) also notes that cooperative learning is seen to meet the educational needs of learners with limited English proficiency.

A dichotomy exists between heterogeneous groupings (mixed ability groupings) and homogeneous groupings (same ability groupings) in cooperative group work. Abrami *et al.* (1995:62) notes that heterogeneous grouping allows learners from diverse cultural backgrounds, genders, races, abilities and interests, to interact with one another. Stahl (1994) notes that heterogeneous grouping is essential to the effective functioning of the cooperative group (see par. 2.10.4). Abrami *et al.* (1995:64) however, also notes that homogeneous groupings should meet the needs of all

students (see par. 2.5.2).

The role of goals in cooperative group work was discussed. Hill (1997) states that group goals provide direction for the activities of the group, and goals pull the group together, as they work for the common success of the group. Goals hold certain implications for educators (see par. 2.7.1), as educators have to ensure that learners are encouraged to do their best.

Group roles exist to aid learners in overcoming difficulties that may exist within the group. Fernandez *et al.* (1994:197) states that by assigning group roles to each member of the group, learners are able to clarify the goal and the outcome of the problem solving exercise (see par. 2.8). The role of leadership is one of vital importance, as cooperative group work encourages all learners to be leaders (see par. 2.8.1). Gatekeeping is used to achieve fairly equitable distribution of participation among its members (see par. 2.8.3).

Keys to the effective functioning of cooperative group work (see par. 2.10) are stated as being:

- Clear learning outcome objectives
- Learners making the targeted outcome their own
- Task-orientated directions
- Heterogeneous groups
- Equal opportunities for success
- Positive interdependence
- Face-to-face interaction
- Positive social behaviours
- Access to must-learn information
- Opportunities to complete tasks
- Sufficient time spent learning
- Individual accountability
- Public recognition

- Reflection on group behaviours

Different types of cooperative group work models are researched and discussed (see par. 2.11). The jigsaw model, peer reading groups, problem solvers, writing response groups, group reports, peer tutoring, role play model, team interview model, graffiti model, think-pair-share model, synectics model, group investigation model and the classroom discussion model are all researched and discussed.

Assessment in cooperative group work determines how progress is measured. Portfolio assessment, self assessment and peer assessment are all valid forms of assessment in cooperative group work (see 2.12).

Cooperative group work has been found to develop language acquisition in ESL learners (see par. 2.13). Kagan (1995) notes that cooperative learning has a dramatic positive impact on almost all of the variables critical to language acquisition.

7.2.2 Communication apprehension

This chapter intended to define what communication is, how communication effects the ESL learner, communication in the classroom and how communication apprehension affects the communication process.

Communication was defined (see par. 3.2) and it is stated that meaning is stimulated through communication and that learning cannot occur without meaning being generated for the learner. Communication is vital for learning to occur according to Le Roux (1990:41).

The term ESL has been defined as an acronym which stands for English as a Second Language (par. 3.3). It is essential that the various acronyms concerning ESL are defined, so as to clarify the various concepts which fill the domain of second language. It is vital to the communication process that ESL is clearly defined, as second language

speakers often experience communication problems according to Lemmer (1995:89).

Communication in the classroom was discussed using the Classroom communication model as proposed by Vreken (1996:8-9). Various facets of communication were underscored and the importance of the various dimensions of communication in the classroom were discussed (par.3.4).

Communication apprehension (par. 3.5) is defined as an individual's level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons according to Richmond and McCroskey (1989:37) and it is stated that communication apprehension is a significant threat to communication effectiveness according to Booth-Butterfield and Cottone (1991:172).

Four different types of communication apprehension have been identified (par.3.5.1). The four different types are experienced in various contexts and are described as traitlike CA, context-based CA, audience-based CA and situational CA. Communication apprehension is experienced in various contexts and individuals experience each context differently.

The causes of communication apprehension were discussed (par. 3.6), as there are many different causes. Depending on the context, various causes of communication apprehension have been identified. There are many factors that could cause communication apprehension and these factors often occur individually or could be related to one another.

The effects of communication apprehension have been identified as being either internal (par. 3.7.1) or external (3.7.2). A person that suffers from communication apprehension could experience both internal or external effects. Communication apprehension also effects the communication process (par.3.7.3) as it impacts on the person's ability to communicate effectively. It can be stated that in the same light, communication apprehension could affect school performance (par.3.7.4) as the

ultimate outcome of communication apprehension in a learner, is less learning according to Richmond and McCroskey (1989:70).

