DEVELOPMENT AND APPLICATION OF EVALUATION CRITERIA FOR TERTIARY IN-HOUSE EAP MATERIALS

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this study to my children, Justin, Minette, Andrew and Lesley, for their support, patience and encouragement during the many years of my postgraduate studies.

SUMMARY

This study develops materials evaluation criteria to assess the ENGL131 and ENGL132 coursebooks which form the framework of the two modules, which together make up the one-year EAP course at the University of Limpopo. The evaluation criteria developed from both a literature review and empirical study are then validated by a panel of outside experts and finally applied to the coursebooks.

The materials were designed and developed at the beginning of 2003 when the enrolments for the two modules were increasing rapidly and the workshop groups were becoming unmanageably large. All eight staff members, whether qualified in literature or language studies were suddenly involved in the teaching of mainly academic reading and writing. The initial evaluation of the coursebooks had been somewhat subjective and superficial. After two years it, therefore, became necessary to do a more in-depth and 'whilst-use' evaluation of the coursebooks to ensure that the coursebooks contributed to an enhanced English proficiency.

A survey of literature was done on approaches and issues related to materials design and materials evaluation. Evaluation criteria were extracted that not only pertained to language teaching and learning, but also those that were particularly relevant to tertiary, mainly rural, English Second Language students being taught in large, multi-level classes.

Data were then collected from students and teaching staff by means of a number of instruments for the purpose of triangulation. The data were analysed and another list of evaluation criteria was put together. This second list from the empirical study synthesised with the one from the literature survey. This provisional list was validated by a panel of outside experts. A validated and refined final list of evaluation criteria was compiled and subsequently applied to the ENGL131 and ENGL132 coursebooks. The extent to which the coursebooks met the evaluation criteria was measured by means of a rating scale. Recommendations for change were made based on the ratings given. The measurability, specificity and operationalisation of the criteria were reflected on. Additional teaching guidelines were offered.

The key English Second Language teaching and learning approaches which are included in the criteria to be met by these coursebooks, are English for Academic Purposes (specifically academic reading and writing), certain principles of Outcomes-based Education, communicative language teaching, Task-based language teaching, and implicit and explicit grammar instruction. Important issues also covered by the criteria were those central to students with a rural background, namely cultural, intercultural and general interest topics and activities that are familiar to and of interest to students in the 17 to 22 year age group.

Opsomming

Hierdie studie ontwikkel kriteria vir die evaluering van studiemateriaal wat die kern is van die twee modules (ENGL131 en ENGL132) wat die kursus vir Engels vir akademiese doeleindes vorm, aan die Universiteit van Limpopo.

Die studiemateriaal is aan die begin van 2003 ontwerp en ontwikkel. Dit was nodig as gevolg van die sterk styging in die inskrywings vir die twee modules sterk en die studiegroepe onbeheerbaar groot geword het. Al agt onderwyspersoneellede (van letterkunde en taalleer) moes skielik betrokke raak in die aanbieding van hoofsaaklik lees- en skryfvaardighede van akademiese Engels. Die eerste evaluering was ietwat subjektief en oppervlakkig. Dit het toe na twee jaar nodig geword om 'n meer indringende evaluering van die studiegidse te doen om te verseker dat hulle wel tot 'n verhoogde Engels taalvaardigheid bydra.

'n Literatuurstudie van die metodes en strydvrae rondom die ontwerp, ontwikkeling en evaluering van studiemateriaal is onderneem. Evalueringskriteria met betrekking tot die aanbieding, onderrig en aanleer van 'n taal, veral ten opsigte van hoofsaaklik plattelandse, Engels Tweedetaal sprekers wat Engels onderrig ontvang in groot klasse, is uitgelig.

Data is ingewin van studente en onderwyspersoneel deur middel van 'n verskeidenheid navorsingsinstrumente. Die data is geanaliseer en 'n tweede lys van evalueringskriteria is opgestel. Hierde tweede lys uit die empiriese studie, is met die vorige lys saamgesmelt. Die voorlopige criteria is deur 'n paneel van deskundiges in die veld van Engels Tweedetaal bevestig. Die finale lys van evalueringskriteria is op die ENGL131 en ENGL132 studiegidse toegepas en die studiegidse is teen 'n waardasieskaal gemeet. Aanbevelings vir veranderinge aan die studiegidse is gemaak. Bykomende onderwysriglyne is voorgestel en daar is ook oor die formulering en toeppasbaarheid van die criteria gereflekteer.

Die hoofkenmerke ten opsigte van Engels Tweedetaal onderrigmetodes, naamlik Engeld vir akademiese doeleindes (spesifiek akademiese lees- en skryfvaardighede), sekere beginsels van uitkomsgebaseerde onderwys, kommunikatiewe taalonderrig, taakgebaseerde taalonderrig en implisiete of eksplisiete onderrig van grammatika is ingesluit by die kriteria waaraan die studiegidse moet voldoen; asook kriteria wat spesifiek van toepassing is op Engels Tweedetaal, plattelandse studente wat kulturele en interkulturele onderwerpe en aktiwiteite insluit vir studente in die ouderdomsgroep 17 tot 22 jaar.

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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Materials are central to the teaching and learning of English as a second language or as now termed in South Africa (SA), an additive language. Materials act as support inside and outside the classroom, both for the facilitator and the learner. Tomlinson (1998: iv) defines materials as "[a]nything which is used to help to teach language learners" and these can be in the form of "a textbook, a workbook, a cassette, a CD-Rom, a video, a photocopied handout, a newspaper, a paragraph written on whiteboard: anything which presents or informs about the language being learned."

This study focuses on the evaluation of "in-house" materials designed and written by the course coordinator whose audience are University of Limpopo (UniLim) students from various faculties who need English for their diverse academic courses. In-house course materials are aimed at a more specific local audience as opposed to commercial materials which are aimed at as wide an audience as possible (Dubin & Olshtain 1986: 168).

In-house developed materials address the issues of contextualisation[1], timeliness (meaning recent in time - to be of current interest at the time of the lesson or workshop) and the personal touch (Block 1991: 213-215). These issues cannot necessarily be dealt with by the commercial textbooks which have a wider market. On a practical level, taking into account the constraints within an institution, factors such as the student: lecturer ratio, the cost of a textbook, or the failure to find one textbook which addresses all the items covered in the course, the development of in-house materials may be the solution. These materials, ideally, draw on the content of the syllabus, and specifically on the course design, and reduce broader objectives to more manageable ones (Dubin & Olshtain 1986: 167). Another benefit is that in-house materials can address the issue of "cultural continuity" (Holliday 2001: 169), which is related to contextualisation (Block 1991) mentioned above. Holliday has adopted a broader sense of the term "cultural continuity", originally coined by Jacob (1996), to

[1] Contextualisation in this study is used as in Block (1991: 213) to mean taking into account the students' home, school and university environment; and contextualizing textbooks means adapting the language materials to the context of the students.

mean: "to be sensitive to the cultural expectations of the 'recipients' of innovation whether they be students or teachers encountering new teaching methodologies or stakeholders in curriculum projects (Holliday 2001: 169). Cultural continuity calls for methodologies appropriate to the social context (Holliday 1994).

Many of the students at the University of Limpopo, a historically disadvantaged institution, come from resource-poor and input-impoverished schools, as well as from poor and low income homes. Therefore, many University of Limpopo students lack both the means[2] and the "wish" to buy textbooks (because it not been part of their study habits), as well as the language and study skills to use textbooks effectively. The lack of money also means that ideally, the workbook for each module should not be more than the majority students in the course can afford to pay.

At the end of 2002, the researcher wrote workshop materials which have been in use since the beginning of 2003. The structure and content of the materials were based on her prediction of the English academic language needs of the students - an impressionistic prediction which subsequently required rigorous evaluation. This prediction was based on what had been taught in previous years, as well as on personal ESL teaching experience and the situation's demand for uniformity. There was a need for uniformity because the large number of students taking these two modules (650 in 2003, 775 in 2004, 820 in 2005 and 920 in 2006) had to be taught in at least 17 to 20 workshop groups by seven permanent staff and one temporary staff member, within certain timetable constraints – the students come from various disciplines and faculties, each with a different timetable. The rationale for having structured coursebooks is that it facilitates the general administration and management of such a large, multilevel group of students. It also contributes to reasonable uniformity in formative assessment, and also at the end of the module to ensure that students are uniformly prepared for summative assessment. Students are guided through some of the practical coursebook activities or tasks during the workshops. They are expected to do the rest of the activities on their own in the coursebook. Some of the activities form part of the formative assessment of the module. The workbook consists of units and exercises which can be done in

[2] The registrar (academic) of UniLim, for example, has sent out two memos in 2003/2004 requesting donations of food, clothing, or books for needy students (Institutional correspondence: University of the North (UNIN) intranet).

workshops under the guidance of the lecturer, as well as independently. The answers of the tasks/exercises not marked by the lecturer as assessment or in class are posted on the noticeboard so that students can mark their work. Built into the coursebook are: summative assessment, the core course content for uniformity (an important factor because the course is taught by 8 lecturers and 2 graduate students and there has be a common core), facilitation, independent learning, and feedback. Although all these in-built factors are important, it is essential to evaluate the materials to establish whether these are indeed valid criteria to be reflected in a general tertiary EAP course or as termed by Hyland (2006: 8) English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP).

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The ENGL131 and ENGL132 coursebooks were put together at a time when it was necessary to have a core text for the two modules for both teaching staff and students to have at hand. At that time it was an impressionistic design (based only on what had been done previously and the writer's teaching experience). Until now it has served the purpose of being a structured guide for the content of the course and has given the necessary unity required for the 16 to 20 groups. However, the need has now arisen for the coursebooks to be submitted to closer scrutiny. Evaluation criteria need to be developed appropriate to the local context to ensure that the coursebooks support the modules and contribute to enhanced English language proficiency, particularly in support of the students' academic English language needs.

The content of the coursebooks needs to be considered carefully in terms of the specific context or background of the target population, ESL theories and approaches, and general issues which may enhance language learning particularly for rural students who received impoverished input at school. At a tertiary level, materials[3] need to meet certain criteria, but these are likely to need supplementary criteria to ensure that the materials make up for what was perhaps not adequately covered at school. It is predicted that these criteria will include, for example, independent learning (Benson & Voller 1997), that is, to be effective in large multilevel classes,

[3] While the ideal would be to supplement the use of the coursebooks with materials such as videos and cassettes, in the context of the University of Limpopo the current cost constraints cannot accommodate these.

materials should cater for self-access to learning, as is the case with distance learning. In addition to the criterion of self-access, materials need to include the equally important issues of English for Academic Purposes (Jordan 2004); authentic materials and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) (Little 1997; Darian 2001; Gallien 1998); and the controversy about whether to teach English grammar or not (Stern 1992; Richard & Rodgers 2001; Bowen & Marks 1994; Nathanson 1998; Ellis 1998).

The need is for a retrospective, more systematic and therefore empirical investigation to establish appropriate criteria which can be used to evaluate whether the current materials meet the needs of the situation. These criteria need to be extracted from the literature survey and from the situation itself: the lecturers facilitating the workshops and the ENGL 131 and ENGL 132 students.

In terms of appropriate criteria, evaluation is frequently done mainly by 'experts' on published textbooks and coursebooks. The criteria used are aimed specifically at commercial coursebooks (Block 1991: 212). Added to which, according to Ellis (1997: 36), the reviews of individual coursebooks often remain "inexact and implicit". He suggests that practitioners first use a predictive evaluation and follow it up with retrospective evaluation.

The problem investigated in this study is which criteria should be applied to the current course materials for the general EAP courses (ENGL131 and ENGL132) to ensure that the materials are appropriate and in fact do help the students improve their academic language skills enabling them to cope with their content subjects.

The following questions need to be addressed:

- What are the specific language skills[4] that the tertiary students taking the EAP courses at the University of Limpopo (ENGL131 and ENGL132) need to master?
- Which evaluation criteria should be used to assess the appropriateness of the EAP materials in terms of context and English academic language pedagogy?

[4] These skills should include the English Academic Skills of reading and writing in particular, and then those needed within academic reading and writing, such as English grammar, and various cognitive skills including, for example, inferencing and summarization.

- What changes should be made to the present coursebooks to incorporate these criteria?

1.3 AIMS OF THE STUDY

This study aims to:

- identify the English academic skills needed by tertiary students taking the one year service course at the University of Limpopo to cope with the general language demands of their content subjects;
- develop evaluation criteria to be applied to the current materials used for the EAP courses at the University of Limpopo;
- provide recommendations for the revision of the coursebooks after using the evaluation criteria emerging from this study to evaluate the ENGL131 and ENGL132 coursebooks presently in use.

1.4 METHOD OF RESEARCH

1.4.1 SURVEY OF THE LITERATURE

A comprehensive survey was done of the literature concerned with the evaluation and development of language teaching materials, as well as of those issues which are pertinent to the context of the ENGL131 and ENGL132 modules offered at the University of Limpopo: Outcomes-based English, English for Academic Purposes, ESL teaching and learning, CLT, Task-based language teaching (TBLT), grammar teaching, and independent learning.

1.4.2 SEARCHES

Computer searches of EBSCO, Nexus, MLA data base, ERIC and the English post-graduate studies database (Union Catalogue of Theses and Dissertations) were done; as well as internet searches by means of search engines such as www.google.com (scholar).

1.5 EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

This study was a one-time cross-sectional, descriptive survey going through a number of steps. Provisional materials evaluation criteria were extracted from the results of the empirical study (and combined with those extracted from the literature). The data collection instruments employed in the empirical study were questionnaires and interviews. A provisional list of criteria was drawn up and these provisional criteria were then verified by outside experts. A final list of evaluation criteria was drawn up and applied to the two coursebooks. The materials were evaluated by means of a rating scale adapted from one designed by Cronje (1993). Subsequently recommendations for changes or additions to the coursebooks were made.

1.6 STRUCTURE OF STUDY

The introductory chapter outlines the background and aims of the study. The method of research and the procedure for the empirical research are also briefly described.

Chapter 2 describes the context of the study, that is, the home and language learning backgrounds of UNILIM EAP students

Chapter 3 examines the English Second Language approaches and methods which should feature in materials design. Further ESL teaching and learning issues which need to be considered in the design of materials are scrutinised in Chapter 4.

Chapter 5 investigates the different ways in which the evaluation of language materials can be approached.

The research methodology is described in chapter 6, while chapter 7 discusses the results of the empirical research conducted.

Chapter 8 explains how the final materials evaluation criteria are decided on and chapter 9 shows the ratings of the coursebooks according to each criterion. In addition, recommendations for changes to the current coursebooks are given in this chapter, as well as reflections on the criteria by the researcher and teaching guidelines for the implementation of the criteria.

Chapter 10 concludes the study, explains the limitations of the study and submits recommendations for further studies.

CHAPTER 2

CONTEXT: SOCIO-ECONOMIC, CULTURAL AND EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUNDS OF UNILIM EAP STUDENTS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes the particular environment (socio-economic, cultural and educational) from which tertiary students at the University of Limpopo (UniLim) in Limpopo Province come – in particular students registered for the ENGL131 and ENGL132 modules whose English language needs have to be addressed by the course and the in-house English teaching and learning materials they are provided with. Contextualising (taking the context into account) the students is necessary because the students' English academic literacy needs as determined by the environment they come from and where they encounter and have studied English (at school and in the home), shape the criteria which will be appropriate to evaluate their teaching and learning materials. These criteria are not necessarily the same as those evaluation criteria used by other institutions or academic literacy courses because the situational needs may differ.

By taking into account the background of the students enrolled for the ENGL131 and ENGL132 modules, their language needs (partly described by the learners themselves), as well as contemplation of the relevant literature on the various approaches to English second language teaching, and the interpretation of the context by the researcher and a few English teachers in rural schools, the evaluation criteria are more likely to be valid. The identity of the "teller" of the learners' story, that is, the teacher's or lecturer's perspective, "is critical in both a political and epistemological sense" (Freeman 1996: 110), because, by introducing the teachers' thinking about teaching into the account (*and* that of the students)[1], "the strengths and limits of the account are recognised" (Freeman 1996: 110). Furthermore, the constraints or limitations of the context (for example at UniLim, the size of the classes, the number of venues available, the number of staff, the English language proficiency of the students registered for the courses, and various other situational constraints and needs) demand that situation-specific choices be made (Snow 1997). Choices need to be

[1] The perspective will differ from that of other lecturers or 'teachers' because the researcher is a white South African and from a different cultural context, although also from a rural background - from a small rural but reasonably well-resourced school and where learners had to buy their own textbooks.

made in terms of the course content, the teaching methodology or approach, and in the case of this study, teaching and learning materials which will contribute to enhanced language proficiency. The choices may not always be ideal or what is recommended by experts or even implemented at other excellent tertiary institutions, but they are embedded in the reality of the students' home, school and university circumstances, the needs and demands of the teachers and the institution. They will therefore in turn impose particular criteria[2].

2.2 LOCALITY OF THE STUDENTS' HOMES, SCHOOLS AND TERTIARY INSTITUTION

The Limpopo Province, with its capital, Polokwane, is one of the poorest yet most populous (around 5 million) of all the Provinces in South Africa. It comprises just over 10 percent of South Africa's total area (*Limpopo Leader* 2005:9). It represents the amalgamation of four of the previous homeland governments, Venda, Lebowa, Gazankulu and South Africa, and now incorporates all. Its campus post office, for instance, is named for the Sotho, Venda and Gazankulu people it serves, Sovenga. The Turfloop Campus of the University of Limpopo (the old University of the North), 30 km to the east of Polokwane, is the largest tertiary institution in Limpopo with just over 12,000 students. It serves more than six million people, 98 percent of whom are black. The 800 to 900 students registered for the English service course to be investigated (ENGL131 and ENGL132) are mainly African students whose mother tongues are SePedi, XiTsonga, TshiVenda, and SeTswana speakers.

The Limpopo Province, mostly occupied with deep rural farming activities and mining, is larger than England and Scotland put together. Approximately 14 percent of South Africa's population live there; and just under 90 percent of Limpopo's population live in rural areas (*Limpopo Leader* 2005: 9; UL webpage 2005). This means that many of the students' families are employed in these activities. However, many parents are also either unemployed or absent from home because they are employed in Gauteng (Personal interviews with students in class at the beginning of 2004; personal interview with Dr Leketi Makalela, 31 January 2006)

[2] Tertiary institutions tend to view the students as being disadvantaged or underprepared but what needs to be considered is whether it is not the institutions that are also underprepared themselves for helping students reach their potential, ..."but also seriously underpreparing these students in terms of the negative definition of their cultural existence" (Masenya 1995: 104).

Most of the students taking English attended rural, frequently under-resourced schools (and often in very large classes). These background factors influence their English proficiency and therefore the decisions relating to the design and content of the ENGL131 and ENGL132 modules and their materials.

2.3 THE STUDENTS' INSTITUTIONAL BACKGROUND

This study investigates an English service course at the University of Limpopo, until 2003 named the University of the North (UNIN), one of the previous 'Historically Black Universities' (HBUs) of South Africa. Much of the research data were collected between 2004 and 2006, during the period when the University of the North merged with the Medical University of South Africa (Medunsa). On 1 January 2005 the two institutions became The University of Limpopo.

Since 1994 the University has had to cater for the new political environment and find a new vision. The University no longer enjoys the status of being a "black" university in order to attract funding and support – which impacts on the amount of extra funding the institution receives. The formerly white universities were compelled by legislation to open their doors to black students. This led to many academically stronger students from more affluent and urban families, formerly sent to Unin /UniLim being sent to these institutions. This means that UniLim has a greater number of 'academically underprepared' (Kasanga 2003: 218) students coming from under-resourced schools where they have had very little exposure to English. They particularly need English for Academic Purposes (EAP) to assist them with their tertiary studies.

From interaction with the community it became clear that the institution's mission and vision should concentrate on the community it serves[3]. Researchers, teachers and other participants at UNIN were aware of the problems confronting the Limpopo Province and focussed on the development of unique research projects aimed at assisting local rural communities (UL webpage 2005). The focus of this study is therefore the rural English as second language learner.

Following the release of the National Plan for Higher Education, UNIN repositioned itself. From 01 July 2001, the university moved from eight faculties (Management Sciences, Law, Education, Arts, Agriculture, Theology, Health and Mathematics &

[3] Hence the aim of this research to focus on teaching and learning materials that include aspects of the communities from which the students come.

Natural Sciences) to three faculties, namely: Humanities, Management Sciences and Law, and Sciences, Health and Agriculture. Students are now using the module system to select possible career paths. The new system provides flexibility for students to make choices in areas that interest them. The new approach to teaching is inter-disciplinary, with students given greater latitude to select combinations that will enhance their employment opportunities. This choice has led to more and more students from the different faculties to include English modules in their study programme – hence a significant increase in the enrolments for ENGL131 and ENGL132 (500 in 2002 to 1030 in 2004). This means than these students come to the English class from a many different disciplines.

The institution's large debt of R50 million (Matlala 2005:4) is a factor which influences the design and implementation of the ENGL131 and ENGL132 modules, in particular in terms of the lack of money available for staffing. The constraints caused by only having seven permanent staff, and one temporary member of staff to teach just under a thousand ENGL131 and ENGL 132 students as well as the other undergraduate and postgraduate courses, dictate the teaching methodology and the type of course materials used. There are currently no full-time postgraduate students that can be appointed as assistants and help with the marking of continuous assessment. Politics, management and support structure problems, as well as large student numbers, all are factors that impact on most courses offered, but in particular on the design and content of the English Studies courses and materials, and in the case of this study, the ENGL131 and ENGL 132 modules which cater for a large cross-section of the student population.

2.4 THE ROLE OF ENGLISH IN SOUTH AFRICAN TERTIARY EDUCATION

In an institution where English is the Language of Learning and Teaching (LOLT) and where the great majority of students are speakers of English only as a second, third or even fourth language, it is inevitable that the current issues of mother tongue medium of instruction (Brock-Utne & Hopson 2005) and bi- and multilingual universities are recurrent topics of discussion. It also means that the UniLim Department of English Studies needs to position itself with regard to mother tongue instruction and related issues, but at the same time adapt its teaching methodologies and materials to assist students to cope with their tertiary studies in English while confronted with institutional politics and financial constraints.

Teaching English as a second language (ESL) or an additive language is at best an "educational exercise," but in South Africa, according to Buthelezi (2004:18), this has always been mixed with political issues. The University of Limpopo has itself always been a politically active campus (UL webpage 2005). Combined with the reconfigurations introduced by an administrator and now with the merger with Medunsa, it is to be expected that both the politics surrounding language issues and the general running of the institution may sometimes overwhelm the educational issues and language teaching methodologies. Buthelezi (2004: 18) submits that "the political debates about language issues have drawn focus away from an educational perspective on ESL teaching and learning, which would encourage research in the area and the generation of new theories, approaches, and knowledge". Yet, such studies are crucial if, as educationists, we wish to improve the functioning of the ESL teacher in the classroom and facilitate the progression of the learner in learning the language (Buthelezi 2004:18; also see Pitjana 2005:4).

2.5 COURSES

The English Studies Department of the University of Limpopo on the one hand offers an academic English programme, focusing on both literature and language, at the undergraduate and postgraduate levels. On the other, it offers a one year service course consisting of two modules, namely ENGL131 and ENGL132, which is an academic literacy course in English seeking to assist students in acquiring the English language skills required to cope with their content subjects in diverse faculties. As a one year course it was simple to offer an integrated course. The split into modules meant that the content and the material also needed to be split. This was done by focusing on grammar, comprehension and reading in the one module and process writing in the other. An integrated model would be preferred by most staff members and how this may be done will be considered after the completion of this study. The two coursebooks are described below.

ENGL131 – *English for the Professions*: this module offers grammar skills which strictly speaking should have been mastered in the last three grades of secondary school, as well as note-taking skills, dictionary work, academic reading and comprehension.

ENGL132 – *English Academic Writing Skills for the Professions*: this uses a process writing approach to writing and gives students activities to practise each step until the final version of an essay or assignment.

The constraints faced in offering the course are the growing number of students registering for the course (two modules) as obtained from the university administration in February 2007:

		Staff: student ratio
2002: 576	(7 staff members)	1: 82
2003: 606	(7 staff members)	1: 88
2004: 800	(7 staff members)	1: 114
2005: 1030	(7 staff members and 4 assistants)	1: 94
2006: 940	(8 staff members)	1: 117

(Stronger students are being persuaded to enrol for ENGL101/102 – the literature and language course)

The department has seven permanent staff who *all* teach ENGL131 and ENGL132, whether tutor or professor. In 2005, four teaching assistants assisted in the teaching; each responsible for two groups of about 50 – 60 students per group (a staff-student ratio of 1: 100-120). In 2007 there were only 7 permanent staff and one temporary staff member in the department. The students are divided into between 16 and 20 groups depending on the number of staff available. The number of available venues and the students' own timetables are factors that have to be considered in the grouping of students[4]. In 2005 there were 1, 030 students in 24 groups. The smallest group consisted of 36 students while the largest consisted of 90 students. Each lecturer with two groups could be responsible for about 70 to 140 students while the lecturer with three groups might have up to 160 to 200 students. This makes continuous assessment (six to seven written tasks) a marking nightmare – a hundred

[4] The students enrolled for ENGL 131 and ENGL132 come from different faculties and it is almost impossible to find three slots (the number of contact periods per week for each ENGL131/132 student) to suit all the members of one group. This led to the department using the lunchtime slot on Mondays and Thursdays for two of the classes. When in 2000 and 2001 the student numbers were smaller and lecturers were responsible for one group, this was viable. As the numbers increased and lecturers had to take on two groups, the groups became larger and the logistics more difficult. Large groups preclude individual attention. (Individual attention at least once a week is crucial for any kind of remedial language work of which many of our students require a great deal). Increasing the numbers of workshops requires more staff - which we cannot get because of the institution's budget constraints.

scripts every fortnight[5]. These large groups dictate the teaching methodology applied, as does the need for uniformity. Uniformity is necessary because they all are assessed in the same way and after the formative assessment which is conducted during the module, all students write the examination, the summative assessment, at the end of the module. The course material sets the course content and provides uniformity together with a work schedule so that all students cover more or less the same work. Currently, lecturers have the freedom to teach according to their own style and preference despite having to cover the same material and content. (Some elect to combine their groups and teach 90 to 120 in one class – usually because of problems with venues.) Should the student numbers increase even further, without more staff being appointed, it may mean that the department will have to resort to giving lectures to five hundred to six hundred students at a time instead of trying to workshop with sixty to seventy at a time. Both options are flawed.

