An analysis of the teaching procedures used by ESL teachers in selected secondary schools

Ruth Jemima Mbennah

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Ruth Jemima Mbennah
B.Ed., B.A. Hons.

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Supervisor: Prof. J.L. van der Walt
Assistant supervisor: Prof. C. Dreyer

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SUMMARY

The aims of this study were to analyse the teaching-learning procedures used by ESL teachers in selected secondary schools in the Potchefstroom District and to determine the extent to which communicative procedures were being implemented.

ESL teaching-learning procedures were described in terms of Harmer's (1991) communication continuum. An observation grid for ESL teaching-learning procedures was developed and used to observe ESL teaching-learning sessions in Grade 9 classes in four schools in the district. The grid was based on a taxonomy of ESL teaching-learning procedures and activities developed from literature.

The analysis showed that the teachers used primarily ESL teaching-learning procedures that were non-communicative which, by implication, means that they focused on the presentation stage of language teaching-learning. The analysis also showed that communicative teaching-learning procedures were used in only about one-fourth of all ESL teaching-learning.

These findings indicate that, although the Education Department stipulates that ESL should be taught communicatively, communicative teaching-learning procedures are not given first priority in the teaching-learning process. Teaching ESL primarily at the introduction stage level means that learners do not acquire sufficient knowledge and skills in the use of the language. This fails the main aim of ESL teaching-learning, which is to enable the learner to communicate in English as a second language.

The limited use of communicative procedures in ESL teaching-learning in the district can be attributed to a number of possible reasons, among which are:

- Inadequate proficiency in English language and the qualifications of teachers;
- Inadequate training of ESL teachers in the use of communicative procedures;
- The use of an authoritarian teaching style, which favours non-communicative procedures;
- Poor socio-economic background and language proficiency of learners;

- A mismatch of teachers' teaching styles with learners' learning styles
- Poor facilities, such as lack of handouts and other materials necessary for implementing communicative procedures.

OPSOMMING

Die doelstellings van die studie was om die onderrigleerprosedures wat deur Engels-tweedetaalonderwysers in geselekteerde Potchefstroomse sekondêre skole gebruik word te ontleed en om vas te stel wat die omvang was van die gebruik van kommunikatiewe prosedures.

ESL (English as a Second Language) onderrigleerprosedures is beskryf in terme van Harmer (1991) se kommunikatiewe kontinuum. 'n Observasieraamwerk vir ESL onderrigleerprosedures is ontwerp en gebruik om ESL onderrigleersessies in Graad 9–klasse in vier skole in die distrik te observeer. Die raamwerk is gebaseer op 'n ESL-taksonomie en aktiwiteite wat afgelei is van die literatuur.

Die ontleding het aangetoon dat die onderwysers primêr gebruik gemaak het van ESL-onderrigleer prosedures wat nie-kommunikatief van aard was, wat by implikasie beteken dat die fokus op die aanbiedingsdeel van taalonderrigleer is. Die ontleding het ook aangetoon dat kommunikatiewe onderrigleerprosedures net in ongeveer een-kwart van die ESL taalonderrig gebruik is.

Hierdie bevindinge dui aan dat, hoewel die Departement bepaal dat ESL kommunikatief onderrig moet word, kommunikatiewe onderrigleerprosedures nie die eerste prioriteit is in die onderrigleerproses nie. Die onderrig van ESL grootliks op die inleidende stadium beteken dat leerders nie genoegkennis en vaardigheid in taalgebruik kry nie. Dit beteken natuurlik dat die hoofdoelwit van ESL nie bereik word nie, wat is om die leerder in staat te stel om in Engels as 'n tweedetaal te kommunikeer.

Die beperkte gebruik van kommunikatiewe prosedures in ESL-onderrigleer in die distrik kan toegeskryf word aan 'n aantal moontlike oorsake, wat insluit:

- Onvoldoende taalvermoë in Engels en swak kwalifikasies van onderwysers;
- Onvoldoende opleiding van ESL-onderwysers in die gebruik van kommunikatiewe prosedures;

- Die gebruik van 'n outoritêre onderrigstyl, wat aanleiding gee tot non-kommunikatiewe prosedures;
- Swak sosio-ekonomiese agtergrond en taalbevoegdheid van leerders.
- 'n Swak ooreenstemming tussen onderwysers se onderrigstyl en leerders se leerstyle;
- Swak fasiliteite, soos 'n gebrek aan volgstukke en ander materiale wat nodig is vir die implementering van kommunikatiewe metodes.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 THE PROBLEM DEFINED

Teaching procedures are among the fundamental elements in the ESL teaching-learning process. In conceptualising method in language teaching, the difference between a philosophy of language teaching at the level of theory and principles, and a set of derived procedures for teaching a language, is central (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:26). Anthony (1963) clarified this distinction in his three levels of conceptualising and organising language teaching, viz. approach, method, and technique. However, in spite of its merits such as simplicity, comprehensiveness, and clarification of the distinction as well as the relation between theoretical principles and the practices derived from them, Anthony's model does not pay attention to the nature of method itself.

Rather, as Richards and Rodgers (1986:16) propose, the elements of method are approach, design, and procedures. Whereas *approach* refers to theories about the nature of language and language learning that provide the basis for the practice and principles of language teaching, *design* refers to the particular learning aims, the syllabus, the types of learning and teaching activities, the roles of the learner and the teacher, and the role of instructional materials.

*Procedure*s, which arise from design, refer specifically to classroom behaviour. Richards and Rodgers (1986:26) state that procedures encompass the actual moment-to-moment techniques, practices, and behaviours that operate in teaching a language according to a particular method. It is the level at which one describes how a method realises its approach and design in the classroom.

The English Second Language (ESL) syllabus in South Africa suggests that ESL should be taught communicatively, in line with the Department of Education's recommendation of learner-centred approaches to ESL (De Villiers, 1997:21). The primary aim of the Communicative Approach is to encourage the learner to perform

activities and tasks in the second language (Candlin, 1983:51), whereby he becomes competent in producing what he or she knows (Kuhn & Pienaar, 1994:110). The Communicative Approach aims at enabling the learner to acquire not only grammatical competence but sociolinguistic and strategic competence as well. The teaching procedures used in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) include role play, personal expression, pair and group work, games, simulations, skits, improvisation, dramatisation, and information gap exercises. Van der Walt (1990:196) suggests that CLT requires teachers to make considerable adjustments in their attitudes and language teaching philosophy as well as in their actual teaching. In this regard, Ellis (1987) observes that the implementation of CLT in many language classrooms has been short-circuited by teachers who don't know how to adjust to the requirements of the approach.

There are indications that CLT is not being implemented in many South African schools (Malindi, 1996) and, as a result, pupils are not instructed as efficiently as they should. Teachers who do not implement CLT may do their pupils a disservice, as the level of communicative competence reached by these pupils may fall short of the desired level. The problem is reflected in the poor matriculation results in the country. Many teachers in South Africa still use audiolingual procedures in their ESL classes (Malindi, 1996). Audiolingualism is a traditional method characterised by a focus on structure and form of a language rather than meaning, and it includes procedures such as oral drilling, transformation exercises, and substitution tables (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:49). This method regards second language learning as a teacher-dominated process of habit-formation (Becker, 1991). The teacher models the target language and controls the direction and pace of learning and, therefore, the learner plays a reactive role by responding to stimuli. In view of this background, two pertinent questions arise:

- What teaching procedures do ESL teachers use in secondary schools?
- To what extent are ESL teachers in secondary schools implementing communicative procedures?

1.2 AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study is to analyse the procedures used by ESL teachers in selected high schools in teaching English language and determine the extent to which communicative procedures are implemented.

1.3 THEORETICAL STATEMENT

Although communicative teaching procedures are advocated in the South African syllabus, they are not being implemented in the teaching of English as a second language in some secondary schools.

1.4 RESEARCH METHOD

A literature survey was done, focusing on ESL teaching approaches, methods, procedures and factors affecting Black schools.

Empirical research was conducted in a form of a one-shot cross-sectional survey. Four ESL teachers teaching in Grade 9 in 4 secondary schools in the Potchefstroom District were observed and all the teaching procedures used in language classes were noted down and recorded. The observation took place for 30 minutes (periods are 35 minutes long) in each class session. Only language classes, not literature classes, were observed.

The information collected using the observation framework was analysed, and the teaching procedures used by each ESL teacher were identified and quantified in terms of frequencies and percentages.

1.5 PROGRAMME OF STUDY

Chapter 2 discusses ESL teaching-learning in terms of three levels, namely approach, design and procedure.

Chapter 3 discusses ESL teaching procedures, briefly examining the historical background of ESL teaching-learning and discussing the procedures themselves in terms of Harmer's (1991) communicative continuum. The discussion of the ESL procedures forms a basis for the observation grid used in the study (see Appendix A).

Chapter 4 discusses the factors that influence ESL teaching-learning in South Africa, with a focus on Black high schools. These factors include those related to teachers, learners, and teacher-learner styles, as well as the medium of instruction, facilities and classroom discipline.

Chapter 5 presents the method of research used in the study. This presentation of the empirical process covers the research design, subjects, instrumentation, data collection procedure, and data analysis.

Chapter 6 presents the results of the study and a discussion and interpretation of the findings.

Chapter 7 presents the conclusion of the study, the limitations of the study and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER 2

ESL TEACHING-LEARNING: APPROACH, DESIGN AND PROCEDURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

ESL teaching entails three levels, namely, approach, design and procedure (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). The aim of this study is to analyse ESL teaching procedures in a specific context. In order to provide a framework for understanding the teaching procedures, it is necessary to discuss the broader concept of procedure. Since "procedure" is linked to "approach" and "design", a discussion of these terms is also relevant.

In ESL teaching-learning, a distinction can be made between the philosophy of language teaching at the level of theory and principles, and the set of language teaching procedures derived from the theory and the principles. To clarify this difference, Anthony (1963) proposes a scheme in which he identifies three levels of conceptualisation and organisation, namely, approach, method and technique. According to Anthony (1963:63), an approach is a "set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning". This means that the main purpose of an approach is to describe the nature of the subject matter to be taught. Anthony (1963:63) refers to method as "an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon the selected approach". Thus, Anthony views method as a procedural component of language teaching. A technique is implementational and refers to that which takes place in the ESL classroom.

Anthony's model is useful in distinguishing between the different degrees of abstraction and specificity found in different language teaching proposals. However, Anthony's model fails to account for how one could realise an approach within a method, or how method relates to technique. The model also fails to give sufficient attention to the nature of method itself, saying nothing about the role of the teacher, learner and instruction materials.

In an attempt to provide a more comprehensive model for the discussion and analysis of approaches and methods, Richards and Rodgers (1986) suggest that "approach" and "method" in Anthony's model need further clarification. They point out that both these areas ought to be treated at the level of design, where aims and content are determined and the roles of the teacher, learner, and instructional materials are specified. Richards and Rodgers (1986) refer to the implementation phase (the level of technique in Anthony's model) as procedure. They explain that "a method is theoretically related to an approach, is organisationally determined by a design, and is practically realised in procedure" (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:16). In terms of this model, approach, design and procedure are successive levels of conceptualising method.

This study adopts Richards and Rodgers' (1986:16-27) model (cf. Figure 1), because it is coherent and comprehensive. This chapter presents a discussion of the elements of the model, namely:

- Approach in ESL teaching-learning, under which theories about the nature of language and language learning are discussed;
- Design in ESL teaching-learning is discussed, covering aims and objectives; selection and organisation of content; teaching-learning activities; and the role of teacher, learner and instructional materials; and
- Procedure in ESL teaching-learning.

Method		
Approach	**Design**	**Procedure**
• *A theory of the nature of language* - an account of the nature of language proficiency - an account of the basic units of language structure • *A theory of the nature of language learning* - an account of the psycholinguistic and cognitive processes involved in language learning - an account of the conditions that allow for successful use of these processes	• *The general and specific aims of the method* • *A syllabus model* - criteria for the selection and organisation of linguistic and subject-matter content • *Types of learning and teaching activities* - kinds of tasks and practice activities to be employed in the classroom and in the materials • *Learner roles* - types of learning tasks set for learners - degree of control learners have over the content of learning - patterns of learner groupings recommended/implied - degree to which learners influence learning of others - the view of the learner as a processor, performer, initiator, problem solver • *Teacher roles* - types of functions teachers fulfil - degree of teacher influence over learning - degree to which the teacher determines the content of learning - types of interaction between teachers and learners • *The role of instructional*	• *Classroom techniques, practices, and behaviours observed when the method is used* - resources in terms of time, space, and equipment used by the teacher - interactional patterns observed in lessons - tactics and strategies used by teachers and learners when the method is being used

	materials - primary function of materials - the form materials take, for example, textbooks and audio-visual - relation of materials to other input -assumptions made about teachers and learners	

Figure 1: Summary of elements and sub-elements that constitute a method (adapted from Richards & Rodgers, 1986:29).

2.2 APPROACH IN ESL TEACHING-LEARNING

The first level of conceptualising method is approach. In Richards and Rodgers' (1986) model, approach has to do with theories about the nature of language and language learning that serve as the source of principles and practice in language teaching. Becker (1991:108) explains that, whereas a theory of the nature of language is an account of the nature of language proficiency and the basic units of language structure, a theory of the nature of language learning is an account of the psycholinguistic and cognitive processes involved in language learning as well as the conditions that allow for successful use of these processes. These two aspects of approach are examined in the following sections.

2.2.1 Theory of the nature of language

Theory of the nature of language concerns the various viewpoints about the essential nature of language. Richards and Rodgers (1986) propose a theory of the nature of language that focuses on language as proficiency and language as consisting of a basic structure (cf. Figure 1. Within this framework, Richards and Rodgers (1986:16) posit that language can be viewed from structural, functional and interactional perspectives. They contend that each of these perspectives of the nature of language can provide the axioms and theoretical framework that might motivate a particular teaching method (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:17).

From the structural view, which is the most traditional of the three, language is regarded as a system of structurally related elements for the coding of meaning. The target of language learning is seen to be the mastery of the elements of this system, which are generally defined in terms of phonological units (e.g. phonemes), grammatical units (e.g. clauses, phrases, sentences), grammatical operations (e.g. adding, shifting, joining, or transforming elements), and lexical items (e.g. function words, structure words).

From the functional view, language is regarded as a vehicle for the expression of functional meaning. It "emphasises the systematic and communicative dimensions rather than merely the grammatical characteristics of language, and leads to a specification and organisation of language content by categories of meaning and function rather than just elements of structure and grammar" (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:17).

From the interactional view, language is regarded as a vehicle for the realisation of interpersonal relations and for the performance of social transactions between individuals. Therefore, language is a tool for creating and maintaining social relations. Within this view, the focus is on the patterns of moves, acts, negotiations and interactions found in conversational exchanges and, therefore, the content of language teaching would be specified and organised along patterns of exchange and interaction.

2.2.2 Theory of the nature of language learning

Theory of the nature of language learning has to do with the various conceptions about how people learn languages. A number of propositions about the nature of language learning have been made, each of which contributes to an understanding of the language learning phenomenon. These include behaviourist and cognitivist theories (Bell, 1981:23), the interactionist theory (Long, 1987; Lightbown & Spada, 1993:30; Ellis, 1994:27), and the creative construction theory (Krashen, 1981).

According to Bell (1981:23), the behaviourist theory posits that language can be learned through stimulus and response. The major characteristics of this theory originate from human psychology, whereby it is said that human learning occurs through observation, and acquisition and reinforcement of habits.

The cognitivist theory posits that language learning takes place through thinking and production of speech (Bell, 1981). This implies that language can best be explained as a process of problem-solving in which the learner is engaged. The cognitivist theory relies on a mentalistic view of human learning. Cognitivists believe that it is the work of the mind to process, store and retrieve knowledge in which the language learner is interested. The view is that it is "better to know and be unable to say, than to say without understanding" (Bell, 1981:24).

The interactionist theory of language learning stresses the importance of modified language input. This theory proposes that learners acquire a second language by learning how to communicate. According to De Villiers (1997:12), teaching models that subscribe to the interactionist theory provide the opportunity for the interactant to manipulate and adapt language to suit the level of the learner. This is because the learner gains new knowledge through the negotiation of meaning.

Similar to the cognitivist view, the creative construction theory adopts the view that internal processing strategies operate on language input without any direct dependence on the learner actually producing the language (De Villiers, 1997:15). Production of

language here is regarded as an outcome of the learning process, rather than the cause of, or a step in, learning.

According to Richards and Rodgers (1986:18), a learning theory underlying an approach or method responds to two questions: "What are the psycholinguistic and cognitive process involved in language learning?" and "What are the conditions that need to be met in order for these learning processes to be activated?" The first question focuses on process-oriented theories, while the second question focuses on condition-oriented theories. Learning theories that are associated with a method at the level of approach might emphasise one or both of these questions. Process-oriented theories build on learning processes such as habit formation, induction, inferencing, hypothesis testing, and generalisation. Condition-oriented theories emphasise the nature of the human and physical context in which language learning takes place.

Richards and Rodgers (1986) state that Krashen's (1981) theory is an example of a learning theory on which a method has been based. Krashen (1981:1-2) distinguishes between acquisition and learning. Whereas acquisition refers to the natural assimilation of language rules through using language for communication, learning refers to the formal study of language rules and in a conscious process. According to Krashen (1981:2), learning is available only as a "monitor". The monitor is the repository of conscious grammatical knowledge about a language that is learned through formal instruction and that is called upon in the editing of utterances produced through the acquired system. Krashen suggests that some conditions might be necessary for the process of "acquisition" to take place. He describes these conditions in terms of the type of "input" the learner receives. Input must be comprehensible, slightly above the learner's present level of competence, interesting or relevant, not grammatically sequenced, in sufficient quantity, and experienced in low-anxiety contexts.

Teachers develop their own teaching strategies informed by a particular view of language and a particular theory of learning. They may also constantly revise, vary, and modify those teaching-learning strategies on the basis of the performance of the learners and their reactions to instructional practice. A group of teachers holding

similar beliefs about language and language learning may each implement these principles in different ways.