Communication apprehension also has a marked effect on group work situations (par. 3.7.5). People suffering from communication apprehension behave differently in group work situations according to McCroskey (2000), and high apprehensives were seen as less competent than other group members.

Communication apprehension can be managed in various ways (par. 3.8). The most noted treatments that exist for managing communication apprehension are systematic desensitization (par.3.8.1) and visualisation (par. 3.8.2). In the classroom situation however, learners need to be taught specific skills in order to manage their communication apprehension (par. 3.8.3). It is essential that the educator is aware of the fact that a learner may be suffering from communication apprehension, as this anxiety may affect the communication process.

Communication apprehension is measured in various contexts and there are different instruments which measure these different context and the communication apprehension that is experienced (par. 3.9). The instrument that was used in this research project was the personal report of communication apprehension (PRCA-24) which was adapted by Vreken and Vreken (1989) to include the classroom situation (par.3.9.5). The five contexts which are tested using this instrument are, group discussions, meetings, conversations, public speaking and the classroom.

7.2.3 The educator as facilitator

Chapter 4 was dedicated to reviewing the changing role of the educator from that of 'traditional' educator to that of facilitator.

A definition of teaching was offered (par. 4.2) where a review of available literature was undertaken. The aim or intention of teaching was discussed (par. 4.2.1), the role of the

curriculum (par. 4.2.2), the role of the educator (par. 4.2.3), the role of guided interaction (par. 4.2.4) and the role of the learner (par. 4.3) were all discussed in an effort to clarify what teaching entails.

The elements of effective teaching were highlighted (par. 4.4) and the influence of teaching models toward effective teaching (par. 4.5) was also discussed.

The changing role of the educator (par.4.6) is highlighted by the implementation of group work in the classroom. According to Gelderbom and de Kock (1995:59) the role of the educator changes from the bearer and interpreter of knowledge to that of skilled observer, interpreter and facilitator of knowledge. The role of the facilitator (par. 4.7) is one of facilitating learning according to Neville (1998). There are certain characteristics that a good facilitator displays and these include being attentive, genuine, understanding, respectful, knowledgeable and communicative (par. 4.8).

Smith and Lusterman (1979:249) introduce a model of learning facilitation (par. 4.8), which highlights four behaviours that a facilitator should use to facilitate learning. These behaviours are, modeling desired behaviour, enhancing positive feelings, promoting cognitive clarification and reinforcing desired behaviour. Thiagarajan (1998) proposes a procedural model of facilitation where the facilitator relies on tactics to ensure that a balance exists between the tensions which exist in group work situations (par. 4.8.2). The functions of a facilitator are discussed in light of the models that were proposed (par. 4.9).

Questioning as a strategy for the facilitator (par. 4.10) was discussed. A classification of question types and questioning strategies was researched and all the relevant information was presented. It is essential that a facilitator is able to ask the relevant questions in order to illicit thoughtful responses and critical thinking from learners.

The empirical research aimed to fulfil the objectives of the study by engaging in the testing of all Grade 7 learners in the English first language schools in the KOSH area of the North West Province (par. 1.3.1). In order to determine whether the communication apprehension that these learners experience differs in the contexts of group work and general communication apprehension, the learners were asked to fill out the PRCA questionnaire. The educators that teach these learners were asked to fill out a general survey questionnaire, in order to establish whether group work was being used in these classrooms.

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7.3.1 The application of group work in English first language primary schools in the KOSH area

In chapter 5, the responses of all the educators of the learners in the English first language schools in the KOSH area of the North West province were discussed. These educators were asked to fill in a general survey of educators to determine whether or not group work is being implemented in these schools.

7.3.1.1 Findings with regard to the general survey of educators

The study population comprised 6 (10.0%) male educators and 54 (90.0%) female educators. 39 (65%) of these educators were Afrikaans speaking, 19(31.6%) of these educators were English speaking, 1 (1.6%) was Tswana speaking and 1(1.6%) indicated that she spoke a language other than those indicated on the questionnaire.

The Afrikaans speaking educators comprised 4 (6.6%) males and 35 (58.3%) females, while the English speaking educators comprised 1 (1.6%) male and 18 (30.0%) females. There was 1(1.6%) Tswana male and 1 (1.6%) female speaker of another language.