2.6 COURSE MATERIALS

The rationale for the course books is uniformity, highlighting English language and writing skills specifically for academic purposes, as well as encouraging independent learning. UniLim is plagued with at least one or two class boycotts annually. Many students unwillingly stay away from classes (they are harassed by those leading the boycotts should they attend classes) and thus having a course book allows these students to continue on their own. Each module's course book is sold by the campus bookstore and costs are kept as low as possible because UniLim students tend not to buy textbooks. (This may be related to not having textbooks at school – cf. Taylor & Vinjevold 1999; Taylor 2001:9; Taylor & Prinsloo 2005: 5.) Until the end of 2005 the cost to the student was kept low by selling it in three parts, which entailed that a student needed only to pay five to six rand a month instead of fifteen to twenty rand at the beginning of the course. From the beginning of 2006 the three books of one module were combined and so they now had one coursebook for ENGL131 and one for ENGL132. The cost is thus split in two instead of six; but it remains a reasonable price. The complexity of the activities in the course book varies because the English proficiency of the students differs. Teaching groups of students of mixed abilities

[5] Most of our postgraduate students are employed and are therefore part time, which means we cannot employ them as student assistants. Each staff member must thus personally mark those fortnightly 100 scripts, in addition to the marking for other courses. If the task is part of the workbook it must be marked in time to be handed back in the next class.

ranging from a very low English proficiency to a reasonably high proficiency is a challenge.

The content of the coursebooks is briefly outlined below and will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter 9, section 9.2.

2.6.1 *ENGL131 course book* (cf. Chapter 9, section 9.2.1 and 9.2.3 for a summary of its contents)

The coursebook, or workbook as it is called by the students, consists of 10 units including a self-study and a revision section:

TABLE OF CONTENTS
Unit 1 - Note taking
Unit 2 - Using a dictionary
Unit 3 - The sentence
Unit 4 - Punctuation
Unit 5 - Parts of speech
Unit 6 - Verbs and concord
Self-study unit
Revision exercises
Unit 7 - Tenses
Unit 8 - Active and Passive voice
Unit 9 - Reading skills
Unit 10 - Comprehension test skills

The formative assessment of this module consists of tasks testing the students' dictionary skills (a multiple choice test), writing tasks testing punctuation and sentence construction, and tenses, and a comprehension test testing comprehension and reading speed. Students also receive a mark for their regular, completed work in the course book.

To encourage reading each unit begins with a short reading passage with questions assessing comprehension and vocabulary. This is followed by activities encouraging the various applications of the item covered in the unit.

2.6.2 *ENGL132 course book* (cf. Chapter 9, section 9.2.2 and 9.2.3 for a summary of its contents)

This course book consists of eleven units of activities following stages of the writing process:

TABLE OF CONTENTS
Unit 1: Visual Literacy

Unit 2: Visual literacy continued (Graphs)
Unit 3: Topic Sentences
Unit 4: Summary Writing
Unit 5: Connecting sentences – coherence and relevance
Unit 6: Analysing essay topics
Unit 7: Essay introductions
Unit 8: Organization and presentation of arguments
Unit 9: Conclusions
Unit 10: Plagiarism
Unit 11: Editing the Final Draft
Addenda: Readings for essay
List of Task words

Formative assessment includes a task on visual literacy, for example, interpreting graphs and expressing the responses in complete grammatical sentences. Assessment of topic sentences and topic analysis are assessed by means of the summary of a passage. Students are then given an essay topic with related readings and have to submit the introduction, then a rough draft of the essay, followed by the final draft. Each stage is marked and returned so that the student can improve his/her essay. Each unit consists of activities, the completion of which should clarify a stage in the writing process.

2.7 STUDENTS

Although English has been the Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT) for decades, studies (Webb 2002: 187; Balfour 2002: 159) show that ESL school-going learners do not progress in their mastery of English. Their English proficiency is inadequate for tertiary learning and academic writing purposes (Pityana 2005; Kasanga 1998:107; Chimbganda 2001: 147). This is the also true of students at UniLim. The students may possess good "basic interpersonal communicative skills" (BICS); but despite having English as a subject and as language of learning and teaching (LOLT) for at least the five years of secondary school, they lack the language proficiency termed "cognitive academic language proficiency" (CALP) (Kasanga 1998:106). To succeed in their tertiary studies, students need to develop academic language proficiency as well as content-area knowledge and skills (Garcia 2000; Freeman & Freeman 2003). In order to address this shortcoming in the tailored course materials, it is necessary to investigate the various possible reasons for the deficiency. The institutional constraints or needs have been mentioned. The next step is to profile the students.

The profile of a student who registers for ENGL131 and ENGL132 (and in this study, students who registered in 2005/ 2006) can be described under the following headings.

2.7.1 HOME CONTEXT

Many students come from low socio-economic backgrounds, have little exposure to English outside the classroom, and do not have access to English books in the home. This impacts on the academic English language skills that students require for successful tertiary studies. Research (e.g. Heath 1983; Wells 1986; Chall *et al.* 1990; Cummins 2000; Webb 2002; Balfour 2002; Matjila & Pretorius 2004) has consistently shown that if children come from homes with few or no books, live in communities where reading for pleasure is not highly valued or they attended schools where they do not have easy access to books, they do not develop adequate reading skills; and are therefore are not likely to develop the other language skills (listening to, speaking, and writing English) and adequate vocabulary required in an educational context. This cannot be attributed only to a negative attitude to reading[6]; a small family income does not stretch to books.

That there are students at the University of Limpopo from very low income families is demonstrated by the fact that the university has established a "hands of compassion" committee (university communiqué 2003) which endeavours to raise funds or obtain grants and donations to help '"somewhat destitute" students by opening up a soup kitchen and trying to find them part-time work. Students are selected for the category of "needy students" according to the following criteria:

- Total family income should not exceed R1500.00
- Parents or guardian(s) are pensioners
- Parents or guardian(s) are dependent on disability or other grants
- Parents or guardian(s) are HIV/AIDS patients
- Student is an HIV/AIDS patient
- Parent or guardian is an invalid

[6] I have a friend (white, urban, middle class) who was a voracious reader as a teenager and whose family labelled her as 'lazy' because she spent too much time reading instead of 'working' at household chores. Some families exhibit this prejudice against reading.

The following comments from some of the students registered for ENGL131 and ENGL 132 (2004 – a group of 800 students) confirm that there are low-income students in this group. At the beginning of the year they were asked to briefly write about where they came from, why they had registered for English, and who was responsible for their fees[7]. These comments reflect their socio-economic backgrounds, their aspirations and their written language proficiency. (The quotes have not been changed but are exactly as written by the students, which includes the spelling, punctuation and grammatical errors).

1. *I have one little brother and yong little girl. I come from N near Makhado. I don't have guardian who is responsible for paying fees becous my father is dead I only remain with my mother and she is not working I register for Englis 131 for this reason it would assist one to improve my english both writing and speaking* (EM)

2. *I come from a Rural place we were not speaking English Everyday. We were mostly using our language ... I want to study English very well and HARD so that I can know English very well. We were doing english second language at our High School.* (SN)

3. *I came from M... High School next to Lebowakgomo. I'm not good in English because at my school we were speaking our mother tongue. I have one sister and two younger brother. My sister is unemployed and my younger is doing Grade 8 and second one is doing grade 6. The person who is paying my study he is pensioner. My intention to do English is about is so important to us becuase everywhere we go we have to speak English so it is so important to us.* (LRM)

4. *I am a 19yrs Old Ladie who live at M in Limpopo Province. I have three younger sisters. The first one is 7yrs old The second one is 6yrs old The third one is 1 yr old. I like to study English because is an easy language that we can use as we are at place where we are people of different languages like this University we have so many groups of languages a person who payed my fees is my granny because my parents are unemployed. They just get money from Mandela's children fund.* (SMG)

5. *I came from M village. Our village is in a disadvantage area we don't have people does who can help us with English. My intension of learning English at the university is to be able to communicate with other people. I will be happy if you assist me until I am able to speak English.* (AB)

[7] The question of who was responsible for payment of their fees was asked because, realizing that many come from low income families, I wanted to establish how they managed to remain at the institution and whether that factor contributed to their not buying textbooks.

6. *I am A.M. I came from B I am last born in the fimaly. My mom help with money to pay fees. My reason to studie English is that English is an official language used the whole world.* (AM)

7. *I'm from M village and I have financial problems, but my uncle is the one who is a Gurdian, he help me just a little bit to further my studies. I have obtained symbol "E" second lang HG so I just have a little bit of knowing English and another things I'm afraid to Express myself, so my requesting to you try to make me to know better.* (TN)

8. *I come from a typical rural area where I have to fetch water from the river and some wood to make fire so that I could cook. I managed to get a C symbol in my matric, through reading I could improve my language. The reason I want to study English is to be able to communicate with other people that could not understand my language.* (DM)

9. *I am an 18 year old girl from M township. I am from a poor family where my mother is a street hawker and my father works part-time jobs and does not earn enough money. Me and my two younger sisters depends on his small salary for our educational needs. The first time I was able to express myself in English was at primary school practising debate. It was a little bid tough at first. I want to study English because it helps me in communicating with other people who are speaking different languages.* (MM)

10. *I came from S found in the Limpopo Province. I have one sister whom she is doing grade 11 this year. My little brother is doing grade 2 and he is 9 years old. The other one is 4 years old. The person who is paying for my studies is my grandmother, because my mother is unemployed. I choose to study English as one of my languages, 'cause, I would despartly deepen my understanding in English, as I have seen that English is the major language many people use and if you are visiting a new place where there is different kind of people from where you came from, they preffer to talk English to make it easy to understand one another.* (FMM)

11. *We are four at home, I pass my english with C symbol in HG. But I didn't get a chance to practise talking but I can talk to not much, but I can explain exactly what I'm talking about and you can understand only if you care enough and understand the situation that I'm not English.* ((JSN)

12. *I'm EH from A, Bushbuckridge. I'm 35 years old. I passed my matric in 1995, I failed to go to tertiary early because of some financial problems. Now I was send by my pensioner parents to the university. I want to study English just to improve that language because it is a longtime I was not attenting school and my communication was poor. If I can attend it will be improved.* (EH)

13. *I like to study english because it serves as a medium language at my institution (i.e. All courses are taught (lectured) by english). Being born & brewed at rural area, were I studied my primary & secondary, I've realised that it will be difficult to communicate, write and study in my faculty without the help of english lectures which will help me lift up my english vocabulary.* (MMM)

These comments are but a few from about 500 paragraphs written by ENGL131 students enrolled for their first year (2004) of tertiary studies at the University of Limpopo. Their backgrounds correspond with that of an Eastern Cape learner described in the *Sunday Times* (Güles 2005), whose single mother can barely read, write or speak in English; who (the student) walked 10km to school and back everyday and begged for paraffin from his neighbours so that he could study at night. These students want to improve their English and thus their chances for a job and ultimately to improve the plight of their families.

Literacy and English language usage is cited (Güles 2005) as being a major problem for learners aiming to get their Grade 12 certificate. It is, however, difficult to quantify to what extent English proficiency is the main stumbling block. According to an Education Department spokesperson (Güles 2005), putting a figure on the language problem is problematic because of "the difficulty of isolating it from a host of other tribulations besetting education, such as teacher shortages and poor infrastructure". These tribulations include the learners' disadvantaged backgrounds, poverty, the shortage of qualified teachers, resources and the general infrastructure (cf. Le Roux 1994; Taylor & Vinjevold 1999; Taylor 2001:9; Taylor & Prinsloo 2005: 5).

The less literate of the students are likely to belong to traditional cultural groups that may feel uncomfortable with some routine SLA practices (Bigelow & Tarone 2004:697), which may also be a further constraint to adequate language learning[8]. The students' sociocultural background (even more so if they are a large group) need to be accommodated in language teaching methodology and materials development. For example, an ENGL131 student describes her village:

The village I come from is found in a rural place, Ruled by kings and chiefs. Its such a small village with less resources and underdeveloped place. It is occupied by people of the same origin following the same culture. The people make a living by cultivating their farms; breeding animals; and

[8] Coming from an under-resourced background or from a 'traditional' background cannot be equated with being intellectually backward.

selling them or selling their meat. When it comes to schooling its very difficult for us as learners in getting used to new things when we are at university level. For those parents who have noticed this, they try to send their children to model c schools in towns to try and make things a little easier for them. Living in the village is not that bad, as the chances of getting corrupt are little.

This indicates that academic literacy materials, frequently the first materials first-entering students encounter, should perhaps, in addition to exposing them to their 'new' world of university life (both social and academic), use passages and examples to which the students can relate (a practice encouraged worldwide). This would include issues pertaining to their cultures, customs and the area where they live and go to school. To emphasise this, De Kadt and Mathonsi (2003: 93) proffer that "the discussion of academic writing has come to focus increasingly around issues of identity, 'voice' and ownership" because education does not involve merely the acquisition of knowledge but also the "formation of the consciousness and identity of the learners" (Moore *et al.* 1998: 13, cited by De Kadt & Mathonsi 2003: 93) (see also Chapter 4 Materials, Culture and Interculturality, section 4.7).

The problems encountered by immigrant students in the United States in Bigelow and Tarone's study (2004:697-8) as well as the assumptions made by their educators and/ or researchers, are similar to those of students from rural homes and schools commencing with their tertiary studies. Hence, their findings could also be applied to the students in this study. Bigelow and Tarone (2004: 698) mention in their research that "though the interlocutor's various characteristics always make a difference in the type and quality of language that he or she can elicit from second-language learners, (even) the researcher's gender[9] may render data collection from participants virtually impossible. Researchers cannot assume that participants from immigrant populations will accept their presence, their questions, their tasks, or their equipment in the same way as participants from backgrounds comparable to the researchers"[10]. Therefore, and this applies to tertiary institutions where large numbers of rural students make up their student intake, "researchers (and lecturers) who are not members of these ...

[9] At UniLim this could also refer to the lecturer's gender, mother tongue, or race.

[10] Applying this premise to the target population, that is ENGL131 and ENGL132 University of Limpopo students, the 'participants' would be those students and the immigrant population would in the context of this study be the rural population. By coming to a new and different environment these rural students would resemble 'immigrants' to a new country. The lecturers, after years of studying and teaching, often in urban environments are by contrast likely to have grown used to students and situations of an urban nature.

(rural) populations *must reexamine countless assumptions*" (my emphasis) (Bigelow & Tarone 2004:698). Murray (1996: 440) asserts:

> In many cases, our students' life experiences have been so different from ours, their teachers, that we cannot assume that they bring the same background knowledge to the classroom as white, middle-class children.

By implication, this means our students may 'read' a passage differently from their educators from a different culture or background. This is an issue proffered by McKay (1993: 7) when she states "... learners, regardless of whether or not they are literate in their native language, may have difficulty in reading English because of cultural knowledge in the text that may be unfamiliar to them". A reexamination may be called for of countless assumptions we as tertiary teaching staff have about our students. Consequently we may need to reexamine our approaches to tertiary teaching or 'lecturing' and the materials we develop.

In terms of cultural trends, researchers are suggesting the introduction of culturally relevant teaching or including an "African world view" (Lee & Slaughter-Defoe 2004: 270-272), that is, looking at education and pedagogy from the perspective of the African Renaissance. In an institution which comprises mainly African students, it is an aspect which should be investigated (especially in terms of developing course materials) in addition to other "barriers to success" (Freeman and Freeman 2003: 6).

2.7.2 SECONDARY SCHOOL CONTEXT

Research has shown that tertiary studies require a particular type of language proficiency for success in the educational context (Cummins 1991, 2000; Corson 1997; Kasanga 1998; Smyth 2002; Matjila & Pretorius 2004), namely cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). Learners should have acquired the necessary English competence at school, but this is not happening as is indicated by the above-referenced research and newspaper reports, as well as interviews, such as those below:

> ...[A] study done by the University of Pretoria in 2001 indicated that a third of first-year students had a language proficiency equal to that of a grade 8 pupil. It was clear that the Grade 12 language results do not correlate with actual proficiency (*Beeld*, July 17, 2001). These are some of the problems that contribute to the low

> level of through-put in our tertiary institutions (cited in the *City Press* by Ummeli ka Mdluli 2004).
>
> Education Minister Naledi Pandor said this week that her department had found that English as a language of learning was "proving to be a barrier for many learners in our country"... Essentially, English is the language of learning in our country. We need to ensure that students have a competence to perform academically. For many it's a second language and for some, perhaps a third language, so there's real concern (Govender 2005:5).
>
> ...From a higher-education perspective, the biggest challenge is the gap between what school offers and does in terms of preparing students for university. More and more, my colleagues who are teachers are having to start from scratch, teaching students how to write a decent sentence. This should have happened at school, but they find many of them cannot even write. Young people need to learn the basic skills of managing time, writing and thinking skills. Really, by the time they have finished Grade 12 they should have mastered that... (Pityana 2005: 4)

Clearly, there is a problem with the lack of English proficiency with which students enter tertiary institutions. This is a combination of various factors such as home background, the role of mother tongue education versus English at school, teaching quality and the availability of resources (see Taylor & Vinjevold 1999:105-130). Contributory factors are discussed below:

2.7.2.1 English as Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT)

Rightly, or wrongly, English has become the language *of* learning and teaching in South Africa; although, not only in South Africa: English has become "entrenched worldwide, as a result of British colonialism, international interdependence, 'revolutions' in technology, transport, communications and commerce, and because English is the language of the USA, a major economic, political, and military force in the contemporary world" (Phillipson 1993: 23). Added to this, in South Africa, as a result of 'Apartheid', English became to be viewed as the language of 'liberation', lending it a politically emotive connotation (cf. Harlech-Jones 1992: 41). English was, and continues to be regarded as crucial to educational, economic and political advancement[11] - hence parents' giving preference to English as the LoLT for their children instead of their mother-tongue; therefore putting them into English LoLT schools. Despite research having shown that the preferred medium of instruction or LoLT is the child's mother-tongue, especially in the early years of schooling (Unesco 1953:47; Skutnabb-Kangas 1981:111ff; Cummins & Swain 1986: 3-19; Haasbroek &

[11] At my institution, it is usually the student proficient in English that gets elected onto the Student Representative Council.

Botha 1989: 2; Baker 1993:138-139; Klein 1994: 26-27; The Ontario Curriculum Unit Planner 2002) parents still believe that it is in the best interest of their children to start their schooling immediately in English. When parents choose a school for their children, their choice is for English as LOLT because English is associated with social mobility (e.g. Kamwangulu 2000; Güles 2005). They ignore or are ignorant of the fact that for the children to commence their school careers in English, a language which is their second, or even their second or third language after their mother tongue, may not guarantee their children's acquisition of English and their eventual English proficiency[12]. For the parents, the status of English and the socioeconomic benefits that come with being proficient in English outweigh the advantages of the vernacular as LOLT. Although the policy of the National Department of Education states that children may choose the language in which they would like to study and write exams, not a single student countrywide opted for any language other than English or Afrikaans. Parents of black children overwhelmingly choose for them to study in English (Güles 2005). It will be interesting to note whether the new education policy (*Sunday Times* 15 May 2005) which makes English and Afrikaans optional will change the choices made by parents.

2.7.2.2 *Teachers*

According to the report on the President's Education Initiative Research Project (PEI) (1999), South Africa, in comparison with other African countries and many developing countries on other continents, has high participation rates at all levels of the school system; yet "the efficiency of public schooling must be the lowest in the world". This is particularly true of the schools in the deep rural areas – teaching and learning in the majority of South African schools leaves much to be desired (Taylor & Vinjevold 1999:131). This is partly laid at the door of the teachers and their teaching methods.

Firstly, there is a shortage of English teachers in poor areas (Govender 2005:5) to the extent that Education Minister, Naledi Pandor, is considering offering English teachers an incentive if they are prepared to work in under-resourced schools where there is a

[12] Makalela (2004: 356) in his discussion of Black South African English (BSAE) argues that educationists may have to reconsider the definition of "English proficiency" in South Africa, because the majority of English speakers in South Africa "are to date those who will likely produce Black South African English (BSAE)-like features. He describes the features of tense logic and discourse patterns in particular. This, according to Makalela, has implications for a new sociolinguistic reality.

desperate shortage of teachers. She has also stated that there is a need to improve teacher development.

Taylor and Vinjevold (1999:228) submit that the most widespread and debilitating malfunction in the education system is the kind of work ethic that has become endemic in the system, for example, "widespread absenteeism on monthly pay days and teachers' habits of not working after school hours using instead up to two months of the teaching year to prepare and mark examination papers during school hours". Added to this is the conclusion reached across the PEI studies "that teacher's poor conceptual knowledge of the subjects they are teaching is a fundamental constraint on the quality of teaching and learning activities, and consequently the quality of learning outcomes" (Taylor & Vinjevold 1999:230). This includes the teaching of English.

The *Sunday Times* (Gűles 2005:3) reported that the Eastern Cape education authorities lay much of the blame for poor matric results on poor language usage which stems from the teachers poor language usage or inappropriate approach to teaching English:

> In the classroom ... there is evidence that both teachers and learners battle in their second language...
> ...many teachers instruct pupils in Xhosa, while the exam is conducted in English...
> ...many teachers had difficulty teaching in English if it was their second language...
> ...They [the learners] are taught in English but when the information is explained and interpreted it is done in the vernacular...

The phenomenon of using English together with the vernacular is termed code switching and is widespread in schools in Limpopo (Meyer 1995a, 1995b; McCabe 1996), as well as other provinces (Bot 1993; Merritt *et al.* 1994; Peires 1994) and countries (Arnberg 1993; Mesthrie 1993; Myers-Scotton 1993; Ndayipfukamiye 1993; Merkestein 1995). Whether it alone can be cited as the reason for poor language usage is debatable (cf. McCabe 1996: 40ff). As indicated above, there are a myriad other problems that contribute to poor language usage and to teaching and learning practices in Limpopo, as well as in other provinces.

Research (Hofmeyr 1993; Enslin 1990; Hartshorne 1992; the NEPI Teacher Education Report 1992a; Chisholm 1993; ANC 1994) blames fundamental pedagogics associated with the Apartheid era as having had "profoundly detrimental

effects on teachers' thinking and practice" (Taylor & Vinjevold 1999: 133). It is based on authoritarian premises which, among other things, prevent teachers from "developing an understanding of the relationship between education and the context in which knowledge and understanding are created and shared" (NEPI 1992a: 17) and, according to Hartshorne (1992: 36), had the effect of failing to produce teachers of the quality and commitment of [an] earlier dispensation. Enslin (1990: 100) adds to the deliberation by asserting that fundamental pedagogics "as an ontology which produces useful and docile teachers" justified authoritarian practices. The PEI report (Taylor & Vinjevold 1999) points out that there has been little empirical research from an opposition perspective with the exception of that done by MacDonald (1990a, 1990b, 1991) and Langham (1993). Both MacDonald and Langham found that black learners spent most of their time in class listening to oral input by the teacher and occasionally chanting in response; classroom tasks focussed on acquisition of information rather than higher cognitive skills; their English tuition did not prepare them for instruction in English in a wide range of subjects; learners were not being systematically introduced to new ideas or concepts by teachers which meant that they could not cope with all the new ideas expected of them by the time they reached the fifth grade; learners did very little reading and so they resorted to memorisation and rote-learning built up a self-sustaining momentum.

According to the PEI Projects (Taylor & Vinjevold 1999: 137), a number of factors impact on the poor efficiency of our education. These are, among others, high proportions of over-age students (students who are much older than the average learner and in turn leads to high drop-out and failure rates), negative teacher attitudes to their jobs, teachers' low levels of conceptual knowledge and poor grasp of their subjects, the three constituents, namely, principals, teachers, and learners blaming outside forces for the problems and expecting solutions from these outside forces instead of taking some responsibility themselves, and under-resourcing.

From the researcher's discussions with English Studies part-time postgraduate students at the University of Limpopo, who are also teachers at rural schools (personal interviews at UL) it appears that the policy makers and the Education

department seldom address the problems of teachers in Limpopo rural schools[13]. Four postgraduate students (teachers in rural primary and secondary schools) of the researcher were asked to write about their problems and those of their learners. These are their personal views of what the major problems are:

Teacher 1 (DN).

Learning a second language is a challenge, and teaching it an even greater challenge...

Children from multilingual communities pick up a language easier than children growing up in rural areas where the whole community mostly speak one language...

High schools and most rural schools have no libraries. They are not able to access reading material. Consequently learners from rural schools do not appreciate reading. Reading is an important skill in improving one's vocabulary... (This was confirmed by a report on SABC2 18.00 News which stated that only 7% of South Africa's rural schools have properly equipped libraries.)

Teachers have a tendency of teaching English and other content subjects through the medium of mother-tongue. This causes a problem for the children when they go to a tertiary institution where the lecturers speak English only...

English teachers are not given enough time. As a medium of instruction English should be allocated enough time. There is so much to do with so little time...

Teacher 2 (JM)

Problems in Primary School

Follow up on learners (individuals) is hard to make...