Approach does not specify strategies which should be used in the teaching-learning process and theory does not dictate a particular set of teaching techniques and activities. What links theory with practice, or approach with strategies, is design.

2.3 DESIGN IN ESL TEACHING-LEARNING

Design in ESL teaching-learning is the level of method analysis in which the aims and objectives, selection and organisation of content, types of learning tasks and teaching activities, and the respective roles of teacher, learner and instructional materials are considered (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:20). Viewed in this way, "design" is similar in many ways to what is often called syllabus design (cf. Warwick, 1976; Widdowson, 1984). Widdowson (1984:26) describes design as a framework within which activities could be carried out.

Design would, therefore, involve and integrate as many aspects of language teaching-learning as possible in order to enhance the process of ESL teaching-learning.

2.3.1 Aims and objectives

Aims and objectives are significant in any planning as they guide classroom activities and determine the success of teaching (Nicholls & Nicholls, 1978:23; Richards & Rodgers, 1986). They are determined after the situation analysis has been interpreted. The situation analysis will indicate suitable aims and objectives, which serve as a basis for selecting content and instructional materials (Nicholls & Nicholls, 1978:36).

Aims are to be reached at the end of a certain time span and are focused on long-term results (Dippenaar, 1993:11). Van der Walt and Combrink (1988:46-54) distinguish between ultimate aims, which indicate the long-term learning outcomes to be reached after following a course, and general aims, from which objectives are derived.

De Villiers (1997:258) describes aims as targets that indicate the purposes for which learners use English. This implies that aims should state the purposes of teaching and learning. In ESL teaching-learning aims can be stated as follows:

The learner should use English to:

- acquire, develop and apply knowledge;
- think and communicate thoughts and feelings;
- respond and give expression to experience (De Villiers, 1997:259).

Objectives are more precise than aims and they are focused on immediate results (Dippenaar, 1993:11). The teacher has to know what he wants to accomplish by teaching a certain piece of work. Objectives are therefore concerned with short-term expected learning outcomes of an instructional cycle. These learning outcomes should be measurable in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes at different stages of the learning process (De Villiers, 1997:90). Johnson (1989:3) asserts that outcomes should describe what learners should do and how they should master the process.

The ideal way to state objectives is to suggest what the learner should be able to do as a result of the teaching-learning process. Steyn (1982:52) proposes the following criteria for the setting of objectives:

- Intention of the teacher is to be stated clearly;
- Prerequisites for reaching the objectives are to be specified, so that learners know which sources they may use or which information will be given to them as well as what would be expected from the learners after a certain time; and
- Minimum requirements that the learners are to reach are set and the time limits within which these requirements have to be reached.

Everything taught in class has to contribute to a specified desired teaching-learning end. Nunan (1988:68) emphasises that aims and objectives enable the teacher to attend to "important instructional outcomes by exposing the trivial which is so often lurking below the high-flown".

In South Africa, Outcomes Based Education (OBE) has been adopted. In OBE, which is explained in Curriculum 2005 (cf. Cockburn, 1997:6), learners are encouraged to become active in learning not only at school but throughout their lives. Critical thinking is encouraged at all times in terms of reasoning, consideration and reflection, and action. The OBE system recognises that the purpose of teaching is to instruct and inform the learners in such a way that at the end of the course the learners have a thorough understanding of the fundamental elements of the learning programme and the way that learning impacts on related issues. In this context, the learner is at the centre of the teaching-learning process and the teacher is the facilitator. The learning programmes are seen as guides, and learners are responsible for their own learning and progress (Cockburn, 1997:6). The overall outcome expected is that "the learner learns things that matter in the context of building a meaningful and productive life in contemporary society, and that the values that are instilled in the education process continue to hold sway throughout the life of that individual" (Cockburn, 1997:7).

In OBE the learners know what the purpose of their learning is, and that they will have to demonstrate their competence within a particular learning area. Educators are given the means for more precise planning of their teaching. The OBE curriculum also offers educators greater choice about the content, methods and organisational procedures which they can use to achieve their desired outcomes. Educators can choose content and methods appropriate to the contexts and abilities of their learners, rather than being forced to use centrally determined syllabi (Department of Education, 1997:7). The new curriculum does not provide detail about content. Instead, each learning area has specific outcomes that learners should achieve (Department of Education, 1997:26).

A number of implications of OBE for ESL teaching-learning can be identified:

- Learners need opportunities to practise the classroom activities in order to develop the required abilities. To do this, they need to be involved in learning activities that engage their critical thinking and sharpen and extend their problem-solving abilities. The educators, therefore, have to set tasks that afford the learners such opportunities.

- Teaching-learning should be directed at progress towards achieving the specified outcomes, which educators and learners will monitor by accumulating evidence of increasing competence at different levels of complexity (rather than saying outcomes have been fully achieved).

- Assessment criteria, performance indicators and range statements provide a context for assessing and for appropriate teaching (Department of Education, 1997:28). Learners are helped to acquire and demonstrate abilities in different contexts as well as in an integrated way.

- Learners can be told that making mistakes is part of learning. They should realise that good learning often comes from trying things out, reflecting on this performance, trying again in a slightly different way, and reflecting again.

- The kind of learning advocated by the outcomes-based approach is one of developing competence as opposed to memorising information. This takes time and will take different learners different amounts of time.

2.3.2 Selection and organisation of content

Richards and Rodgers (1986:20) regard design as the choice and organisation of content and appropriate corresponding methods of teaching a particular target language. In the teaching process, the ESL teacher makes decisions about what to talk about (subject matter) and how to talk about it (linguistic matter). Content choice and organisation involve the principles of selection that ultimately shape the structure of the particular course and the instructional materials that are to be used. Dippenaar (1993:28) refers to selection of content as a choice of the most appropriate content for a specific subject, target group and specific teaching-learning situation.

Content selection is influenced by a number of factors. Dippenaar (1993:30) notes that it is influenced by the approach of the teacher, the situation analysis and the functionality of the content to the aims and objectives of the course.

Selection of content is also influenced by the teacher's view on the content as a whole. Some teachers believe that content should have intrinsic value and that it should be learned for its own sake. Other teachers believe that content should be taught for its usefulness, and yet others see content merely as the vehicle for the development of intellectual abilities and skills (Nicholls & Nicholls, 1978:48). The teacher uses his own initiative and his interpretation of the situation analysis and aims to select his content (cf. Cook, 1983:229).

The selection of content is guided by the syllabus and guidelines which are provided by the specific Department of Education. From the selection of content the teacher is able to draw up a scheme of work, which forms the basis for planning lessons and selecting instructional materials.

Content is not only selected; it is also organised. Organisation of content is referred to as "putting the content materials into some sort of order of succession" (Taba, 1962:292). The aims of organising content, which is a universal requirement in teaching (Nunan, 1988:55), are to select content, to assign learners to different class groupings and modify the syllabus and methodology. The organisation of content also aids the teacher to differentiate between learners of different abilities and to organise his scheme of work accordingly (Dippenaar, 1993:31).

2.3.3 Types of ESL teaching-learning activities

ESL teaching-learning entails a variety of classroom activities during the instruction process. The aims and objectives of a method, whether defined primarily in terms of product or process, are attained through the teaching-learning process. This is where different tasks and practice activities within a particular procedure are employed in the classroom and in materials (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:22). Obviously, teaching activities which focus on grammatical accuracy would differ from those that focus on communicative skills. Therefore, teaching activities which focus on the development of specific psycholinguistic processes in language learning would differ from those directed toward mastery of particular features of grammar. For example, non-communicative teaching-learning activities often make use of activities such as pattern

practice, while communicative teaching-learning activities often make use of tasks that involve information gaps and information transfer.

Differences in activity types in designs could also involve different arrangements and groupings of learners. A design that stresses oral chorus drilling, for instance, may require different groupings of learners in the classroom from a method that uses problem-solving or information-exchange activities. Activity types thus include the primary categories of learning and teaching activity the design advocates, such as responding to commands, group problem-solving, information-exchange activities, improvisations, question-and-answer and drills.

Besides the different assumptions that ESL teaching-learning designs make about learning processes and learning activities, designs also designate different roles and functions to teachers, learners, and instructional materials (Richards & Rodgers, 1986).

2.3.4 Roles of the teacher, learner, and instructional materials

At the level of design, the roles of teachers are related, ultimately, to both the assumptions about language teaching and language learning. Some designs are totally dependent on the teacher as a source of knowledge and direction, while others limit the teacher's initiative and build instructional content and direction into texts or lesson plans (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:23). This means that both teacher and learner roles define the type of interaction characteristics of classrooms in which a particular design is employed.

Other designs position the teacher as a catalyst, consultant, guide and model for learning. In either case, a number of issues pertain to the ESL teacher's roles. These issues include the types of functions the teacher is expected to fulfil, whether that of practice director, counsellor, or model; the degree of control the teacher is to have over how learning takes place; the degree to which the teacher is to be responsible for determining the content of what is taught; and the interactional patterns that develop between teachers and learners.

Designs depend typically on teacher roles and their realisations. In traditional methods, such as the audiolingual method, the teacher is the primary source of language and language learning. In non-traditional methods, such as Communicative Language Teaching, the role of the teacher is seen in terms of specific patterns of interaction between the teacher and learners in the classroom. These methods are designed to shift the responsibility for learning gradually from the teacher to the learner.

The role of the learner pertains to the contribution he makes in the ESL classroom. Any design reflects responses to questions concerning learners' contribution to the learning processes. This can be seen in the type of activities learners carry out, the degree of control learners have over the content of learning, the patterns of learner groupings adopted, the degree to which learners influence the learning of others, and the view of the learner as processor, performer, initiator and problem solver (Richards, 1985:22).

In traditional methods, such as the audiolingual method, the ESL learner is regarded as a stimulus-response mechanism whose learning is a direct result of repetitive practice. In newer methodologies such as Communicative Language Teaching, the primary attention is on the learner's role and variation among learners. In these methodologies, learners plan their own learning programme and thus ultimately assume responsibility for what they do in the classroom (Johnson & Paulston, 1976). Furthermore, in Communicative Language Teaching learners learn by interacting with one another while monitoring and evaluating their own progress. Learners not only learn from the teacher and from other teaching sources, but they also tutor one another.

The role of instructional materials within the instruction system depends on the aims, objectives, content, learning activities and the roles of teachers and learners. Thus the role of instructional materials is to specify the content of the subject matter, within a syllabus. These instructional materials also indicate the intensity of the coverage of the syllabus items, allocating the amount of time, attention, and tasks required. Instructional materials define or imply the day-to-day learning objectives that constitute the goals of the syllabus (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:25).

Richards and Rodgers (1986:25) state that "materials designed on the assumption that learning is initiated and monitored by the teacher must meet quite different requirements from those designed for learner self-instruction or for peer tutoring". The instructional materials used in ESL teaching-learning are to be used in a specific design. There are some materials which assume that even a poor, untrained teacher, with imperfect control of the target language, could teach the language, if he used those materials. Some materials require specifically trained teachers with near-native competence in the target language. Others are designed to replace the teacher, so that learning can take place independently. Still other materials dictate various interactional patterns in the classroom, and others inhibit classroom interaction or are simply noncommittal about teacher-learner and learner-learner interactions.

The role of instructional materials within an instructional system should reflect decisions concerning the primary goal of the materials, whether it is to present content, practise content or to facilitate communication between learners, or whether it is to enable learners to practise content without the teacher's help. Instructional materials include any form of materials, such as textbooks, audiovisuals, and computer software.

The purposes of instructional materials can be recognised in terms of whether they serve as the major source of input or only as a minor component of it, or in terms of the abilities of teachers - their competence in the language or degree of training and experience. A particular design for an instructional system could imply a particular set of roles of teachers, learners, and instructional materials in supporting the syllabus. The main purposes of instructional materials are to allow learners to progress at their own rates (Ellis, 1985), allow for different styles of learning to develop, provide opportunities for independent study and use, and provide opportunities for self-evaluation and progress in learning.

2.4 PROCEDURE IN ESL TEACHING-LEARNING

Procedure is the last level of conceptualisation and organisation within a design. This level encompasses the actual moment-to-moment techniques, practices, and behaviours that operate in teaching-learning a language according to a particular design (Richards, 1985; Richards & Rodgers, 1986). At the procedural level a design realises its approach in classroom behaviour. Morrow (1981:59) views a design as a set of procedures which involves the use of specific techniques to ensure their success. In terms of the language course, it is possible for one to view a set of procedures and the classroom practices and techniques that have to be implemented.

Different philosophies at the level of procedure are reflected both in the use of different kinds of activities and in different uses of particular activity types. For example, interactive games are often used in non-communicative language teaching-learning for motivating and providing a change of pace from pattern-practice drills. In Communicative Language Teaching, the same games might be used to introduce or provide practice for particular types of interactive exchanges.

Procedures specify how teaching-learning tasks and activities are integrated into lessons and used as the basis for ESL teaching and learning. Richards and Rodgers (1986:26) identify three dimensions to a method at the level of procedure: the use of teaching activities such as drills and information-gap activities in order to present the new language and to clarify and demonstrate non-communicative, communicative, or other aspects of the target language; the ways in which particular teaching activities are used for practising language; and the techniques used in giving feedback to learners concerning the form or content of their utterances or sentences.

Essentially, procedure focuses on the way method handles the presentation, the practice, and the feedback phases of teaching (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:26). Thus, procedure has to do with the types of teaching and learning techniques (Johnson & Morrow, 1981:59); the type of exercises and practice activities; the resources in terms of time, space, and equipment required to implement recommended practices; interactional patterns observed in lessons; and tactics and strategies used by teachers

and learners during the instructional process when the method is being used (Richards, 1985).

2.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter involved a discussion of Richards and Rodgers' (1986) model which proposes "approach", "design", and "procedure" as the levels of analysing "method" in ESL teaching-learning. The three levels are dependent upon each other. This model provides a framework for understanding the nature of language and language learning. "Approach" involves theories of language and language learning, "design" is developed within an approach and it entails setting of aims and objectives of a course, specifying the content as well as defining the teaching-learning activities and roles of teacher, learner and instructional materials. The design is implemented through "procedures", which entail classroom activities, techniques and practices.

This discussion lays a foundation for analysing teaching procedures, which is the focus of the next chapter.

CHAPTER 3

PROCEDURES IN ESL TEACHING-LEARNING

3.1 INTRODUCTION

ESL teaching-learning employs a range of teaching procedures. As this study seeks to analyse teaching procedures in a specific context in the Potchefstroom District, this chapter discusses the third level of ESL teaching-learning, namely ESL teaching-learning procedures. It was pointed out earlier (cf. 2.4) that teaching-learning procedures have to do with how the teaching-learning tasks and activities are integrated into lessons and used as the basis for ESL teaching and learning.

The aims of this chapter are to:

- present a brief overview of the history of ESL teaching-learning procedures in order to provide a context for the discussion of teaching-learning procedures;
- discuss Harmer's (1991) communication continuum, in order to identify the teaching-learning procedures at the two ends of the continuum; and
- discuss teaching-learning procedures in terms of the activities and roles of teacher, learner and instruction materials, in order to be able to develop a grid for observing these procedures and activities.

3.2 ESL TEACHING-LEARNING PROCEDURES: AN HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

Various ESL teaching-learning procedures have their origins in the sixteenth century when Latin was the dominant medium of spoken and written communication in education, commerce, religion and government. During this time children entered

grammar school and were given a rigorous introduction to Latin grammar, which was taught through explaining the grammar rules, translation and practice in writing simple sentences. Learners were also introduced to an advanced study of grammar and rhetoric. Several ESL teaching-learning methods have emerged during the past four centuries, such as the following:

3.2.1 Grammar-Translation Method

From the teaching of Latin came the Grammar-Translation Method (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:3). Richards and Rodgers (1986:3-4) mention seven principal characteristics of the Grammar-Translation Method, from which the procedures of this method can be deduced:

- Language was studied through a detailed analysis of its grammar rules, which were then applied to translate sentences and texts into and out of the target language.
- Reading and writing were the major focus, almost to the exclusion of any systematic attention to speaking and listening.
- The selection of vocabulary was based solely on the reading texts used, and words were taught through bilingual word lists, dictionary study, and memorisation. In a grammar-translation text, grammar rules were presented and illustrated, vocabulary items were presented with their translation equivalents, and translation exercises were prescribed.
- The sentence was the basic unit of language teaching and language practice; hence much of the lesson was devoted to translating sentences into and out of the target language.
- Emphasis was placed on accuracy and learners were expected to attain high standards in translation.

- Grammar was taught by presentation and study of grammar rules, which were then practised through translation exercises. This was done in a systematic and organised way, following a syllabus.

- The learner's native language was the medium of instruction. It was used to explain new items and to enable comparisons to be made between the target language and the learner's native language.

From these characteristics of the Grammar-Translation Method, it can be deduced that the procedures used in this method were translation, reading and writing. Becker (1991:109) indicates that the Grammar-Translation Method dominated foreign language teaching since the 1840s and it is still widely used with slight modifications, particularly where there is little need for a speaking knowledge of the language or where a study of literature in that language is the primary focus.

3.2.2 Direct Method

The Direct Method emerged on the foundation of the natural language learning principles as developed by Franke (1884). The natural language learning principles were based on the assumption that a second language could be taught without translation or use of the learner's native language if meaning could be conveyed directly through demonstration and action. Another assumption of the natural language learning principles was that a language could best be taught by using it actively in the classroom, rather than using analytical procedures that focused on explanation of grammar rules in classroom teaching (Franke, 1884). The Direct Method used the following principles and procedures (cf. Richards & Rodgers, 1986:9-10):

- Classroom instruction was conducted exclusively in the target language.

- Only everyday vocabulary and sentences were taught.

- Oral communication skills were built up in carefully-graded progression organised around question-and-answer exchanges between the teacher and the learners in small, intensive classes.

- Grammar was taught inductively.
- New teaching points were introduced orally.
- Concrete vocabulary was taught through demonstration, objects, and pictures; abstract vocabulary was taught by association of ideas.
- Both speech and listening comprehension were taught.
- Correct pronunciation and grammar were emphasised.