It is clear that the majority of educators teaching in English first language schools in the KOSH area are Afrikaans females.

The majority of the educators in these schools, 33 (55.0%) possess a 4 year diploma, while 17 (28.3%) possess a 3 year degree, 17 (28.3%) possess a HED (Higher Education Diploma) and 9 (15.0%) indicated that they possess a 3 year diploma.

27 (45.0%) of the educators indicated that they had 15 years or more, teaching experience. 17 (28.3%) of these educators were Afrikaans females, and 10 (16.6%) of these educators were English females. Female teachers in these English first language schools appear to have the most experience. 11 (18.3%) of educators indicated that they had between 11 - 15 years experience in teaching, while 13 (21.6%) indicated that they had 6-10 years of teaching experience. 9 (15.0%) indicated that they had between 0-5 years experience. It is clear that the smallest group is the 0-5 years experience category, and this is worrisome, as there does not appear to be an influx of newly qualified educators into these schools.

49 (81.6%) of the educators polled, indicated that they held the position of 'teacher' at the schools they were employed at. 10 (16.6%) of the educators indicated that they were HOD's (Heads of departments). Only 1(1.6%) male (Afrikaans) indicated that he was a HOD. 1 (1.6%) educator, an English female, indicated that she was a Deputy Head. It appears that the majority of top positions in these schools are filled by women.

38 (63.3%) of educators indicated that they had received formal training in group work practices, while 22 (36.6%) of these educators indicated that they had not received formal training in group work practices.

45 (75.0%) of these educators indicated that they did use group work models in their classrooms, 13 (21.6%) indicated that they sometimes used group work models in their classrooms, while 2 (3.3%) educators indicated that they never used group work models in their classrooms.

25 (41.6%) of educators indicated that the size of the groups in their classes consisted of 6 or more learners. 16 (26.6%) educators indicated that used groups that comprised 5 learners, while 14 (23.3%) educators indicated that they used groups of 4 learners. According to research conducted by Stahl (1994) heterogeneous groups should be organised with 3, 4 or 5 members, according to mixed ability (par. 2.9.4). 6 or more learners in a group is not ideal, yet 41.6% of these educators indicated that they preferred to use bigger groups in their classrooms.

The most popular form of group work used by these educators is the think-pair-share model with 49 (81.6%) educators using this group work model. 46 (76.6%) educators employ the classroom discussion model in their classrooms, while 45 (75.0%) educators employ problem solving groups regularly. 39 (65.0%) educators use cooperative reading groups. All other forms of group work are employed by less than 50.0% of the educators.

43 (71.6%) educators indicated that they used heterogenous groupings in their groups, while 5 (8.3%) educators indicated that they used homogeneous groupings. 10 (16.6%) indicated that they had no set structure in their groups. Schniedewind and Davidson (2000:24) indicated that homogeneous groupings may limit educator's expectations of learners, and Hollifield (1987) indicated that low achievers are deprived of the stimulation provided by high achievers, in homogeneous groupings (par. 2.5.2). Abrami *et al.* (1995:62) indicates that heterogeneous groupings allow learners to mix with a diversity of people, and this enables learners to grow academically, socially and emotionally (par. 2.5.1). The majority of educators in the English first language primary schools in the KOSH area do group their learners heterogeneously.

16 (26.6%) educators indicated that they assigned group roles in the group members, while 39 (65.0%) educators indicated that they sometimes assigned group roles to group members, and 3 (5.0%) educators indicated that they never assigned group roles to group members. Fernandez *et al.* (1994:197) found that learners have difficulty functioning within a group, and that by assigning group roles, difficulties are overcome

(par. 2.8).

10 (16.6%) educators indicated that they have received negative feedback concerning group work, 24 (40.0%) indicated that they sometimes receive negative feedback while 24 (40.0%) educators indicated that they received positive feedback from using group work in their classrooms. Overall, 56.6% of educators indicated that they received negative feedback from using group work, while 40.0% of educators indicated that they received positive feedback. 2 (3.3%) educators indicated that they do not employ group work models in their classroom (par. 5.12, 5.12.1, 5.12.2, 5.12.3, 5.12.4).