Classes are overcrowded and it's hard to teach...

Learners don't get enough time to gather more knowledge since there isn't enough time for repetition...
Grouping (that is, groupwork) *encourages laziness and therefore lack of knowledge* (that is, lack of practice leading to proficiency)...

Sitting not facing the board makes it difficult for learners who cannot differentiate sides and for those with hearing problems and poor eyesight...

[13] Even the press (*Mail & Guardian* 2005: 4) when reporting on the dilemma of the South African teachers, uses the example of a teacher/educator from a "large, reasonably well-resourced" urban primary school. If she is "beleaguered" how much more so does a teacher in a low-resourced school in a rural area feel fraught?

Problems in High School

Learners coming from primary school to high school are almost illiterate even in their own mother tongue – they can't read or write...

Teachers in high school are not well-prepared to facilitate as they didn't have in-service training...

High school assessment of learners in Grades 8 and 9 is still a problem. From Grade 10 to grade 12 the old system of assessment is used, that of testing only (giving a test and giving a quick Fail or Pass system)...

Although the medium of instruction is English, learners rarely discuss in English whatever work they are given as they don't know the English language. This results in uncontrollable noise making...

Classes are too overcrowded for grouping learners; moving around groups becomes almost impossible for the facilitator.

Teacher 3 (MM)

Teaching becomes difficult in an overcrowded class. ... Even if there are enough teachers, it is difficult to teach a class of 70 or 80 or to share a classroom with another teacher...

Many schools are ...not sufficiently resourced. These schools do not have basic resources such as basic English textbooks. It is difficult to give children homework because they don't have books to work from. OBE requires learners to be able to access information for themselves. They will not be able to do this if schools do not have sufficient books...

...Learners who are from a poor background... feel ashamed about almost everything. They don't want to communicate or take part in school activities such as debate, drama or speech...

...They (teachers) need to learn ways of managing large classes and what strategies they could employ to ensure that all learners are taught and assessed properly...

That learners also feel that some teachers are not sufficiently proficient in English themselves is reflected in the written comment below by a first-entering student at UniLim:

I am from Limpopo Province... I was interested in this language and even now I am. Unfortunately My English teacher was very poor in English. I like to say to you that I like but I am poor. I like to develop just a little in this language. Main fact is that I am not perfect but I can try to speak little. I don't want to speak little for future I want to Speak bigger as I can . I hope I may be good English Speaker than My high School teacher. I thank you (EM)

The challenges faced by the tertiary English language and academic literacy materials indeed become onerous.

2.7.2.3 *Resources*

As mentioned by an educator in a rural school (see Teacher 3 above), some schools are too small. They do not have enough classrooms; or the classrooms are overcrowded. Most rural schools do not have libraries and learners do not have textbooks – so even if teachers embrace the intentions of the new curriculum cycle, that is, Curriculum 2005, it cannot be implemented because of the lack of material resources.

Although the PEI report (Taylor & Vinjevold 1999) admits to its research studies constituting "a very small and, scientifically speaking, unrepresentative sample of the South African school population", the findings correspond to much that is happening in Limpopo rural schools. Research by Strauss (1999: 329-30) points out that on the farm schools investigated by him the classrooms were not over-crowded but there was insufficient space for learners to move around for group work; and teaching materials used were mainly wall charts and some work cards. Overhead projectors (OHPs) and photocopiers were not available. This is either because they are too costly or mainly because the school did not have electricity (personal interview with postgraduates who are teachers 2005).

In terms of textbooks, Taylor and Vinjevold (1999: 232-233) found that in many classrooms textbooks are not used because none are available; and where textbooks are available (although sometimes not enough, especially in rural schools) (Taylor & Vinjevold 1999:169), it appears teachers do not use them or do not know how to use them (Baxen & Green 1999: 264; Pile and Smythe 1999: 314; Wickham & Versveld 1999: 354, cited in Taylor & Vinjevold 1999).

Taylor and Vinjevold (1999: 233) conclude that, since one of the aims of education, and specifically of developing the skills required by the new curriculum, are higher order thinking skills, it is crucial that learning materials not only be interesting but be "woven together into a systematic learning programme". "Without books to read and write in, schooling as a cognitive development cannot happen" (Taylor & Vinjevold

1999: 233). If the higher cognitive skills are not being developed at school, students entering university are likely to lack the necessary skills to cope with their studies. The task of the tertiary English language lecturer therefore becomes arduous.

2.7.2.4 *Language Learning Anxiety and Adaptation to an Unfamiliar Environment*
Getting students to participate or even just to respond to a question in the classroom is a problem faced by most ESL educators or facilitators (Beebe 1983; Lucas 1984; White & Lightbown 1984; Tsui 1996; Katz 1996). Wu (1993), as well as Tsui (1985), found in their analyses of a number of ESL lessons that, although the teacher repeated a question several times, learners did not respond, nor did they initiate questions or ask for clarification. This is also the problem in the ENGL131/132 workshops (UniLim – personal interviews with colleagues). While the reasons could differ from context to context, this researcher speculates that the reticence (besides some students being naturally reserved) in the context of this study can be attributed to various factors such as those submitted by Tsui (1996: 148-160). The reasons may be:

- *sociocultural* (Women are expected to be more modest and reserved (as expressed in a study on African proverbs - Zikalala 2005; cf. sociocultural factors in Wu 1991:7));
- because of *low English proficiency* (mentioned by Tsui 1996: 148; and see student comments in 2.6 above and comments by teachers 1 and 2 on page 14 of this study);
- for *fear of criticism* by the educator (Tsui 1996:157),
- for *fear of making mistakes* and of *derision* (Tsui 1996: 149; RMc: own experience in ENGL131/132 workshops has shown that mistakes are greeted with loud laughter by other students); and
- *'incomprehensible input'* (Tsui 1996: 154) because the students do not have sufficient vocabulary, the educator has an unfamiliar accent or expresses the question vaguely or incomprehensibly. (A textbook or course materials can assist in terms of unfamiliar pronunciation because students can see the printed words and connect them with the unfamiliar pronunciation.)

The anxiety of language learning is compounded for students coming to the University of Limpopo for the first time with problems of adjustment to the strange, new

environment. Students (ENGL131 – 2004) wrote the following about their first day at university:

> *It was Monday morning. That day I would never forgot in my life. That day I felt like a stupid. When I arrived at the gate I saw many students moving up and down. I did not understood that day. ...It was the first to come at this University. I did not knew were was the K-block. I asked other student they shown me. I asked them the way to went. They just ignored me. When I arrived at another place I found a lift. In my life I did not used the lift...* (a BA student)
>
> *...It was the first time I entering in the university of Limpopo. And it was the time that I felt embarrassed and confused; because I didn't know were to turn to, and what first must I do because there were so many people and with different languages. What confused me more was when I saw many tall buildings. I felt terrible and miserable because I was all alone with no one to talk to...* (a BSc (Agric) student)
>
> *...Really, it was a great challenge to me because I was not use to spoke or talk English now and then. After I had done with the registration I went to fetch a key room at residence offices... I was so fortunate enough because I got a Shangani roommate. We were using English as a medium to communicate with each other.* (An LLB student)
>
> *My first day at university is one of the days which I would never forget, It was like a whole new world had opened for me. I didn't know any university before or such a beautiful building before...*
> (a BCur student)
>
> *...My first day was quite great to me because I was never been in a university institution before. From the entrance of the university where a taxi dropped me off, there was mentors to facilitate peoples, to show them the way to the administration block. then I got there I was amazed seeing the tall buildings and computers because in the village I come from there's no tall buildings; there are only huts. When I arrived at administration block the queue was too short and I registed with in university. Then I paid all my fees then I was happy because I knew that I was then a student in the university...*
> (a B.Admin student)

Many students wrote about the high buildings (the tallest building is 8 storeys), their first encounter with a lift, getting lost on campus and the many different languages, their first white lecturer and hearing more English spoken than ever before in their young lives. The staff who teach ENGL131/132 students are mostly English Second Language speakers themselves but are fluent and proficient. However, each speaks with his/her own inflection and accent because his/her first language is either

Afrikaans, German, Sepedi, Seswati, Swahili or a Zimbabwean, Nigerian, Ghanaian, or Mozambiquan language. For a student with little or no previous exposure to English this will be a further constraint in addition to all the adjustments to the university system, the unfamiliar way of doing things, coping all on their own and coping with the demands of tertiary studies. The crucial skills of, for example, listening and note-taking become an arduous task if a student with inadequate vocabulary and low general English language proficiency has to adapt to differences in pronunciation too. The resulting incomprehensible input means students do not always understand the lecturer's questions or instructions, which in turn leads to a lack of response from the students. All this generates performance anxiety which is related to language learning anxiety: "communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation" (Horwitz *et al.* 1986: 127).

2.8 CONCLUSION

The number of young people affected by poverty and inaccessibility to education resources is considerable. Limpopo Province is one of those areas. The education system will have to come up with solutions in terms of access to qualified teachers, libraries and textbooks or coursebooks. Language learning and teaching materials will need to be designed to address the special circumstances of students who come from a low socioeconomic, rural background, attended under-resourced schools with underqualified teachers or teachers who do not have a good work ethic. Materials should also attempt to find ways to bridge the gap between the lack of English language skills (which they should have acquired at school) and the English academic literacy skills required for their studies. Taking into account that their home and school environment differ greatly from the university environment, materials should also endeavour to alleviate the language learning anxiety and the students' adjustment to an unfamiliar environment. It calls for a reexamination of countless assumptions tertiary teaching staff (cf. Murray 1996; Masenya 1995; Bigelow & Tarone 2004) have about their students and hence a reexamination of approaches to tertiary teaching or 'lecturing'. Many university lecturers still base their teaching/lecturing on their own tertiary experiences. A student was assumed to possess certain skills and thus was expected to cope with the work on his/her own. This can be expected if the school background has provided a student with the necessary academic literacy. It is, however not the case with many rural students. A lecturer can take the attitude of

leaving the majority of his/her students to 'sink or swim' or to try and help the student to acquire the necessary academic literacy. Many lecturers see this as 'spoonfeeding'; but can one with a clear conscience just leave the student to fail? The problem with students from rural, underresourced schools is not one of intelligence but of language proficiency. This reexamination of assumptions should be articulated in the materials we design.

The next chapter will examine the education system advocated by and articulated in the policy of the Department of Education, the methods and approaches which are in the literature viewed as most appropriate to teach English as a second language and how they can be expressed in the language learning materials, particularly in the in-house coursebooks designed for the UniLim ENGL131 and ENGL132 modules.

CHAPTER 3
APPROACHES AND METHODS IN MATERIALS DESIGN

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Language learning is a complex and still little understood process. The materials used in the language classroom should support the adopted teaching approach as well as provide appropriate models of language use. This chapter focuses on the theories, approaches and methodologies[1] that underpin the current South African education system and the current language pedagogy, and how they can be applied to language materials.

3.2 OUTCOMES-BASED EDUCATION

South Africa's education has moved to an outcomes-based education (OBE) system and although this has generated numerous debates and criticism, it is currently a criterion which needs to be met by teaching and learning materials. In this study the tenets underpinning OBE will be considered in terms of the materials used for the ENGL131 and ENGL132 modules at UniLim.

3.2.1 DEFINING OUTCOMES

The Department of Education (Curriculum 2005 1997: glossary) defines outcomes as

> ...the results of learning processes and [how these] refer to knowledge, skills, attitudes and values within particular contexts. Learners should be able to demonstrate that they understand and can apply the desired outcomes within a certain context.

Wessels and Van den Berg (1998: 2) point out that the South African approach emphasises outcomes as "broad, integrative capabilities that draw on an understanding of underlying principles and processes, transferability of application and so on" instead of as a measurable "product" resulting from "narrow, predictable and mechanical behaviours". The significant aspect of this definition is the emphasis on "knowledge, skills, and values" which indicates a holistic approach. (See discussion of culture and interculturality as a possible evaluation criterion in Chapter 4.)

[1] There has been a fair amount of research done into the question whether language teachers believe there is or is not one best method, go 'beyond method, whether there is such a thing as Kumaravadivelu's (1994, 2006) 'postmethod condition' or that methods are 'dead' (Block 2001). Using one particular method in a whole textbook or other written language materials, as has been done and still is, by some materials developers and designers, is in the view of this researcher, context insensitive. An article by Bell (2007: 135-143) on this issue is worth reading: Bell, D. M. 2007. Do teachers think that methods are dead? *ELT Journal*, 61 (2): 135-143.

Among others, two main reasons for this change in approach to education are given (Wessels & Van den Berg 1998: 3). First, the information explosion with continual upgrading and expanding of knowledge and facts makes the skills to access[2] and evaluate knowledge more logical than rote learning. Second, it hopes to address the complaint made both in South Africa, and world wide, that school-leavers cannot apply in the workplace what they have learnt at school or at tertiary institutions. This is a particular problem in terms of the English proficiency of students enrolling for and completing the modules in this study. It may indicate a problem of learners' attitude to or assumption about what, why and how they are learning something[3].

Nel (2006: 7), for example, ascribes the current lack of (English) workplace skills in school-leavers partly to the (British) colonial education policy which was further perpetuated by the National Party during the apartheid era. The current ruling party's answer to the National Party's content-based curriculum is the outcomes-based approach to education, that is, Curriculum 2005 revised as C21. (Nel points out that if this newer approach is seen to have failed it is because of poor management, not because of any inherent conceptual flaws.)

3.2.2 THE RATIONALE FOR OUTCOMES-BASED EDUCATION IN LANGUAGE TEACHING[4]

The Department of Education South Africa (1997: 22-23) has given a rationale for each set of Learning Area Outcomes. Language, literacy and communication are fundamental to human development and central to lifelong learning. The rationale for the Language, Literacy and Communication learning area is articulated by the national Department of Education (South Africa 1997: 22) as follows:

Language (including Sign Language, and alternative and augmentative methods of communication) and language learning empower people to[5]:

---

[2] This is an outcome of OBE but is also contained in the theory of autonomy and self-directed learning.
[3] Cf Benson' view (2007) on autonomy in language learning. It reinforces the OBE principle of making learners aware of learning outcomes but raises the question whether awareness-raising will encourage learners to take responsibility for their own learning. (Cf 4.5.2)
[4] Regarding Curriculum 2005, the Department of National Education states "The development of the curriculum framework was informed throughout by principles derived from the White Paper on Education and Training, March 1995. Cognisance was also taken of the learners who would be involved in the 'curriculum-in-use' (i.e. as it is applied at the chalk-face), and of the contexts in which learning programmes would be implemented. "
[5] The points of the rationale have been numbered by the researcher to simplify referral.

1. make meaning;
2. negotiate meaning and understanding;
3. access education;
4. access information and literacies; (This is particularly relevant to this study as are points 10 and 11, and 12 and 13 in terms of materials.)
5. think and express their thoughts and emotions logically, critically and creatively;
6. respond with empathy to the thoughts and emotions of others;
7. interact and participate socially, politically, economically, culturally and spiritually;
8. understand the relationship between language and power, and influence relationships through that understanding;
9. develop and reflect critically on values and attitudes;
10. communicate in different contexts by using a range of registers and language varieties; and
11. use standard forms of language where appropriate.

The advancement of multilingualism as a major resource affords learners the opportunity to develop and value:

12. their home languages, cultures and literacies;
13. other languages, cultures and literacies in our multicultural country and in international contexts; and
14. a shared understanding of a common South African culture.

3.2.3 THE OUTCOMES FOR THE LANGUAGE, LITERACY AND COMMUNICATION LEARNING AREA

The seven Specific Outcomes developed by the Language. Literacy and Communications LAC are as follows (South Africa 2002: 23):

1. *Make and negotiate meaning and understanding:*

   Meaning is central to communication. This specific outcome aims at the development of a learner's ability to understand, create and negotiate meaning in various contexts by using appropriate communication strategies and by using listening, speaking, reading and writing skills. These strategies and skills are developed and refined by constantly being exposed to a variety of situations

which afford language users opportunities to interact in different ways.

2. *Show critical awareness of language usage:*

   This specific outcome aims to develop a learner's understanding of the way in which language is used as a powerful instrument to reflect, shape and manipulate people's beliefs, actions and relationships. The complexity and sensitivity of a multilingual context specifically requires the development of a learner's skills to interpret and consciously reflect on language usage. For this reason, the development of the decoding skills (reading and listening) is emphasised.

3. *Respond to the aesthetic, affective, cultural and social values in texts:*

   The aim of this outcome is to develop a learner's appreciation, use and creation of text as an artistic expression of thoughts, feelings, and values through exposure to a wide variety of genres. The development of learners' listening, reading and viewing skills to recognise and use literary devices enriches the quality of their own language use and lives.

4. *Use information from a variety of sources and situations:*

   This specific outcome aims to develop the capacity of learners to function fully in modem society by finding, evaluating and using information. The development of information skills is indispensable for the attainment of quality lifelong learning.

5. *Know and apply language structures and conventions in context:*

   This specific outcome aims to develop a language user's understanding and knowledge of grammar. The development of this grammatical competence empowers the learner to communicate clearly and confidently by using grammatical structures (e.g. word order) correctly. Clarity of communication is improved through the development of a learner's editing skills, which includes a conscious awareness of the learner's own language usage.

6. *Use language for learning*

   This specific outcome aims to develop the learner's ability to use language as a tool for learning in all learning areas. Learning is mediated through language as the learner interacts with new knowledge, materials, peers, facilitators and other people. The intrinsic value of language as a tool for problem-solving, decision-making, and creative, critical and evaluative thinking should be developed across the curriculum. The role of language in cognitive and conceptual

development should furthermore be reflected in and promoted by the total school environment.

7. *Use appropriate communication strategies for specific purposes and situations*: This specific outcome aims at the development of the learner's ability to apply communication skills and strategies appropriately to a specific purpose and a defined situation.

These outcomes, although referring to the secondary school language outcomes, are also objectives of the UniLim ENGL131 and ENGL132 modules. The modules attempt to reinforce the underlying principles of these outcomes by means of the coursebook activities because many of the students in the study come from schools where they received impoverished input. Outcome 3 is addressed to a lesser degree in these modules because the aesthetic, affective, cultural and social values in texts are more the focus of the mainstream English literature courses at UniLim. However, although Outcome 3 is not a primary aim of the ENGL131 and ENGL132 modules it will nonetheless be addressed during class discussions of passages that form part of the language and writing activities in the coursebooks. They are also likely to be part of the students' general interests in music, poetry, story-telling[6] and other uses for the application of English besides academic work.

3.3 ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES

English for Academic Purposes (EAP) is at the forefront of language education today. It has evolved over the last twenty years and draws from a variety of theories. It is defined as teaching English to assist learners in their studies or research in that language (Hyland 2006 1; Flowerdew & Peacock 2001: 8; Jordan 1997: 1)[7]. It covers all areas of academic communicative practice, tends to be practical and varies in local contexts depending on the needs of the learners (Hyland 2006: 1; Dudley-Evans 2001: ix). It is supported by an increasing range of publications and research journals. EAP has evolved from a growing awareness that learners, including native-English speakers, need to deal with knowledge in new ways when they enter university or other tertiary institutions. Hyland (2006: 1) lists areas in which EAP is practised:

[6] The poetry club and story-telling club on the UniLim campus are very popular as extra-curricular activities for students from all disciplines.
[7] For a more detailed background of EAP, the books by the three writers mentioned, Hyland (2006), Flowerdew & Peacock (2001) and Jordan (1997, 2006) can be consulted.

- Pre-tertiary, undergraduate and postgraduate teaching (from the design of materials to lectures and classroom tasks).
- Classroom interactions (from teacher feedback to tutorials and seminar discussions).
- Research genres (from teacher feedback to tutorials and seminar discussions).
- Student writing (from essays to exam papers and graduate theses).
- Administrative practice (from course documents to doctoral oral defences).

It is with regard to the UniLim one year English service course that the EAP approach will be closely examined, because the main purpose of the courses' (the ENGL131 and ENGL132 modules) materials' is to support the students in their English academic language needs.

3.3.1 BACKGROUND TO EAP

The term *English for Academic Purposes* appears to have been coined by Tim Johns in 1974 and first appeared in a publication in 1977 (Jordan 2004). It is one of the two main branches of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), the other one being English for Occupational/ Vocational/ Professional Purposes (EOP/ EVP/ EPP). The growth of EAP is attributed to the growing reach of the global markets, the growth of English as the leading language for the dissemination of academic knowledge, the greater internationalisation and globalisation of higher education, and student populations becoming more diverse, in particular, in terms of their ethnic and linguistic backgrounds and educational experiences (Hyland 2006: 2). Tertiary learners are now confronted with a broad range of modalities and presentational forms which they have to master, in addition to written communication. Where English is the university language of instruction, non-native English-speaking learners, as well as academics are faced with having to master academic discourse. Non-native English-speaking academics too need skills to deliver lectures, participate in meetings, present at conferences, and conduct and publish research – all in English (Hyland 2006: 4). These needs also require a specific EAP course tailored for academics. This indicates that there cannot be a one-size-fits-all EAP course. Hyland (2006: 4) asserts that EAP attempts to offer "systematic, locally managed, solution-oriented approaches that address the pervasive and endemic challenges posed by academic study to a diverse student body by focusing on student needs and discipline-specific communication

needs". Pertinent to this study, is that as a result of the growth of English in academic contexts globally, most educators of EAP around the world are non-native speakers of English. This has required changes in EAP materials - and will also require changes in teacher training courses (see 4.7 on *Culture and interculturality*).

3.3.2 ISSUES AND CONTROVERSIES IN EAP

The need for English for the purpose of study, research and teaching is escalating because of the growth of English in academic contexts. However, because learner needs differ according to the environment or area where they are studying and using academic English, the exact nature of EAP cannot always be defined. Hyland (2006) and Flowerdew and Peacock (2001), in particular, have addressed these dilemmas. A materials designer should be aware of these dilemmas when deciding on an appropriate approach to EAP in the relevant context in which the language materials are being designed. This is also the dilemma faced by the materials designer of the English modules for the target population in this study, namely, should the course be general or specific, what factors must be kept in mind considering the context and which components should be included and which left for another course.

3.3.2.1 *Specific or General Academic Purposes*

The issue questioned here is that of specificity in terms of the different disciplines' English demands. A distinction is made between English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) and English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP). With an EGAP approach an attempt is made to establish the skills and activities that are common to all disciplines – that is generic academic practices. These can be, for instance, the core activities listed by Dudley-Evans (1998: 41):

- Listening to lectures
- Participating in supervisions, seminars and tutorials
- Reading textbooks, articles and other material
- Writing essays, examination answers, dissertations and reports.

This, in turn, raises the question whether the skills needed for the above are transferable across different disciplines or whether we should rather focus on the texts, skills and forms learners need in their different disciplines (Hyland 2006:9).

The following arguments are given for EGAP and alternatively for ESAP (Hyland 2006: 10-12):

Arguments for EGAP

- Language educators allegedly lack the training, expertise and confidence to teach subject-specific conventions.
- EAP is reported to be just too difficult for learners with limited English proficiency. Weaker learners are not ready for discipline-specific language and learning tasks and need preparatory classes to give them a good understanding of general English first.
- Teaching subject-specific skills downgrades EAP. Instead of developing its own autonomous subject knowledge and skills, it is given a low-status service role to merely support academic departments.
- By being specific, and basing course content on the communicative demands of particular courses and disciplines, it is said that EAP does not prepare learners for unpredictable assignments and encourages unimaginative and formulaic essays.
- There are generic skills which differ little across the disciplines, for instance, skimming and scanning for information in texts, paraphrasing and summarising arguments, conducting library and internet searches, giving oral presentations and contributing to seminars and tutorials.
- It is recommended that EAP courses focus on a common core – that is, a set of language forms or skills found in nearly all varieties and which can be transferred across contexts, for example the common features that characterise all good writing (Zamel 1993: 35)

Arguments for ESAP

- EAP educators cannot rely on subject specialists to teach disciplinary literacy skills as they usually do not have the expertise or desire to focus on language issues.
- SLA research does not support the argument that learners need to master core forms before getting on to specific and presumably more difficult language features. Learners do not acquire language step-by-step.
- EAP professionals are not merely concerned with teaching isolated words,

structures, lexical phrases, and so on, but particularly with investigating the uses of language that carry clear disciplinary values as a result of frequency and importance to the communities that employ them.

- Teaching specialist discourse does not relegate EAP to the bottom of the academic ladder. On the contrary, the ESAP perspective recognises the complexities of engaging in the specific literacies and the specialised professional competences required by those who teach them.
- There are serious doubts about whether there is a common core of generic language items. Once meaning and use are introduced there no longer is a finite set of grammatical forms that can be common to all disciplines. Any form has many possible meanings depending on its context of use.
- EAP classes do not focus only on forms but teach subject-specific communicative skills as well. Participation in these communicative activities does not depend on the learner having full control of these common core grammar features. Few educators would want to delay instruction until such time that the learners had perfectly mastered those items.

In the case of the current study, ESAP is not an option for ENGL131/ 132 because of the institutional constraints of English proficiency of rural students, staff shortages, time and available venues, as explained in Chapter 2. It is not the ideal, but until the barriers to learning English more effectively in rural secondary schools have been overcome and the students enter the university with an English proficiency which enables them to cope with more challenging English language usage, the materials will have to cater for common core features (a generic course) and attempt to introduce learners to a wide variety of academic genres. The ENGL131 and ENGL132 coursebooks will therefore focus on EGAP despite the findings of Johns (1988a: 55) that in terms of the academic skills required by students in different disciplines, the differences may be greater than the similarities regarding discipline, audience, and context.