Although the Direct Method procedures were popular (Becker, 1991), teachers encountered many problems as they went to great lengths to avoid using the learners' native language. Subsequent developments led to the British approach to teaching English as a foreign language and the emergence of the Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching between the 1930s and the 1960s (Becker, 1991:112).

3.2.3 Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching

The Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching was developed from the 1930s by British applied linguists (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:33). This was an approach to methodology that involved systematic principles of selection, gradation and presentation. Whereas the principles of selection entailed procedures by which lexical and grammatical content were chosen, the principles of gradation constituted procedures by which the organisation and sequencing of content were determined. The presentation principles, on the other hand, consisted of techniques used for presentation and practice in a course (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:33). The Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching adopted an inductive approach to the teaching of grammar (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:36). The meaning of words or structures was not given through explanation in either the native tongue or the target language but was to be induced from the way the form was used in a situation.

Following the three sets of principles of procedures, different teaching procedures and activities were used in Oral Situational Language Teaching. These procedures varied

according to the level of the class, but procedures at any level aimed to move from controlled to free practice.

Guided oral exercise procedures consisted of sentence pattern activities. The aim was to move from oral to the use of sentence patterns and their automatic use in speech, reading and writing (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:39). The main focus of these activities was on oral practice of sentence structures and pronunciation, presentation of new structures or vocabulary and reading of material on the new structure (cf. Pittman, 1963:173). The procedures focused on the introduction of, and practice in, the new language situationally, as all these activities related to situations (Pittman, 1963:179).

Drills entailed repetition and imitation and these were done in chorus or individually. The teacher would give the learners a model and ask them to repeat it. During the repetition and imitation activities, the teacher would isolate sounds, words or groups of words which caused trouble before placing them in context. In substitution drilling, the teacher used cue words, pictures, numbers and names to get individual learners to mix the examples of the new patterns. In question-answer drilling, the teacher would appoint one learner to ask a question and appoint another learner to answer it until most learners in the class had practised asking and answering the new question form (Davies *et al.*, 1975:6-7).

3.2.4 Audiolingual Method

Significant developments in ESL teaching-learning procedures also took place in the USA. After World War II linguists in America became increasingly involved in the teaching of English as a foreign language. This led to the emergence of the American approach to ESL which by the mid-1950s had become Audiolingualism (Becker, 1991:114). The theory of language teaching-learning underlying this method was derived from structural linguistics. "The important tenet of structural linguistics was that the primary medium of language is oral: Speech is language" (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:49). Brooks (1964) argued that, since many languages had a written form (and people learned to speak before they learned to read or write), language was primarily what was spoken and secondarily what was written.

Audiolingualism has been used in the ESL teaching-learning process since the 1950s. Audiolingualism is an oral approach (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:57) and, as such, it involves oral instruction procedures. Oral instruction procedures focus on immediate and accurate speech, with little provision for grammatical explanation. Underpinning Audiolingual teaching-learning procedures is the view that foreign language learning is a process of habit-formation and verbal behaviour is an automatic production and comprehension of utterances (Richard & Rodgers, 1986:51).

3.2.5 Communicative Language Teaching

In the 1960s there was yet another reaction against existing methods. In particular, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) was developed as a result of a reaction to the Situational Language Teaching (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:64). The procedures underlying CLT are characterised by communicative activities, which involve communicative language practice by relating language forms to meanings (Littlewood, 1981:8).

CLT focuses on the question "how do people learn languages?", rather than "what is language?" (Johnson, 1985:98). CLT aims to produce a learner with both general knowledge and ability about a language (grammar) and knowledge of and ability to use that particular language (application). Whereas ability in grammar refers to the knowledge of the appropriateness of an utterance in a given situation, communicative competence refers to the ability to make an utterance. Communicative competence implies the ability to negotiate meaning and to create coherent discourse and possession of interactional skills (Van der Walt, 1984:51).

Littlewood (1981:6) identifies four domains that make up a person's communicative competence. These domains include the learner's degree of linguistic competence; the learner's awareness of the communicative function; the learner's linguistic skills for developing strategies for successful communication; and the learner's understanding of the social meaning of language forms. Thus, in CLT, the learner has an opportunity to exercise the language skills when the communication process takes place in the language classroom.

Within the theoretical premise of CLT, communicative competence includes grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence (Cronje, 1993:12). Grammatical competence includes knowledge of lexical items and rules of morphology, syntax, sentence, grammar-semantics and phonology. Grammatical competence means that the learners are able to express themselves accurately. Sociolinguistic competence consists of knowledge of sets of rules - sociolinguistic rules of language use and rules of discourse - and the ability to interpret utterances for social meaning. Strategic competence is made up of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that are used to compensate for break-downs in communication. These strategies entail paraphrasing grammatical forms that one has not mastered.

Achieving these three competencies means that the learner habitually communicates in a language correctly, naturally and appropriately. As Wilkins (1976:3) states, "the ultimate aim is to strive towards the flexibility and creativity of the native speaker".

Among the most important characteristics of CLT are its being learner-centred and experience-based. By implication, these characteristics require the teacher to develop materials on the basis of the particular needs manifested by the class. However, Van der Walt (1988) observes that to focus on the learner's needs is not a simple matter because learners' needs always vary. In this regard, language needs should be established in terms of the socio-cultural context, which includes learners' behaviour and beliefs, the objects of linguistic discussion and word choice (Cronje, 1993:14). Van der Walt (1988:7) also suggests that learners and the teacher have to agree on what is "useful" in their own context. Such an agreement would enable the teacher to aim for maximum efficiency and economy in his learners' learning which, in turn, would enable learners to become engaged in a large proportion of situations which bear as direct a resemblance as possible to natural language situations (cf. Littlewood, 1981:63).

CLT is also characterised by a focus on meaning. Stern (1983:191) regards the intuitive grasp of social and cultural rules and meanings that are carried by any

utterance as essential for the learner. Littlewood (1984:70) asserts that success in communication is a matter of effectively sending and receiving messages.

The functional-notional content model, equivalent of Wilkins' (1976) notional syllabus, is another major characteristic of CLT. This model specifies grammatical categories such as frequency, motion and location and communicative function categories such as requests, denials, offers and complaints. The model, however, was criticised by British applied linguists as merely replacing one kind of list (for example, a list of grammar items) with another list (for example, of notions and functions).

CLT creates a context which supports learning, for it provides opportunities for positive personal relationships to develop among learners and between learners and teacher. These relationships help to humanise the classroom and create an environment that supports the learner in his efforts to learn.

3.3 ESL TEACHING-LEARNING PROCEDURES

According to Brumfit (1984:51), ESL teaching-learning procedures focus on accuracy and fluency of the learner. Brumfit (1984:52) refers to "accuracy" as the focus by the user on formal factors or issues of appropriateness. This means that accuracy is concerned with the formal teaching of language. Learners are taught grammatical and functional forms by means of dialogues, drills, and directed role play (Van der Walt, 1998:41). "Fluency" refers to natural language use (Brumfit, 1984:56) which involves free communication (Van der Walt, 1998:41). In terms of fluency, the learner is evaluated at the communicative task level to determine whether he can communicate successfully - producing or responding to a message - even though he makes mistakes. Therefore, at the fluency level, ESL teaching-learning focuses on meaning rather than form. When both accuracy and fluency are included in ESL teaching-learning, the result is what Harmer (1991:49) calls the communication continuum. Therefore, Harmer's (1991:49) model provides an appropriate framework for analysing ESL teaching-learning procedures and activities.

3.3.1 The communication continuum

Harmer (1991:49) posits that all ESL teaching-learning procedures can be placed along a continuum, with non-communicative activities at the one end and communicative activities at the other end.

Harmer (1991:46) observes that communication between humans is extremely complex and ever-changing and makes certain generalisations about communication variables that are significant to the teaching-learning situation. People engage in communication because they want to say something to each other, they have some communicative purpose and, from their language store, they select and use the forms of expression they consider to be appropriate for the particular situation. Harmer (1991:47) also makes generalisations about the listener, who is regarded as an integral part of effective communication. He says that listeners are motivated to listen to what is being said, they are interested in the communicative purpose of what is being said, and they process a variety of grammar and vocabulary in order to understand what is being said.

From these generalisations about the nature of communication, Harmer (1991:49) obtains the following characteristics of communicative activities:

- Learners are motivated to do them.
- Learners usually have some kind of communicative purpose, and their attention is centred on the content of what is being said or written and not the language form that is being used.
- Learners usually deal with a variety of language, either receptively or productively.
- While learners are engaged in the communicative activity, the teacher usually does not intervene, for example, by telling them that they are making mistakes, insisting on accuracy, or asking them to repeat aspects of the activity.

- The teacher may participate in the activities, while also watching and listening in order to be able to give feedback.

- Learners are usually not required to use only certain language structures/forms and are not restricted in what to say or how to say it.

Activities with these characteristics form one end of a continuum. At the other end of the continuum, the objective is accuracy and the emphasis is on the form of the language rather than on the content. Also, the teacher may intervene at any time during the activity and the learners are given materials specially designed to focus on a restricted amount and type of language. This is the non-communicative end of the continuum.

Harmer (1991) suggests three stages of ESL teaching-learning, namely presentation, practice and communicative activities.

The presentation stage usually falls at the "non-communicative" end of the communication continuum (Harmer, 1991:50). This stage usually consists of the teaching-learning of linguistic structures (grammar) and words (the lexicon). According to Yalden (1987:19), the items are sequenced to represent distinct levels of language knowledge to be reached by the learners, for example, beginning, intermediate or advanced levels. In the presentation stage the teacher usually makes use of controlled techniques, asking learners to repeat and perform drills, and insists on accuracy, correcting where learners make mistakes. The drilling is usually abandoned as soon as the learners assimilate the facts about the new language and are able to produce the language for the first time. The teacher usually shows how the new language is formed and how the grammar works by explaining it in detail, using grammatical terminology and giving a mini-lecture on the subject (Harmer, 1991:58).

The practice stage consists of activities which fall somewhere between the two extremes of the communicative continuum. The purpose of these activities is to give the learners practice in specific items or areas of language (Harmer, 1991:92). Harmer

(1991:40) divides these activities into those which give the learners language input and those which encourage the learners to produce language output.

When language learning takes place, learners "receive" the language as it is being "put into" them (Harmer, 1991:40). However, this exposure of learners to language input is not sufficient and, therefore, learners need to be provided with opportunities to activate the knowledge of language they receive. Language production allows the learners to rehearse language use in classroom conditions whilst receiving feedback from the teacher, from other learners and from themselves. From the feedback, the learners can (and do) adjust their perceptions of the language input they receive.

During the practice stage the teacher may intervene slightly to help guide the learners and to point out inaccuracies. From the intervention, the learners may get more information about the language.

The communicative activities stage exhibits the characteristics at the communicative end of the continuum. The activities which take place in this stage help the learners to do their best in using the language as individuals, arriving at some degree of language autonomy (Harmer, 1991:51). Because the teacher usually does not intervene when the learners perform the activities, the learners progress from controlled language use to free language use. When communicative activities take place in the language classroom the teacher usually listens to each communicative activity and notes whether learners cope with it or not. From the results of the activity, the teacher may design a subsequent class in which the language the learners could not use hitherto is emphasised. In this way, both the teacher and the learner are able to see at any time whether there is a natural progress from the presentation stage to the communicative activity.

The communicative continuum is summarised in Figure 2.

Non-communicative activities	Communicative activities
• No communicative desire	• desire to communicate
• No communicative purpose	• communicative purpose
• form not content	• content not form
• one language item	• variety of language
• teacher intervention	• no teacher intervention
• materials control	• no materials control

Figure 2: The communication continuum (adapted from Harmer, 1991:50).

3.3.1.1 Teaching-learning procedures at the non-communicative end of the continuum

There are several teaching-learning procedures and activities which can be placed at the non-communicative end of the continuum in ESL teaching-learning. These procedures are the following:

- Controlled language drills - usually characterised by repetition, memorisation, imitation, chorus response, substitution and response activities;
- Formal instruction - usually characterised by learning rules and fill-in exercises;
- Guided oral exercises - usually characterised by oral reading, oral practice, and chorus response activities; and
- Dictation - usually characterised by pronunciation practice, spelling practice, vocabulary learning and editing activities.

3.3.1.1.1 Controlled language-drill procedures

Controlled language drills are characterised by repetition or imitation activities. Both repetition and imitation are appropriate presentation techniques for memorising a new structure, but for the purpose of developing linguistic competence "repeating the same way does not teach the pattern; it merely teaches the particular sentence" (Lado, 1958:xv). Structures could be cued by pictures, oral substitutions, gestures, or by other means. The teacher, therefore, has to come up with ways and means of making learners interested in saying and listening to sentences said over and over with slight variations and modifications (Dacanay & Bowen, 1963:102).

The drills and exercises "are repetitions with understanding to internalize new structures and to integrate them with the growing body of previously learned material" (Dacanay & Bowen, 1963:97). There are three categories of controlled language drills, namely substitution drills, transformation drills and response drills (Dacanay & Bowen, 1963:107). These are discussed below.

3.3.1.1.1.1 Substitution drills

In substitution drills the teacher asks the learner to use another word in the same word class, that is, the same part of speech in the place of a word in the model sentence (Finocchiaro, 1969:117). As teaching progresses, the "word" mentioned can also become a phrase (Opperman, 1983:115). When employing this activity, the teacher usually uses sentences that relate to the learner's daily life experiences (Opperman, 1983:115). Rainsbury (1975:80) points out that in a semantically orientated drill the learner is invited to focus his attention on a situation. The teacher's task is to ascertain that the situation is relevant, interesting, comprehensible and inoffensive (Opperman, 1983:115).

Substitution drills can be used in a substitution table, where the teacher divides a sentence into three elements, for example, subject, verb, object (SVO). Table 3.1 below is an example of a substitution table. If skilfully conducted, the entire drill can

be presented in the form of a sequence of events related to one another and thereafter the learners may be asked to write it as a composition.

Table 3.1 An example of a substitution table

Yesterday	I		Durban
Last week	We		Johannesburg
Last month	he	went to	Kenya
Last year	She		Tanzania
	They		America

Substitution drills can be more useful if they are moved away from the controlled situation to allow the learners to complete model fragments. For example, in a sentence like *If I had gone to the party I would have seen my friends,* the teacher might write only the first part of the sentence, that is, *If I had gone to the party . . .*, and require the learner to fill in the rest of the sentence with his own words, such as . . . *I would have met my friends*, or . . . *I would have played with my friends*, or . . . *I would have eaten chocolates.*

This activity gives the learner the opportunity to demonstrate the use of the structure he has been manipulating in an actual situation. Rivers (1968:196) says that this kind of contextualisation of sentences could lead the learner to "spontaneous expression", if the contextualisation of sentences is combined with the learner's awareness of the intention of the drill. To achieve this, Opperman (1983:116) suggests that the learner should be aware of the crucial element in the pattern which is being manipulated.

3.3.1.1.1.2 Transformation drills

Transformation drills focus on a change in word order (Dacanay & Bowen, 1963:116), by which the elements of the original sentence are expanded or reduced, or two

sentences are integrated into one. A change in word order is made through transposing sentence elements when changing a statement containing the verb "to be" (or an auxiliary) to a question, and sometimes through changing the position of sentence modifiers (Dacanay & Bowen, 1963:117). Examples of changing statements into questions are:

Statement	**Question**
The girl is ready.	Is the girl ready?
The boy is coming.	Is the boy coming?
The teacher can go.	Can the teacher go?
The car has come.	Has the car come?

Examples of changing the position of sentence modifiers:

This morning he was here - He was here this morning.

Occasionally he comes here - He comes here occasionally.

Yesterday I saw him - I saw him yesterday.

In expanding sentence elements, a word, phrase, or clause is added to the model sentence, as in the examples below:

Teacher: The movie is very entertaining.

Learner: *The movie is very entertaining.*

Teacher: ------ that I saw --------

Learner: *The movie that I saw is very entertaining.*

Teacher: The documentary is certainly enlightening.

Learner: *The documentary is certainly enlightening.*

Teacher: --------that was filmed at Clark Field--------

Learner: *The documentary that was filmed at Clark Field is certainly very enlightening.*

In terms of reducing original sentence elements, a phrase or clause is replaced by a word, for example:

Teacher: The monkey is up in the tree.

Learner: *The monkey is up in the tree.*

Teacher: ---------- there.

Learner: *The monkey is up there.*

In joining two sentences, connectors such as *that* and *because* can be used. For example:

I know it. Her father was a spy.

I know (that) her father was a spy.

I got up late. I was tired.

I got up late (because) I was tired. (Dacanay & Bowen, 1963:129).

3.3.1.1.1.3 Response drills

Response drills are used as a comprehension check-up and a pattern drill (Dacanay & Bowen, 1963:133). While the former is oriented strictly to content, the latter is another form of structure drill. Comprehension check-up questions are used primarily to test comprehension, though incidental practice is given on the structures presented in the lesson. As Dacanay and Bowen (1963:133) state, response drills are specifically designed for a real communication situation, to determine by means of an exchange of information between teacher and learners how much of the lesson was understood by the class.

As a form of drill, response drills are of somewhat different design. Rather than being built strictly on a communication situation, they are constructed to give practice on a specific grammatical pattern (Dacanay & Bowen, 1963:134). The response may take the form of short answers or cued responses, as in:

Teacher: Do you watch television every night?

Learner I: *Yes, I do.*

Learner II: *No, I don't.*

The following are examples of an agreement response:

Teacher: It looks as if it is going to rain.

Learner: *Yes, it does, doesn't it?*

Teacher: You remember me, don't you?