7.3.2 General discussion of the empirical research

In chapter 6 the research design was discussed. The PRCA questionnaire was used as a tool for measuring the general communication apprehension and group work communication apprehension of the study population. All the Grade 7 learners in the 4 English first language schools in the KOSH area of the North West province constituted the study population (par. 6.4). The study population comprised 76 (29.6%) English speakers, 7 (2.7%) Afrikaans speakers, 84 (32.7%) Tswana speakers and 90 (35.0%) speakers of other language. A total of 257 learners were tested, and these learners comprised all the Grade 7's in the English first language schools in the KOSH area. 124 (48.3%) of these learners were males, while 133 (51.8%) of the learners were females.

7.3.3 Findings with regard to empirical research

The findings with regard to the empirical research (par. 1.4.2) were considered.

The study population indicated an overall average communication apprehension of 47.7%, which is not very high, but indicates an average communication apprehension for the group, as indicated in Table 6.2 and Figure 6.2.

The average communication apprehension for English males is 45.9%, and the average classroom communication is 51.3%. The average group work communication apprehension for English males is 35.9%.

The average communication apprehension for English females is 48.7% and the average classroom communication apprehension is 56.9%. The average group work communication apprehension for English females is 38.4%.

The average communication apprehension for Afrikaans males is 54.8% and the average classroom communication apprehension is 64.2%. The average group work communication apprehension for Afrikaans males is 40.0%.

The average communication apprehension for Afrikaans females is 44.2% and the average classroom communication apprehension is 68.9%. The average group work communication apprehension for Afrikaans females is 22.2%.

The average communication apprehension for Tswana males is 48.9% and the average classroom communication apprehension is 49.7%. The group work communication apprehension for Tswana males is 40.9%.

The average communication apprehension for Tswana females is 47.2% and the average classroom communication apprehension is 47.8%. The group work communication apprehension for Tswana females is 40.1%.

The average communication apprehension for male speakers of other languages is 47.0% and the average classroom communication apprehension is 50.1%. The group work communication apprehension for male speakers of other languages is 41.4%.

The average communication apprehension for female speakers of other languages is 48.2% and the average classroom communication apprehension is 51.2%. The group work communication apprehension for female speakers of other languages is 38.2%.

The study population indicated an average group work communication apprehension of 39.0%, which is lower than the average communication apprehension of the entire study population.

Table 6.13 indicates that group work communication apprehension is lower in L1 males (35.9%) than the average communication apprehension for L1 males (45.9%). The table also indicates that L1 females experience lower group work communication apprehension (38.4%) than the average communication apprehension for L1 females (48.7%).

Table 6.14 indicates that all ESL groups experienced the lowest communication apprehension in group work, compared to the other contexts.

L1 learners experienced the lowest group work communication apprehension. ESL learners all experienced the lowest communication apprehension in group work contexts. It can therefore be stated that group work situations lessen the fear of communication for both L1 and ESL learners.

7.4 SUGGESTIONS

Educators should be able to identify communication apprehension in L1 and ESL learners and should endeavour to reduce this communication apprehension. The following should be taken into account:

- In-service training should be made available for all educators. Specific training in communication skills should be specified.
- In-service training should be made available for all educators seeking to improve their facilitation skills.
- In-service training should be made available for all educators seeking to improve their group work skills.
- Educators should strive to identify learners with communication apprehension

and educators should prevent communication apprehension in their classrooms.

- Educators should strive to teach learners skills which will help the learners overcome communication apprehension in various contexts.
- Educators should review relevant literature in order to remain in touch with the newest research trends concerning communication and cooperative group work.

7.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL PRACTICE

As it has been shown that group work reduces communication apprehension in L1 and ESL learners, the following strategies should be applied:

- Group work strategies should be taught to the learners.
- Group work should be used in the classroom, on a regular basis.
- The role of group goals and group roles should be stressed, and practiced in the classroom.
- Group roles should be varied and interesting, in order to stimulate leadership in the learners. Each learner should get an opportunity to report back, and so initiate communication that might otherwise not have occurred.

7.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This research was aimed at determining the degree of communication apprehension experienced by L1 learners and ESL learners, and whether or not group work situations could lessen the degree of communication apprehension experienced by these learners. It was found that group work communication apprehension was lower for both the L1 study population and the ESL study population. The following areas are recommended for further research on this topic:

- Little or no research has been conducted on educational group functionings and communication within the group.
- The role of the educator as facilitator, within the group.