3.3.2.2 Academic Literacy or Study Skills

The next question which is raised about EAP is whether it is fundamentally skills-based, text-based or practice-based (Hyland 2006: 16). The conceptions of EAP have gradually changed over the years as the research base has developed. In the

beginning EAP was mainly a materials and teacher-led movement focusing on texts (Candlin *et al.* 1975), but more recently research has emphasised the rich diversity of texts, contexts and practices in which learners function. There are growing numbers of learners from what Hyland (2006: 16) terms 'non-traditional backgrounds' entering higher education. This means that working class, mature, ethnic minority and international learners enrolling at universities have led to a more culturally, socially and linguistically diverse learner population. This is the reason for the difficulty in clearly defining the exact nature of EAP. The needs of the learners in each distinct context have to, by necessity, be addressed differently. In addition, the changes in the higher education system have led to learners now taking a more diverse mix of subjects. These new course configurations are "more discoursally challenging for students who have to move between genres, departments and disciplines" (Hyland 2006: 17).

The study skills approach was the initial thrust of EAP. This entails the more mechanical aspects of study such as referencing, using libraries, dissertation formatting etc (Robinson 1991, cited in Hyland 2006: 17). The definition given by Richards *et al.* (1992: 359) sums up the early EAP study skills approach, and also what is applied in part in the ENGL131/ 132 coursebooks:

> Abilities, techniques and strategies which are used when reading, writing, or listening for study purposes. For example, study skills needed by university students studying from English language textbooks include: adjusting reading speeds according to the type of material being read, using the dictionary, guessing word meanings from context, interpreting graphs, diagrams, and symbols, note-taking and summarising.

This approach was based on the learners' need for more than just linguistic knowledge to be successful in their studies. The focus shifted from linguistic form to common reasoning and interpreting processes underlying communication which help learners to understand the discourse of their disciplines. The study skills approach gave way to "a more discipline-sensitive and discourse-based approach which saw learning as an induction or *acculturation* into a new culture rather than an extension of existing skills" (Hyland 2006: 19).

Research into knowledge construction, teaching and learning began to connect literacy with a more general understanding of the disciplines (Hyland 2006; Swales 1998). The focus now shifted to the different types of writing required from learners

and their approach to the tasks, interactions and discourses of their fields of study. EAP was now positioned "at the heart of university teaching and learning and of learners' orientation to, and success in their fields of study" (Hyland 2006: 21).

The third shift of EAP content raises issues of relevance and legitimacy in relation to writing practices in the disciplines. An academic literacies approach, according to Hyland (2006: 22), emphasises that the way language is used ('literacy practices'), is modelled by social institutions and power relationships. There is a hierarchy – some literacies, such as those "concerned with legal, scientific and political domains, become more dominant and important than others" (Hyland 2006: 22). Academic success entails learners learning to represent themselves in a way valued by their particular discipline, adopting the values, beliefs and identities embodied by academic discourses. EAP, at this level, is no longer for non-native speakers only, but offers academic skills needed by native speakers of English as well.

3.3.2.3 Lingua franca or Destroyer

The spread of English and its becoming the world's predominant language of research and scholarship, has inevitably been at the cost of other languages (Balduf & Jernudd 1983). Students and academics around the world must "gain fluency in the conventions of English-language academic discourses to understand their disciplines, to establish their careers, or to successfully navigate their learning" (Hyland 2006: 24). The demand for English and the development and expansion of EAP is the result historically, of the legacy of US and British colonialism; the expansion of a single market and the promotion of English by US and UK governments; the increase of transnational corporations and the internet; and the economic imperatives of modern education provision and current 'user pays' ideologies (Hyland 2006; Phillipson 1993, 2006; Ward 2004) [8].

This hegemony of English has affected many other languages negatively. There is a loss of linguistic diversity: For example, many European and Japanese journals are in English; English has superseded Russian as the academic language of the old Eastern bloc since the Cold War; Swedish has practically disappeared in academic

[8] See Kachru's (1986) three circles model, Phillipson (1992) and Canagarajah (1999) concerning the inequalities English has helped promote.

publications; and where they have the choice, PhD students are choosing to write their theses in English. Writing in English for online versions of journals is attractive because by means of these journals authors are particularly visible because the journals are more accessible to other academics and researchers, and thus authors 'on-line' receive the most credit and hence recognition and promotion (Swales 1997; Wilson 2002; Hyland 2006). Despite accessibility, cost is still a constraint for libraries in many parts of the world. Wood (2001) and Canagarajah (1996) point out that there are still the structural divisions between the advantaged northern and disadvantaged southern hemispheres. A further challenge faced by non-native English speaking researchers is that the rhetorical standards demanded by editors "counteracts innovation and creative thought by forcing them into standard forms" (Flowerdew 2001:24; cf. also Mauranen 1993b: 172). They lack the confidence to attempt to achieve these standards or have to pay editors to correct or rewrite their prose. It is here where EAP can play a significant role in helping academics develop the necessary rhetorical skills.

English also has negative consequences for learners. They may find it difficult to bridge the domains of English in the classroom and their vernacular at home. (This is further discussed in Chapter 4 *Materials, Culture and Interculturality*: 4.7.)

So on the one hand, English is viewed as a common language which enables individuals "to enter networks beyond their locality" (Graddol 2001) and makes possible the worldwide exchange of ideas and expansion of knowledge (Glaze 2000). On the other hand, there are those who see the spread of English as "an insidious and destructive force" (Hyland 2006: 28). These views are a reflection of different ideological orientations. The ideal would be to see English becoming a universal culture-free language which does not advantage a particular group – but how this can be achieved without diminishing the vernaculars is not yet clear (Hyland 2006: 29). English is still seen by many (particularly parents) as the key to economic empowerment, as well as academic empowerment – which it still is. Until such time that this changes EAP will still be in demand[9].

[9] Kennedy (2001: 27) asserts that the predominance of English is not a stable affair, and that other languages are still powerful; some are already or will become powerful regionally and Internet communication is expanding into other-than-English-use.

3.3.2.4 *Pragmatism or Critique*

This issue influences how we understand EAP and practise it. According to Hyland (2006: 30), it is an issue of "whether EAP is a pragmatic exercise, working to help learners fit unquestioningly into subordinate roles in their disciplines and courses, or whether it has the responsibility to help learners understand the power relations of those contexts".

Allison (1996: 87) defines pragmatism (a notion that is defined in different ways) in EAP as teaching which is "sensitive to contexts of discourse and of action". According to Widdowson (1990), a pragmatic orientation to teaching ensures that action is backed by understanding. This means that decisions about the curriculum are supported by a sensitivity to the contexts of teaching and to the most urgent needs of learners. This forms the basis of significant effort and commitment on the part of EAP educators to ascertain learners' needs, negotiate suitable goals with subject specialists and resource-conscious administrators, collect suitable materials and devise learning tasks (Hyland 2006: 30). Swales (1990: 9) explains that a main objective of this approach is to empower learners by initiating them into the ways of making effective meanings in their target courses and disciplines, namely "to help people, both native and non-native speakers, to develop their communicative competence". Communicative competence is important because learners and academics are judged by how they control the discourses of their disciplines. So the pragmatic approach to EAP provides learners with the 'cultural capital' they need to succeed academically and professionally.

In contrast, critical EAP involves learners in the kind of activities they are asked to do in academic classes. At the same time they are encouraged to question and perhaps change or improve the activities or conditions on which the particular activities are based. Various critical approaches to applied linguistics have increased interest in ideas such as ideology, identity, subjectivity and power in the area of language teaching (Hyland 2006: 32). One such area is critical language awareness (CLA) (see Fairclough 1989, 1992). Clark and Ivanic (1997: 217) state that CLA aims to

> empower learners by providing them with a critical analytical framework to help them reflect on their own language experiences and practices and on the language practices of others in the institutions of which they are part and the wider society in which they live.

Critical approaches are thus connected with the 'academic literacies' approach to EAP. Both approaches recognise that there are various literacies "or social sets of social communicative practices" in everyday life. Both emphasise how access to "institutionally valued literacies" has the power "to enhance or reduce people's life chances" (Hyland 2006: 32).

The pragmatist and critical perspectives can be easily polarised. The context examined in this study requires a pragmatist approach to ensure that learners' and institutional needs are met; however, this does not exclude encouraging learners to question the activities required in their disciplines and courses. Effective educators examine the implications of their own teaching and adopt a reflective version of 'critical pragmatism' which recognises " a variety of locally effective ways to help students demystify the academic worlds in which they find themselves so that the 'critical' becomes explanatory and not only political" (Hyland 2006: 32). Educators and materials developers should take up this challenge, however complex, by reconstructing pedagogy to engage with and promote a critical stance so that the EAP classroom become "places of awareness and change while meeting learning and subject course objectives" (Hyland 2006: 35).

3.3.3 EAP AND MATERIALS

The approaches decided upon to teach the target language and academic objectives and skills taught in a course will determine the tasks that are included in the ESL materials. The methods and materials are the interface between teaching and learning. The kinds of materials an educator selects will depend on the methodologies or approaches adopted.

Teaching methodologies, however, have changed often, like fashion, over the years, swinging to-and-fro like a pendulum (Larsen-Freeman 2000; Hyland 2006) – not that anyone, when a new approach or method is presented, will admit that it is a repackaged 'old' one. Widdowson (2003: ix) describes the tendency best when he says

> As time goes by, ideas about English teaching come and go, articles make an ephemeral appearance in journals and then become part of a forgotten archive, books go out of print and out of mind. What is dated is assumed to be outdated. But although publications have a limited shelf-life, and one suspects are, like other consumer products, sometimes deliberately designed for rapid obsolescence, the issues they deal with, and the ideas they express, *continually reappear and are*

> *given the guise of novelty* (*my emphasis*). Whether this is true of other areas of enquiry as well I do not know, but in the field of EFL/ TESOL, there is, it seems to me, a striking absence of cumulative development or intellectual continuity.

Widdowson (2003: ix-x) remarks that on the one hand he finds it irksome "to find old ideas appearing in new packaging without knowledge, or acknowledgement, of their origins, and the discussion of issues in ignorance, or disregard, of how they have been dealt with in the past", but on the other he accepts that this process of rediscovery is completely natural and required. "Like any other human activity, English teaching needs continual novelty to sustain its dynamism, even if the novelty is in some sense an illusion. The very fact that ideas and issues, no matter how old their provenance, are taken up again makes them new, gives them a recharged vitality; and every new generation needs to think afresh for itself, appropriate the past and make it demonstrably their own" (Widdowson 2003: x). He declares that it should be welcomed, that it does not matter where the new ideas and issues come from, but what is made of them now. He admits that change in English teaching is often dismissively described (as he has done himself) as mere shifts in fashion. "But there is really no call to be dismissive. Fashion shifts so as to accommodate to changing perceptions, different social circumstances, and when the designs of the past make a reappearance now, they are renewed and made relevant to the present" (Widdowson 2003: x).

The point of highlighting the above is to illustrate that inevitably each individual or team of materials developers will decide on an approach or methodology and select materials, tasks and activities that reflect the needs (as perceived by the materials developer/ s) of the learners in a specific context. The materials are likely to be criticised by some or other educator or learner for being impractical or too theoretical, too traditional or structured, too informal or formal, or too simple or too complex. Ultimately, however, with regard to the selection of tasks and activities to include, the materials developer(s) must make the decision as best he/ she/ they can, for the situation as they see it, and according to the needs of learners, educators and institution as expressed by them.

Jordan (2004) approaches EAP materials more from a skills and pragmatic point of view, while Hyland's (2006) approach is more critical and focuses on concepts such as, for example, *consciousness-raising*, *scaffolding*, *collaboration*, *socioliteracy*, and

concordancing.

In EAP, especially EGAP, tasks involving the four basic learning skills and common core features will most likely be included in the materials. This section will discuss some of these components in a little more detail when it relates to the kind of activities or tasks to select for a coursebook.

The activities in the coursebooks designed specifically for the ENGL131 and ENGL132 modules in this study, are based on what is described in Jordan (2004: 141-225). He lists the following most likely areas to be covered in EAP (this would, according to Hyland (2006), be EGAP) materials, namely, aspects of academic reading and writing which include dictionary work and extension of vocabulary:

- ***Academic reading***
  - *Reading strategies and skills*

    The reading skills are usually linked with writing, and so while reading students are also noting, summarising, paraphrasing and then writing essays. When reading learners usually read for a purpose, for example, for information (facts, data, etc), to understand theories, to establish the writers' viewpoints, to look for evidence of their own viewpoint. In the process of reading learners will be concerned with the subject of the text and the language in which it is expressed – both involve comprehension. The purpose for reading will determine reading strategies used, such as prediction, skimming, scanning, etc. (Another strategic reading approach which could be used is what is termed SQ3R[10].)

    The UniLim students have, in common with the rest of South Africa, as pointed out by a study commissioned by the Department of Arts and Culture and conducted by the South African Book Development Council (Jordan 2007: 8) that only one in seven people reads a book in

[10] The acronym SQ3R stands for *Survey, Question, Read, Recite, Review* and was coined by Robinson, F.P. 1961, 1970. *Effective study* (4th ed.). New York, NY: Harper & Row.

their spare time, and just over 50% of South Africans have no books in their home (in the rural areas this may be higher). The study says that there is "a shocking lack of access to books" and readership "is severely limited by the high cost of books and a shortage of libraries". Reading skills have to be taught and practised to help students not only become familiar with academic discourse but also to develop the reading habit crucial for their studies. (Cf. Chapter 7, Table 1 and its discussion; cf. also Ralenala 2003.)

- *Categorising reading courses*

  Jordan (2004: 144) cites Bloor's alternative approach to categorising reading courses which may also be considered when designing academic reading courses. Bloor (1985) recommends an alternative approach to reading courses which involves categorising them according to the philosophies adopted by the writers. He does, at the same time, acknowledge that individual books may include more than one of the underlying philosophies. He has identified four main approaches: psychological (what takes place in the mind of the reader), linguistic (the focus is on words and sentences), content-oriented (focusing on a purpose e.g. finding certain information), and pedagogically-oriented courses where learning theories are the main motivation for the design of the whole course). There are many variables affecting these approaches such as the learners' freedom of choice in reading and the degree of interest in the topic. This makes evaluation almost impossible.

- *Reading for information*

  Focusing on reading for information is a common way of letting learners practise the various strategies such as predicting, skimming and scanning.

- *Reading speed*

  At the tertiary level, learners need to read both extensively and intensively.

Many learners read slowly and thus cannot get through their reading (this applies particularly to UniLim students – see footnote 4, Chapter 7) and so this is an essential skill they need to acquire in addition to an increase in comprehension rate.

- *Reading comprehension and vocabulary*

  The language encountered in subject textbooks is often unfamiliar and learners encounter unknown words and phrases. Hewings (1990) points out that various basic study skills can help: scanning headings and sub-headings, skimming through texts gives an overview which helps comprehension. Despite the arguments by advocates of the strong version of CLT and therefore of authentic material not being simplified, applying the Flesch-Kincaid readability index[11] (which is in MS Word) to reading passages should be considered. Difficult or dense text should be made more readable and hopefully with that, more comprehensible. Scaffolding (see Chapter 4, section 4.3) may be appropriate here.

- ***Vocabulary development***

  Although not a study skill, vocabulary is viewed as becoming incidental to reading comprehension. Vocabulary is of concern to all four language skills. Jordan (2004: 149) treats it as a link between reading and writing, which is the link made in the ENGL131 and ENGL132 modules as well because these are the two skills which receive the main emphasis in the modules. From the comprehension tests given as assessment to the ENGL131 and ENGL132 students there are indications that lack of vocabulary is a problem for full comprehension of texts. (Since students perceive the use of a dictionary as a

[11] This is a readability test designed to show how easy or difficult a text is to read. The **Flesch-Kincaid Index** uses the following formula: 0.39 x Average No. of words in sentences + 11.8 x Average No. of syllables per word - 15.59. It is a rough measure of how many years of schooling it would take someone to understand the content. Negative results are reported as zero, and numbers over twelve are reported as twelve. The result of Flesch Reading Ease is an index number that rates the text on a 100-point scale. The higher the score, the easier it is to understand the document. Authors are encouraged to aim for a score of approximately 60 to 70.

learning strategy (see also Griffiths 2007: 97)[12], it would be wise to include dictionary work as part of vocabulary development.)

- *Which vocabulary?*

  According to Carter (1987), EAP learners should possess more than a core of 2000 – 3000 words that would be about 80% of the words likely to be encountered. He describes what he views as 'core' vocabulary as follows:

> At least two broad distinctions have to be drawn. There is a level of core vocabulary which is 'core' as far as the organisation of the lexicon as a whole in concerned; and there is a level of core vocabulary which is core to a particular field or subject. Subject-specific vocabulary will always be non-core as far as the language as a whole is concerned. This is because it is not neutral in field and is immediately associated with a specific topic.

In terms of academic vocabulary, although there are lists that have been compiled, one could adopt Nation's (1990) comment that 'technical words' or specialist vocabulary, are usually viewed as the subjects teachers' responsibility because the words are closely connected with learning the subject and may present conceptual difficulties. Since these words occur in specialised texts, the language teachers' role would be to prepare learners to deal with them and give them the advice to "learn every word you meet that you don't know". An academic vocabulary list or Academic Word List (AWL) should perhaps be considered when selecting vocabulary activities to improve students' academic vocabulary. Examples of such lists are those compiled by West (1953), Praninskas (1972), and Xue and Nation (1984), amongst others. In the context of this study the AWL by Coxhead (1998) will be used as source of common academic words the ENGL131 and ENGL132 students should acquire.

In designing vocabulary activities the approaches by Martin (1976), Channel (1988) and Jordan (2004), discussed below, are useful. In Martin's approach to vocabulary she divides the academic vocabulary into three groups suitable for teaching/ practising with research

[12] Griffiths (2007) investigated both students' and teachers' perceptions of various language learning strategies. In terms of using dictionaries students rated dictionary use much higher than the teachers did. She suggests this as an issue to research further.

graduates:

i) *The research process:* primarily verbs and nouns "presented in a context which discusses the five steps of research: formulating, investigating, analysing, drawing conclusions and reporting results".

ii) *The vocabulary of analysis*: this includes high frequency and two-word verbs (for example, derive, consist of, result from) required to present information in an organised sequence.

iii) *The vocabulary of evaluation*: adjectives and adverbs that are used in reviews, reports, critiques, etc., for example, exhaustive, controversial, distinctive, significant, insignificant.

The above vocabulary activities are suitable for including in a coursebook for EAP as they are likely to teach grammar implicitly and contribute to the development of additional vocabulary, and enhancing of writing skills, particularly research writing.

- *Concordancing* (suggested by Hyland 2006)

  Concordances are lists of words together with a list of the contexts within which each word appears. Concordancing is connected with collocations – that is, the habitual co-occurrence of individual lexical items (Crystal 2004:82). Johns (1994, 1997) emphasises the importance and advantage of having authentic texts available in the form of concordances on computer printouts. Instead of giving learners collocational rules, they are encouraged to develop their own discovery strategies – in pairs or groups – discovering "why or why not certain words go together".

- *Memory and mnemonics*

  Relevant here, are short term and long term memory. Language materials should contain problem-solving and task-based activities – both which help learners to remember. Another useful strategy learners can use to remember vocabulary is to make use of mnemonics which are based on principles of association and imagination.

- ***Academic writing***

  This is a crucial skill – both for learners' studies and later when in a job. This is the area emphasised in the ENGL131 and ENGL132 modules because it seems to be the skill most needed for their academic work and assessment. The writing skills needed for academe in terms of structure and presenting arguments, are equally essential in the workplace of the graduate. There are various approaches to writing, as well as types of practice. Jordan (2004: 164) submits that "these depend upon underlying philosophy, sometimes upon the starting-point of the students, sometimes upon the purpose and type of writing, and sometimes simply on personal preference". There are two main approaches to academic writing.

  - *The product approach*

    In this approach a model is provided with various exercises to do in order to draw attention to its important features. The approach can centre round a rhetorical-functional approach with exercises on language functions, such as, description, definition, comparison and contrast, to name but some. Another approach can be from that of academic genres – the types of genres learners are expected to produce. These include essays, reports, case studies, literature reviews and ultimately dissertations and theses.

  - *The process approach*

    The process approach highlights the composing processes which writers go through (cf. CLT principles – see section 3.4 below). Meaning is the primary focus rather than form. It advocates learner-centredness which encourages learners to take responsibility for their own learning. By going through the various stages of the cyclical writing process, namely, brainstorming and discussion, drafting, revisions and editing until the final draft is submitted, learners can make clear decisions about the direction of their writing. "This approach views writing as creative and the task of teachers as being to engage students in the creative process" (Jordan 2004: 165).

There are additional skills and requirements to produce effective academic writing. These are:

- *Summarising, paraphrasing, and synthesising*

  Summarising is an important part of academic writing. It is a skill needed for note-taking and is linked to academic reading by means of note-making. Johns (1988b), for example, argues that traditional approaches to summary writing often overestimate the capabilities of the learners by overlooking the processes involved. She offers a useful approach to be considered for a coursebook: Select a problem/ solution text with its four categories of topics – situation, problem, responses/ solutions, evaluation, and instruct learners to draw four boxes to represent the four categories. Starting with 'situation', in groups learners analyse the text to find all the sentences that refer to it. They then describe the 'situation' in their own words below the box. The same procedure is followed with the other three boxes. At the end they have their own summary based on the box-diagram (Jordan 2004:170).

  Paraphrasing, expressing someone else's ideas in your own words and own style, is also a fundamental part of reading and summarising. Another important skill required in academic writing is the integration and synthesising of others' writing into one's own. This is an area the students in this study have great difficulty with. They frequently resort to plagiarism.

- *Feedback and evaluation*

  Learners can only improve their academic writing if they receive feedback concerning its acceptability and accuracy. Feedback frequently tends to be about surface-level features of writing instead of the whole unit of discourse. Writing teachers are often distracted from the larger meaning-related problems by language-related problems (Zamel 1993). A self-monitoring system where the learners indicate in the margin where they would like help with their writing is suggested

because it involves learners actively in the evaluation and correction of their errors or problem areas (White and Arndt 1991, cited by Jordan 2004: 173; Charles 1990).

- ***Lectures and note-taking***
  - *Lecture length*

    The length of a lecture – anything between 45 and 60 minutes – affects note-taking. Learners need to practise concentrating for a lengthy time.

Note-taking is included here as an academic skill because it involves listening and writing skills as well as distinguishing between essential and non-essential information.

Attending a lecture and listening to it is not as easy as it sounds. For it to be effective in supporting learners in their learning there are three important things that have to take place:

1. *decoding* (recognising what has been said) - this includes the recognition of pauses, hesitations, stress and intonation patterns (Flowerdew 1994).
2. *comprehending* (understanding both primary and secondary points). Comprehension may be hampered if the learners do not have enough background knowledge to deal with the new knowledge they are listening to; or the educator may speak too fast and learners are not familiar with the idiomatic expressions and the style of speaking.
3. *taking notes* – learners must learn to take and to make notes. This involves being able to write down the main points from what is said, quickly, briefly and clearly. Note-taking is the writing down of what is said or what is written down. Note-making is the creation of one's own notes. Both involve a range of processes which may make it a complex skill to master. Some of the processes are: the ability to distinguish between important and less important information; deciding which points to write down; the ability to write fast, briefly and clearly (using a own shorthand system); and the ability to decipher the notes at a later date and recall the core of the lecture. This requires the skills for summarising, paraphrasing and extracting the main ideas from a

chapter or textbook, usually a textbook prescribed for a specific subject. Textbooks or handouts can assist the learners should they find the above problematic.

- ***Speaking for academic purposes***

  Speaking for academic purposes may take the following forms: asking questions in lectures; participation in seminars or discussions; making oral presentations and answering questions arising from the presentations; and, verbalising data, giving oral instructions. Learners should be introduced to the different genres and their conventions (Jordan 2004: 193). Although the target materials in this study do not focus on speaking and listening skills students are going to use them while interacting in class with peers and the educator.

- ***Reference and research skills***

  This section refers to a range of skills required to use the various types of reference materials. Jordan (2004: 208) asserts that dictionary work and libraries should not be included as part of study skills because he does not view them as 'mechanical skills'.

  - *Dictionaries*

    Dictionaries can be monolingual or bilingual. Dictionaries are generally under -utilised (Jordan 2004; Summers 1988). In a context where cost is a crucial issue learners should be encouraged to buy a dictionary more advanced than the school dictionary because "it is probably one of the few books which are retained after following a language course" (Carter 1987: 3). Learning to optimally use a dictionary contributes to learner-centredness – "putting the student in charge" (Summers 1988: 111; cf. also Yongqi Gu 2003: 1-25). An EAP course should include practice in using a dictionary which gives definitions, different meanings and uses, examples of a word in a sentence, synonyms, pronunciation, stress, collocation, style and part of speech. Although it may be a basic skill, students need to be familiar with the alphabetical order of entries, as well as the terms involved such as 'entry', headword, guideword and others. An interesting finding by Griffiths (2007: 97) concerning

students' and teachers' perceptions of language learning strategies, and specifically the use of dictionaries, is that students rate using dictionaries as a learning strategy much higher than teachers do. This would contribute to Summers' (1988) point about dictionaries helping to put the student in charge, therfore encouraging learner-centredness.

- *Books*

  Learners need practice finding and using the contents page and index to books, and then learning about cross-referencing. Pointing out the date of publication, the edition number and publisher, etc. is also necessary for their studies.

- *Using the library*

  Being familiar with the workings of the library expedites the writing of research reports and other academic assignments. Primrose (1993) points out the difficulties overseas students experience when working in a large academic library. Rural students are likely to have similar if not greater problems. Many rural South African schools do not have libraries, or if they have, they are poorly equipped. Learners need to be made aware of subject librarians who can help them navigate the range of sources in the library (Primrose 1993; Williams 1992).