Learner: *Of course I do.*

In responses with a cued expression, the teacher might ask the learner: *Are you going to the movie?* When there are cues, for instance, *zoo, dance, or gym,* the learner might respond: *No, I'm going to the zoo or dance, or gym.*

3.3.1.1.2 Formal instruction procedures

Formal instruction procedures entail grammar teaching through explanation and exercises of grammatical rules (Van der Walt, 1998:46). Ellis (1994:659) presents a summary of research findings regarding the effectiveness of formal instruction, observing that formal instruction procedures result in increased accuracy and accelerate progress through developmental sequences and that these effects are sometimes long lasting. Research also shows that formal instruction is seen as facilitating natural language learning rather than an alternative model of language learning (Ellis, 1994:656). Although it is not clear which kind of formal instruction is most effective, it seems that focusing on learners' attention on forms, and the meanings they realise in

the context of communicative activities, result in successful learning (cf. Van der Walt, 1998:46).

Ellis (1985:217) identifies two attributes of formal instruction, namely that specific grammatical features are selected for the learners' attention, and that this attention is manifest in a focus on the formal characteristics of the grammatical features. Thus, formal instruction includes the instruction that results from deductive methods such as cognitive code and inductive methods such as audiolingualism. It also includes instruction based on "notional/functional materials where specific linguistic means for realising various speech acts or semantico-grammatical categories are introduced and practised" (Ellis, 1985:217).

3.3.1.1.3 Guided oral exercise procedures

Guided oral exercises are procedures which enable teachers to assist learners in expressing themselves through spoken English. Hollingworth (1984:10) points out that through the teacher's guidance learners may develop confidence which could lead to an increasing use of the language. Guided oral exercises aim to give the learner limited freedom to use and practise what he has learnt, yet be subject to some restraints (Broughton *et al.*, 1978:81). Broughton *et al.* (1978:81) view guided oral practice as the best in providing the general situation and content of what is to be said, but allow some freedom in the mode of expression. Controlling a situation and allowing variety of expression during the instruction process may change a procedure from a controlled one to a guided one. Guidance may be given in oral reading, oral practice and chorus response.

These procedures entail oral reading, oral practice and chorus response activities. During the oral reading activity the learners usually read a passage aloud and answer questions orally. This activity may be done by an individual learner or by all learners responding in chorus. During the oral practice activity, the teacher assists the learners in phrasing questions and answers and gives the learners the opportunity to speak, rather than their spending long periods listening to the teacher. Oral activities are done in such away that they focus on the learner, rather than the teacher.

Chorus response involves a group or groups of learners in class, or the whole class to repeat the model given by the teacher (Harmer, 1991:65). Harmer (1991:65) points out that this activity is useful because it gives all the learners a chance to say the new language immediately, with the teacher controlling the speed and the stress. It also gives the learners confidence and gives the teacher a general idea of whether the learners have grasped the model or not.

3.3.1.1.4 Dictation procedures

Dictation procedures aim at linking up with vocabulary teaching, with a view to reinforcing the teaching of lexical meaning, and they afford practice in transforming vocal language into written language (Boshoff, 1977:78). Dictation procedures help the learner to spell words and serve the purpose of making the learner aware of the importance of function words and how their omission or misuse can drastically alter the meaning of a sentence (Boshoff, 1977:78).

Dacanay and Bowen (1963:323) assert that dictation gives the learners practice "in holding an idea in their minds until they have finished writing it down" and in making quick decisions in selecting the appropriate word (for example, "stare" or "stair", "deer" or "dear"). Thus, dictation demands the learner's accuracy in listening, interpreting, memorising and writing skills such as spelling, punctuation, contraction, abbreviation and indentation.

Several steps are usually followed in dictation procedures (cf. Boshoff, 1977:79). The teacher tells the learners to clear their desks and listen attentively to what he is going to read to them. The learners then prepare themselves for writing down the dictation passage. The teacher dictates the passage by reading it at a slightly reduced tempo, but pausing sufficiently long after each phrase for them to keep up. The teacher enunciates the words clearly but maintains a steady flow, with sensitive intonation and normal stress. Finally, the teacher paraphrases the passage while the learners check their own work, either marking it or one another's. The learners note down the common mistakes that they make.

Dictation is primarily intended to give the learners practice in transference of language skills - from listening to writing - and to induce accuracy in receiving and transmitting. A tape recorder can be used to help the teacher in assessing not only his learners' progress but also his own ability to dictate. The major activities here are pronunciation practice, spelling practice, vocabulary practice and editing.

Although dictation procedures are regarded as useful in ESL teaching-learning, learners might regard it as a test and not as a means of acquiring listening and writing skills. The learners might fail to make any sense at all of the passage as some of the passages may have been designed for other purposes, such as reading aloud. Passages like these might have pronunciation traps to catch out the learners. If such passages are used for dictation, learners might be frustrated when they try to figure out each of the new words from the teacher's pronunciation.

3.3.1.1.5 Roles of the teacher, learner and instructional materials at the non-communicative end of the continuum

The teacher, learner and instructional materials have roles to play in ESL teaching-learning. These roles fall at various positions along the communication continuum. The teacher plays a central, active role during non-communicative activities (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:56). The teacher models the target language, controls the direction and pace of learning and monitors and corrects the learners' performance. As Byrne (1976:2) observes, the teacher "becomes more like the skilful conductor of an orchestra, drawing the music out of the performers". The teacher is required to be a skilful manipulator, using questions, commands and other cues to elicit correct sentences from the learners.

The teacher's role is to keep the learners attentive by varying drills and tasks and choosing relevant situations to practise structures. During the practice phase of a lesson, learners are given the opportunity to use the language in less controlled situations, but the teacher, as controller, usually corrects grammatical and structural errors. The teacher also controls such aspects as timing, oral practice and revision (cf. Pittman, 1963:177-178).

The role of the learners in the initial stages of learning is to listen to and repeat what the teacher says as well as to respond to questions and commands. In the later stages of learning, learners are encouraged to participate actively through initiating responses and asking each other questions (Davies *et al.*, 1975:3-4). Teaching in non-communicative procedures, such as in audiolingualism, focuses on the external manifestations of learning rather than on the internal processes (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:56). Learners, therefore, play a reactive role by responding to stimuli and, thus, have little control over the content, pace, or style of learning. This role of learners is based on the view that they are like organisms that can be directed by skilled training techniques to produce correct responses. The fact that in the initial stages of learning learners usually do not understand what they repeat is not necessarily a drawback, for by listening to the teacher, imitating accurately, and responding to and performing controlled tasks they learn a new form of verbal behaviour (cf. Richards & Rodgers, 1986:56).

Instructional materials include textbooks, audio and video-tapes, video recorders, as well as facilities such as the language laboratory. At the non-communicative end of the continuum, the role of these materials is to assist the teacher to develop language mastery in the learner. The instructional materials are primarily teacher-oriented. Textbooks usually contain organised lessons planned around different grammatical structures. Textbooks and other printed materials provide the cues needed for the drills and exercises. Tape recorders and audio-visual equipment are often used to present fluency drills on grammar or pronunciation, as they allow the learner to repeat sentences. The language laboratory also provides opportunity for further drill work.

3.3.1.2 Teaching-learning procedures at the communicative end of the continuum

Klippel (1984) discusses a number of communicative teaching-learning procedures and activities which fall at this end of the continuum. These procedures and activities are:

- Questions and answers - usually characterised by activities such as interviews, guessing games, asking questions and answering comprehension questions;

- Discussion and decisions - usually characterised by information-gaps, opinion-gaps, reasoning-gaps, rearranging activities, debates and problem-solving activities;
- Role plays and simulations - usually characterised by interaction, improvisation, free expressions and use of role play cards;
- Stories and drama - usually characterised by dramatisation, miming, improvisation, interpretation, interaction and intonation;
- Games - usually characterised by guessing, interpretation, memorisation, interaction, co-operation and competition; and
- Songs - usually characterised by pronunciation practice (stress/rhythm) and free practice.

3.3.1.2.1 Question and answer procedures

Question and answer procedures include activities such as interviewing, guessing games, jigsaw tasks, questioning activities and answering comprehension questions.

Interview activities help the learners to develop speaking and writing skills. Interview exercises include questions about things that the learners like or dislike, opinion-gap activities, and information about one's personal life. As part of interviews, learners make suggestions, argue, agree, disagree, or ask questions.

Guessing games activities give the learner the opportunity to guess about something. For example, the teacher may use a transparency with a complicated diagram on the over-head projector and ask the learners what the drawing represents. Learners' responses might be:

- I think it could be a room.
- I'm not quite sure, but the object on the left looks like a chair.
- Is the round thing a lamp?
- Perhaps the long shape is a person.

- It's got two legs.

Jigsaw tasks aim at improving co-operation and mutual acceptance within the group (Aronson *et al.*, 1975). Participants in a jigsaw task have to have one (or a few) piece(s) each. As in a puzzle, the individual parts, which may be sentences from a story or factual text, or parts of a picture or comic strip, have to be fitted together to find the solution (Klippel, 1984:40). Participants in jigsaw tasks have to do a lot of talking before they manage to fit the pieces together in the right way. This means that there is a great deal of practice in the second language, particularly in language functions like suggesting, agreeing and disagreeing, and determining sequence. Jigsaw tasks can be modified to be performed by pairs.

Question and answer procedures also include questioning activities. For example, an individual learner may walk around in the classroom and ask other learners questions. During these activities the teacher helps the learners to create questions which enable them to interact. Examples of these questions are as follows:

- Have you ever . . . ?
- What would you say to someone who . . . ?
- What would happen if . . . ?
- What would you do if . . . ?

Reading and answering comprehension questions are also part of the question and answer procedures. Learners read or listen to something because they have a desire to do so and a purpose to achieve (Harmer, 1991). Van der Walt (1998) points out that the aim of the comprehension lesson is to develop the learners' ability to comprehend and reflect on what they read and to develop their vocabulary and grammar. He suggests that the selected passage for comprehension should be short, about 500 words and should be on a topic that interests the learners.

The answering comprehension questions activity is usually done by the learners individually or in groups. The teacher might provide the answers orally or on the overhead projector, or collect the learners' work and mark it later. The following types of comprehension questions are usually included: direct reference questions, inference questions, supposition questions and evaluation questions (Van der Walt, 1998:64).

Direct reference questions are those questions the answers to which could be found directly in the text. For example, "According to the author, what did (character so and so) (mentioned in the text) eventually do?"

Inference questions are those questions to which answers are found by relating items in the text with other items in the text. The learner is required to discover the relationship between sentences and the manner in which they combine in communication, for example, "According to the author, how did the character come to be . . .?"

Supposition questions are those questions which require the learner to say what he supposes is implied by certain language items. The learner in this type of questions is required to relate the text to the wide situation of communication. He is also required to make suppositions of what exactly is intended by certain phrases. Such questions might send the learner outside the text, to the writer, or to the learner's own knowledge of the world, for example, "Why does the writer say this?"

Evaluation questions require the learner to evaluate a text and its effectiveness. They are usually asked in the study of literary texts.

3.3.1.2.2 Discussion and decision procedures

Discussion and decision procedures often entail information-gaps, opinion-gaps, reasoning-gaps, rearranging activities, debates and problem-solving.

Information-gap activities are regarded as a tool for helping learners to share information in order to complete a certain task and are usually used to practise specific items of language. Ur (1988:22) points out that a variation of information-gap activities is the "opinion-gap", where the communication process involves a transfer of

ideas or opinions and reasoning rather than facts. The interest generated by opinion-gap activities is similar to the interest in information-gap activities, but with the added feature of personalisation. Personalisation refers to the use of interaction based on the learners' personal experiences, opinions, reasons, ideas and feelings.

Reasoning-gap exercises usually entail arguing, giving and asking for reasons, defending opinions, contradicting and making suggestions (cf. Klippel, 1984:61). For example, the teacher may write down the names of 20 to 30 famous personalities such as Nelson Mandela, F.W. de Klerk and Desmond Tutu. The teacher asks the learners to select four personalities they would like to invite to their classroom to give a talk. Each learner writes his choices on a piece of paper in order of preference. The teacher then collects all the pieces of paper after which he asks individual learners to give reasons for their choices.

In rearranging exercises learners are required to put a certain number of items from a given list into an order of importance. This rearranging phase is usually followed by a period of discussion, when learners explain or defend their choices in pairs or small groups. The underlying situations, problems, or questions for these exercises are taken from widely different contexts (Klippel, 1984). During rearranging activities, each learner lists and writes down his solutions. These lists are then compared and discussed in pairs, in small groups or with the whole class. All learners whose lists are familiar work together in groups and try to find as many arguments as possible for their rank order. A final discussion with the whole class follows (Klippel, 1984:59). In rearranging exercises, the learners practise interactive language, such as agreeing, comparing, contradicting, disagreeing and giving reasons.

In debate activities the learners discuss issues and come up with solutions. Learners are given a controversial proposition such as "Durban is a more famous city than Port Elizabeth". Learners are then put into two groups which have to prepare arguments either in supporting the proposition or opposing it. Individual speeches are prepared by the learners in advance. When the arguments are ready, the teams elect a proposer and a seconder who make formal speeches to argue their case. All other learners then take

part with short interventions. At the end of the debating session the teacher organises a free vote to see whether the proposition wins or not (Ellis & Tomlinson, 1980:124; Harmer, 1991:125).

Problem-solving activities encourage learners to talk to each other in order to find solutions to the problem(s) in hand (Harmer, 1991:128). Some of the problem-solving activities can also be formulated as a jigsaw task (Klippel, 1984:41). Each learner in a pair or group possesses information which he must share with others in the group. The different pieces of information provide the material for solving a particular problem (Littlewood, 1981:33).

3.3.1.2.3 Role play and simulation procedures

Role play and simulation fall under the same category, for both are forms of games mirroring a slice of reality (Klippel, 1984:121).

Role play procedures involve the learners assuming designated roles in imaginary situations. Ur (1988:24) says that this "temporary departure from reality" is a way of widening the learners' range of language available for their use. For example, learners may act the role of soldiers in an army, during which they will be able to use varieties of language not usually used by learners in the classroom.

Role play procedures entail activities such as interaction, improvisation, expression, and the use of role play cards. They often consist of short scenes which may be enacted around everyday situations as well as around topical problems like the generation gap or vandalism (Klippel, 1984:121). In role play, learners can create their own reality. Ladousse (1987:6-7) points out that role play is important because:

- Role play brings a wide variety of experience into the classroom. The range of functions and structures and the areas of vocabulary that can be introduced go far beyond the limits of other pair or group activities, such as conversation,

communication games, or humanistic exercises. Through role play, learners may be trained in speaking skills for any situation.

- Role play puts learners in situations in which they are required to use and develop the phatic forms of language which are so necessary in social relationships.

- Specific roles in some learners' lives motivate them to learn English just to prepare them for those specific roles. Learners who work or travel in an international context normally try to experiment with the language they will require in the friendly and safe environment of a classroom. Thus, for these learners, role play is a very useful rehearsal for real life, because it enables them not just to acquire set phrases, but also to learn how interaction might take place in a variety of situations.

- Role play helps shy learners by providing them with a mask. Through activities based on their own experiences, these learners become liberated by role play as they no longer feel that their own personality is implicated.

- Role play is fun. Once learners understand what is expected of them, they thoroughly enjoy letting their imagination rip, which leads to better learning.

- Role play develops fluency in language learners, promotes interaction in the classroom and increases motivation.

In contrast to role plays, simulations are more highly structured and contain more diverse elements in their content and procedure. "Simulations are simplified patterns of human interactions or social processes where the players participate in roles" (Davison & Gordon, 1978:55). Simulations are creations of real-life situations in the classroom; learners simulate the real world (Harmer, 1991:132). They may be asked to imagine themselves in a situation which could occur outside the classroom, such as meeting a friend in the street or holding a series of business negotiations. The learners are asked to adopt a specific role in the situation (cf. Littlewood, 1981:49). Most simulations require that the participants be supplied with background information and material to

work from, both before and during the simulation. The task set in a simulation has sometimes to be accomplished within a time limit.

3.3.1.2.4 Story and drama procedures

The aim of story procedures is to help the learners produce longer connected texts (Klippel, 1984:130). Usually the teacher gives the learners stimuli, such as individual words or pictures and tells them to reconstruct the whole narrative even though they have only seen a small part of it (Klippel, 1984:130; Harmer, 1991:128). For learners to be able to reconstruct the narrative, they need imagination as well as skill in the second language. Story procedures entail activities such as improvisation, interpretation, interaction and use of intonation, which can be performed individually or in groups (Harmer, 1991:142). The purpose of these activities is to provide the learners with the opportunity to speak, read, listen and write in the second language.

Drama is "doing" (Wessels, 1987:7). It is something which one engages in daily when one faces difficult situations. For instance, one might get up in the morning with a headache or an attack of depression, yet when one faces the day and interacts with other people, one pretends that nothing is wrong. Wessels (1987:9) asserts that drama could be used effectively in the following ways:

- In the *course book slot:* Most language-teaching course books already use, or attempt to use, drama techniques. The course books contain dialogues, role plays, simulations, games and songs. Learners enjoy doing these activities in groups or pairs. There is scope within each of these for the application of drama techniques such as improvisation, mime, character analysis, observation, interpretation and invention to help learners in their acquisition of the language.

- The *skill slot:* Drama could be incorporated in individual lessons focusing on the improvement of reading, speaking, listening and writing skills. Drama also promotes correct pronunciation, rhythm, intonation and other prosodic features.

- *Spoken communication skill:* The role of drama here is to get learners to speak. Drama could generate a need to speak - by focusing the attention of the learners on creating a drama, dialogue, or solving a problem. Learners have to be active participants, using imagination and interacting with each other, in order to acquire communication skills in the foreign language.

- *The drama project:* This could be a long-term project, learning lines and constantly using the target language during rehearsals. In drama, the learner increasingly becomes part of a coherent unit and grows in confidence with each rehearsal. In the process, the learner's competence in the target language could increase.

Drama involves activities such as mimes (gestures) and improvization. Mimes are done in pairs or in groups, although individual learners could also perform their mimes for the whole class. Miming activities create valuable language-learning situations. According to Klippel (1984:115), "guessing something is linked to the real desire to find out and thus is a true communicative situation". Miming exercises train learners in the skill of observation and improvisation. Furthermore, miming exercises are useful because they emphasise the importance of gesture and facial expression in communication.