- Group work as an educational tool within the OBE context.

7.7 CONCLUSION

This study indicated that L1 and ESL Grade 7 learners in English first language primary schools in the KOSH area, experienced lower levels of group work communication apprehension than in other communication apprehension contexts. The educators in these schools should be aware of this fact, and should strive to incorporate cooperative group work into their classrooms, without experiencing negative feedback. Educators should also be concerned that the learners have adequate communication skills in order to overcome anxiety that may be experienced.

It is hoped that the suggestions and recommendations made in this study will help to reduce communication apprehension in our schools, and to promote the use of group work as a teaching strategy in our classrooms. To promote critical thinking and learning for our children should be the ultimate goal of all educators.

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ANNEXTURE 1

Number of questionnaire

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General Survey of Facilitators in KOSH Schools.

Please read through the following survey and answer the questions as truthfully as possible
Please use a cross in the appropriate box.

1. Home language

1	2	3	4
English	Afrikaans	Tswana	Other

2. Gender

1	2
Male	Female

3. What teaching qualifications do you possess?

1	2	3	4	5
3 year diploma	4 year diploma	3 year degree	Higher Education Diploma	Bachelor of Education (B.Ed)

4. How many years experience do you have?

1	2	3	4
0 - 5 years	6 - 10 years	11 - 15 years	More than 15 years

5. What position do you hold at your school?

1	2	3	4
Teacher	HOD	Deputy Head	Headmaster

6. Have you ever received training on how to implement Group Work in your classroom?

1	2
Yes	No

7. Do you use Group Work in your classroom?

1	2	3
Yes	No	Sometimes

If you indicated 'Yes' or 'Sometimes' to Question 7, please answer Questions 8 - 14.
If you indicated 'No' to Question 7, please answer Questions 15 - 16.

8. How many learners comprise these groups?

3	4	5	6 or more
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9. Indicate with a cross, how many of the following Models of Group Work you use in your classroom.
Please indicate how often you use this Group Work Model.

Type of Group Work Model	Do you use Model ?	Once a week	Twice a week	Three times a week	Four times or more a week
Jigsaw 'Expert' Groups					
Think, Pair, Share Groups					
Cooperative Reading Groups					
Problem Solving Groups					
Group Reports Model					
Peer Tutoring Model					
Role Playing Model					
Team Interview Model					
Classroom Discussion Model					
Controversy Model					
Demonstration Model					
Debate					
Panel Discussion					

10. How are your Groups set up?

Heterogeneously - Mixed ability groups
Homogeneously - Same ability groups

1	2	3
Heterogeneously	Homogeneously	No set structure

11. Do you use Group roles, where each learner fulfils a specific role within the Group?

1	2	3
Yes	No	Sometimes

12. Have you ever experienced any negative feedback from using Group Work in your classroom?

1	2	3
Yes	No	Sometimes

13. If you answered 'Yes' or 'Sometimes' to the above question, indicate what negative feedback was received.

14. If you answered 'No' to Question 12, indicate what positive feedback you have had from using Group Work in your classroom.

If you answered 'No' to question 7, answer Questions 15 and 16.

15. Indicate with a cross, which of the following may be a reason that you do not use Group Work in your classroom.

Insufficient knowledge concerning Group Work		1
Number of learners in class make it impossible		2
Physical setting of the class does not lend itself to Group Work		3
Second Language Speakers have difficulty communicating in Groups		4
Other		5

16. If you have indicated 'Other' indicate what barriers to Group Work exist in your classroom.

ANNEXTURE 2

Number of questionnaire

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QUESTIONNAIRE ON COMMUNICATION

(Not your name or the name of your school will be mentioned in this investigation. Please answer the questionnaire very honestly).