- *References and plagiariasm*

  There are various academic conventions that govern the different ways of referencing and making citations. Included in a course should be information about plagiarism and different styles of referencing, the use of specific reporting verbs, footnotes, endnotes, and indirect and direct quotations (Jordan 1990, 2004).

- ***Examination skills***

  At examination time pressures build up in learners, not the least that the examination results may mean that they either move on to the next year or repeat a course. Pressures learners succumb to are: requirements of knowledge, memory, time, writing skills, understanding the question and

working against the clock (Jordan 2004: 219).

- *Question analysis*

  Learners should practise analysing questions. Instructional verbs they will encounter are: discuss describe, explain, compare/ contrast, list (Friedrichs & Pearson 1981; Swales 1982). Learners should know what is expected from each instruction.

- *Writing practice*

  The ideal would be for learners from the same discipline to bring old exam papers. They should first ascertain what type of question paper it is, objective (multiple choice questions) or subjective (essay questions). Then the questions can be analysed, after which they can attempt to write the paper. Preparation by practising writing a similar examination to what they may have to write lessens the anxiety for the learners.

- *Revision*

  Learners need to do planned revision long before an examination. The 'Ebbinghaus forgetting curve' shows that most items are forgotten 1-2 days after reading or listening (Wallace 1980). There are revision techniques which learners can practise (Howe 1983).

Most of the above skills are mainly what is taught by means of the coursebook activities in the ENGL131/ Engl132 modules.[13] Besides those skills listed, students requiring EAP need to think critically about language – about its specific form and function in academic writing. This is brought about by techniques such as consciousness-raising which is also discussed in this thesis under Grammar (cf. Chapter 4, Section 4.4). Closely involved in this is 'reflection'. Hyland (2006: 90) states that learners often find consciousness-raising a novel approach "as it seeks to assist them to create, comprehend, and reflect on the ways texts work as discourse

[13] What Jordan (2004: 228-279) lists for ESAP is what the English Studies Department at UniLim hopes to introduce from the second year of undergraduate studies. It also is similar to what Hyland (2006) proposes should be in an EAP course. The concepts emphasised by Hyland (2006: 90) above (*consciousness-raising*, *scaffolding*, *collaboration*, *socioliteracy*, and *concordancing)* can be introduced and perhaps elaborated on in the second and later years of study.

rather than on their value as bearers of content information. It guides learners to explore key lexical, grammatical and rhetorical features and use this knowledge to construct their own examples of the genre". Another dimension of consciousness-raising is raised by Johns (1997: 154), which she terms a "socioliterate approach" where learners acquire academic literacies via "exposure to discourse from a variety of social contexts" and by inquiring into their own literate lives and the literacy practices of others. She recommends introducing learners to the concepts of genre and context through familiar "homely" genres such as wedding invitations, and then moving on to pedagogic genres like textbooks, etc., following the pedagogic principle of working from the 'known' to the 'unknown'.

3.4 COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING (CLT)

The Communicative approach to language learning and teaching is the approach implemented in South African schools within the OBE system. It is an approach and not a rigidly defined method (Kilfoil & Van der Walt 1997: 12) and aims to teach learners to communicate in the target language, which in this case is English as an additive language. The materials used in the school or tertiary classroom must therefore support this approach.

3.4.1 A BRIEF BACKGROUND TO CLT

The origins of CLT go back to the late 1960s when there were changes in the British language teaching tradition. The changes were amongst others in response to the American linguist, Noam Chomsky's criticism of structural linguistic theory and the work of Christopher Candlin and Henry Widdowson, who in turn drew on the work of British functional linguists such as John Firth and M.A.K. Halliday, American work in sociolinguistics (e.g. Dell Hymes, John Gumperz, and William Labov), and philosophers such as John Austin and John Searle. The need, in language teaching, was seen to be that the focus should be "on communicative proficiency rather than on mere mastery of structures" (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 64).

The Communicative Approach was preceded by various other approaches and methodologies in the search for ways to teach languages efficiently. Howatt (1994: 129-130) declares that language teaching has gone through "major strands". The first phase entailed "a gradual integration of foreign language teaching into a modernised

secondary school curriculum". The second phase saw the increased demand for English because of intercultural contact; while the third phase saw the rise of "new ideas on how language could be taught more efficiently and easily...." (cf. Widdowson 2003: ix, cited above on page 13).

The Communicative Approach replaced, for example, the grammar-translation method as a 'non-communicative' method. The grammar-translation method, a traditional and formal method is now unpopular (Howatt 1994, cited by Nel 2006: 107). It is described by Howatt (1994:131) as follows:

> The grammar-translation method was devised and developed for use in secondary schools[14].... The 'grammar-translation' label is misleading in some respects.... The origins of the method do not lie in an attempt to teach languages by grammar and translation, these were taken for granted anyway.... The traditional scholastic approach among individual learners in the eighteenth century had been to acquire a reading knowledge of foreign languages by studying a grammar and applying this knowledge to the interpretation of texts with the use of a dictionary.... The central feature was the replacement of the traditional texts by exemplificatory sentences.

This method long used to teach foreign languages has been severely criticised. Howatt (1994: 136), however, takes a less severe view of it. He says:

> Intrinsically...the method is so ordinary that it is sometimes difficult to see what the fuss is about . Each new lesson had one or two new grammar rules, a short vocabulary list, and some practice examples to translate. Boring, maybe but hardly the horror story we are sometimes asked to believe. However, it also contained seeds, which eventually grew into a jungle of obscure rules, endless lists of gender classes and gender class exceptions, self conscious 'literary' archaisms, snippets of philology, and a total loss of genuine feeling for living language.

Nel (2006: 108) points out that the focus on texts and predetermined grammar suggests an 'objective' definition of literacy and language learning. This 'objective' standpoint removes the social dimension of language learning and does not

[14] The researcher, in secondary school, spent much of her time being taught German in this way (as a foreign language in a school which had English as medium of instruction, but where most of the learners were German mother tongue speakers). Hence, although advocating CLT, she cannot see this method as a complete 'horror story' and in fact she believes it can be used on occasion to scrutinize and compare the structures of the target language and the learners' mother tongue - especially to improve written communication. Viewing the structure of languages as a 'jigsaw puzzle' has always made learning a language enjoyable to the researcher who in addition to English and German learnt Afrikaans and Zulu. Current 'weak' CLT teaching practices (Holliday's definition of the weak version) should avoid throwing out the baby with the bath water – in many schools fluency in oral communication has been advanced at the cost of accuracy, particularly in written communication, in fact, where poor grammatical expression hinders communication. Cf. Fang Fang. 2006. My experience of learning languages and teaching English in China – a narrative enquiry. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, Vol. 5 (2): 117- 129.

acknowledge that the learner has a role in the production of meaning. This is one of the reasons that the Communicative approach to language teaching has been endorsed – because of the inclusion of the learner's input and thus the learner-centredness of the approach (cf. also discussion by Breen & Candlin (2001:12) below).

3.4.2 DEFINING CLT

Definitions of CLT have been modified over the years. However, the most important aim of CLT remains - to achieve *communicative competence.* Widdowson (1990: 144-145) defines the concept as "an ability to interpret discourse whether the emphasis is on productive or receptive behaviour". He adds that if the definition is accepted, then any approach desiring to achieve this " should avoid treating the different skills (i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing) and abilities that constitute competence in isolation from each other". This means that language learning and teaching materials should also avoid this 'isolation' of skills too.

Nel (2006: 105) asserts "CLT accentuate[s] the social dimension in which communication is embedded. It ...rejects the anti-communicative and anti-critical approaches to language teaching that precede it"[15]. He proffers the definition of CLT given by Savignon (2003:1):

> Communicative language teaching (CLT) refers to both processes and goals in classroom learning. The central theoretical concept in communicative language teaching is "communicative competence", a term introduced into discussions of language use and second or foreign language learning in the early 1970s.

A language learner is viewed as having communicative competence if she has "the ability not only to apply the grammatical rules of a language in order to form grammatically correct sentences, but also know when and where to use these sentences and to whom" (Richards *et al.* 1992: 65). This goes beyond the formal structures taught in the classroom by including sociolinguistic rules.

Four areas of competence are often distinguished as part of communicative competence (Canale & Swain 1980; Brown 1994; Kilfoil & Van der Walt 1997):

[15] Hilgard and Bower (1966) refer to advocates of CLT having an "antistructural" view and CLT as "learning by doing" or "the experience approach".

grammatical competence (correct application of grammar rules but not necessarily explicit knowledge of the rules), sociolinguistic competence (appropriate use of language and register), strategic competence (the ability to use different ways to make meaning clear; able to 'repair and 'sustain' communication by using the previous competencies), and discourse competence (the ability to recognise and produce the links in discourse that show progression and unity; or how sentences are strung together). This implies that using the Communicative Approach to teach English in the classroom means more than teaching formal language. It includes sociolinguistic rules[16] (as also noted by Nel 2006: 105) which are 'embedded' in communication. These rules would be part of Brown and Yules' (1983) definition of communication as involving two general purposes: the interactional function, where language is used to establish and maintain contact, and the transactional function, where language is used referentially to exchange information. This means that CLT is aimed at enabling learners to function interactionally and transactionally.

3.4.3 PRINCIPLES CENTRAL TO CLT

The focus of this approach is communication (by interaction and transaction). This impacts on the methodology and content of language teaching and learning modules and courses. Instead of focussing, as past methodologies did, on *how* learners say something the attention is now on *what* they say – that is, the focus of the communicative syllabus is on the communicative functions which the forms of the [target] language serve (*Syllabuses for Hong Kong Primary Schools* 1981: 5). Earlier language teaching methods, for example the audio-lingual method, also claimed to develop the ability to use language communicatively; but were based on a view of language as a set of linguistic systems (phonological, lexical, and grammatical) (Ellis 2003: 27). CLT, on the other hand, drew on Halliday's functional model of language and Hymes' theory of communicative competence.

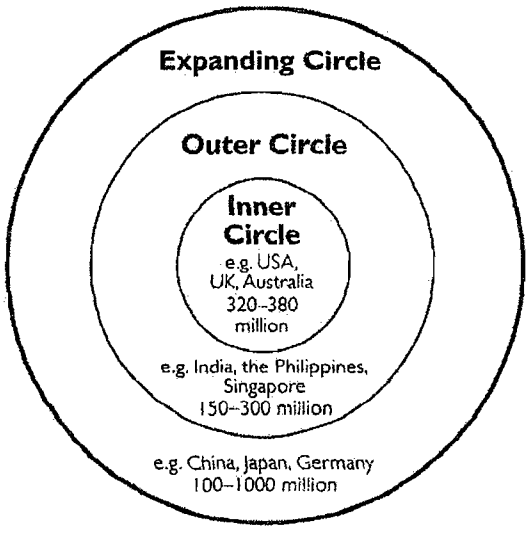
The differences between communicative approaches and earlier traditions in language teaching have been pointed out by various researchers and educationists. There is wide acceptance of the communicative approach and that it is interpreted and applied various ways. This can be attributed to the fact that practitioners from diverse

[16] According to Howatt (1994: 192), learning a language is "not a rational process which can be organised in a step-by-step manner following graded syllabuses of new points to learn, exercises and explanations. It is an intuitive process for which human beings have a natural capacity that can be awakened provided only that the proper conditions exist".

educational traditions can identify with the approach, yet still interpret it in different ways (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 68; Brown 1994). The literature also distinguishes between a 'weak' and a 'strong' version of CLT (Howatt 1994; White 1988; Holliday 1994; McKay 2002). The weak version of CLT is said to not involve a radical departure from earlier methods – the components of communicative competence can be identified and systematically taught. The weaker version is interventionist and analytic (White 1988). By contrast, Holliday (1994) presents alternative definitions of the weak and strong versions of CLT. He contends that the 'weak version' was developed mainly in private institutes in Inner Circle[17] countries, or those in countries sponsored by Inner Circle countries, which use BANA methods (BANA countries – Britain, Australia, and North America – as termed by Holliday (cited by McKay 2002: 109). This version emphasizes oral work and maximum student participation in group and pair work. The 'strong version', according to Holliday (1994, cited by McKay 2002: 109), was developed in the public education systems, whether in schools or universities in the Inner Circle countries. The focus of this version of CLT is about *how* language works in discourse. Students are given tasks to do, which model language problems. These tasks help them understand how a text is constructed. This 'strong' version "is considered to be communicative in the sense that students communicate with a text" (McKay 2002: 109). Holliday (1994) submits that in the strong version students may work on a language problem together and use their mother tongue in talking about the problem but must report back in English. (This occurs in the ENGL131/132 classes. It is difficult to completely prevent the use of the mother

[17] This reference to Inner and Outer Circle countries alludes to Kachru's categorisation of countries in which English is used (adapted from Crystal 1997: 54). See figure 3.1 below.

Fig. 3.1: Inner and Outer Circle countries



tongue in the large groups. Holliday's observation shows that this may be a common occurrence in ELT in the Outer and Expanding Circle countries.) He contends that his strong version of CLT may be more applicable to a wider range of teaching contexts, particularly in Outer and Expanding Circle countries, where there are fewer resources and where, he adds, students may not have the same instrumental purposes for learning English as students enrolled in private institutes. It is particularly in the area of pedagogy where such distinctions will have an influence (McKay 2002: 108) and result in controversy. (The application of the CLT principles in the coursebooks also causes controversy amongst staff members.)

Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983: 91-93) contrast the foremost distinguishing features of the Audiolingual Method and the Communicative Approach as they interpret them. Since this specific study is primarily concerned with reflecting the communicative features in the language learning and teaching materials, only the relevant features of the Communicative Approach from their list are given here:

- Meaning is paramount (Focus is more on meaning than on form)
- Dialogues, if used, centre around communicative functions and are not normally memorised
- Contexualisation is a basic premise
- Language learning is learning to communicate (When communicating in writing accuracy is just as important as fluency – if not more so)
- Comprehensible pronunciation is sought
- Any teaching device (such as grammatical explanation) which helps the learners is accepted – varying according to age, interest etc.
- Attempts to communicate may be encouraged from the very beginning
- Judicious use of native language is accepted where feasible
- Translation may be used where students need or benefit from it
- The target linguistic system will be learned best through the process of struggling to communicate (that is to internalise the rules of the language – there is a problem however, when learners enrol for tertiary institutions they have or should have been exposed to the language -in this case, English – for nine to ten years. At the tertiary level most of the internalisation of the grammar rules should have already taken place)
- Communicative competence is the desired goal (that is, the ability to use the

linguistic system effectively and appropriately)

- Linguistic variation is a central concept in materials and methodology
- Sequencing is determined by any consideration of content, function, or meaning which maintains interest
- Teachers help learners in any way that motivates them to work with the language
- Language is created by the individual often through trial and error (this implies unrehearsed activities)
- Fluency and acceptable language is the primary goal; accuracy is judged not in the abstract *but in the context* (in the employment context of dealing with corporate correspondence, accuracy is essential)
- Students are expected to interact with other people, either in the flesh, through pair and group work, or in their writings
- Intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in what is being communicated by the language

Learner-centredness and a critical approach to language are features that can be added to this list. These two features specifically also link up with OBE as a system of education and autonomy (see discussion of autonomy in 4.7 below) as a learner characteristic to encourage.

Breen and Candlin (2001: 9) provide a theoretical explanation for CLT, particularly the learner-centredness and a critical approach to the target language They present a set of principles on which communicative curriculum design[18] can be based for implementation in particular situations and circumstances. They contend that any teaching curriculum is designed in answer to three questions, namely: "What is to be learned? How is the learning to be undertaken and achieved? To what extent is the former appropriate and the latter effective?" A communicative curriculum places language teaching within the framework of this relationship between the "what" and the "how".

In brief, Breen and Candlin (2001: 10) state that a communicative curriculum "defines language learning as learning how to communicate as a member of a particular socio-cultural group". In communication, speakers and hearers (or readers and writers) are

[18] Which should also be considered when designing the coursebooks used in the current study.

engaged in the work of *sharing meanings*, as well as *negotiating meaning*. To be noted is that ideas and concepts about which the people are communicating have potentially different meanings. These potential meanings are "expressed through and derived from the formal system of text during the process of communication" (Breen & Candlin 2001: 10). The conventions, and hence the unity of ideational, interpersonal and textual knowledge[19] which underlies communication must be understood and mastered and so allow us to take part in a "creative meaning-making process and to express or interpret the potential meanings within spoken or written text "(Halliday 1973, cited by Breen & Candlin 2001:10). Sharing and negotiating meaning implies possessing particular *communicative abilities* which are an essential element of competence. In other words, in order to share meaning (have competence), an individual participant "needs to be able to interpret the meanings of others and to express his own meanings" (Breen & Candlin 2001: 11). Breen and Candlin (2001: 12) suggest that the communicative abilities of interpretation, expression, and negotiation are the primary abilities within any target competence and underlie the communicative performance skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing.

When considering the learner's contribution to the process, Breen and Candlin (2001:12), stress that what first needs to be recognised is what the learner knows and can do in communicative performance with the first language (L1). They warn against assuming that the learner's ignorance of the target "repertoire" makes him/ her an inexperienced communicator. They submit as a principle of CLT that educators should credit the learner with a "highly relevant initial competence of communicative knowledge and abilities". They state that in the past the learner was separated from the knowledge to be learned – thereby "objectifying" the target language as something wholly unfamiliar to the learner. This is perhaps because the learner had not been seen as being able to contribute much to the learning situation; and learning the target language had only been viewed as achieving linguistic competence or textual knowledge – and at that, limiting this knowledge to a level of syntax which does not refer to structures above the sentence. Ideational and interpersonal knowledge, which interact with textual knowledge and from which textual knowledge evolves have been

[19] According to Halliday (1973) , the principal functions of language are ideational (i.e., referential language use to express content), while the interpersonal function (i.e., use of language to maintain social relations) and the textual function (i.e., to create situationally relevant discourse) had largely been neglected.

generally overlooked. They argue that the learner has only been viewed in terms of the first language and the first language's input being only that of 'interference'. Instead educators should activate that which "underlies the initial repertoire of the learner" and engage their process competence[20]. Breen and Candlin (2001: 13) therefore declare communication as the object of learning and contend that by doing so educators will perceive the learner in a new light. To sum up, they submit that:

- The communicative curriculum seeks to facilitate the involvement of the learner's communicative knowledge and abilities from the beginning.
- Not only do learners contribute "prior knowledge and abilities" but they also have certain expectations about language learning. There needs to be a balance between what the curriculum seeks to achieve and the learner expects of the curriculum. (See responses to Questionnaire A in Chapter 7.)

They identify several kinds of learner expectations: i) how does the learner define his own language learning needs? ii) what is likely to interest the learner within the target repertoire and the learning process? iii) what are the learners' motivations for learning the target language? They maintain that there are two problems regarding learner expectations which should be kept in mind, namely, the expectations vary and they can change during the teaching process. Expectations can also be educated; but for this to happen learners need to be able to express their own expectations, explore them *and* the sources of the expectations. Learners need to know what they seek to achieve and how they are going to achieve it (that is, "what the target repertoire and the underlying competence demands of them"). The communicative approach allows for differentiation of learners' contributions, of individual or group routes to accomplish objectives, of choice and using of media, and of abilities (with the implication that individual learners will make use of different learning strategies). Not only does differentiation give individuals the opportunity for differential communication and learning (variety), but it also demands and authenticates communication in the classroom (Breen & Candlin 2001: 16).

Interestingly, Breen and Candlin (2001: 16-17) do not view the classroom as an artificial language learning context (cf. Nunn 2001), but describe it as "a unique social environment with its own human activities and its own conventions governing these

[20] Process competence is defined as the learner's changing and developing communicative knowledge and abilities as the learner moves from initial competence to target competence. It is partly revealed through a series of 'interlanguages' (Selinker 1972; Tarone 1977; Corder 1978)

activities" – an environment in which its own psychological and cultural reality has been constructed. They assert that this uniqueness and this reality has a potential which can be made use of, rather than constraints which need to be "overcome or compensated for".

The educator or teacher has two roles: that of facilitator of the communicative process and as an independent participant (who actively shares the responsibility for learning and teaching with the learners) within the learning-teaching groups. These roles imply that the educator is an organiser of resources and is a resource himself. He also acts as a guide within the classroom procedure and the activities. He shares this guidance role with other learners. He also has a monitor role which he shares with other learners [21]and offers feedback when necessary to the activities. The educator needs to be " a seer of potential with the aim if facilitating and shaping individual and group knowledge and exploitation of abilities during learning" (Breen & Candlin 2001: 17). Thus, the educator will focus on the process competences of the learners.

Breen and Candlin (2001: 18) emphasise the diversity of the learners and that the educator has to accept

> that different learners learn different things in different ways at different times, and he needs to be patiently aware that some learners, for example, will enter periods when it seems that little or no progress is being made and that, sometimes, learning is typified by silent reflection.

Diversity of abilities, interests and learning styles are things many perceptive teachers will be aware of. It is the accommodation of the diversity within the daily language teaching and learning that is a problem. The best way to address this is probably by making the learners aware that there is no one 'recipe' that will promote an individual learner's language learning; that learners should individually and subjectively (and independently) monitor their own learning (cf. section on autonomy below); and, that they also have a negotiator role in which they negotiate meaning between "the self, the learning process, and the object of learning" (Breen & Candlin 2001: 19). Learners also negotiate within the group and so learn to communicate.

[21] This "sharing" the guidance and monitoring role with other learners, implies and thus advocates group work and peer assessment.

3.4.4 LIMITATIONS OF CLT

The communicative approach is an appropriate approach to language teaching because it stresses the responsibility of the learner for his own acquisition of the second or foreign language. This is a valid argument and a key goal – one that the modules in this study seek to achieve. However, CLT can also be viewed differently. O' Neill (2000: 1) describes it as having enormous "intuitive appeal" and that "the 'narrow' or fundamentalist version of CLT can easily become a stifling orthodoxy in which things like rote-learning, memorisation, 'display questions', 'teacher-talk' automatically mean BAD. None of these things alone is bad. What matters is how, when and why they are done". This also applies to the selection of language activities for textbooks and coursebooks - an activity which cannot be described as purely communicative is not necessarily ineffective.

O'Neill (2000: 15) continues by stating that no single method or approach can work for all teachers or for all students and that "there is no scientific evidence of any kind that proves or even suggests that typical CLT techniques work well or work at all under all conditions and with all learners".

CLT is interpreted and applied in different ways depending on the context (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 68). Hence, there may also be limitations in applying it. As a language teaching method it may not always suit the culture of the learners (Pennycook 1989; Richards 1990; Holliday 1994; Sullivan 1996; Alptekin 2002). In some cultures speaking or contradicting the person in authority such as the teacher, is viewed as disrespectful. In other cultures a woman must not be seen to be too forward in giving her opinion.

The students in the current study display similar problems[22] to those of tertiary students described by Bosman and Van der Merwe (2000: 221-228), namely in terms of a culture of non-learning[23] caused by socio-economic and environmental factors[24] which lead to a deficiency in metacognitive skills (by which one acquires and validates

[22] Similar problems with the basic four communication skills (listening, reading, speaking, writing) at other universities in South Africa and other African countries have been observed by Prah (1999).
[23] Non-learning in the context of this study is defined as not participating in class, little self-initiative and holding the teacher entirely responsible for what the learner/ student 'learns' or not. The learner does not necessarily 'not want to learn' but does not know how to learn.
[24] Cf. chapter 2 of this thesis.

knowledge – a deficiency in this skill does not suggest a deficiency in intelligence), and poor performance – and these factors may all impact on the successful implementation of a communicative approach in the language teaching-learning classroom. The communicative approach is, for example, not easy to apply in large classes of previously disadvantaged students because there are often problems with participation, students using their mother tongue languages in group work[25] (hence getting little practice in English), feedback (regularly – every week or two - marking essays or other written assignments for 90 to 150 students to provide regular and meaningful feedback is a difficult task for lecturers), poor written communication as a result of poor English grammar and writing skills, an over-reliance on the educator or tutor to provide the knowledge, and students' beliefs about their role as language learners (often passive) and the role of the educator to be in the classroom. (Cf. also Hoa Hiep 2007: 193-201).

Educators in the UniLim context are not alone in finding it difficult to apply all CLT principles to their language classroom at all times. Li (2000: 149) submits that a number of reports in the literature deal with CLT innovations in English as a Foreign Language (EFL)[26] contexts and of which some are for traditional teaching methods and others advocate CLT in EFL countries. A great number of the reports recognise the difficulties EFL countries experience in adopting CLT. Although in South Africa, English is the language of Learning and Teaching (LOLT) and an official language, there is anecdotal evidence that there are educators who believe that in the rural areas it should be treated as a foreign language because some rural learners learn it as a second, third or even fourth additive language, and they seldom if ever use it outside the school .