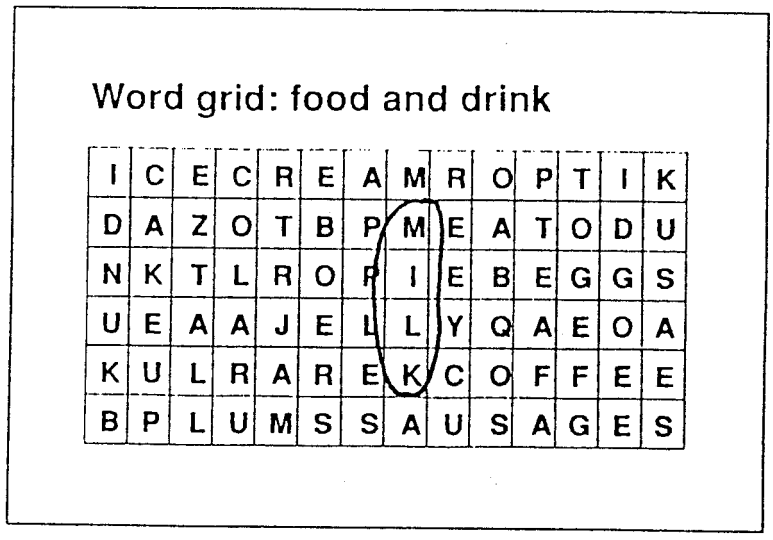
Drama procedures have weaknesses. In the first place, only small groups of volunteer learners can use them and not all learners would view drama as something useful. Also, drama procedures seem to be time consuming, especially during planning and organising. Nevertheless, drama procedures permit the learner to play his role as an active participant, rather than passive receptor, in the teaching-learning process. Also, drama can be used to teach pronunciation and spoken communication skills (Wessels, 1987:62, 75).

3.3.1.2.5 Game procedures

Game procedures aim at having learners relax and enjoy themselves, acquiring language through natural use (Edge, 1993:101). Games are often based on observation and memory, and on interpretation and guessing (Johnson & Morrow, 1981). Games in ESL teaching-learning can be played in competition. For example, the teacher may list actions on a piece of paper and call out one learner to mime one action on the list, such as, for example, eating spaghetti. The learner performs the action. The teacher or the learner asks other learners to guess the action performed. The learners who want to guess what the action is raise their hands and respond, for example, "You are opening a bottle". The learner performing the action may respond "Yes, I am," or "No, I'm not". To turn this into a competition, the teacher could split the class into halves, one facing the front and one facing the back. A learner from each group comes to the teacher to collect a word for his or her group. This learner then performs the action in front of his group. As soon as it has been guessed, another learner comes for the next word. The game ends when one team gets to the end of the teacher's list, or when everyone in the group has had a turn.

Ur (1988:174) suggests that in using game procedures, the teacher choose a game that all learners know and write on the board some basic facts about it: number of players, objectives, equipment, amount of time, and space needed. The teacher then gives some basic vocabulary essential to a description of the game and then invites learners to list the rules of the game, using modals such as can, can't, must, mustn't, may, may not. The learners write down the rules and read them out, or go straight into oral suggestions. If the learners come from different cultural backgrounds, they each write a game from home and describe the games to each other.

Games can be used for individual, pair work, or small group work. Edge (1993:102) gives an example of a word grid game:



(adapted from Edge, 1993:102).

An activity such as this can be given to individual learners or pairs of learners, if the teacher wants to use it competitively. The teacher can set a time limit and see which pair can find the most words in that time. This activity encourages the learners' co-operation.

Game activities are important because they motivate learners, process learning, provide a context for practice and give the teacher information on the progress of the learners. "In fact, games can be used at all stages of practice from controlled to free" (Hubbard *et al.,* 1983:95).

3.3.1.2.6 Song procedures

Songs in ESL teaching-learning are used to increase the learners' motivation to learn the target language (Hubbard *et al.*, 1983:92). Weaker learners, in particular, feel a great sense of achievement when they have been able to learn a song in the target language. Songs which are used to teach the structure of the language, for example, give learners intensive practice in selected patterns. Songs also help learners to remember structures in a particular context.

If songs are carefully chosen, they will give the learners pronunciation practice - in stress and rhythm as well as individual sounds. Singing a song is a group activity, an act of co-operation, which brings the group together and breaks down the barriers of reserve which can sometimes prevent learners from learning a language effectively.

3.3.1.2.7 Roles of the teacher, learner and instructional materials at the communicative end of the continuum

The task of the ESL teacher in activities at the communicative end of the continuum is to guide the learner to communicate with others. The ESL teacher has several roles: he is a needs analyst, counsellor, group process manager, and a facilitator of the communication process among the participants in the classroom and between each of these participants and the various texts and activities, as well as an independent participant within the teaching-learning process (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:78).

The primary aim of communicative procedures is to lead the learner to perform activities and tasks successfully in the second language (Candlin, 1983:51). In performing activities and tasks successfully, the learner may become competent in using the language when interacting in actual communication (Kuhn & Pienaar, 1994:110). Breen and Candlin (1980:110) describe the learner's role within communicative procedures as follows: "The role of learner as negotiator - between the self, the learning process and the object of learning - emerges from and interacts within the role of joint negotiator within the group and within the classroom procedures and activities which the group undertakes. The implication for the learner is that he should contribute as much as he gains, and thereby learns in an interdependent way."

The role of instructional materials is to promote language use. Richards and Rodgers (1986:79-80) categorise instructional materials at the communicative end of the continuum into text-based, task-based and realia.

Many text-based materials contain teaching-learning procedures that are at the communicative end. According to Richards and Rodgers (1986:79), a typical lesson that can be given in a text-book consists of a theme (for example, relaying

information), a task analysis for thematic development (for example, asking questions to get clarification, taking notes, and asking for more information), a description of a practice situation (for example, "A parent wants to see the principal. He does not have an appointment. Gather the necessary information from the parent and relay to the principal"), a stimulus presentation, comprehension questions (for example, why is the parent in the office?), and paraphrase exercises.

Task-based materials include games, role plays, simulations and task-based communication activities. Typically, these materials are in the form of exercise handbooks, cue-cards, activity cards, pair-communication practice materials and learner-interaction practice booklets.

Realia materials include signs, magazines, advertisements and newspapers or graphic and visual sources around which communicative activities can be built such as maps, pictures, symbols, graphs and charts. They also include objects such as a plastic model assembled by learners following directions.

3.4 CONCLUSION

ESL teaching-learning procedures aim to exercise and develop accuracy and fluency in the learner. Whereas accuracy is concerned with the formal teaching of language, fluency refers to natural language use involving free communication. At the accuracy level, the user focuses on formal factors or issues of appropriateness and, therefore, learners are taught grammatical and functional forms through dialogues, drills, and directed role play. At the fluency level, ESL teaching-learning focuses on meaning. The inclusion of both accuracy and fluency in ESL teaching-learning results in the communication continuum.

There are three stages in language teaching-learning; the presentation stage, the practice stage and the communicative activities stage. Whereas teaching-learning procedures used in the presentation stage are usually at the non-communicative end of the communication continuum, teaching-learning procedures in the communicative

activities stage are at the communicative end of the continuum. The teaching-learning procedures used in the practice stage fall between the two ends. The communication continuum, therefore, provides an appropriate framework for analysing ESL teaching-learning procedures and their associated activities.

CHAPTER 4

FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE ESL TEACHING-LEARNING

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In order to understand the results of the analysis in this study in context, this chapter discusses the key factors that influence ESL teaching-learning in Black South African schools. The following categories of factors are covered:

- Factors pertaining to teachers;
- Factors regarding the learners; and
- Other factors, namely medium of instruction, facilities and discipline.

4.2 FACTORS PERTAINING TO TEACHERS

A number of teacher-related factors influence ESL teaching-learning. These include proficiency in English language, teaching qualifications, and teaching styles.

4.2.1 Proficiency in English language and teaching qualifications

The ESL teacher needs high English proficiency for self-expression, reading, listening, writing and teaching (cf. Amuzu, 1994:24). It is rather difficult to define the term proficiency, because, it is a relative concept (Savignon, 1983:53). Generally, any definition of proficiency in a given language is closely related to the function of the language in the context in which it is used (Rivers, 1983:24; Judd, 1987:3-4; Strevens, 1987:11-23). Language proficiency entails language competence, which includes both linguistic competence and communicative competence (cf. 2.2.1).

According to Lemmer (1993:150), teachers in Black schools lack the English proficiency necessary for effective teaching. Amuzu's (1994) study at North West

Colleges of Education highlights poor proficiency in English as one of the major weaknesses of college English learners. Amuzu (1994:19) states that:

> Both the academic and the professional training was poor and the students' proficiency [i.e. teacher trainees] was too low for teachers of English. They could hardly express themselves clearly in English either orally or in writing. Further, their reading ability was rudimentary. And although they seemed to know the names of some of the common methods of teaching, e.g. Communicative Approach, most of them were ignorant of what to do in the classroom. It was clear that they were, in fact, not being prepared either professionally or academically for teaching.

The ESL teacher needs a high level of sophistication in language use when teaching English language (Van der Walt, 1990:193-194; Clark, 1996:257). This implies that the ESL teacher with an acceptable level of language proficiency has to be able to write in an acceptable style and to understand the major forms of the language.

The ESL teacher also needs to be qualified to teach English language. Teacher qualification refers to the level of training and certification a teacher possesses, such as Primary Teacher's Certificate (PTC), Primary Teacher's Diploma (PTD), Junior Secondary Teacher's Certificate (JSTC), Secondary Teacher's Diploma (STD), and Higher Education Diploma (HED) (cf. Mkize & Gounden, 1990:7). In principle, each of these qualifications certifies that a teacher can teach up to a specific grade, but not higher than that grade. For example, a JSTC holder may not teach beyond Grade 10.

A review of the literature indicates that many teachers in Black schools teach subjects in which they have not been trained (PU for CHE, 1995). Mkize and Gounden (1990:1) found that as many as 85% of teachers in Black high schools may be underqualified or unqualified. Mkize and Gounden (1990:7) found that only 41 teachers (7.9%) had the appropriate academic qualifications to teach in a secondary school, which means that more than 90% of secondary school teachers were academically underqualified. According to Mkize and Gounden (1990), the majority (82%) of the teachers who had the Primary Teacher's Certificate (PTC), Junior Secondary Teacher's Certificate (JSTC) or the Primary Teacher's Diploma (PTD) were

underqualified. It should be noted that although the PTD is a diploma, it is a qualification for teaching at primary school level, not at secondary school level. Only 94 teachers (18.1%) had the Secondary Teacher's Diploma (STD) and, hence, were qualified to teach at the secondary school level (cf. Gounden & Mkize, 1991:20). There is, therefore, a large percentage of teachers in Black high schools who teach beyond the level for which they have been professionally prepared.

In addition to the generally poor qualifications that teachers in Black high schools have, the training of Black high school teachers is often not good. Trainers use the traditional, structure-based method (cf. Amuzu, 1994:19). Amuzu (1994:18) found that the lecturers at the colleges of education lacked teaching experience, and most students had failed to get matriculation exemption. They are, therefore, often people who have low grades in their matriculation examinations. A considerable number of them are usually not interested in the teaching profession. Therefore, on the basis of both academic attainment and personal motivation, a large number of people who train as high school teachers are not the right material for English teaching, as they have inadequate background and insufficient motivation (Amuzu, 1994:21).

ESL teachers in Black schools are generally not well qualified. There have been programmes for the professional upgrading of Black teachers through in-service education, but the picture is still mainly unchanged. The level of qualification of the ESL teacher will obviously have implications for his/her teaching, particularly with regard to his/her ability to choose and use teaching-learning procedures.

4.2.2 Teaching styles

Teaching style is another factor that can influence ESL teaching-learning. There are three common styles in ESL teaching-learning, namely *laissez-faire*, democratic, and authoritarian (Ngcobo, 1988:22).

In the *laissez-faire* teaching style, the teacher presents a lesson, but the learner has to decide for himself whether he should do anything, or what he must do and how he will

go about it. A classroom characterised by this teaching style is likely to produce learners who have a sense of insecurity in their encounter with the subject matter.

An ESL teacher using the democratic style acts as a democratic group leader. As Ngcobo (1988:22) points out, a democratic teacher creates a give-and-take type of didactic situation where there is an exchange of ideas and insights. Therefore, the teacher seems to be a bearer of authority without being authoritative or indulgent. What this means is that the ESL teacher who usually uses the democratic style in his teaching is likely to use teaching-learning procedures that entail class participation. These procedures are likely to be at the communicative end of the continuum (cf. 3.3.1.2). According to Ngcobo (1988:23), the teaching styles of some ESL Black teachers are rather undemocratic, possibly because many of them like being directors and doers of the activities in the process of teaching-learning in the language classroom.

The authoritarian teacher tends to be directive, control-oriented and often punishment-oriented. In an authoritarian teaching-learning situation, learners seem to be passive receivers of instruction because it is the teacher who does all the planning and talking (Ngcobo, 1988:22). Teachers in Black schools are often authoritarian in their teaching (MacDonald & Burroughs, 1991:15).

Using the authoritarian style in ESL teaching implies that, since the majority of learners, especially at secondary schools, usually have a questioning attitude on anything that surrounds them, an authoritarian teacher may find himself to be a generator of conflicts within the language classroom (Baker, 1987:2; Byrne, 1987:667). The authoritarian style can cause stress in adolescent learners (Mazibuko, 1993:30). ESL teachers who use the authoritarian style in their teaching are less likely to engage learners in participatory forms of interaction in the classroom. Such teachers are likely to use teaching-learning procedures that are not participatory and, therefore, procedures that are at the non-communicative end of the continuum.

4.3 FACTORS CONCERNING LEARNERS

There are also learner-related factors that influence the ESL teaching-learning process. These factors, which may enhance or inhibit the learner's progress in learning the second language, include their socio-economic background and language proficiency, and learning styles.

4.3.1 Socio-economic background and language proficiency

Home and community environments have a strong effect on the English language proficiency of most of the Black learners. This is because the environment where these learners live - home, neighbourhood, and community - is generally not English-speaking. As a result, the learner's acquisition of English is not supported and reinforced after school hours (Lemmer, 1993:155). According to Lemmer (1993:155):

> ... parents may feel ill-equipped to assist with homework or may fail to understand the special educational needs that stem from the child's limited language proficiency. In addition, essential written communications in English with and from the school, dealing with arrangements concerning homework and tests or home-school conferences may lose their effectiveness when parents themselves have difficulty with English.

Many students leave the high school unprepared for further education because their competence in English is low and their general reading ability is rudimentary. As a result, they find it difficult to sustain their studies when they enter university or college. Many do not even make it to the university even though they may have the potential in special courses in English which are offered to raise the linguistic level of the Black students (Amuzu, 1992:131).

The Black learner comes to school with a particular socio-economic background, home life, and cultural and linguistic exposure (Krouse, 1990:5). This has a major impact on language learning and development (cf. Vernon, 1973:46-62; Schmidt, 1973:36-42). Ellis (1994:240) asserts that there is evidence that pupils from middle-class homes are more successful at L2 acquisition than pupils from working-class families. Eisenhart and Cutts-Dougherty (1991:29-31), for example, found that learners from a working-class background were not exposed to fixed schedules of eating and sleeping.

Communication in the home did not emphasise the exact meaning of words. In contrast, learners from middle-class backgrounds were brought up in an environment regulated by strict schedules. They were carefully taught the specific meaning of words, treated as conversationalists from infancy, and questioned about the referential meaning of words and knowledge of facts.

Black South African learners come from a variety of backgrounds, ranging from middle-class professional to semi-illiterate or illiterate homes, from the elite suburbs of the cities, or from townships, informal settlements or underdeveloped rural areas. This implies that the learners are likely to benefit from school to the extent that the patterns of literacy and exposure to printed and other media they receive before beginning school are consistent with, or can be attached to, those used at the schools.

Lemmer (1993:157, 158) observes that learners from a disadvantaged socio-economic background face linguistic deprivation. This is because in some of the environments where these learners live there is a lack of books, magazines, newspapers, radio and television, which could be vehicles of practising communicative styles that are similar to those in schools. Each of these aspects may be a vehicle of linguistic development.

4.3.2 Learning styles and strategies

Each learner has his own natural way of absorbing, processing and retaining new information and skills (Kinsella, 1995). This natural way of absorbing, processing and retaining new information and skills is referred to as learning style (cf. Dreyer, 1998). De Villiers (1997:26) states that learning styles reflect characteristic ways of perceiving phenomena, and conceptualising and recalling information. Learning styles can thus been said to reflect the learner's cognitive, affective and physiological reaction to the learning environment (Ellis, 1994:499; Dreyer, 1996:294).

One implication of these learning styles for ESL teaching-learning might be that the learners' styles and the teachers' styles are incongruent. In South Africa, learners are often taught in traditional teaching styles (which are authoritarian and audiolingual), where the learner (one who does not know) receives ideas from the teacher (one who

knows). In the traditional lecture system, the focus is on coverage of material through teaching by telling (Dreyer, 1998:115, 116). Dreyer (1998:115) investigated a "silent battle" occurring in South Africa's North West province, comprising of style-conflicts between high school learners and teachers. Results showed style mismatches between teachers and learners. For example, whereas the learners tended to be concrete-sequential and extraverted, needing direct experience, a large amount of linear structure and abundant classroom interaction, the majority of the teachers were intuitive and introverted, preferring abstract ideas and independent work. Teachers may favour certain types of learning styles that involve less learner-teacher interaction (Dreyer, 1998:121). Most teachers (85%) prefer the lecture method or the class discussion method when teaching. The teachers, therefore, catered primarily for the competent auditory learners. They seldom provided visual stimulation, tended to stick to the textbook and often regarded movement (for example, putting learners into groups for group work) as disruptive.

Besides having characteristic learning styles discussed above, ESL learners need learning strategies to make language learning successful, self-directed and enjoyable (Oxford, 1990). Unsuccessful ESL learners use strategies less frequently, they do not have a big repertoire of strategies, and very often apply incorrect strategies to the task at hand. Learning strategies are conscious actions that learners use to organise learning or using a second language (Ellis, 1994:712; Van der Walt & Dreyer, 1995:308). Language learning strategies are the moment-by-moment techniques which a learner employs to solve "problems" posed by second language input and output (Brown, 1994:114).