SEX

Male	Female
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HOME LANGUAGE

English	Afrikaans	Tswana	Other
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Please note: For each of the statements, indicate the degree to which you agree with the statement e.g. 'I like to go to school'. If you disagree with this statement, encircle the appropriate number e.g. 2

- 5 = strongly agree
 4 = agree
 3 = undecided
 2 = disagree
 1 = strongly disagree

<u>GROUP WORK</u>	5	4	3	2	1
1. I dislike working in groups					
2. Generally, I feel comfortable while participating in group discussions					
3. I am tense and nervous while participating in group discussions					
4. I like to get involved in group discussions					
5. Engaging in group discussions makes me tense and nervous					
6. I am calm and relaxed while participating in group discussions					
<u>MEETINGS</u>	5	4	3	2	1
7. Generally, I am nervous when I have to participate in meetings					
8. Usually, I am calm and relaxed when participating in meetings					
9. I am very calm and relaxed when participating in meetings.					
10. I am afraid to express myself at meetings					
11. Communicating at meetings makes me feel uncomfortable					
12. I am relaxed when answering questions at a meeting					

<u>CONVERSATIONS</u>	5	4	3	2	1
13. While participating in a conversation with a new friend, I feel very nervous.					
14. I have no fear of speaking in a conversation	5	4	3	2	1
15. Ordinarily, I am very tense and nervous in conversation.	5	4	3	2	1
16. Ordinarily, I am calm and relaxed in conversation.	5	4	3	2	1
17. While conversing with a new friend, I am relaxed.	5	4	3	2	1
18. I am afraid to speak up in conversation.	5	4	3	2	1
<u>PUBLIC SPEAKING</u>	5	4	3	2	1
19. I have no fear of giving a speech.					
20. Certain parts of my body feel very tense and rigid while giving a speech.	5	4	3	2	1
21. I feel relaxed while giving a speech.	5	4	3	2	1
22. My thoughts become confused and jumbled when I am giving a speech.	5	4	3	2	1
23. I face the prospect of giving a speech with confidence.	5	4	3	2	1
24. While giving a speech, I get so nervous I forget the facts that I really know.	5	4	3	2	1
<u>IN THE CLASSROOM</u>	5	4	3	2	1
25. Generally, I get nervous when I have to say something in class.					
26. I like it when the teacher asks a lot of questions.	5	4	3	2	1
27. Usually, my thoughts become confused when I have to answer a question.	5	4	3	2	1
28. I am never afraid to go to class.	5	4	3	2	1
29. In class, I prefer the teacher to speak a lot so that I only have to listen.	5	4	3	2	1
30. It does not bother me if I have to answer a question in class while the principal is on a visit to the class.	5	4	3	2	1

ANNEXTURE 3

P. Box 55
Stilfontein
2550

Mr L. M. Sibanyoni
Circuit Manager
Klerksdorp District
Private Bag A23
Klerksdorp
2570

Sir

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

I hereby request permission to conduct a research on Communication Apprehension and Group Work Models at the English First Language Primary Schools in the KOSH area.

This research is being conducted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree Magister Educationis at the Graduate School of Education in the Faculty of Education at the Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education.

As Group Work Models have shown to reduce the Communication Apprehension that Second Language Speakers experience, at English First Language Schools, this study aims to determine what Group Work Models schools are employing and if Communication Apprehension causes difficulties for Second Language Speakers at these schools.

Prof. Nic Vreken, of the Faculty of Education at the Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education, is the Supervisor of this study, and if you have any queries concerning the research being conducted at your school, please feel free to contact him personally @ 018 - 2991894 (during office hours).

Your co-operation in this matter is greatly appreciated.

Yours faithfully

C. Livingston (Miss)

ANNEXTURE 4

P. Box 55
Stilfontein
2550

The principal

Sir/Madame

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

I hereby request permission to conduct a research on Communication Apprehension and Group Work Models at the English First Language Primary Schools in the KOSH area.

This research is being conducted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree Magister Educationis at the Graduate School of Education in the Faculty of Education at the Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education.

As Group Work Models have shown to reduce the Communication Apprehension that Second Language Speakers experience, at English First Language Schools, this study aims to determine what Group Work Models schools are employing and if Communication Apprehension causes difficulties for Second Language Speakers at these schools.

If permission is granted, I will be testing all the Grade 7 learners and all the educators at these schools. The Grade 7 learners will complete a Communication Apprehension Questionnaire and the educators will be asked to fill in a General Survey Questionnaire. The results will be anonymous and the school will receive feedback after completion of the research.

Prof. Nic Vreken, of the Faculty of Education at the Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education, is the Supervisor of this study, and if you have any queries concerning the research being conducted at your school, please feel free to contact him personally @ 018 - 2991894 (during office hours).

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C. Livingston (Miss)