Li (2000: 149) cites studies done in China. For example, it is reported that teachers in China found it difficult to use CLT (Barnaby & Sun 1989). Some of the constraints given by Barnaby and Sun (1989) are: the context of the wider curriculum, traditional teaching methods, class sizes and schedules, resources and equipment, the low status of teachers who teach communicative rather than analytical skills, and English

[25] This was difficult to control, even in a relatively small group of 30 Arab EFL students where the researcher taught at the Sultan Qaboos University in Oman from 2000 to 2002.
[26] Richards, Platt, and Weber (1987) define the English as a Foreign language context as a context where English is taught as a subject in schools but not used as language of instruction in education nor as a language of communication (e.g. in government, business or industry) within a country.

teachers' deficiencies in oral English and sociolinguistic and strategic competence. Studies were done to ascertain the reasons for these difficulties. Anderson (1993) reports that obstacles to proper CLT were found to be a lack of properly trained teachers, a lack of appropriate texts and materials, students not being accustomed to CLT, and difficulties in evaluating students taught by means of CLT. Another study examined the attitudes of Hong Kong educators towards using CLT in the local context. Chau and Chung (1987) state that educators did not use CLT regularly because it required too much preparation time. Li (2000: 153-162) gives a survey of South Korean educators' views of their own and their students' difficulties with CLT and the constraints experienced at their institution, resulting from the educational system and the communicative approach itself. The constraints relating to themselves as educators were described as: deficiency in spoken English; deficiency in strategic and sociolinguistic competence; lack of training in CLT; few opportunities for retraining in CLT; misconceptions about CLT; little time for developing materials for communicative classes. The educators interviewed deemed that difficulties their students had with CLT were because of students having a low English proficiency, little motivation for communicative competence, and resistance to class participation (they had grown used to the educators' traditional 'talk-and-chalk method'). Other constraints mentioned, related to the educational system, were: large classes, grammar-based examinations, insufficient funding, and lack of support. Further constraints, applicable to CLT itself as a language teaching approach, were: inadequate explanation of EFL teaching and lack of effective and efficient assessment structures. All the above listed constraints are similar to those experienced by the lecturers concerned with teaching of English in the context of this study. CLT is an ideal teaching approach but is difficult to implement in its pure form. In certain contexts the educator cannot relinquish complete control. Students still need to be persuaded to participate in the lessons and this requires trust in their educator as well as their fellow students. The students at UniLim sometimes frown upon a peer who answers too frequently or they laugh loudly at someone who has given a wrong answer.

Studies outside Asia report similar difficulties with CLT as in Asian countries, namely: teachers' lack of proficiency in English, their traditional attitudes towards language teaching, the lack of authentic materials in a non-English speaking environment, the

need to redesign the evaluation system, and the need to adapt textbooks to meet the need of communicative classes (Valdes & Jhones 1991). In Kwazulu-Natal, South Africa, Chick (1996) reports that efforts to cultivate a communicative approach to the teaching of English as an additive language, was met by both educators and students with a pervasive reluctance. They were reluctant to accept the more egalitarian, decentralised ways of interacting associated with CLT.

In a study by Ryan (2001: 1-3; cf. also Nunn 2001), there is mention of problematic areas in terms of the communicative approach in a Japanese university which are similar to some experienced in the context of this study and need to be considered when teaching English as an additive language. Ryan lists the following areas of concern:

- *Adequate feedback*: Ryan agrees that fluency is necessary but believes if students do not firstly, receive adequate feedback to correct their mistakes, and secondly, to keep them focussed on the immediate classroom tasks, they tend to lose motivation and interest. Students prefer and expect[27] to receive some kind of concrete feedback. Students need a constant stream of feedback – big or small - to keep them motivated. (This justifies the assessment principles of OBE.)
- *Clarification of goals*: A weakness of a "solely communicative approach" (Ryan 2001:1; Van Lier 1988:72) is that it is a collection of principles that are "loosely bundled together" offering the learner little or no direction. Ryan believes that students can benefit more if they have structure, that is, know on a class-by-class basis what specific language they are practising – for example, practising the past perfect or language used in a hotel. Ryan terms this "localised goal setting". He contends it is more useful for students to have small achievable goals on a daily basis and to be made aware how they can achieve these goals. (This also links up with the principles of OBE.) These should also be clear in the materials used.
- *Consistency in teaching style*: Ryan (2001: 2) contends that the communicative style is good for encouraging students to produce language, but that it creates a

[27] See chapter 7 – data analysis of student comments

"division in teaching style"[28]. At certain times in the lesson an educator needs to be strict about punctuality and attendance and at others to "assume the role of friend-coach" to compel students to speak and not be afraid to make mistakes. Ryan declares it crucial for educators to retain an awareness of their teaching styles, as well as an awareness of the goals of the course.

- *Lesson framework*: Ryan asserts that in the communicative approach "there is a fine line between giving students too much responsibility to speak freely in class and not enough". (This is especially true in the large classes in the context of this study.) The communicative approach, according to Ryan (2001: 2), in its pure form "advocates making students speak as much as possible". Language is, however, also "a routine and learners need a framework in which they can feel comfortable in taking that risk to speak out in front of others. In the UniLim Engl131 and 132 context, the coursebooks attempt to give this "framework".
- *Cultural awareness*: Culture plays an important role in the classroom, in particular in the classroom activities. Teachers should realise potentially negative culturally based perceptions of their learners and vice versa. Ryan gives the example of silent, expressionless students in Japan, where their demeanour may be negatively interpreted as an indication of lack of interest. This could be a cultural interpretation and may have a detrimental effect on the classroom dynamics or on the methodology in the classroom. Humour, teasing and silence mean different things in different cultures; so when using them to persuade students to act or react, the educator should be aware of different interpretations of humour or silence. The educator does not necessarily have to be interculturally competent to be an effective teacher, but the teaching is likely be more effective the educator adopts a style consistent with the students' own cultural values. (See also Chapter 4, section 4.7.)
- *Student-teacher relationship*: Related to the third point given above about teaching styles, is that of the student-educator relationship. ESL educators have to decide what kind of relationship they wish to have with their students. The communicative approach encourages a friend-coach approach rather than the traditional teacher-student approach with a strict division. However, and this

[28] Perhaps the term 'divergence' or 'contradiction' may be more illuminating, or 'dilemma', depending on how the situation is interpreted by a specific educator.

is the case at UniLim too, some students assume that the more relaxed friend-coach relationship means tacit approval for non-attendance or for the late handing in of assignments. (In the UniLim context it may be a combination of lack of discipline carried over from school and a generally relaxed attitude about time and punctuality colloquially referred to as 'African time'.) If the friend-coach relationship is too relaxed, discipline problems may arise. Too much time is wasted addressing late submission of work, non-attendance or lateness. Adopting a strict division between student and teacher when it comes to class and lesson management, creates a more productive atmosphere.

Another problem which could be added to those expressed by Ryan above is one concerning comprehensible input and interactionist approaches, mentioned by Tonkyn (1996:2). He views it unlikely that learners will acquire many new forms during meaning-focused exchanges: psychological experiments (cf. Sachs 1967) suggest that hearers will process input for meaning and quickly forget the form in which it was expressed. He adds that this particular doubt is given added force by the lack of evidence of acquisition from comprehensible input in interactions. He also argues that in relation to output, it seems unlikely that learners will develop their interlanguage when concentrating on getting their meaning across, especially in cognitively demanding tasks. He contends that that there is the danger that under pressure of communication, learners will fall back on a limited form of interlanguage which may become fossilised[29].

Breen and Candlin (2001: 23) admit that they can only deduce and propose principles on which communicative curricula may be based. They assert that "any curriculum is a personal and social arena". In fact, a communicative curriculum emphasises a communicative process by which "the interrelating curriculum components are themselves open to negotiation and change". They allow that there may be situations in which their proposed principles may not be implementable and so a true communicative curriculum may not be feasible. It is therefore a given that variability is inherent in human communication and in the way it is diversely achieved by different learners and educators. And so, despite the general acceptance of CLT as the way language should be taught it is clear that not all language teachers completely accept

[29] Cf Johnson, H. 1992. Defossilising. *ELT Journal*, 46 (2): 180-189.

or implement it. It is an improvement over preceding innovations, but it cannot solve all the problems that are faced by language teachers in a variety of contexts. Stern (1992: 14), more than a decade ago, explains:

> As for the communicative approach, the reliance on a single overriding concept, 'communication', is a disadvantage which prevents communicative language teaching from being entirely satisfactory as a theoretical framework. In order to account for all varieties and aspects of language teaching we either stretch the concept of communication so much that it loses any distinctive meaning, or we accept its limitations and then find ourselves in the predicament of the 'method' solution: an excessive emphasis on a single concept.

The above examples are a sign that the dissatisfaction with CLT has been growing. These rumblings of dissent confirm this researcher's feeling (see footnote 36 in this chapter) that despite using traditional and outdated methods students learn to speak and write good English (cf. Bax 2003: 279 – examples 1 and 3 pertaining to views from the Czech Republic and Holland respectively). In the researcher's view, the context will determine whether a coursebook should sometimes include both traditional activities as well as communicative ones to reinforce 'consciousness-raising' or 'noticing' of a specific grammar item or writing technique.

Bax (2003: 278), for instance, has argued that the time has come to replace CLT as the central paradigm in language teaching with a Context Approach which places context at the centre of the profession (cf. also Jarvis & Atsilarat 2004; Kumaravadivelu 2006).

Bax (2003: 280) states:

> We may choose to call CLT an approach rather a method, but this cannot disguise the fact that in one way or another its priorities relate ultimately to methodology. This is apparent both in its discourse and in the way in which teachers around the world conceptualise it – CLT is seen to be about 'the way we should teach'. After all it is Communicative Language *Teaching* not Communicative Language *Learning*.
>
> This implicit focus on methodology leads us to ignore one key aspect of language teaching – namely the particular *context* in which it takes place. When we emphasise what the teacher must *do*, and start our list of solutions with methodological issues, we thereby give off the message that the solution to the problem is a methodological one – and that therefore, by extension, the solution is not to do with the context in which we happen to be working. In other words, the message which CLT gives to teachers is this:
>
> The Communicative Approach is the way to do it, no matter where you are, no matter what the context.

The Context Approach advanced by Bax (2003: 278-287) allows that a methodology such as CLT is but one factor in learning a language. It is thus makes sense to expose language learners to a variety of activities using different methodologies and not just the one. The Context Approach takes into account the classroom culture, the local culture and the national culture (Holliday 1994, 2001). (See Chapter 4, section 4.7 on Interculturality.)

CLT may not be the perfect theoretical framework in all contexts and so the solution may lie instead in the modification of the CLT principles – and this may vary from context to context . That CLT is no longer regarded as the only way to teach ESL is evidenced by the growing literature arguing the limitations of CLT[30].

3.5 TASK-BASED TEACHING AND LEARNING (TBLT)

Prabhu (1987) is credited with coining this concept, namely, that effective learning takes place when learners are engaged in a language task rather than just learning a language (Oxford 2006). According to Ellis (2003:1), tasks hold a central place in current second language acquisition (SLA) research and in language pedagogy. They entail samples of language use, elicited by means of some kind of communicative activity from learners, which reflect how they use their second language to convey a message (that is, focussing on meaning). Educators recognise that unless learners are given the opportunity to experience such samples (tasks), they may not develop the kind of proficiency needed to communicate fluently and effectively (Ellis 2003: 1). Nunan (2004:113) states that a task is "more than a methodological device for classroom action, ...it is a central curriculum planning tool".

There are various definitions of a task besides the original one of "a duty, tax, or a piece of work imposed as a duty" cited by Oxford (2006: 2) which suggests an onerous task externally imposed. Both Ellis (2003: 4-5) and Oxford (2006: 2-3) list a number of definitions of the concept 'task' by various researchers in the field of task-based learning and teaching (Breen 1987, 1989; Bygate, Skehan & Swain 2001; Crookes 1986; Coughlin & Duff 1994; Lee 2000; Long 1989; Nunan 1989; Prabhu 1987; Richards & Rodgers 2001; Richards, Platt & Weber 1987; Skehan 1996.) Some educators and researchers, however, believe that TBLT is just CLT by another name

[30] For readers interested in arguments challenging the spread of CLT as a ELT method, the researcher recommends McKay 2002: 107: 116.

(Kumaravadivelu 2006: 62). In fact, Kamaravadivelu (2006: 62) comments that one of the reviewers for the *TESOL Quarterly* in which Kameravadivelu's 2006 article was published, asks: "Is TBLT simply an updated emphasis on CLT designed to generate sales of teaching materials?"

Be that as it may, tasks are an essential part of language materials. The definition held to be most relevant to the materials used in this study is that of Skehan (1996: 39), namely, a task is "an activity in which meaning is primary; there is some relationship to the real world; task completion has some priority; and the assessment of task performance is in terms of task outcome". It is appropriate both in an outcomes-based education system and a communicative approach because it subsumes the elements of *meaning*, *authenticity*, and *outcome*. These elements can be emphasised in the language materials.

Ellis (2003: 9) identifies the following criterial features of a task. These include the above-mentioned elements in Skehan's definition:

1. *A task is a workplan.* Learner activities are in the form of teaching materials. To be noted is that the actual activity may not match its intended goal and therefore may not be communicative.

2. *A task involves a primary focus on meaning.* According to Ellis (2003), a task seeks to engage learners in *using* language practically, rather than just 'displaying' language. To focus on meaning (and thus negotiation of meaning), the task involves a 'gap' in information, opinion or reasoning. Learners are motivated to use language to close this gap and so achieve the task outcome. The language used is selected by the learner not the educator (thus highlighting learner-centredness, a principle of CLT). Besides language, the task is most likely to require cognitive skills, for example, reasoning.

3. *A task involves real-world processes of language use.* This links up with authentic materials (see 3.4 above) and CLT such as forms to fill in, noting differences between pictures, conducting an interview, or discussing a magazine advertisement. The emphasis is on using language as it is used outside the classroom.

4. *A task can involve any of the four language skills.* This may involve listening or reading a text to show their comprehension, producing an oral or written text or a task which involves both receptive and productive skills. The language used can be monologic or dialogic[31]. Ellis (2003: 10) comments that in this regard tasks are no different than exercises.

5. *A task involves cognitive processes.* Except for drilling and imitating, most tasks will involve cognitive processes such as, selecting, classifying, ordering, reasoning, and evaluating. These skills are also of particular importance in EAP (see 3.3 above).

6. *A task has a clearly defined communicative outcome.* The workplan requires a non-linguistic[32] outcome of a task. The outcome is at the same time the goal of the task for the learners. The outcome also determines when the task is completed.

A seventh goal could be included. Oxford (2006: 4: 5) and Long (1997: 2-11) mention a linguistic goal where the task focuses on form within a communicative, meaningful context where learners have to solve the problems of communication 'break downs', as opposed to on 'forms' in which specific preplanned forms are presented one at a time in the hope that learners will master them before they use them to negotiate meaning.

In the context of this study the objective is primarily academic writing. Written language does not exclude, but inevitably involves, the other three skills: listening, speaking and reading; but the ENGL131/ 132 modules place the emphasis on written communication and thus outcomes pertaining to academic writing. Furthermore, a task (and even more so, an academic task) does not involve only linguistic elements but also a cognitive process. Reasoning is involved because a communicator must

[31] The meaning of the English terms 'monologic' and 'dialogic' in this context stem from the Russian philosopher Bakhtin's concept which he applied to literature. With regard to tasks, monologic language would entail the language from single, authoritative, closed sources (a learner on her own) and dialogic pertaining to interaction, language used collectively, relationally and dynamically (Wikipedia 2007), that is, between learners in pair or group work.

[32] In other words, it should not have grammatical structures as outcome (cf. the definition of a linguistic syllabus by Ellis 2003: 345). I would disagree with this. If learners are given the task to write an advert to sell a car or draw up an election poster, they will need to use adjectives (a grammatical structure) to describe the car or the candidate. It may not be the major outcome or goal, but adjectives and their function would be a sub-goal. This would be an example of Ellis' "focused tasks" (2003: 16, 342).

consider the receiver of the message (in this case the lecturer/ educator). Cognitive skills are involved in carrying out a task; namely, selecting (which word, fact, or strategy is best), reasoning, classifying, sequencing information, transforming information from one representation to another (Ellis 2003: 34). Thus features 4 and 5 of the above list would be especially relevant in selecting tasks for the ENGL131/ 132 modules at UniLim.

Willis (2007) sums up the essential and desirable conditions for language learning that she declares are supported by TBLT. She regards the essential conditions for language learning are: 1. *exposure* – to a rich but comprehensible input of real spoken and written language in use; 2. *use* – the target language must be used to do things (i.e. exchange meanings); 3. *motivation* – to listen and read the language and to speak and write (i.e. to process and use the exposure). She regards *instruction* as desirable, that is, instruction in language. This gives learners focus on form.

Some writers distinguish between activities, exercises and tasks. From a practical point of view in the UniLim context, where the urgent need arose for coursebooks for ENGL131 and ENGL132, and were developed and immediately used, this debate about whether a task differs from an exercise or an activity is time-consuming and largely irrelevant.

In schools and tertiary institutions with financial and staff constraints, time is a problem. Finding the ideal 'fit' between theory and practice of a task, as well as accommodating the needs and expectations of both educators and learners involved in a course, involves a great deal of 'on the hoof' decision-making and trial-and-error, and little time therefore to ponder the finer details which distinguish between a task and an exercise or an activity. When a course is taught by eight educators there is little likelihood of complete agreement – which is not unusual, considering that "in spite of the increasing number of publications, a consensus of definition of *task* continues to elude the profession" (Kumaravadivelu 2006: 62).

When materials have to be designed for learners' immediate language learning needs; especially because there is not always agreement, as is the case with the debate about the exact nature of authenticity of material, there is not much time to ponder the distinction. This does not imply that the various arguments about what constitutes a task should not be taken into account. It merely means that if the issue prevents

decisions being taken about what to put into the coursebooks, it should be part of the discussion during the 'whilst use' phase of the evaluation of the coursebook. It is more productive to first select 'tasks' based on a simple, straightforward definition. Then, while using the coursebooks, the suitability of tasks included can be assessed and those that do not 'work', removed. Those tasks that do not prove to be communicative or having a desired outcome (a task may not have the intended outcome) after having been used can also be discarded – generally a matter of trial and error.

It is quite common for educators to sometimes improvise tasks on the spur of the moment in a given teaching situation. Whether the educator has carefully thought through a task which is given to the learners or has suddenly thought of one 'on the hoof', a distinction remains between the educator's 'task-as-workplan' (that is, in the mind of the educator) and 'task-as-process' (which the learner performs) (Breen 1989). Nunan (1989: 11), for example, argues that "making decisions will always be partly intuitive and judgemental". The educator is the one who knows the situational constraints and dynamics the best and so should have the freedom to decide which kind of task is most appropriate, as long as the task has as objective the methodological principle underpinning it[33]. This also applies to the materials designer (or team of designers) who decides which tasks should be in the coursebook.

Below is a framework tendered by Ellis (2003: 21) that serves as a way of assessing to what extent an activity is a task.

Design feature	**Description**
1. Goal	The general **purpose** of the task, e.g. to practise the ability to describe objects concisely; to provide an opportunity for the use of relative clauses.
2. Input	The verbal or non-verbal **information** supplied by the task, e.g. pictures; a map; written text.
3. Conditions	The **way** in which the information is **presented**, e.g. split versus shared information[34], or the

[33] Long (1997) submits that local pedagogical decisions are best left to the teacher. He declares, " as always in the TBLT, the methodological principle is the important thing; the optimal pedagogy for implementing that principle will vary according to local conditions, as assessed by the classroom teacher. He or she is the expert on the local classroom situation, after all, not someone writing about language teaching thousands of miles away in an office in Honolulu or a commercial materials writer sipping martinis on a beach in the Bahamas".

[34] Newton and Kennedy (1996: 320) used the terms *split and shared information tasks* for what was described by Doughty and Pica (1986) when they examined the amount of negotiation of meaning produced by learners doing tasks in which information exchange was either a required or optional

	way in which it is to be used, e.g. converging versus diverging[35].
4. Procedures	The methodological **procedures** to be followed in performing the task, e.g. group versus pair work; planning time vs. no planning time.
5. Predicted outcomes	
Product	The '**product**' that results from completing the task, e.g. a completed table; a route drawn on a map; a list of differences between two pictures.
Process	The linguistic and cognitive **processes** the task is hypothesised to generate.

Ellis (2003: 16) distinguishes between unfocused and focused tasks. He defines a focused task as "an activity that has all the qualities of a task but has been designed to induce learners' incidental attention to some specific linguistic form when processing either input or output" (2003: 342). It has two aims: to stimulate communicative language use (as does the unfocused task) and to target the use of a particular, predetermined target feature. An example could be a task to design a classified advertisement seeking to sell a car or any other object. The outcome would be a meaningful advertisement, but it would also target the use of adjectives (focusing on form) in persuasive language. Three designs for focused tasks are comprehension tasks, consciousness-raising tasks[36] and structure-based production tasks.

An unfocused task, according to Ellis (2003: 352), is "a task that is designed to encourage the comprehension and production of language for purposes of communication, that is, not to elicit attention to any specific linguistic feature". These tasks do not have a certain form in mind and learners can choose from a range of

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feature of task design. They found more negotiation and more repetition in tasks which required information exchange than in tasks in which information exchange was optional, a result attributed to the presence of an information gap in the former type of task. The required/ optional distinction is sometimes used synonymously with Long's one-way/ two-way distinction (e.g. Ellis, 1991: 182; Long, 1989: 14). But while both one-way and two-way tasks contain an information gap this is not so for the required/ optional distinction. In one-way tasks one person holds all the information while in two-way tasks all have an equal but partial share of information which they must exchange in order to get all the information.

[35] Long (1989) cites a study by Duff (1986) in which negotiation work resulting from *divergent tasks*, for instance , discussing the pros and cons of television, or any debate , where learners are assigned different viewpoints on an issue and have to defend their own viewpoint and rebut that of their partners', is compared with the negotiation ensuing from *convergent tasks*, such as where learners have to decide which items they are taking to a desert island and have to come to an agreement.

[36] Ellis (2003: 3430 defines consciousness-raising tasks as "a task that engages learners in thinking and communicating about language. Thus a language point becomes the topic that is talked about". Linked to this concept is that of 'noticing': " a cognitive process that involves attending to linguistic form in the input learners receive and the output they produce. Schmidt (1990) argues that noticing is necessarily a conscious process and is a prerequisite for learning to take place "(Ellis 2003: 345). Batstone (1996) describes noticing as "a complex process: it involves the intake both of meaning and form, and it takes time for learners to progress from initial recognition to the point where they can internalise the underlying rule".

forms. They involve negotiation of meaning and exchange of information and vary in cognitive complexity.

For educators who feel the need to be creative and varied in their teaching, as well for those who prefer structure, Ellis (2003: 244) presents a framework or cycle for designing task-based lessons (Table 3.1).

Table 3.1: *A Framework for Designing Task-Based Lessons* (Ellis 2003: 244)

Phase	**Examples of options**
A. Pre-task	framing the activity, e.g. establishing the outcome of the task planning time doing a similar task
B. During task	time pressure number of participants
C. Post-task	learner report consciousness raising repeat task

Willis (1996a, 1996b) has a similar framework consisting of the pre-task (introduction to the task), a task cycle (task, planning report), and finally the language focus (analysis and practice).

The objective of the pre-task phase is to prepare learners to perform the task in ways that will promote acquisition. Learners are also informed about the nature of the outcome. Learners should be motivated to complete the task – their 'appetite should be whetted' (Lee 2000; Dörnyei 2001). Skehan (1996: 25) submits that during the pre-task phase the educator can place the emphasis on the general cognitive demands of the task and/ or on the linguistic factors. Ellis (2003: 245) presents four ways in which these alternatives can be dealt with, which are helpful in deciding which tasks or activities to put in the coursebook.

- Supporting learners in performing a task similar to the task they will perform in the during-task phase of the lesson: this 'pre-task' (with similar content to the main task's) is carried out by the whole class in preparation for doing the task individually.
- Asking students to observe a model of how to perform the task: in this alternative approach the learners are shown a model of how the task should be performed. It has been argued (Willis 1996b) that simply 'observing' others

perform a task reduces the cognitive involvement of the learner. This could be a strategy to apply scaffolding as a way of learning more complex skills. (See 4.3 in the next chapter.)

- Engaging learners in non-task activities designed to prepare them to perform the task: learners are not provided with the main task but only activities that will assist in performing the main task. Willis (1996b) suggests a list of activities to provide learners with background information to help define the topic area of the task, such as, brainstorming and mindmaps. In the pre-task phase, educators can, for example, focus on unfamiliar vocabulary by predicting (brainstorm words related to the topic), instigate a cooperative dictionary search, or match words and definitions (Newton 2001).
- Strategic planning of the main task performance: this does not involve a trial-performance of the task nor the observation of a model of the task. Learners are asked to consider what they need to know or be able to do in order to execute the task.

More important, in terms of selecting appropriate tasks for a workbook/ coursebook, are the types of tasks. Willis (1996a, 1996b, 2007; also cited in Richards & Rodgers 2001) sums up tasks under the following types:

- *Listing* – this involves brainstorming or fact-finding. The outcome is a completed list or draft mind map
- *Ordering* and *sorting* – this can entail sequencing, ranking, categorising and classifying. The outcome is a set of information ordered and sorted according to specified criteria.
- *Comparing* – this is done by matching, finding similarities and/ or differences. This could be items appropriately matched or assembled, or the identification of similarities and/ or differences.
- *Problem*-solving – this involves analysing real situations or hypothetical situations, reasoning and decision-making. The outcome is the solution to the problem which can then be evaluated.
- *Sharing personal experiences* – this is done by narrating, describing, exploring and explaining attitudes, opinions and reactions. The outcome is primarily social.

- *Creative tasks* – these involve brainstorming, fact-finding, ordering and sorting, comparing, problem solving and other creative activities. The outcome is a product which can be appreciated by a wider audience.

Other types of tasks referred to in the literature (Pica, Kanagy & Falodun 1993, cited by Richards & Rodgers 2001: 234) are: jigsaw tasks (combining information to form a whole); information-gap tasks (two learners or two groups each have information the other does not have and they have to negotiate for an exchange of information to complete a task); problem-solving tasks (learners are given a problem and they have to come up with a solution); decision-making tasks (there are a number of possible outcomes to a situation and learners need to discuss and negotiate to decide on one); opinion exchange tasks (learners have a discussion and exchange ideas but need not reach agreement).

Examples of task activities to give to learners can be based on textbook exercises or on products from newspapers, magazines, television, or the internet. Proponents both of CLT and TBLT advocate the use of realia. Even with using realia, however, educators should anticipate that the outcome of a task may often be influenced by the learners and the role they assume in doing it and not necessarily what the educator planned (see Breen's (1989) discussion of 'task-as-workplan' and 'task-in-process' and the discussion of authentic materials above).