Learning strategies can be *direct* or *indirect* (Oxford, 1990). Direct strategies are those which involve the target language directly. These strategies require mental processing of the language and involve the learner's conscious attention to grammatical rules and lexical terms. Direct strategies include memory strategies, which help students to restore and retrieve new information; and cognitive strategies, which enable learners to understand and produce the new language by different means such as transformations, practice, and attention to rules. Direct strategies also include compensating strategies,

which allow learners to use language despite their often large gaps in knowledge and enable learners to overcome limitations in knowledge. The activities that learners use in direct strategies include highlighting class notes, summarising, creating outlines, and creating hierarchies of the main ideas to be used in writing assignments (Dreyer, 1995:285).

Indirect strategies provide indirect support for language learning through focusing, planning, evaluating, seeking opportunities, controlling anxiety, and increasing co-operation. These strategies are used for the general management of learning. They aim at stimulating the language acquisition process and enjoyment. Indirect strategies can be metacognitive strategies, which allow learners to control their cognition and involve the utilisation of all resources in the production and comprehension of language; affective strategies, which help regulate emotions, motivations and attitudes; or social strategies, which help learners to learn through interaction with others. The activities in which learners engage in indirect strategies include overviewing and linking with already known material, organising, self-evaluating, self-monitoring, making positive statements, and asking for clarification (Dreyer, 1995:285).

4.4 OTHER FACTORS

There are other factors that influence the ESL teaching-learning process. These factors are discussed as "other", not because they are less significant, but because they are brief and more general. They are medium of instruction, facilities and discipline.

4.4.1 Medium of instruction

In South Africa the policy on the medium of instruction is one of the most sensitive aspects of language in education policy because of the way it was manipulated in the past by government (McCabe, 1996:9). Choice of the medium of instruction in the new educational dispensation in South Africa has been the subject of intensive debate and research. In a survey on the use of the official medium of instruction in Black schools in the North West Province, Meyer (1997:227) found that the majority of the teachers

(86%) and learners (57%) employed a combination of English and a tribal language. The survey also indicated that a significant number of learners (43%) employed only their tribal language when speaking to their teachers, and that even a greater number (57%) of learners used their tribal language when talking among themselves.

Medium of instruction is normally determined by the language policy in South African education, and used to form an integral part of the former apartheid ideology. Language, together with race and cultural background, provided the grounds of educating children, both Black and White, separately. Within this context, mother tongue instruction in Black schools was extended to Grade 5, and English and Afrikaans were made compulsory school subjects from the first year of schooling. In secondary school, English- and- Afrikaans-medium instruction was required on a 50-50 basis. Thus, learners in secondary school were forced to switch from mother tongue to English or Afrikaans in order to master increasingly difficult subject content (Chick, 1992:275).

Studies done on the implementation of language policy in Black schools indicate that, although the policy is that English is the medium of instruction in Black schools, it is seldom implemented. Amuzu (1992:131), for example, found that English was not the medium of instruction in many Black schools, and that, as a subject, English was not effectively taught. Amuzu (1992:132) reports that in many of the schools that participated in the study, ESL teaching-learning was conducted in Tswana. In the few cases where ESL teaching-learning was conducted in English, it was in fact mixed with Tswana. In such cases, the teacher read the topic or problem in English and then explained in Tswana. Learners asked questions in Tswana. Outside the classroom, in the staff room, and on the playground, all communication was in Tswana.

The advantage of English being a medium of instruction is that the majority of language learners have the opportunity to improve their second language functional proficiency (Ellis, 1994:229). Also, the attempt to impose Afrikaans as a medium of instruction in Black schools in the 1970s seems to have resulted in the enhancement of the status of English among Blacks. However, the status and popularity enjoyed by

English are not equally reflected in the quality of instruction in English and in its general use in Black schools (Lemmer, 1993:149).

The timing and manner of introduction of English as medium of instruction in Black schools is a problem. Black learners are instructed in mother tongue medium during the lower primary school phase. The onset of the higher primary phase, that is Grade 5, makes an abrupt transition to English as the medium of instruction for the entire primary curriculum, which concurrently broadens into ten subjects. This transition causes problems (Van Rooyen, 1990:1), foremost of which is the disparity between the English proficiency of these learners and the proficiency required of them in order to master all school subjects through the medium of English (cf. McCabe, 1996:16).

Accommodating different levels of language proficiency in a single class is also a problem, particularly for the ESL teacher. As Squelch (1994:148) observes, "a concern that is frequently expressed is how to meet the needs of pupils with limited language proficiency while at the same time keeping other pupils stimulated and involved".

4.4.2 Facilities

Materials and resources in schools are a significant aspect in ESL teaching-learning. These materials and resources include textbooks, as well as materials and resources that are often developed from everyday texts such as newspapers, advertisements, brochures and other mass media materials (De Villiers, 1997:62).

Stribling and Thurstone (1993:30) suggest that materials and resources should promote cognitive academic skills, if learners are expected to function in English, both academically and socially. The same materials cannot then be used for learners who use English as medium of instruction and learners who study English as subject only (De Villiers, 1997:62).

Generally, the textbooks and other suitable teaching material are often decided upon before the implementation of the educational policy (Oladejo, 1993). MacDonald (1990) and Van Rooyen (1990) recognise the dire need for appropriate textbooks developed to facilitate the acquisition of the necessary skill to deal with context-

reduced cognitively demanding language tasks. There is need to match teaching-learning procedures with the materials and resources.

The ESL teaching-learning facilities in Black schools in South Africa are poor (Amuzu, 1994:19), particularly language laboratories and libraries (McMillan, 1989:7). Mkize and Gounden (1990:13) also found that resources were either limited or unavailable for teachers to implement what they learned in In-Service Education and Training for Teachers (INSET) project. This inadequacy of the teaching-learning materials in Black schools means that the selection and use of teaching-learning procedures are inevitably affected.

4.4.3 Learners' classroom discipline

Learners' discipline in the classroom can influence ESL teaching-learning (Ngcobo, 1988:18). Developing self-discipline in learners helps them to become responsible individuals who know how to act and how not to act, and how to care for themselves and others. Furtwengler and Konnert (1982:43) point out that "if the ultimate aim of discipline is humanistic, to produce young adults who will act appropriately with a variety of situations - then learning to satisfy one's individual needs without inconveniencing and disturbing others is extremely important".

Ngcobo (1988) discusses several aspects of discipline in Black schools in South Africa, including learner-teacher ratio and corporal punishment.

Learner-teacher ratio may affect the ESL teaching-learning process to a large extent in the sense that the language classroom becomes a non-educative experience for the learners. The size of the class is significant in the teaching-learning process. Too big a class would minimise the level of learner participation and teacher-learner interaction. It might also make it difficult for the teacher to exercise effective control of the class. Thembela (1984:8) asks a crucial question in this regard: "How does one teach a group of 70 pupils, through a medium of a foreign tongue, a subject that one has hardly mastered himself, under drab and dreary conditions with no aids at all?".

In Ngcobo's (1986:194) study, 80% of ESL Black teachers reported that it was impossible to give individual attention to the learners in classes that were too big. Although there are other reasons for this situation, the non-proportional learner-teacher ratio is probably the major problem which stifles individualisation in the classroom.

In an attempt to maintain discipline, corporal punishment is widely used in Black schools (Ngcobo, 1986:156). In any didactic situation the immediate aim of any disciplinary action is to promote learning. The aims and objectives of teaching-learning focus on enabling the learner to communicate as freely, accurately, and appropriately as possible in English, and that the task of the teacher is to direct and guide the learner to achieve these aims and objectives. A thoughtful teacher, who has planned his lesson well, for example, cannot waste time in the language classroom by giving students corporal punishment.

Cloete and Conradie (1983:54) also support the view that "the teacher who lacks sufficient training may, perhaps, also lack understanding of the pupil's frustration or misconduct and summarily turn to pedagogically valueless punishment that may promote juvenile misconduct." Learners' frustration in the ESL classroom may be caused by distrust and hatred in teacher-learner relationship. Distrust and hatred between teachers and learners might, in turn, lead to the excessive and unproductive use of corporal punishment.

4.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter has examined the key factors that can influence ESL teaching-learning in South Africa, with reference to Black schools. This is a broad overview of the factors, which is not intended to suggest that all these factors will be found in every ESL teaching-learning situation in the country. After one analyses the teaching procedures used in a particular context, one can then look at the factors that are applicable to that specific context. Generally, the problems that face Black schools in South Africa are

poor language ability among both teachers and learners, non-conducive cultural background and home environment, and poor school facilities.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH METHOD

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the method of research and an account of the research process. The following aspects of the research are covered:

- Design
- Subjects
- Instrumentation
- Data collection procedure
- Analysis

5.2 EMPIRICAL STUDY

5.2.1 Design

This was a one-shot cross-sectional survey done among Grade 9 classes in secondary schools in the Potchefstroom District.

5.2.2 Subjects

Four intact Grade 9 classes in four schools - A, B, C and D - in the Potchefstroom District were observed. The observation process involved only language classes, not literature ones. The schools were selected on the basis of their accessibility and especially permission obtained from the principals. Permission to conduct research in the schools was obtained from the District Manager and the necessary arrangements made with the principals of the schools and the Grade 9 ESL teachers.

The timetables for all Grade 9 ESL teachers in schools A, B, C and D were obtained from the schools and were used to select the teacher and the class. Sessions for

observation were chosen, ensuring that the chosen sessions of the different schools did not overlap and also ensuring that it would be possible to complete the observations within the three weeks planned for data collection. Each class had seven ESL lessons per week.

Grade 9 in each of the schools consisted of 7 classes. Each ESL teacher taught 3 of those classes. The number of learners in each class observed was between 40 and 50. Their ages ranged between 14-21. Three of the four teachers observed were female and the remaining one was male.

To ensure continuity and allow as much variety of teaching procedures used as possible, the same Grade 9 class in each school was observed throughout the study.

The teachers were between 26 and 37 years of age. Three of the teachers had B.A. (Education) degrees and the fourth had a 3-year diploma in education. Both the learners and the teachers were non-native speakers of English. Tswana was the primary language spoken both in the community and at the schools.

5.2.3 Instrumentation

An observation grid with 11 teaching-learning procedures that ESL teachers frequently use in secondary schools was developed (cf. Appendix A). The observation grid contained non-communicative as well as communicative teaching-learning procedures. These procedures were the following: controlled language drills (see *section 3.3.1.1*), formal instruction (see *section 3.3.1.2*), guided oral exercises (see *section 3.3.1.3*), dictation (see *section 3.3.1.4*), questions and answers (see *section 3.3.2.1*), discussion and decisions (see *section 3.3.2.2*), role plays and simulations (see *section 3.3.2.3*), stories and drama (see *section 3.3.2.4*), games (see *section 3.3.2.5*) and songs (see *section 3.3.2.6*).

Each procedure contained three to six teaching-learning activities. These activities included repetition, imitation, memorisation, chorus response, oral reading and practice, improvisation, interviews, interaction and co-operation. Provision was made for any other activities by the inclusion of the category "other" (cf. Appendix A).

5.2.4 Data collection procedure

A pilot study was undertaken to ensure that the proposed framework would be usable. For the pilot study, one teaching session was observed at one school. The general observation process seemed workable.

Following the pilot study, each class in schools B and C was observed ten times, school D nine times and school A five times. In total, 34 lessons were observed. The duration of the lessons in each of schools A, C, and D was 30 minutes, but in school B each lesson was 32 minutes long. A total of 17 hours and 20 minutes of teaching-learning time was observed and recordings made.

A separate copy of the observation grid was used for every session. In the observation process a pencil tick was made next to each procedure that occurred and next to each activity under that procedure that the teacher used in the teaching-learning process. The duration of each of the activities used in each session was noted.

5.2.5 Analysis

All the occurrences of each procedure used in schools A, B, C and D were added up. The combined totals of all the procedures were added up, from which the grand total of all the procedures used in schools A, B, C and D was obtained. The percentage of usage for each procedure was obtained by dividing the combined number of the occurrence of the procedure by the grand total number of all the procedures and multiplying it by one hundred. Also, the amount of time spent on each activity in each school was calculated.

The decision on whether the teaching-learning procedures were communicative or non-communicative was made following Harmer's (1991) communication continuum discussed in chapter 3.

5.3 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented the research process for the empirical work of this study, covering the design, subjects, instrumentation, data collection procedure and analysis. Grade 9 classes in four selected secondary schools in a specific context were observed to determine the kinds of teaching-learning procedures used by ESL teachers in those schools. An observation grid with eleven teaching-learning procedures was used, and the procedures and the activities which occurred in a lesson in each school marked. The occurrences of procedures were calculated to determine the percentage of each procedure and the results were interpreted.

CHAPTER 6

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to analyse the ESL teaching-learning procedures used by teachers in selected secondary schools in the Potchefstroom District. An observation grid was designed using the taxonomy of ESL teaching learning procedures developed in chapter 3. The grid was used to record the teaching-learning procedures in ESL classes. This chapter presents the results of the empirical part of the study. The following elements are covered:

- Results for each school;
- Summary of the results of the four schools; and
- Interpretation of the results.

6.2 RESULTS OF THE STUDY

6.2.1 The first Grade observed: Grade 9C, School A

Five lessons taught to Grade 9C were observed in school A. The lessons covered a total of 2 hours and 30 minutes. The procedures used in each of the lessons are indicated in Table 1.

Table 1: Procedures used in Grade 9C, School A

LESSON	PROCEDURES	LEARNER ACTIVITIES	SKILLS: Listening/Speaking Reading/Writing	INTERACTION: Individual/Pairs Group/Class	TIME
1	Formal instruction	Learning rules	Listening	Class	5 minutes
	Guided oral exercises	Oral practice	Speaking	Individual	25 minutes
	Other: Writing exercises	Writing an exercise	Writing	Individual	Homework
2	Formal instruction	Learning rules	Listening/speaking	Class/individual	10 minutes
	Guided oral exercises	Oral practice	Speaking	Individual	20 minutes
	Other: Writing exercises	Writing an exercise	Writing	Individual	Homework
3.	Formal instruction	Learning rules	Listening	Class	10 minutes
	Guided oral exercises	Oral practice Chorus response	Speaking Speaking	Individual Class	18 minutes 2 minutes
	Other: Writing exercises	Writing an exercise	Writing	Individual	Homework
4.	Formal instruction	Learning rules	Listening	Class	10 minutes
	Guided oral exercises	Oral practice - teacher reads a question from textbook; learners answer orally Chorus response	Listening/speaking Speaking	Class/individual Class	18 minutes 2 minutes

5.	Formal instruction	Learning rules	Listening	Class	5 minutes
	Guided oral exercises	Oral practice - teacher reads a sentence in the active voice and asks learners to change it to the passive voice; teacher explains the use of the passive voice in different tenses and asks learners to use the passive voice in different tenses Chorus response	Speaking Speaking	Individual Class	23 minutes 2 minutes
	Other: Writing exercises	Changing the active voice to the passive	Writing	Individual	Homework

As Table 1 shows, the following procedures were used in Grade 9C, school A:

- Formal instruction occurred in all 5 lessons observed and it entailed learning rules of the language. The teacher explained the rules by giving examples of sentences, spending 40 minutes on the 5 lessons.

- Guided oral exercises occurred in all 5 lessons and they involved oral practice and chorus response activities. The teacher read a question from the textbook and asked the learners to answer it orally. Sometimes the teacher read a sentence in active voice and asked the learners to change it to passive voice. In the chorus response,

the teacher asked the learners questions and all the learners answered at the same time. The time spent on oral practice and chorus response was 104 minutes and 6 minutes, respectively.

None of the other procedures listed in the observation grid was used in Grade 9C, school A.

Under the "other" category, writing exercise procedures occurred in 4 lessons and it involved making sentences, changing active voice into passive voice, or changing direct speech into indirect speech. The writing exercises were given to the learners as homework.

6.2.2 The second grade observed: Grade 9C, School B

Ten lessons taught to Grade 9C were observed in school B. The lessons covered a total of 5 hours and 20 minutes. The procedures used in each of the ten lessons are indicated in Table 2

Table 2: Procedures used in Grade 9C, School B

LESSON	PROCEDURES	LEARNER ACTIVITIES	SKILLS: Listening/Speaking Reading/Writing	INTERACTION: Individual/Pairs Group/Class	TIME
1	Formal instruction	Learning rules	Listening	Class	5 minutes
	Guided oral exercises	Oral practice	Speaking	Individual	20 minutes
	Other: Writing exercises	pairing adjectives	Writing	Individual	7 minutes
2	Formal instruction	Fill-in exercise Learning rules by defining parts of speech	Speaking Listening/Speaking	Individual Class/Individual	5 minutes 10 minutes
	Guided oral exercises	Oral practice Chorus response	Speaking Speaking	Individual Class	5 minutes 2 minutes
		Other: Forming and mentioning kinds of nouns	Speaking	Individual	10 minutes
	Other: Writing exercises	Forming nouns from adjectives	Writing	Individual	Homework
3.	Formal instruction	Fill-in exercise Learning rules	Speaking Listening	Individual Class	5 minutes 5 minutes
	Guided oral exercises	Oral practice Chorus response	Speaking Speaking	Individual Class	5 minutes 2 minutes
		Other:			
		Answering questions on prepositions	Speaking	Individual	5 minutes

	Other: Writing exercises	Filling-in with appropriate preposition	Writing	Individual	10 minutes
4.	Formal instruction	Learning rules by describing new words	Listening/Speaking	Class/Individual	5 minutes
	Guided oral exercises	Oral reading - Listening to a passage read from the textbook and interpreted into Tswana Oral practice	Reading/Listening Speaking	Class Individual	10 minutes 5 minutes
	Questions and answers	Answering comprehension questions	Speaking	Individual	7 minutes
	Discussion and decision	Rearranging activities	Speaking	Individual	5 minutes
	Other:				
	Writing exercises	Writing exercise on jumbles sentences	Writing	Individual	Homework
5.	Formal instruction	Learning rules by mentioning types of adverbs	Listening/Speaking	Class/individual	10 minutes
	Guided oral exercises	Oral practice - using adverbs in sentences Chorus response	Speaking Speaking	Individual Class	15 minutes 2 minutes
		Other: Answering questions about adverbs	Speaking	Individual	5 minutes

	Other: Writing exercises	Composing own sentences using adverbs and writing their types	Writing	Individual	Homework
6	Formal instruction	Learning rules by defining "concord"	Listening/Speaking	Class/Individual	5 minutes
	Guided oral exercises	Oral practice Chorus response	Speaking Speaking	Individual Class	3 minutes 2 minutes
		Other: Answering questions on "concord"	Speaking	Individual	5 minutes
	Discussions and decisions	Information-gap, discussing "concord" in a political perspective Opinion-gap	Speaking Speaking	Class/Individual Individual	12 minutes 5 minutes
	Other: Writing exercises	Writing their own "concord" sentences	Writing	Individual	Homework
7	Questions and answers	Asking and answering comprehension questions	Speaking	Individual	5 minutes
		Other: Reading and interpreting a comprehension passage Explaining and defining new words	Reading/Listening/Speaking Speaking	Class/Individual Individual	10 minutes 5 minutes

	Discussions and decisions	Information-gap Opinion-gap Reasoning-gap	Speaking Speaking Speaking	Individual Individual Individual	5 minutes 4 minutes 3 minutes
	Other: Reading and writing exercises	Reading the comprehension passage and answering questions from the passage	Reading/Writing	Individual	Homework
8.	Formal instruction	Learning rules	Listening	Class	7 minutes
	Guided oral exercises	Oral practice Chorus response **Other:** Pronunciation practice Spelling practice Dividing and counting syllables in each word on board	Speaking Speaking Speaking Speaking Speaking	Individual Class Class Class Class	5 minutes 3 minutes 5 minutes 5 minutes 7 minutes
	Other: Writing exercises	Dividing words into syllables	Writing	Individual	Homework
9.	Questions and answers	Listening to a short passage read by the teacher and answering questions through group discussion	Listening/Speaking	Groups	10 minutes
	Discussions and decisions (in Tswana)	**Other:** Mentioning parts of the human eye Describing the eye in terms of its function	Speaking/Writing Speaking/Writing	Groups 10 minutes	7 minutes

	Other: Self evaluation	Correcting their work using the teacher's memorandum	Listening/Writing	Class/Groups	5 minutes
10.	Formal instruction	Learning rules	Listening/Speaking	Class/Individual	12 minutes
	Guided oral exercises	Oral practice – Changing direct speech into indirect speech	Speaking	Individual	15 minutes
		Chorus response	Speaking	Class	5 minutes
	Other: Writing exercises	Changing direct speech into indirect speech	Writing	Individual	Homework

As Table 2 shows, the following procedures were used in Grade 9C, school B:

- Formal instruction occurred in 8 lessons. The activities involved were learning rules and fill-in exercises. The teacher explained rules by defining words or giving examples of sentences that illustrated the rules. In a filling-in exercise, the teacher wrote sentences with blanks on the board and asked the learners to fill in the blanks with, for example, an appropriate preposition. Fifty-nine minutes were spent on explaining rules in the 8 lessons.

- Guided oral exercises occurred in 8 lessons. These procedures involved oral reading, oral practice, and chorus response activities. In oral reading the teacher asked one learner to read a comprehension passage from the textbook while the other learners listened. During the oral practice activity, the teacher asked the learners to make sentences using a part of speech, for example, adverb or adjective. Sometimes the learners were asked to change direct speech to reported speech. In chorus response, the teacher asked the learners a question and all the learners answered it at the same time.

Ten minutes were spent on oral reading, 59 minutes on oral practice, and 16 minutes on chorus response.

There were "other" learning activities under the guided oral exercise procedures which were not included in the observation grid. These were pairing adjectives and forming nouns from adjectives and mentioning kinds of nouns, answering questions on one of the parts of speech (e.g. prepositions and adverbs), answering questions about "concord", pronunciation and spelling practices, and dividing and counting syllables in words.

The amount of time spent on the "other" learning activities in the guided oral exercise procedures was as follows: Pairing adjectives - 7 minutes; forming nouns form adjectives and mentioning kinds of nouns - 10 minutes; answering questions about the parts of speech and "concord" - 15 minutes; pronunciation practice - 5 minutes; spelling practice - 5 minutes, and dividing and counting syllables in words - 7 minutes.

- There were also question and answer procedures, which occurred in 3 lessons. Questions and answers involved activities such as asking and answering comprehension questions and listening to a passage read by the teacher. The teacher read out the questions from the textbook and asked the learners to answer them orally.

Twelve minutes were spent on asking and answering comprehension questions and ten minutes were spent on listening to the passage. Fifteen minutes were spent on reading and interpreting the passage and explaining new words from the passage. This activity was not in the observation grid, therefore, it fell under the "other" category.

- Discussion and decisions occurred in 4 of the 10 lessons observed. This procedure entailed activities such as information-gap, opinion-gap, reasoning-gap, and rearranging activities. During the information-gap activities, the teacher asked one learner to explain what "concord" was, and asked the other learners their opinion

on the explanation given by the previous learner. The learners were also asked to give reasons for their opinion. During the rearranging activity, the teacher wrote a short passage with jumbled sentences on the board and asked the learners to rearrange them in a meaningful way.

The amount of time spent on the information-gap activities was 17 minutes, on opinion-gaps and reasoning-gaps 7 minutes, and on rearranging activities 5 minutes.

None of the other procedures listed in the observation grid was used. There were, however, procedures that were not included in the observation grid. These "other" procedures included homework, which occurred in 8 lessons and self-evaluation, which occurred once. The self-evaluation procedures entailed the learner correcting their work according to the teacher's answers written on the chalkboard.

6.2.3 The third Grade observed: Grade 9F, School C

Ten lessons taught to Grade 9F, covering 5 hours, were observed in school C. The procedures used in each of the lessons are indicated in Table 3.

Table 3: Procedures used in Grade 9F, School C

LESSON	PROCEDURES	LEARNER ACTIVITIES	SKILLS: Listening/Speaking Reading/Writing	INTERACTION: Individual/Pairs Group/Class	TIME
1.	Formal instruction	Learning rules	Listening	Class	3 minutes
	Guided oral exercises	Oral practice	Speaking	Individual	7 minutes
	Questions and answers	Taking part in interviews, asking warm-up questions using "will"/"shall"	Speaking	Individual	12 minutes
	Discussions and decisions	Information-gap Opinion-gap-Expressing feelings Reasoning-gap	Speaking Speaking Speaking	Individual Individual Individual	2 minutes 4 minutes 2 minutes
	Other: Writing exercises	Changing a passage from present tense to future tense	Writing	Individual	Home-work
2.	Formal instruction	Learning rules through answering questions about tenses	Listening/Speaking	Class/Individual	7 minutes
	Guided oral exercises	Oral practice - Composing sentences using present perfect tense, changing present tense (in brackets) to present perfect tense in negative form Chorus response	Speaking Speaking	Individual Class	10 minutes 3 minutes

	Questions and answers	Answering questions (warm-up questions)	Speaking	Individual/Class	3 minutes
	Discussions and decisions	Information-gap	Speaking	Individual	2 minutes
		Opinion-gap	Speaking	Individual	2 minutes
		Reasoning-gap	Speaking	Individual	3 minutes
	Other: Writing exercises	Changing the form of the verb (in brackets) to be in the present perfect tense	Writing	Individual	Home-work
3.	Formal instruction	Learning rules	Listening	Class	5 minutes
	Guided oral exercises	Oral practice - Making sentences using conjunctions	Speaking	Individual	15 minutes
	Other: Writing exercises	Writing sentences using conjunctions	Writing	Individual	10 minutes
4.	Formal instruction	Learning rules through giving examples of exclamation mark	Listening/Speaking	Class/Individual	2 minutes
		Other:			
	Guided oral exercises	Taking part in dialogue	Speaking	Pairs	4 minutes
		Demonstration	Speaking	Pairs	2 minutes
		Using facial expression (for example anger, sorrow, happiness)	Speaking	Individual	4 minutes
		Taking part in interviews	Speaking	Pairs	5 minutes

	Questions and answers	**Other:** Taking part in dialogue Demonstration	Speaking Speaking	Pairs Individual	3 minutes 2 minutes
	Discussions and decisions	Information-gap Improvising	Speaking Speaking	Individual Individual	3 minutes 2 minutes
	Role plays and simulation	Free expression	Speaking	Individual	3 minutes
	Other: Writing exercises	Writing sentences in exclamatory expressions	Writing	Individual	Homework
5.	Formal instruction	Learning rules through demonstration of adjectives of comparison	Listening	Class/Pair/Group	10 minutes
	Guided oral exercises	Oral practice - Making sentences using adjectives	Speaking	Individual	20 minutes
	Other: Writing exercises	Writing sentences using comparative and superlative adjectives	Writing	Individual	Home-work
6.	Questions and answers	Reading a comprehension passage and answering questions orally	Reading/Speaking	Individual	9 minutes
	Discussions and decisions	Information-gap Opinion-gap Reasoning-gap	Speaking Speaking Speaking	Individual Individual Individual	2 minutes 2 minutes 2 minutes

		Other: Discussing prepositions using pictures on the board	Speaking	Class	5 minutes
	Other: Thinking and imagination	Thinking and imagining about something which does not exist	Listening/Speaking	Class/Individual	6 minutes
		Discussing the advantages and disadvantages of the imagined thing	Speaking	Individual	3 minutes
	Self-evaluation	Each group corrects their work according to the teacher's answers on the board	Speaking/Writing	Groups	4 minutes
7.	Formal instruction	Learning rules by giving examples of sentences which express the use of prepositions	Listening/Speaking	Class/Individual	7 minutes
	Guided oral exercises	Oral practice - Giving examples from the TV advertisement "Where is the Cremora?"	Speaking	Individual	10 minutes
		Chorus response	Speaking	Class	1 minute
	Discussions and decisions	Information-gap	Speaking	Individual	3 minutes
		Opinion-gap	Speaking	Individual	2 minutes

		Other: Discussing prepositions using pictures on the board Demonstrating "between" - 3 learners sitting together and the teacher asks "who is in between the others?"	Speaking Speaking	Class Group/Individual	5 minutes 2 minutes
	Other: Writing exercises	Writing sentences using prepositions given on the board	Writing	Individual	Home-work
8.	Formal instruction	Learning rules using examples of sentences	Listening/Speaking	Class/Individual	10 minutes
	Guided oral exercises	Oral practice through examples on conjunctions and using them in sentences	Listening/Speaking	Class/Individual	10 minutes
		Other: Asking and answering questions on conjunctions Explaining how tenses change when using conjunctions	Speaking Speaking	Individual Individual	5 minutes 5 minutes
	Other: Writing exercises	Composing sentences using conjunctions given on board	Writing	Individual	Home-work

9.	Discussions and decisions	Information-gap Opinion-gap Reasoning-gap Rearranging activities - Arranging mixed sentences in order	Speaking Speaking Speaking Speaking	Groups Groups Groups Groups	5 minutes 5 minutes 5 minutes 10 minutes
	Other: Self-evaluation	Each group gives out the answers Correcting the work according to the teacher's answers	Speaking Listening/Writing	Groups Groups	3 minutes 2 minutes
10.	Formal instruction	Learning rules through examples on direct and indirect speech	Listening/Speaking	Class/Individual	7 minutes
	Guided oral exercises Discussions and decisions	Oral practice - Changing direct speech into indirect speech Chorus response Information-gap	Speaking Speaking Speaking	Individual Class Individual	15 minutes 3 minutes 5 minutes

As Table 3 shows, the following procedures were used in Grade 9F, school C:

- Formal instruction procedures occurred in 8 lessons. The teacher explaining rules and the learners answered questions about rules or gave examples of sentences which explained the rules. Fifty-one minutes were spent on learning rules.

- Guided oral exercise procedures occurred in 8 lessons. They involved oral practice activities in which learners made sentences using tenses, for example, present perfect tense, or changed present perfect tense to past perfect tense. Sometimes the learners made sentences using conjunctions and adjectives. The guided oral exercise procedures also involved chorus response activities, during which the teacher asked questions and all the learners answered at the same time. Eighty-eight minutes were spent on oral practice activities while seven minutes were spent on chorus response activities.

There were "other" learning activities: learners took part in dialogue, gave demonstrations and made facial expressions; learners answered questions about tenses asked by the teacher, and the teacher explained how tenses change when conjunctions are used. During the dialogue learning activity, two learners held a conversation on how they each felt when his grandfather died. Then the teacher asked one learner to stand in front of the class and demonstrate anger or sorrow. Sometimes the teacher asked questions about parts of speech and the learners explained how tenses change when a part of speech like the conjunction is used in a sentence, as in "She feels ill. She swallowed a diamond" - "She feels ill *because* she *has* swallowed a diamond".

The amount of time spent on the various activities was as follows: Dialogue - 4 minutes, demonstration - 2 minutes, facial expression - 4 minutes, asking and answering questions - 5 minutes, and explaining how a change of tense occurs when a conjunction is used - 5 minutes.

- Question and answer procedures occurred in 4 lessons. The activities used in these procedures were interviews, asking and answering questions, and reading and answering comprehension questions.

During the interviews, the teacher asked the learners questions such as "What is your name?", "How old are you?", or "How old will you be in five years later?" During the asking and answering questions activity, the learner asked the teacher

any question related to the topic. In reading and answering comprehension questions, the learner read the passage from the textbook and answered questions related to the passage. Thirteen minutes were spent on interviews, seven minutes on asking and answering questions, and nine minutes on reading and answering comprehension questions.

In the "other" category, dialogue and demonstration occurred once each. Dialogue occurred in 3 minutes and demonstration in 2 minutes.

- Discussion and decisions occurred in 7 of the 10 lessons observed. These procedures entailed information-gap, opinion-gap activities, reasoning-gap activities, and rearranging activities.

There was an information-gap activity whereby one learner explained to the class what he was thinking about, which happened to be direct and indirect speech. In an opinion-gap activity, the teacher asked the other learners their opinions about the explanation given by their colleague on direct speech and indirect speech. Whereas the reasoning-gap activity entailed one learner explaining the features of a direct speech, rearranging activities entailed learners arranging jumbled sentences in order.

The time spent on using the various activities was follows: Information-gap - 22 minutes, opinion-gap - 15 minutes, reasoning-gap - 12 minutes, and rearranging activities - 10 minutes.

There were activities that occurred under the discussion and decision procedures which were not included in the observation grid. These "other" activities were correcting grammatical mistakes (two minutes), using pictures in the discussion (five minutes), and demonstrating (two minutes).

- Role plays and simulation occurred once in the 10 lessons observed. The teacher selected learners to act the role of, for example, an angry father. Learners in these procedures improvised and expressed themselves freely. Time spent on improvisation and free expression was 2 minutes and 3 minutes, respectively.

"Other" procedures were writing exercises, thinking and imagination, and self-evaluation. Writing exercises occurred in 7 of the 10 lessons observed. Writing exercises were given to the learners as homework. For the thinking and imagination procedures, the learners were asked to think of, and imagine, something that did not exist, such as a human being having three hands. The learners then discussed the advantages and disadvantages of having three hands. The time spent on thinking and imagining was 6 minutes and the subsequent discussion took 3 minutes.

Self-evaluation occurred in 2 of the 10 lessons observed. Each group gave their own answers and corrected their work, also using the teacher's answers on the board. Seven minutes were spent on self-evaluation.

None of the other procedures listed in the observation grid was used.

6.2.4 The fourth Grade observed: Grade 9D, School D

Nine lessons taught to Grade 9D were observed in school D. The lessons covered a total of 4 hours and 30 minutes. The procedures used in each of the lessons are indicated in Table 4.