Learners working on a task can assume different roles, such as group participant, monitor ('noticing' language use and usage) or risk-taker or innovator. The educator on the other hand, in addition to facilitating the task, may be selector and sequencer of the tasks, should prepare the learners for the task, and apply consciousness-raising strategies to get learners to focus on features of the language[37] they hear and use (Richards & Rodgers 2001:236; Oxford 2006). According to Breen (1989: 23, cited in Murphy 2003: 353), "learners are capable of playing havoc with even the most carefully designed task" and he suggests that a task designer address four questions (1987: 25, cited in Murphy 2003: 353) but warns that even these can be interpreted differently by educators and learners :

[37] See Long 1997 on focus on form or formS.

- What is the objective of the task? Is it to focus on learners' attention to accuracy, for example?
- What is the content of the task? For instance, does it draw on familiar or unfamiliar information?
- How is the task to be carried out? Will learners, for example, do any preplanning?
- In what situation is the task to be carried out? Will the task be monologic or dialogic ? (See footnote 31 on page 78.)

When selecting tasks for a coursebook the issue of sequencing tasks is also germane. Tasks should be sequenced according to complexity if one uses the strategy of scaffolding (See 4.3) to encourage independent learning (see 4.5 – autonomy in learning). Task complexity (the extent to which a particular task is easy or difficult) can according to Ellis (2003: 351), have different dimensions, namely, code complexity, cognitive complexity, and context complexity.

What is taught first, second and last, how the tasks are integrated, and graded according to complexity, will reflect the beliefs of the materials developer or syllabus designer. In commercial materials, because selling and profit are important, the demands of the market are reflected and the beliefs of the materials developer or designer to a much lesser extent (Nunan 2004: 113-136).

Sequencing and grading are treated as generally synonymous by Nunan (2004: 113). Richards, Platt and Weber (1987: 125) describe grading as

> the arrangement of the content of a language course or textbook so that it is presented in a helpful way (see scaffolding 4.3). Gradation would affect the order in which words, word meanings, tenses, structures, topics, functions, skills, etc. are presented. Gradation may be based on the complexity of an item, its frequency in written or spoken English, or its importance for the learner.

Hence, the content presented first is done so because it is easy, occurs frequently, or, learners need it immediately (namely, for their general academic work) (Nunan 2004: 113). Sequencing, grading and integrating is a highly complex exercise because, as second language acquisition theorists point out, grammar is organic, unable to be acquired step-by-step, and the acquisition of grammar items generally unstable (Nunan 2004: 114; Ellis 1994). As previously mentioned, the order of what is

presented in the tasks is also influenced by the personal beliefs of each materials developer.

There is the added problem that a textbook or coursebook writer needs to estimate (and *can* only estimate in terms of the large multilevel groups of learners in this study) how much linguistic and background knowledge the learner is likely to have (Nunan 2004: 121). This dilemma is described by Pearson and Johnson (1972: 10, cited by Nunan 2004: 121).

> [there is an interdependence] between inside the head and outside the head factors. Text readability really boils down to linguistic factors like word difficulty (how familiar are the words?) and sentence complexity (how difficult is it to wade through coordinated and subordinated text segments?). Hence, one cannot know how difficult a text will be until and unless one knows something about the linguistic and conceptual sophistication of the reader: one person's *Scientific American* is another person's daily newspaper. In short, all these factors interact with one another.

According to Rost (2002), it becomes even more complex because there is an interaction between the linguistic and content (including cultural) knowledge of readers and listeners as they process written and spoken language. Second language learners can make up for lack of linguistic knowledge by drawing on their content knowledge. It is at this point that cultural knowledge becomes vital – they must be familiar with the content to cope with the linguistic difficulty. If learners do not have the appropriate background content knowledge then this will "adversely affect their linguistic knowledge" (Nunan 2004: 121). It was found in a study carried out some years ago (Nunan 1991, 1994), that lack of appropriate content knowledge had a more significant adverse effect on the ability of secondary ESL students to comprehend school texts than lack of linguistic knowledge. This again highlights the importance of the materials designer being able to estimate what the learners know or do not know. It also indicates that content and linguistic knowledge should be integrated and not taught separately.

Other crucial elements also need to be considered in terms of grading and sequencing of tasks included in language materials, namely: grammatical complexity, the length of the text, the density in terms of how much information is packed into the text, how it is disseminated and used, the explicitness of the information, the amount of low-frequency vocabulary, the discourse structure and the clarity with which it is signalled (that is, the use of signal words or transition words and how deeply the main point of a

paragraph is buried in the text – making it more difficult to process than where the main point is clearly foregrounded). A passage in which the information is presented in chronological order as it occurred in real life is also easier to process than one in which the information is out of sequence (Brown & Yule 1983).

Nunan (2004: 115) adds another element – that of support. A passage with headings and sub-headings which is supported with graphs, tables, pictures etc. should be easier to process than one without contextual support. (Nunan points out that this still needs to be demonstrated empirically.) According to Hammond and Derewianka (2002), genre theorists argue that narratives, recounts and descriptive texts will be easier to process than abstract or argumentative texts which involve the articulation of opinions and attitudes[38].

Pearson and Johnson (1972: 10) argue that comprehension is a process of building bridges between the known and unknown – that is, bringing to the comprehension process pre-existing knowledge, and then try and fit new knowledge into the pre-existing framework. If the new knowledge doesn't fit into the pre-existing knowledge it may mean that the 'old' framework needs to be modified or changed. This 'bridging' can be linked to 'scaffolding', a concept from learning theory. It also relates to what Nunan (2004: 125) terms 'task continuity' which can entail planning instructional sequences or alternatively, 'psycholinguistic processing' which "sequences tasks according to the cognitive and performance demands made upon the learner" (Nunan 2004: 125).

Nunan (2004: 35) lists seven principles of task-based learning. These can be applied in materials development, particularly the idea of developing chains of tasks.

1. *Scaffolding*: "Lessons and materials should provide supporting frameworks within which the learning takes place" (Nunan 2004: 35). Support is essential when the language of a task is beyond their capacity. Nunan points out that the art is knowing when to remove the scaffolding – if it is removed too soon the learning process collapses. On the other hand, if it is left too long the learner does not attain the independence required for autonomous learning. (For more

[38] I infer from this that the comprehension process requires structure or a framework to which to link ideas as much as writing does as a process which displays cohesion and coherence. A task therefore requires continuity. Nunan (2004: 125) also calls it 'dependency' or 'chaining', namely the interdependence of tasks, task components and supporting enabling skills within an instructional sequence.

on scaffolding see 4.3 in the next chapter and 4.5 for more on autonomous learning.)

2. *Task dependency*: "Within a lesson, one task should grow out of, and build upon, the ones that have gone before". This principle, according to Nunan (2004: 36), is embedded in the instructional sequence where each task exploits and builds on a previous one – and tells a 'pedagogical' story. Relevant for an EAP materials developer is the receptive-to-productive principle within task-dependency. This involves that at the beginning of the instructional cycle learners spend a greater part of the time occupied with receptive (listening and reading) tasks and later the greater part of time is spent on productive (speaking and writing) tasks[39].

3. *Recycling*: "Recycling language maximises opportunities for learning and activates the 'organic' learning principle". Nunan bases this principle on an analytical approach to pedagogy's assumption that language learning is not an all-or-nothing process. A linguistic item cannot be mastered one hundred percent the first time a learner encounters it, but it needs to be reintroduced over a period of time and preferably in different content areas, both linguistic and experiential.

4. *Active learning*: "Learners learn best by actively using the language they are learning". Learners learn best by doing – by "constructing their own knowledge rather than having it transmitted to them" by an educator. Lessons should provide ample opportunities for learners to use the language. This principle supports the principle common to both CLT and autonomous learning, namely of learner-centred learning. Nunan does not suggest that there is no place for teacher input or explanation, just that it should not dominate. Interesting to note is that Nunan (2004: 36) suggests activities such as "practising memorised dialogues" when the words 'practise' and 'memorisation' have become anathema to language teaching (Willis 1996a, 1996b; Oxford 2006). Oxford (2006), however, mentions that although Nunan's task-based syllabus is not far from the Present, Practice, Produce (PPP) format (Feeney 2006), his controlled

[39] This sounds suspiciously like the 'objectionable' (sic) PPP language teaching method (see next chapter, section 4.4: Grammar).

practice occurs within more of a communicative context than is the case with the PPP approach.

5. *Integration*: "Learners should be taught in ways that make clear the relationships between linguistic form, communicative function and semantic meaning". The linguistic elements (i.e. grammatical, lexical and phonological components) of a language used to be taught separately until the 1980s when advocates of the early CLT approach challenged the focus on form. Explicit focus on form was deemed unnecessary by proponents of meaning-based instruction because they viewed effective communication as sufficient. According to Nunan (2004: 37), applied linguists working within a systemic-functional framework[40] argue that the challenge for pedagogy is to 'reintegrate' formal and functional aspects of language. So 'form' is no longer in total disfavour, but a pedagogy is advocated that makes explicit the systemic relationship between form, function and meaning.

6. *Reproduction to creation*: "Learners should be encouraged to move from reproductive to creative language use". The educator, the textbook, the video, movie or cassette tape provide the learner with language models which they reproduce. Although drilling, repetition and practice are methods that have been frowned upon in some quarters, Nunan (2004: 37) recommends reproductive tasks because they are designed to help learners achieve mastery of form, meaning and function.[41]

7. *Reflection*: "Learners should be given opportunities to reflect on what they have learned and how well they are doing." Reflecting about learning changes

[40] Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) is defined by Hyland (2006: 317) as " the theory of language developed by Michael Halliday which emphasises that language is the expression of meaning. The forms writers choose to express meanings in specific situations are influenced by the complex elements of those situations".

[41] As a language learner I have been puzzled by the disapproval of repetition, memorisation and practice by CLT purists. I have myself learnt Afrikaans and Zulu as third languages and was a beginner learner of Arabic; and my daughter took elementary Arabic and Japanese. We have observed that we, as do language learners in general, instinctively repeat (rehearse, practise, and memorise) certain greetings and formulaic phrases to ourselves before using them to communicate. Students who come to consult me about something will frequently stand in front of my office door and rehearse what they wish to say before coming in. My godchild is an 18-month-old Tswana speaker and her mother told me that she repeats certain words and phrases to herself or sings them to ensure that she remembers them. Although this is only anecdotal evidence it nonetheless shows that language learners 'use' or practise a construction until it becomes automatic. There is a place in the language classroom for 'drilling' certain forms. I prefer a pluralistic approach to language teaching. I doubt whether there is one perfect 'method' to teach or learn a language.

the emphasis from the content to the learning process. Nunan (2004: 38) asserts that because TBLT introduces learners to a broad variety of pedagogical undertakings, each of which is underpinned by at least one strategy, the reflective element is particularly suited to it. He points out that research suggests that learners who are aware of the strategies driving their learning will be better learners (cf. also Donaghue 2003). He adds that a reflective component helps learners from 'traditional' classrooms who are uncomfortable with TBLT, for example, to discover the rationale for a new approach to language learning (cf. also Hawkey 2006).

At this point, for the sake of comparison with TBLT, it is necessary to briefly describe the more traditional Present, Practice, Produce (PPP) approach which is a popular language lesson design implemented by many language teachers. It's predictable structure is appealing.

According to Frost (2004), most teachers are familiar with the PPP paradigm. He views it as a simplified approach to language learning based on the idea that language can be presented in neat little blocks, adding from one lesson to the next. However, research shows that it cannot be predicted what and when learners will learn. It is preferable to give learners a wide exposure to the target language and not restrict them to single pieces of target language.

A PPP lesson would proceed in the following phases:

1. An item of language is PRESENTED in a clear context to get across its meaning. This can be through a text, a dialogue, a situation build etc.

2. Then learners are asked to complete a controlled PRACTICE stage, where they may repeat target items by drilling, filling gaps or matching halves of sentences. These practice activities are meant to teach learners to use the language correctly and become more comfortable with it.

3. The final stage is production stage (also referred to as the 'free practice' stage). Learners are given a communication task such as a role play and expected to PRODUCE the target language, using items they have already learnt and are suitable for completing the activity.

Ellis (2003:348) describes it as an approach that involves the instructional sequence of 'present', 'controlled practice' (by means of exercises) and 'free production' (by means of tasks).

Richards and Rodgers (2001: 246) view it as a method that can be adopted or adapted whatever one's ideology. It is particularly helpful to the novice teacher because it offers the reassurance of a detailed set of sequential steps to follow in the classroom.

Frost (2004) identifies the following problems:

- Learners can give the impression that they are comfortable with the new language as they are producing it accurately in class. However, often a few lessons later learners may not be able to produce it correctly or at all.
- Learners may produce the language item but overuse the structure so that it sounds unnatural.
- They may not produce the target language during the free practice stage because they are unable to use existing language resources to complete the task.

The arguments against PPP are that the language is too controlled. The stages of TBLT allow learners to use all their language resources rather than one pre-selected one. TBLT have a more varied pattern of exposure in TBLT. They are exposed to a whole range of lexical phrases, collocations, patterns and language forms than with PPP. The communicative approach in TBLT is learner-centred (PPP is more teacher-centred) and because the learners are involved is likely to be more enjoyable and motivating.

3.6 CONCLUSION

The principles on which the various approaches or methods discussed in this chapter are based, sometimes overlap, hence some criteria may satisfy the principles of more than one theory or approach.

The next chapter deals with contentious or context-specific issues which are connected to the various theories concerning ESL teaching and learning and can be

implemented in materials where practicable. They also include issues relevant to the context of this study such as large multilevel classes. Criteria will also be extracted from these issues which can be applied to evaluate the in-house materials designed.

After considering these various theories and issues, suitable criteria will be selected from them to evaluate the ENGL131 and ENGL132 coursebooks in order to establish whether these coursebooks implement appropriate language learning and teaching approaches or methodologies for the context in which they are used (see end of Chapter 5).

CHAPTER 4

ISSUES IN MATERIALS DESIGN

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter examined the Outcomes Based Education system within which different approaches to language teaching such as English for Academic Purposes, Communicative Language Teaching, and Task-based Language Teaching have been examined in order to establish which teaching principles are suited for the ENGL131 and ENGL132 modules in the context of the University of Limpopo. There are certain aspects of these approaches which are contentious and ESL and SLA researchers are divided about their application. Amongst these are the issues concerning the use authentic materials, the teaching of grammar, scaffolding as a teaching and learning strategy built into activities, encouraging autonomy, language teaching in large multilevel classes and to what extent the materials should include target or source culture.

4.2 AUTHENTIC MATERIALS

One of the issues pertaining specifically to materials development is that of authenticity of material. Materials aimed at explicit learning as used in other language teaching methodologies manipulate examples of the language to focus on the item being taught. These examples are usually "short, easy, specially written or simplified texts or dialogues" (Tomlinson 2003: 5). The communicative approach, however, prescribes the use of "authentic" materials in the language learning classroom (Bacon & Finneman 1990; Kuo 1993; Little *et al.* 1994). The arguments presented for authentic materials are that non-authentic texts "overprotect learners, deprive them of the opportunity for acquisition provided by rich texts and do not prepare them for the reality of language texts" (Tomlinson 2003: 5).

Definitions vary as to what these "authentic" materials precisely are: for example, "materials [that] come from the world of realia rather than from textbooks" (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 138); materials that use language " ...as it appears in everyday speech – that is, in its full complexity. The teacher should therefore, not manipulate or simplify texts to exemplify, for example, only one tense or structure" (Kilfoil & Van der Walt 1997: 334); "Basically, authentic materials include anything that is used as a part of

communication " (Gebhard 1999:100)[1]; "These might include language-based realia, such as 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. Different kinds of objects can be used to support communicative exercises, such as a plastic model to assemble from directions" (Ludescher 2007: 1).

The key advantages of authentic materials (Philips & Shettlesworth 1978; Clarke 1989; Peacock 1997; Richards 2001; Kilickaya 2004) are:

- They have a positive effect on learner motivation.
- They provide authentic cultural information.
- They provide exposure to real language.
- They relate more closely to learners' needs.
- They support a more creative approach to teaching.

Many researchers and educationists agree that the communicative approach is an appropriate approach to apply to language teaching and to use authentic materials as part of it (Morrow 1977; Philips & Shettleworth 1978; Allwright 1984; Grellet 1981; Freeman & Holden 1986; Ellis 2003; Oxford 2006 and various other academics). Arguments presented are that authentic materials alter the "balance of power" in the classroom because the educator is no longer the "undisputed authority on the text and must acknowledge the students' expertise in the subject". This stimulates interesting discussions and the educator learns from the learners. If this is so it should be considered to use authentic materials to encourage learners to participate. Student participation is a great problem in most of the UniLim ENGL131 and ENGL132 workshops.

However, there is a great deal of debate going on about whether the material remains authentic once it is used in the classroom and whether it remains authentic if it is simplified or adapted (Gebhard 1996; Kilickaya 2004; Parsons 2000; Li 2001; Hall 2001). According to literature on the topic, there are also disadvantages to using

[1] Gebhard (1999: 100-101) gives several examples of authentic materials, such as: *authentic listening and viewing materials* e.g. silent films, TV commercials cartoons, home videos; *authentic visual material* e.g. slides, paintings, street signs, pictures from travel, news and popular magazines; *authentic printed materials* e.g. newspaper articles, cartoons, advertisements, tourist information brochures, greeting cards; *Realia used in EFL/ESL classrooms* e.g. puppets, currency, clocks, phones etc.

authentic materials. For instance, it takes time and effort to find relevant authentic materials. It is sometimes difficult to make authentic materials and media comprehensible to the learners (Gebhard 1999: 101). Some learners will not accept authentic materials, such as television comedy or games as a learning source. They consider them to be entertainment, while they view learning as a serious endeavour.

Parsons (2000: 26) contends that authentic language or any language for any other purpose than the classroom changes its status as soon as it is used in the classroom. He gives the example of 'text' and 'discourse'. The latter he takes to mean 'a chunk of language', either spoken or written, that occurs in a non-pedagogic context – a conversation, a lecture, a news broadcast, a newspaper article, etc. He argues that as soon as such an example of discourse is brought into the classroom for language practice it becomes a 'text', that is, an example of language used for language or learning purposes. He also argues that the classroom, in particular the language learning classroom, has an "authenticity of its own". According to Parsons (2000: 27), the purpose of the language classroom is "to develop a whole range of skills and expand linguistic knowledge, so whatever is used in that context to fulfil that purpose can be regarded as 'authentic' for that purpose". He submits that "given the nature of the classroom context, and given the lack of 'authentic use' for any examples of 'discourse' brought into the classroom from outside, then the 'authenticity' of text becomes less important" – how the text fits the learning purpose and what is done with it, is important. Widdowson (2003: 112) proffers a similar point of view when he states

> the idea of introducing actual, or real, authentic language use into the classroom is an appealing one, and seems to offer an escape from what is often seen as the confinement and routine drudgery that seem to typify orthodox language pedagogy. But the appeal is also an illusion. The classroom contexts within which the language has usually to be learnt are totally different from those within which the language is used. You cannot simply replicate the sociocultural conditions which made the language actual for its users in the first place. Of course, you can to some degree modify classroom contexts, but that is simply to say that you contrive conditions to make them approximate more closely to the reality of use. ...[T]his is a difficult thing to do. Paradoxically enough, the closer you try to get to user authenticity, the more contrivance you will need to resort to, for you to somehow reconstruct the original contexts and make them accessible while at the same time making them appropriate to the learning process.

Widdowson (2004:113) also points out that the classroom "is a social construct, and as such, like any other, has its contexts and purposes, its own legitimate reality.

Naturally, like any other social construct, it is dynamic, subject to variation and change." He continues to define how he views the classroom:

> ...it can be misleading to talk about *the* classroom in generic terms, as if all classrooms were alike[2], just as it could be misleading to talk of *the* office or *the* workplace as if they were all the same. Nevertheless, locally different though classrooms are bound to be, they share the common feature that *makes* them all classrooms, namely that they are the site for contrived contexts designed to achieve a pedagogic purpose. So instead of thinking of the classroom as an artificial and arid place that can only be brought to life by injections of reality from the 'real' world outside, we need to think of it as a setting capable of creating a reality of its own. As far as the teaching of any language, we need to consider what language is appropriate for the classroom on its own contextual terms and for its own purpose.

This last statement supports this study's argument for the development of language learning and teaching materials tailored for the UniLim context where the majority of students are rural students.

Further issues about authenticity look at interesting content and whether authentic materials should be simplified or adapted. Peacock (1997: 152) found in a limited study which he did, that the learners overall reported authentic materials to be significantly less interesting than 'artificial materials'. This indicates the importance of materials to be interesting because they may have an effect on student motivation. In terms of materials for the ENGL131/132 group, interesting content may be linked to authentic materials that relate to the local culture, in addition to the learners' general interests.

Advocates of CLT and 'authentic' authentic materials believe that such materials should not be adapted or simplified (Morrow 1977; Philips & Shettleworth 1978; Grellet 1981; Allwright 1984, Freeman & Holden 1986; Ellis 2003; Oxford 2006). It may, however, be necessary to simplify lexically dense tasks and adapt some authentic materials to make the input comprehensible to match the learners' proficiency, or to a level above the learners' proficiency, but not beyond their proficiency (Lynch 1996: 15; Guariento & Morley 2001: 348)[3]. An argument for the adaptation of materials could be made from a socio-cultural perspective. Authentic material may contain words, phrases or idioms that may be misunderstood or not

[2] I am sure that all educators find that when teaching the same content on the same day to two different classes will result in different responses to the content and the tasks, and the class dynamics will differ.
[3] For adapting materials, see DARIAN, S. 2001. Adapting authentic materials for language materials. *English Teaching Forum*, 39 (2): 2-7.

understood at all (see Ramsden 2000). A counter argument is raised by Nunan (2004: 115) when he cites an early study by Parker and Chaudron (1987) in which the comprehensibility of a text that had been elaborated is compared with one that had been simplified. It was found that comprehensibility of a text that had been elaborated was no lower than the comprehensibility of the one with the same content, but which had been simplified, when measured by means of a cloze test. Although the researchers pointed out that more research was needed into the effect of interaction, elaboration, and simplification of aural and written texts, they still argued in favour of elaboration (Nunan 2004: 116). An example could be the one given by Nunan (2004: 15):

> Passage A
>
> *The students fooled around because the teacher left the room.*
>
> Passage B
>
> The teacher left the room. The students fooled around.
>
> The comprehension question *Why did the students fool around?* Is more easily answered by readers of Passage A , which appears more complex, than readers of passage B. The reason for this is the cause/effect conjunction *because*.

Instead of adapting a text there is an alternative. Should the materials designer find an authentic text too simple (or too difficult) the demands made of the learner can be made more difficult (or simpler) (Nunan 2004:136). Therefore, tailoring the demands to the learners' proficiency removes the need to change the authentic text. (See the issue of complexity towards the end of section 3.4 concerning TBLT in Chapter 3.)

A final and alternative thought about authenticity is about the nature of learners' response to materials. Hall (2001: 231) declares that "[it] is, rather, the response to the materials that should be authentic". He continues by pointing out that an authentic response depends on there being an authentic need. In the classroom this may only be an approximation and may be artificially created. An authentic response could be helped on in ESP, for example, by close cooperation between the language educator and the content educator. Kenny (1989, cited by Hall 2001: 231-232) classifies student responses to content into three categories:

- The *empirical*: the addressing of content as a context-free, isolated entity; and which involves working out the meaning of a text within the boundaries of the text. The language teacher's typical tools of comprehension questions, structure manipulation exercises, summaries, vocabulary explanation, and mode-switching (e.g. text to table, graph to text) are all types of empirical response.
- The *interpretational*: this response addresses the meaning of a text in relation to the individual; and involves assimilating new knowledge into the structure of information in the individual's head. The content is examined in relation to existing knowledge structures and belief systems. Interpretational responses in an essay might be responses to a number of texts which involve the examination of parallels and contradictions between texts and arguments.
- The *socially validated* response: this involves exposing the individual's response to a text to group evaluation. Thus it is not enough to assimilate new knowledge individually – the comprehension of a text and the validity of that comprehension need to be tested through group interaction, and the interpretation defended in a process of critical scrutiny. This would occur in the discussion of a controversial topic in which the learners are actively engaged, for example, whether R&B is better than Hip-Hop; or which is the better team between two rival soccer teams?

The materials writer needs to consider all the arguments relating to authenticity and eventually decide in terms of the needs of the learners in his/her own context and what he/she believes will work in that context.

4.3 SCAFFOLDING

The concept scaffolding is discussed here in more detail (see Chapter 3: EAP) because it is a learning aid referred to both in TBLT and further on (section 4.5), in the discussion of autonomous learning. Scaffolding instruction as a teaching strategy originates from Lev Vygotsky's sociocultural theory and his concept of the zone of proximal development (ZPD). "The zone of proximal development is the distance between what children can do by themselves and the next learning that they can be helped to achieve with competent assistance" (Raymond, 2000: 176; Pea 2004:426). The goal of the educator (or more knowledgeable other) when using the scaffolding teaching strategy is for the student to become an independent and self-regulating

learner and problem solver (Hartman, 2002: 24). The scaffolding teaching strategy provides individualized support based on the learner's ZPD (Chang, Sung, & Chen, 2002: 7; Van der Stuyf 2002:2). The scaffolds, in turn, assist a learner to build on prior knowledge and internalize new information. The activities provided in scaffolding instruction are just beyond the level of what the learner can do alone (Olson & Platt, 2000:173). The educator or "more capable other" provides the scaffolds to assist the learner to accomplish the tasks that he or she could otherwise not complete; hence helping the learner through the ZPD (Branson, Brown, & Cocking, 2000: 43).