Table 4: Procedures used in Grade 9D, School D

LESSON	PROCEDURES	LEARNER ACTIVITIES	SKILLS: Listening/Speaking Reading/Writing	INTERACTION: Individual/Pairs Group/Class	TIME
1.	Dictation	**Other:** Filling in blanks	Writing	Individual	5 minutes
	Questions and answers	Asking and answering comprehension questions	Listening/Speaking	Class/Individual	5 minutes
	Discussions and decisions	Information-gap Opinion-gap	Listening/Speaking Speaking	Class/Individual Individual	2 minutes 2 minutes
		Other: Explaining new words Describing a gorilla Reading a comprehension passage from the textbook	Listening/Speaking Speaking Reading	Class/Individual Individual Class	4 minutes 3 minutes 9 minutes
2.	Questions and answers	Answering questions through describing pictures in the textbook	Speaking	Individual	10 minutes
	Discussions and decisions	Information-gap Opinion-gap Reasoning-gap	Speaking Speaking Speaking	Individual/Pairs Individual/Pairs Individual/Pairs	8 minutes 5 minutes 7 minutes
3.	Formal instruction	Learning rules (conducted in Tswana)	Listening	Class	5 minutes

	Guided oral exercises	Oral practice (in Tswana) Chorus response	Speaking Speaking	Individual Class	10 minutes 5 minutes
	Discussions and decisions	Information-gap - Discussing the use of the Encyclopaedia	Speaking	Class/Individual/	10 minutes
	Other: Writing exercises	Reading an extract from the textbook about the Encyclopaedia and answering questions	Reading/Writing	Individual	Home-work
4.	Formal instruction	Learning rules (in Tswana)	Listening	Class	5 minutes
	Guided oral exercises	Oral practice Chorus response	Speaking Speaking	Individual Class	7 minutes 3 minutes
	Other: Writing exercises	Identifying subject, verb and object in the sentences given on the board	Writing	Individual	15 minutes
5	Questions and answers Discussions and decisions	Answering comprehension questions Information-gap Opinion-gap Reasoning-gap Problem-solving	Speaking Listening/Speaking Speaking Speaking Speaking	Individual Class/Individual Individual Individual Individual	10 minutes 5 minutes 5 minutes 5 minutes 5 minutes

6.	Formal instruction	Learning rules	Listening	Class	10 minutes
	Guided oral exercises	Oral practice Chorus response	Speaking Speaking	Individual Class	15 minutes 5 minutes
	Other: Writing exercises	Changing active voice to passive Using the passive voice in different tenses Identifying subject, verb and object in the sentences given in the textbook Making sentences beginning with objects	Writing	Individual	Home-work
7.	Formal instruction	Learning rules through examples	Listening/Speaking	Class/Individual	7 minutes
	Guided oral exercises	Oral practice through asking and answering questions using present continuous tense Chorus response	Speaking Speaking	Individual Class	20 minutes 3 minutes
	Other: Writing exercises	Making sentences using present continuous tense	Writing	Individual	Home-work

8.	Formal instruction	Learning rules by answering questions on the use of past continuous tense	Listening/Speaking	Class/Individual	10 minutes
	Guided oral exercises	Oral practice - Giving examples on past continuous tense	Speaking Speaking Speaking	Individual Individual Individual	2 minutes 2 minutes 20 minutes
	Other: Writing exercises	Changing present continuous tense to past continuous tense	Writing	Individual	Home-work
9.	Formal instruction	Learning rules - Giving examples on present perfect tense	Listening/Speaking	Class/Individual	12 minutes
	Guided oral exercises	Oral practice - Changing present tense to present perfect tense Chorus response	Speaking Speaking	Individual Class	15 minutes 3 minute
	Other: Writing exercises	Composing sentences using conjunctions given on the board	Writing	Individual	Home-work

9.	Discussions and decisions	Information-gap Opinion-gap Reasoning-gap Rearranging activities - Arranging mixed sentences in order	Speaking Speaking Speaking Speaking	Groups Groups Groups Groups	5 minutes 5 minutes 5 minutes 10 minutes
	Other: Writing exercises	Changing different tenses to present perfect tense	Writing	Individual	Homework

As Table 4 shows, the procedures used were as follows:

- Formal instruction procedures occurred in 6 lessons. They entailed learning grammatical rules, which were explained by the teacher in Tswana. The learners then gave examples of sentences that illustrated the rules and answered questions on the uses of grammatical items learned during a particular lesson. Time spent on learning rules was 49 out of 300 minutes (about 17% of the total time).

- Guided oral exercises were used in 6 lessons. The activities under these procedures were oral practice and chorus response. The learners gave examples of tenses and changed one tense to another. The teacher asked questions on tenses; all the learners answered at the same time.

- The oral practice and the chorus response activities took 87 minutes and 19 minutes, respectively.

- There was one occurrence of dictation. Learners wrote down questions as dictated by the teacher and then answered them in writing. This fill-in-the-blanks activity, which lasted for five minutes, was included under the "other" category of the activities in the observation grid.

- Question and answer procedures occurred in 3 lessons. The learners answered questions by describing pictures in the textbook. Twenty-five minutes were spent on these procedures.

- Discussion and decision procedures occurred in 4 lessons. These procedures involved information-gap, opinion-gap, reasoning-gap, and problem solving activities, and were sometimes conducted in Tswana. During the information-gap activities one learner explained what he knew about the use of an encyclopaedia while the other learners listened. Then the teacher asked the other learners their opinions about the explanation given. The teacher also asked the learners to give their reasons why they thought it was good to know the use of the encyclopaedia. In the problem-solving activities, the teacher asked the learners what they would do if they were parents of teenagers who become pregnant while still in school. Individual learners explained what they would do.

The time spent on each of the activities used in the discussion and decision procedures was as follows:

- Information-gap - 25 minutes, opinion-gap - 12 minutes, reasoning-gap - 12 minutes, and

- problem-solving - 5 minutes.

In the "other" category of learning activities of the discussion and decision procedures, there were other activities which occurred, namely explaining new words, describing words, and reading a comprehension passage from the textbook. Four minutes were spent on explaining new words, 3 minutes on describing words, 9 minutes on reading the comprehension passage.

- Writing exercise procedures occurred in 6 lessons. These procedures, which form the "other" category, entailed reading an extract from the textbook about the encyclopaedia and answering questions from that extract; identifying subject, verb, and object in the sentences given on the board; changing the active voice to the

passive voice and using the passive voice in different tenses; and changing present continuous tense to past continuous or changing different tenses to present perfect tense. The writing exercises were given to the learners as homework.

None of the other procedures listed in the observation grid was used in Grade 9D, school D.

6.3 DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION OF THE RESULTS

A total of thirty-four lessons taught to Grade 9 in the four schools were observed. The frequency of each procedure used in each of the 34 lessons is indicated in Table 5. The table also presents each procedure as a percentage of all the procedures in the observation grid.

Table 5 reveals the following key findings:

- Formal instruction and guided oral exercises dominated the classroom procedures, constituting more than half (52.42%) of all procedure usage. Formal instruction procedures were used in 26.21% of all teaching-learning procedures. Similarly, guided oral procedures were used in 26.21% of all the teaching-learning procedures.

- Formal instruction procedures and guided oral exercises consisted of learning rules, oral reading, oral practice, and chorus responses. Teachers spent a lot of time in explaining the rules of the language and guiding learners in their oral practice.

- Discussion and decision procedures were used in 14.55% of the teaching-learning procedures. These consisted of information-gaps, opinion-gaps, reasoning-gaps, rearranging activities, and problem-solving.

- About one-tenth (9.7%) of all teaching-learning utilised question and answer procedures, which consisted of interviews, asking questions, and answering comprehension questions.

Table 5: Summary of occurrences of procedures used in Grade 9, Schools A, B, C and D

PROCEDURES	FREQUENCY SCHOOL A	FREQUENCY SCHOOL B	FREQUENCY SCHOOL C	FREQUENCY SCHOOL D	TOTAL	%
1. Controlled language drills	0	0	0	0	0	0
2. Formal instruction	5	8	8	6	27	26.21
3. Guided oral exercises	5	8	8	6	27	26.21
4. Dictation	0	0	0	1	1	0.97
5. Questions and answers	0	3	4	3	10	9.7
6. Discussion and decisions	0	4	7	4	15	14.55
7. Role plays and simulation	0	0	1	0	1	0.97
8. Stories and drama	0	0	0	0	0	0
9. Games	0	0	0	0	0	0
10. Songs	0	0	0	0	0	0
11. Other	4	9	3	6	22	21.35
TOTAL					**103**	**99.96***

- Whereas more than half (52.42%) of the ESL teaching-learning occurred through the use non-communicative procedures, less than a quarter (24.25%) of the ESL

teaching-learning occurred through the use of communicative procedures. Thus, communicative teaching-learning procedures were used less than half as much as non-communicative teaching-learning procedures.

- In this study, an assortment of procedures under the "other" category constituted more than one-fifth of all the procedures used. These were writing exercises (18 occurrences), self-evaluation (3 occurrences) and thinking and imagination (one occurrence). Whereas self-evaluation (cf. Table 2) and thinking and imagination (cf. Table 3) are communicative teaching-learning procedures, writing exercises can be both non-communicative and communicative.

- A substantial amount of explaining and responding was done in Tswana. This is possibly an indication of the tension between the official policy of exclusive reliance on English and the actual practice in Black schools (Meyer, 1997:236). It might even be a reflection of the fact that the medium of instruction continues to be a "sensitive aspect of the language-in-education policy" in South Africa, as McCabe (1996:9) puts it.

A number of issues from these findings call for discussion:

Although the ESL syllabus in South Africa stipulates that English should be taught communicatively, as the Department of Education recommends (De Villiers, 1997:21), most ESL teachers in secondary schools in South Africa do not use communicative procedures in their lessons. What this means is that the official guide for the teaching-learning of English is not followed and, therefore, the aims of communicative competence are not being pursued. It also means that the teachers focus on form and accuracy, and not on fluency. It can be concluded that ESL teachers in Black schools mainly use audiolingual procedures in their teaching (cf. section 1.1).

While formal instruction procedures have some value, they should not be used exclusively. Formal instruction can be a vehicle to accuracy and progress in ESL, as it facilitates natural language development (Van der Walt, 1998:46). Van der Walt

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* Percentage total is less than 100 due to rounding off.

(1998) observes that for some structures, for example, where over-generalisation occurs, formal instruction may be necessary to ensure that the second language is learnt.

As said above, formal instruction procedures on their own are not sufficient requirements because on their own they do not challenge the learners to move towards the abstract level of mental processes, beyond mere habit formation. Practice, imitation, drills, and repetition would not involve meaningful learning and language use. What seems to lack in formal instruction procedures, then, is an encouragement for the learners to use their innateness and creativity when classroom activities take place and to use their abilities to derive and use the underlying grammatical rules of the language (Harmer, 1991).

Also, formal instruction procedures were not the only type of procedures that were used; some communicative procedures were used too.

In terms of Harmer's (1991:50) model, the procedures in ESL teaching-learning in the four schools were generally at the non-communicative end of the continuum. Since use of non-communicative procedures predominated the ESL teaching-learning process, it is possible that learners in these schools were involved in activities that did not motivate them to communicate. The implication of this use of primarily non-communicative procedures is that the learners are kept at the level of mere introduction to the language. This should be a matter of concern regarding the teaching of English as a second language. Confining learners to the introductory stage of ESL is unlikely to enable them to acquire the ability and confidence to use English. Ultimately, the level of competence in English among Black high school graduates remains inadequate.

It is possible that some teacher-related factors contributed to the predominant use of ESL teaching-learning procedures which are at the non-communicative end of the communication continuum (cf. 4.2). In particular, the training of the teachers may have been inadequate, from which they may have lacked the ability to use a broad-range of ESL teaching-learning techniques and skills and were, therefore, confined to using primarily audiolingual procedures (cf. 4.2.1). The teachers' use of Tswana to explain

some concepts of the language suggests that their level of proficiency in English was inadequate for teaching, although it is also possible that the teachers use Tswana simply to make sure that the learners understand the concepts (cf. 4.2.2). The predominant use of procedures at the non-communicative end of the communication continuum also suggests that the teachers prefer an authoritarian style (cf. 4.2.3), which would be in agreement with Ngcobo's (1988:22) observation that Black teachers are generally authoritarian in their teaching (cf. Ngcobo, 1986:156).

Also, the teachers seem to follow a typical "traditional-instructor" pattern of teaching (cf. 4.4). They use primarily one kind of teaching-learning procedures, viz. non-communicative procedures, consequently a large majority of learners have to learn in a learning style not suited for them. This means that there is a mismatch between teaching style and learning styles. This apparent mismatch also means that the specific learning needs of the learners are not met (Dreyer, 1998:115).

The predominant use of non-communicative ESL procedures could also be attributed to learner-related factors (cf. 4.3). The learners' upbringing in a township socio-economic context where the use of English is limited means that the knowledge of English they acquire in the classroom is not reinforced after school hours (cf. 4.3.1). The lack of a home-environment that encourages the use of English might produce in the learner a sense of disinterest in participating in communicative activities in the classroom.

During the observation, it was clear that the teachers were textbook-bound. The commonly used textbooks were: *Let's Use English Standard 7* (by Mbhele & Ellis, 1987); *Advance With English Standard 7: Pupils' book* (by Trediдgo & Mawasha, 1980); and *A Book of English for Standard 7* (by Allard, Scheffler & Rodseth, 1987). Not only were these textbooks published more than ten years ago but also they contain few, if any, teaching-learning activities at the communicative end of the continuum.

The four schools did not have adequate facilities: there were no good libraries, no printed materials such as handouts, and there were few textbooks such that five to seven learners had to share one copy of a textbook. The big class size (30-50 learners

in one class) possibly limited individualised attention as well as individuals' participation in the class activities.

6.4 CONCLUSION

This study shows that communicative teaching-learning procedures in some of the secondary schools in the Potchefstroom District are employed to a limited extent, implying that the ESL syllabus is followed but not implemented properly (cf. 1.1). This situation might be attributed to various teacher-related and learner-related factors.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This concluding chapter presents a summary of the conclusions of the study, limitations of the study, and recommendations for further research.

7.2 CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY

The aims of this study were to analyse the teaching-learning procedures used by ESL teachers in selected secondary schools in the Potchefstroom District and to determine the extent to which CLT procedures are being implemented.

The questions addressed in this study were:

- What teaching procedures do ESL teachers use in secondary schools?
- To what extent are ESL teachers in secondary schools implementing CLT procedures?

To address these questions, an observation grid of ESL teaching-learning procedures was developed and used to observe ESL teaching-learning sessions in Grade 9 classes in four schools in the Potchefstroom District. The grid was based on a taxonomy of ESL teaching-learning procedures and activities (cf. 3.3.1.1 & 3.3.1.2).

With regard to the first question, it was established that in the schools sampled, teachers used primarily formal instruction and guided oral exercise teaching-learning procedures. These procedures are at the non-communicative end of the communication continuum. This means that the teachers in the sample used primarily audiolingual procedures.

Regarding the second question, the results showed that ESL teachers in the schools observed used communicative teaching-learning procedures in one-fourth of all ESL teaching-learning.

It is clear from the findings that, although the Education Department stipulates that ESL should be taught communicatively, ESL teachers in Black schools do not implement communicative teaching-learning procedures in their teaching process. The use of non-communicative procedures as the primary procedures in ESL teaching in Black schools means that ESL teaching-learning in these schools is basically at the introduction stage, which further means that learners do not get to the level of mastering accuracy and fluency of the language.

Possible reasons for the ESL teachers in Black schools not using communicative teaching-learning procedures properly may be:

- Inadequate teachers' proficiency in English language and qualifications;
- Inadequate training in the use of communicative procedures;
- The use of an authoritarian teaching style, which favours non-communicative procedures;
- Poor socio-economic background and language proficiency of learners;
- A mismatch of teachers' teaching styles with learners' learning styles; and
- Poor facilities, such as lack of handouts and other supplies necessary for implementing communicative procedures.

7.3 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The conclusions of this study are based on four teachers in four schools observed in one class. Although the schools, the teachers and the classes were selected at random, the sample might be too small to form a basis for general conclusion regarding the use

of ESL teaching procedures in South Africa. These findings might, therefore, be applicable only to Black schools in the Potchefstroom District.

The duration of the observations may also have been too short to draw comprehensive conclusions.

7.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This study shows that ESL teachers in the Potchefstroom District generally do not utilise teaching-learning procedures that are at the communicative end of the communicative continuum.

Harmer's continuum is a useful framework for analysing ESL teaching-learning procedures. And future research in this area is necessary.

It is important that more research should be done on the area of ESL teaching-procedures. The fact is that there are many communicative language teaching-learning procedures and activities which can help to foster and enhance the teaching-learning of ESL. Researchers, therefore, should do research on those procedures and see how best they can work hand to hand in fulfilling the purpose of learning English as a second language. Research also should be done on facilities to determine what kind of facilities would be needed to enhance the use of communicative teaching-learning procedures and activities. Evaluative analysis is needed to determine the extent to which these elements are influencing the use of ESL teaching-learning procedures.

The use of ESL teaching-learning procedures that are at the communicative end of the communication continuum is both desirable and prescribed in the South African curriculum. Communicative procedures are especially relevant in the OBE education system that South Africa has adopted. It is, therefore, imperative that ESL teachers adjust and use such procedures. Future studies should determine why ESL teachers in Black schools do not use communicative procedures and investigate how these teachers can be empowered to adopt communicative procedures in their teaching.

Lemmer (1993:154) posits that semi-lingualism inhibits second language learning, which implies that the use of the mother tongue should be encouraged among second language learners. But it is also possible that the extensive use of mother tongue among second language learners discourages them from striving to learn the second language. These viewpoints seem to be contradictory. The question then is: What is the effect of the use of mother tongue in ESL secondary school classes in the Potchefstroom District? Does the use of mother tongue in ESL secondary school classes in the Potchefstroom District enhance or inhibit the learning of English as a second language? Future research should address these questions.

Longitudinal studies involving larger school, class and teacher samples should be done, to investigate, in a more comprehensive way, what ESL teaching-procedures teachers in Black schools use and the extent to which these teachers use communicative procedures.

LESSON: SCHOOL: DATE: GRADE:

PROCEDURE	LEARNER ACTIVITIES	OCCURRENCE	SKILLS Listening/Speaking /Reading/writing	INTERACTION Individual/Pairs/ Group/Class	TIME
1. CONTROLLED LANGUAGE DRILLS	Repetition Memorisation Imitation Chorus response Substitution drills Transformation drills Response drills Other				
2. FORMAL INSTRUCTION	Fill-in exercises Learning rules Other				
3. GUIDED ORAL EXERCISES	Oral reading Oral practice Chorus response Other				

PROCEDURE	LEARNER ACTIVITIES	OCCURRENCE	SKILLS Listening/Speaking/ Reading/writing	INTERACTION Individual/Pairs/ Group/Class	TIME
4. DICTATION	Pronunciation Spelling Vocabulary Editing Other				
5. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS	Taking part in interviews Guessing games Asking questions Answering comprehension questions Other				

LESSON: SCHOOL: DATE: GRADE:

PROCEDURE	LEARNER ACTIVITIES	OCCURRENCE	SKILLS Listening/Speaking /Reading/writing	INTERACTION Individual/Pairs/ Group/Class	TIME
6. DISCUSSION AND DECISIONS	Information-gap activities Opinion-gap activities Reasoning-gap activities Rearranging activities Debates Problem-solving activities Other				
7. ROLE PLAYS AND SIMULATION	Interaction Improvisation Free expressions Use of role play cards Other				

PROCEDURE	LEARNER ACTIVITIES	OCCURRENCE	SKILLS Listening/Speaking/ Reading/writing	INTERACTION Individual/Pairs/ Group/Class	TIME
8. STORIES AND DRAMA	Dramatisation Miming Improvisation Interpretation Interaction Intonation Other				
9. GAMES	Guessing Interpretation Memorisation Interaction Co-operation Competition Other				
10. SONGS	Pronunciation practice (stress/rhythm) Free practice Memorisation Other				
11. OTHER					

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