On the popular, free encyclopaedia webpage, Wikipedia (2007), instructional scaffolding is simply described as "the provision of sufficient supports to promote learning when concepts and skills are being first introduced to students". Examples of supports are:

- resources
- a compelling task
- templates and guides
- guidance on the development of cognitive and social skills

The supports provided by educators could take the form of outlines, recommended documents, storyboards, or key questions.

In the area of second language teaching and academic language, Ovando *et al.* (2003: 345) define scaffolding as "providing contextual supports for meaning through the use of simplified language, teacher modelling, visuals and graphics, cooperative learning and hands-on learning". This support has to be facilitated by the ESL educator, and then, as students become more proficient, the scaffold or the support is gradually removed (Diaz-Rico & Weed 2002: 85; Bradley & Bradley 2004: 1). Bradley and Bradley (2004: 1) identify three types of scaffolding as being especially effective for second language learners:

- *Simplifying the language*: The teacher can simplify the language by shortening selections, speaking in the present tense, and avoiding the use of idioms. (This, of course, goes against the beliefs of proponents of the use of authentic materials.)
- *Asking for completion, not generation*: The teacher can have students choose answers from a list or complete a partially finished outline or paragraph.

- *Using visuals*: The teacher can present information and ask for students to respond through the use of graphic organizers, tables, charts, outlines, and graphs.

The supports (as scaffolding in construction is) are gradually removed (or 'faded' (Davis & Miyake 2004:267; Pea 2004:438,442)) as learners develop autonomous learning strategies and upgrade their own cognitive, affective, and psychomotor learning skills and knowledge. According to Vygotsky, the external scaffolds provided by the educator can be removed because the learner has developed "...more sophisticated cognitive systems, related to fields of learning such as mathematics or language, the system of knowledge itself becomes part of the scaffold or social support for the new learning" (Vygotsky 1978, cited in Raymond, 2000: 176). Scaffolding is therefore temporary.

Scaffolding, as part of designing the coursebooks for the modules in this study, is particularly relevant because the majority of learners in the two modules come from English input impoverished schools. The tasks need to have in-built support to help the learners to raise their proficiency to a level which will enable them to cope with their tertiary academic studies.

4.4 GRAMMAR INSTRUCTION

4.4.1 BACKGROUND

In the 1960s the principal methods for teaching second or additive languages were the grammar-translation method and the audiolingual method. The former was based on the belief that language learning was primarily an "intellectual process of studying and memorising bilingual vocabulary lists and explicit grammar rules"; while the latter derives from behaviourist theories of learning emphasising 'habit formation' by means of practice, rehearsal, drilling and general reinforcement (Ellis 1997: 5). Research failed to demonstrate conclusively that one method was superior. (This is still the case – see Ellis 2005: 1-2.) Researchers started investigating how second languages (L2) were learned and the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) took off. After studies of error analysis and related issues, researchers began recommending what was radical at the time, that there be less intervention in the process of L2 acquisition and that learners be allowed to learn the L2 'naturally' (Newmark 1988; Dulay & Burt 1973; Krashen & Terrell 1983; Ellis 1997: 6). Chomsky's theory of Universal Grammar

became part of SLA's field of study with the result that the research became more theory-oriented than practical. This current study is more concerned with language pedagogy, and specifically the subfields which have kept the traditional links with language pedagogy, namely, *input and interaction* and *form-focused instruction*, because it is concerned with practical knowledge (Ellis 2007: 6) and practical application in the form of selection tasks for coursebooks. At the same time, it does not, however, wish to ignore the contribution of SLA theory. The materials developer in this study has, besides the other pertinent issues in this chapter, specifically examined the two subfields mentioned because language learning materials provide input with which the learner interacts, and in terms of form-focused instruction, the materials developer needs to make decisions about how much focus on form there should be in the materials used in the context of the UniLim ENGL131 and ENGL132 modules. Ellis (1997: 7) states the following:

> Textbook writers draw on their experience of the kinds of activities that work in classrooms and, of course on their familiarity with other published materials. Teachers draw on their hands-on knowledge to perform the myriad tasks that comprise teaching.

When selecting appropriate tasks for an EAP coursebook at first year level, at UniLim in particular, although in all probability in other educational contexts too, consideration must be given to the competing goals of fluency and accuracy which contribute to ongoing controversy.

4.4.2 FORM, FORMS OR MEANING?

There is general acceptance (see the discussion of CLT in Chapter 3) of CLT's emphasis on teaching communicative language with its focus on meaning or 'message-oriented' practice. A number of SLA researchers (see discussion of TBLT in Chapter 3) and applied linguists (e.g. Dulay and Burt 1973; Krashen 1982; Prabhu 1987) were totally against any kind of grammar instruction. They believed opportunities should be created for the use of natural language as is found in the 'real' world outside the classroom. Ellis (1997: 47) terms this the 'zero position': it rejects both planned (presenting and practising grammatical items) and unplanned intervention (incidental error correction). Krashen (1982) goes so far as to refer to error correction as a 'serious mistake'. From this background, a focus on form in language teaching has been discouraged, with the result that language teachers have not focused much on form or accuracy. (CLT does not entirely disapprove of focusing

on correct grammar instruction[4], but the communicative approach is interpreted in a variety of ways by practitioners from different educational traditions and from different perspectives (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 157) and so some do not teach grammar at all while others do to a degree.) The assumption that many school educators in Limpopo are focussing less or not at all on grammar is made because at UniLim there are many first-entering learners who may understand what their content subjects are about and have good arguments, but are unable to express those arguments meaningfully in writing despite being able to express them with a reasonable degree of oral fluency[5]. It is also difficult to explain to them the language errors which prevent effective communication because they do not know the metalanguage. More empirical research, such as the President's Education Initiative (1999), needs to be done to assess the situation regarding the teaching or not of grammar in rural schools.

In recent literature there are indications of a shift towards acknowledging that form cannot be entirely ignored (Long 1997; Doughty & Williams 1998; Lightbown & Spada 1999; Nassaji 2000[6]). Reference to comments by Dewey and Barnes are relevant here. Dewey (1938, cited by Nassaji 2000: 242) observes that mankind tends to think in terms of *either-ors*, but that in the realm of practice, one will realise that compromise is inevitable. Barnes (1988, also cited by Nassaji 2000: 242) states that although schooling should be brought closer to the real world experience, theoretical and formal knowledge should not necessarily be disregarded because of this. Barnes argues that learners need to be able to analyze as well as act and that it is necessary to reconcile the experiential knowledge needed for action with the formal analytic knowledge necessary to enhance analytic reasoning. The keyword is *enhance* – both in terms of analytic reasoning and effective language learning. Once a learner is in a tertiary institution he/ she needs enhanced language skills to express reasoning. The ideal is that the learner has already acquired these skills to a reasonable degree at school and is able to edit his/ her written work. This, however, is often not the case in the learners

[4] Fluency and acceptable language is the primary goal; accuracy is judged not in the abstract *but in the context* (Finocchiaro and Brumfit 1983: 91-93) .
[5] See Kasanga (1998) on BICS and CALP at UNIN (now UniLim).
[6] I recommend the reading of the whole article by Hossein Nassaji: 2000. Towards integrating form-focused instruction and communicative interaction in the second language classroom: some pedagogical possibilities. *The Modern Language Journal,* 84: 241-250; as well as one in response: Sheen, Ron. 2000. a Response to Nassaji's Article: Towards integrating form-focused instruction and communicative interaction in the second language classroom: some pedagogical possibilities. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 56 (3). There is also a reply to Sheen by Nassaji in the same issue of CMLR.

enrolled for the ENGL131/132 modules. They still need to acquire these skills. The teaching strategy of scaffolding (see 4.3 above) and the concept 'form-defocus' coined by Johnson (1996: 138) [7] can be ways to 'enhance' the language skills of learners first entering a tertiary institution.

Vickers & Ene (2006: 109) point out that the research demands on final year undergraduates and postgraduates require written communication with language accuracy (and they advocate learner autonomy, i.e. that learners learn to recognise their own language errors – however, learners cannot recognise something that has not been pointed out to them). In the Natural Sciences faculty at UniLim this is a problem experienced with their senior undergraduates and postgraduates too (personal communication in 2005 with heads of department).

Another point to be mentioned, relating to tertiary (or college) learners, is the finding by Leki (1991, cited by Vickers & Ene 2006: 111) that college level second language writers prefer explicit error correction from their instructors. A colleague (personal discussion 2005), an experienced ESL teacher herself, mentioned taking Northern Sotho classes in which they were taught by the communicative approach only. She would, however, have preferred to have had explicit grammar clarification included in the lessons – she found that she could not acquire the target language from communication only. This may be partly explained by Bialystok (1994: 565) when she notes that while "rules make sense to adults; they make very little difference to young children". Ayliff (2006: 46) observes that it is significant that "at about the time (puberty) that the critical period comes to an end, the learner is at the age that rules begin to make sense". It is her hypothesis that L2 language learning can be placed on a continuum of explicit through to implicit ways of knowing, and that what might be acquired implicitly during the critical period might later have to be learned explicitly. The findings of her study (Ayliff 2006: 40-49) involving learners from the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University indicate that the learning of explicit rules is not as Krashen (1982) suggests, merely peripheral. Learning explicit rules may assist

[7] Form-defocus appears similar to the teaching or learning strategy of scaffolding. Johnson (1996: 138), the originator of the concept, lays emphasis on activities involving progressive form-defocus in which the learner has to cope with gradually increasing cognitive demands, allowing less and less attention to be devoted to form. An apt analogy to describe this is used by Tonkyn (1996) when he writes " The language learner is thus like a learner driver who starts practising gear shifts while stationary in the drive at home, and progresses via the local park and quiet suburban streets to the high street".

learners in developing implicit knowledge of grammar.

Concepts such as 'consciousness-raising' or 'noticing' (see footnote 30 in Chapter 3) for definitions) have emerged with regard to form and accuracy. Language awareness (which includes noticing and consciousness-raising) is important for the following reasons (Bolitho *et al.* 2003; Islam & Timmins 2003):

- Paying deliberate attention to language features being used can help learners to notice the gap between their own performance in the target language and that of proficient learners.
- Noticing can give salience to a grammatical feature so that it becomes more noticeable in future input and so contributes to the learner's psychological readiness to acquire that feature.
- The primary objective is to help learners to notice for themselves how language is typically used so that they will notice the gaps, 'achieve learning readiness' and hence independence from educator and coursebook.
- The first procedures are usually experiential (read a text) rather than analytical (answering comprehension type questions) and aim to involve learners in affective interaction (give their opinion before studying the language in the text).
- Learners are later encouraged to focus on a particular feature of the text, identify occurrences of the feature, make discoveries and express generalisations about its use.

What can be inferred from these terms is that more recent research suggests that learners should be sensitised to the structure of language (form) so that they can correct their own errors – moving away from a transmission-based mode of teaching towards a more "learner-centred, constructivist-participative model of second language teaching" (Brokensha & Greyling 2003: 75).

There are other studies that may be noted in support of this shift back to focus on form, without rejecting the legitimate principles of CLT and TBLT. (There can be no argument that language is best learnt when using it, hence the unquestionable need for communicative tasks; but in terms of enhancing the language, this researcher, as an educator and as a language learner, believes that there is a place for teaching form in ESL and EFL. Language learning is not an *either-or* matter.) Long (1997: 10) refers to other studies on the focus on form such as Ellis (1995) who concludes that

research shows a blend of explicit instruction and implicit learning to be superior to either one alone; and Spada (1997) who finds wide empirical support for the view that form-focused instruction (including focus on form[8]) is beneficial for SLA. Doughty and Williams (1998: 232) find a place in the language classroom for both implicit and explicit tasks, as well as techniques on a continuum between implicit and explicit. Swain (1996) and Doughty and Varela (1998) also support the view that form-focused instruction should not be excluded from teaching programmes based on task-based communicative approaches. This is supported by Hawkey's (2006) study of teacher and learner perceptions of language learning activity, in which teachers and learners were interviewed on the matter of approaches to grammar in the context of communicative approaches. The eventual opinion of the teachers interviewed was that "CLT has to be combined with more structural approaches". The students in this study too did not entirely agree with "a less explicit role" for the teaching of grammar. They tended to still look for a higher prominence for grammar in their lessons. Nassaji (2000: 242) suggests that an integrative approach to form and meaning in SLA teaching be adopted. He bases his argument on the theory of the interactive and the cognitive perspective.

Other variables which may eventually lead to an integrative approach are, for example, the perceptions of educators and learners to grammar described in a study by Hawkey (2006). Hawkey investigated (in the Progetto Lingue 2000 impact study on behalf of and with the assistance of the Research and Validation Department of Cambridge ESOL and of Cambridge ESOL staff in Italy) whether learners' perceptions of the prominence of various classroom activities are the same as those of the educators who are initiating them. With regard to grammar there was a mismatch in student and educator perceptions of the prominence of grammar in their lessons. Hawkey (2006: 247) interprets the reasons for this to be: the educators interpret the principles of the CLT approach as encouraging a less explicit role for the teaching of grammar. The learners may still not be entirely convinced of this and thus tend to look for a higher prominence for grammar in their lessons. (However, he does find that the learners in his study focused on improved communicative skills performance and are

[8] Refer to Sheen's (2000) article for a distinction between focus on form and form-focused and his own term Planned Grammar Instruction: Sheen, Ronald. 2000. A Response to Nassaji's 'Towards Integrating Form-focused Instruction and Communicative Interaction in the Second Language Classroom' in Light of Issues Related to Focus on Form. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 56 (3)496-506. Although noted, these distinctions become too detailed for a materials writer.

less likely than the students in a similar study by Brindley (1984: 96) to see grammar as 'all they want'.) Breen (1987: 28, cited by Murphy 2003: 354) declares that an activity or as he terms it – a' task-as-workplan' – "must accommodate objectives which are seen as directly in harmony with their own perceived and stated learning needs". Murphy (2003: 354) adds that it is vital for the pedagogical objectives [of a task] to be made clear to learners. Allowance should also be made for individual differences and so, for example, a task should "allow for alternative procedural routes to the same goal". Learners should be involved in reflecting on the way in which they carried out tasks as well as on the language they use. This helps them to develop learner autonomy. Murphy (2003) and Lynch (2001) suggest that 'post-task intervention' could be an alternative to focusing attention on form. Another point worth considering when designing materials, is Murphy's (2003: 356) remark that personal experience suggests that learners in an interactive, thus dialogic, task (as recommended by Skehan 2001), once satisfied with having communicated their message, are not overly concerned with accuracy. An extra dimension to the interactive task could be added in which the learners are forced to check the accuracy as well, for example by converting the oral message into a written one.

Besides encouraging autonomous error correction, another justification for some attention to form is the strategy of peer assessment which is suggested for large classes. This has not been successful in the context of this study because the learners are unable to recognise the various grammatical structures themselves and to teach them to be effective peer assessors will involve a great deal of time, which is not available. In this connection, Vickers and Ene (2006:115) indicate that experienced, motivated language learners may be better able to autonomously correct their own errors than less experienced and less motivated language learners. They recommend that each instructional context should be assessed in terms of the learners' ability and motivation to participate in autonomous language learning tasks. In some contexts educators will need to be more involved in with learners' efforts to notice grammatical form, while in others the learners may benefit more from autonomous tasks. These decisions, Vickers and Ene (2006: 115) conclude, must be made by individual educators "as they understand the needs of their learners most fully".

The major theoretical shift in the role of grammar in ELT, according to Nitta and Gardner (2005: 3), is from 'how teachers teach grammar' to 'how learners learn grammar'. Tusting and Barton (2003: 36, cited in Brandt 2006: 362) describe this moving away from "a 'being told' *transfer* approach, which is expert-directed, subordinating, replicating, dependent, and rational, towards an exploratory 'finding out' or *transformative* approach, which includes the following characteristics: it builds on existing knowledge, allows for different learning styles, provides opportunities for problem-solving, encourages autonomy and is reflective." This, in short encapsulates what useful and meaningful workbook tasks should aim at.

4.4.3 THE THREE OPTIONS OF FOCUS ON FORM IN TBLT BY LONG (1997)

Long (1997: 8), Ellis (2005: 1, 4) and also Oxford (2006: 4), in the context of TBLT, distinguish between focus on form and focus on forms. Long refers to these two options as 'unobtrusive focus on form' and 'obtrusive focus on form' respectively. Focus on meaning is included in the three options because it underpins the options 'focus on form'. Oxford (2006: 4) terms these options 'task goals'. These three options are discussed under grammar instead of tasks because their main focus is the position of grammar in language teaching. All three applied linguists discuss the form-focus issue within the context of the TBLT approach, probably because much of recent language research has shifted from CLT to TBLT.

Focus on Forms (Long's (1997) Option 1; Oxford's (2006) Possible task goal C)

This option is considered the traditional approach because the communicative approach has discouraged focused or obtrusive attention to grammar. With focus on forms the educator or textbook divides the L2 into segments of various kinds – that is "specific, preplanned forms one at a time in the hope that learners will master them before they use them to negotiate meaning" (Oxford 2006:5) in "a sequence determined by (rather vague, usually intuitive) notions of frequency, valency or (the all-purpose and question-begging) 'difficulty'" (Long 1997:3). The learner has to eventually synthesise the parts for use in communication, hence Wilkins (1976) calling it the synthetic approach to syllabus design. Long adds that learners are encouraged to master each linguistic item to native speaker levels using synthetic materials, methodology and pedagogy. According to Long (1997: 3), "synthetic syllabi (lexical,

structural, and notional-functional, for example), are accompanied by synthetic 'methods' (GrammarTranslation, Audio-lingual Method, Audio-Visual Method, Silent Way, TPR, etc) and by the synthetic classroom devices and practices commonly associated with them (e.g. explicit grammar rules, repetition of models, memorisation of short dialogues, linguistically 'simplified' texts, transformation exercises, explicit negative feedback, i.e. so-called 'error correction' and display questions)". All these together result in a focus on formS (Long 1997: 3). Long views these lessons as 'rather dry' and of little communicative use. He identifies six major problems with focus on forms (1997: 3-4):

1. It tends to be a one-size-fits-all approach. There is no needs analysis to identify a particular learner's or group of learners' communicative needs, and no means analysis to ascertain their learning styles and preferences. This results in teaching too much (some language items, skills and genres learners do not need) *and* too little (not covering language, skills and genres they do need). This is discouraging to learners (and educators[9]). It is also inefficient.
2. Linguistic grading, lexical and grammatical, tends to result in artificial and stilted classroom language use and functionally restricted input which is 'impoverished'. Long (1997: 4) asserts that 'simplification' is self-defeating in that it succeeds in improving comprehension by removing from the input the new items learners need to encounter for the purposes of acquisition.
3. A focus on form assumes that SLA is a process of accumulating entities. However, research has not been able to show anything but an accidental resemblance between the way learners acquire L2 forms and the sequence in which these forms appear in externally imposed linguistic syllabuses.
4. Leaving learners out of syllabus design ignores the major role they will play in language development. Research (Lightbown 1983; Pienemann 1984; Ellis 1998; Lightbown and Spada 1993; Mackey 1995) suggests that teachability is constrained by learnability. The idea that what you teach is what they learn, and when you teach it is when they learn it, is both simplistic and wrong (Long 1997:4).
5. Despite the best efforts of highly skilled educators and textbook writers, focus

[9] Educators also feel discouraged if their learners' appear disinterested, frustrated or apathetic, without quite knowing why. The large classes at UniLim contribute to this or further compound the learners' malaise. The inefficiency is also discouraging. This indicates the necessity of needs analyses for each language learning and teaching context.

on form tends to produce boring lessons with a resulting decrease in motivation, attention, and learner enrolments.

6. Long declares that the assertion that many students all over the world have learned languages via a focus on forms ignores the possibility that they have learned despite it as well as that others have failed. Long believes "a focus on forms produces many more false beginners than finishers".

Focus on Meaning (Long's (1997) Option 2; Oxford's (2006) Possible task goal A)

This option has been the response to option 1 – "an equally single-minded focus on meaning" (Long 1997: 6). The starting point is not the language but the learner and learning processes (Long 1997: 6). The lessons are communicative. Learners receive chunks of comprehensible samples of L2 use in interesting lessons in which no rigid structure or rules are presented nor are learners expected to discover rules for themselves (Oxford 2006: 4). The learner, not the educator or the textbook, must analyse the L2, albeit at a subconscious level. The learner induces grammar rules from exposure to input (i.e. from positive evidence)[10]. Grammar is best learned incidentally and implicitly. The focus on meaning is sometimes not considered instruction at all, because the educator can be viewed as simply providing opportunities for L2 exposure (Doughty 2003, cited in Oxford 2006:4).

Although an improvement on option 1, there are also problems with focus on meaning (Long 1997:6):

1. While not inevitable, in practice there is usually no needs or means analysis which can guide curriculum content and delivery, respectively.
2. Many researchers have found increasing evidence of maturational constraints, including sensitive periods in language acquisition (Curtiss 1988; Long 1990, 1993; Newport 1990). There are studies that suggest that older children, adolescents and adults are unable to achieve native-like levels in an L2. This is not because of lack of opportunity, motivation or ability (which are important), but because they have lost access to whatever innate abilities they used to learn language(s) in early childhood. If this is so, "it will be insufficient for later

[10] My question here is: What if, in the communicative class, the evidence is not positive because the educator is not a proficient speaker of the language being taught. Can the strong communicative approach be applied where the input is impoverished?

L2 learning to simply recreate the conditions for L1 acquisition in the classroom (Long 1997: 6-7).

3. Although there is evidence of progress achieved in an L2 (Canadian French immersion programmes), there are also findings that even after twelve years classroom immersion programmes some learners' productive skills remain "far from native-like, particularly with respect to grammatical competence (Swain 1991).
4. Some L1-L2 contrasts, such as grammaticality of the adverb-placement between verb and direct object in French (L1), but its ungrammaticality in English (He closed quickly the door), appear to be unlearnable from positive evidence alone (i.e. from exposure to input). It may be possible to get the message across with a grammatically incorrect utterance or sentence without communication breakdown, but the learner will not become aware of the grammar error. Thus, according to Long, positive evidence may show the learner what is grammatically correct but not what is ungrammatical.
5. Long believes that comprehensible L2 input is necessary but not sufficient (cf. Sheen & O'Neill 2005).

Focus on Form (Long's (1997) Option 3; Oxford's (2006) Possible task goal B)

Long (1997:8) asserts that both the extreme interventionist focus on forms and the non-interventionist focus on meaning have flaws. Advocates of one see flaws of the other as justifications of their own. Long's third option, which he terms 'focus on form' (as opposed to focus on formS), attempts to encapsulate the strengths of the analytic approach while dealing with its limitations. This option draws attention to linguistic elements in context as they arise incidentally in lessons whose main focus is on meaning, or communication. The temporary shifts in focus or attention are triggered by learners' comprehension or production problems. The purpose is to encourage 'noticing' (see footnote 30, page 30), that is, registering forms in the input so as to store them in the memory (and according to Long, not necessarily understanding their meaning or function). "[F]ocus on form, therefore, is learner-centred in a radical, psycholinguistic sense: it respects the learner's internal syllabus. It is under learner control: it occurs just when he or she has a communication problem, and is likely already, at least partially, to understand the meaning or function of the new form,

when he or she is attending to the input". Such conditions would by most be considered as optimal for learning – "the psycholinguistic equivalent of worker control of the means of production. Salaberry (2001: 105, cited by Oxford 2006) succinctly sums up focus on form as follows: "Three major components define a focus on form...[:] (a) it can be generated by the teacher or the learner(s), (b) it is generally incidental (occasional shift of attention) and (c) it is contingent on learners' needs (triggered by perceived problems)".

A different focus on form occurs when the forms are preselected for tasks, rather than arising from learners' needs (Salaberry 2001, adapted from Johnson 1996). Salaberry points out that this alternative focus on form is found particularly in communication-oriented textbooks, where a focus on meaning comes first, followed by a focus on form. With regard to language writing materials, it is important to note that constraints of textbook tasks cause preselection of forms to occur, thus reducing the possibility of spontaneous and incidental focus on form. The goal in the preplanned focus on form model is to focus on preselected forms related to meaning-oriented tasks (Salaberry 2001: 106).

On a practical level, the language educator cannot always look at grammar in a spontaneous and incidental way. Sometimes the repetition of the same kind of error needs to be addressed in a more structured way. Thus, an educator needs to be flexible - and in order to accommodate different learning styles a coursebook or textbook needs to offer a variety of activities (which have been preselected) to address a particular common error. O'Neill (2000: 6) argues in support of inclusion of form:

> Generative competence – the ability to use underlying syntax and structure – is one of the foundations of communicative competence. Without it, there is no pragmatic competence worth talking about. The question 'Is form as important as meaning?' is fundamentally mistaken. Form is part of meaning. It matters whether I say "If I have time to see you" or "If I had time, I would see you" just as it matters whether I say "The man attacked the woman" or "The woman attacked the man".

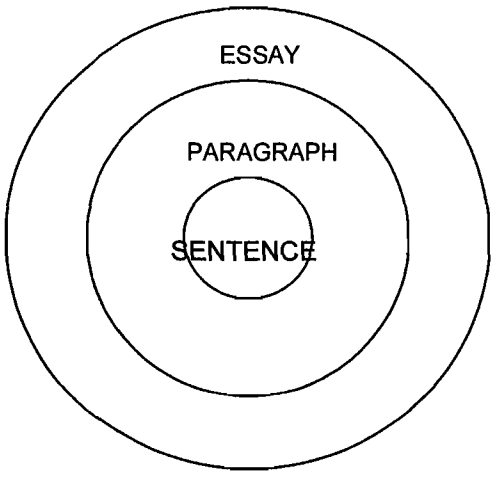
Sheen and O'Neill (2005: 268) strongly reject the strong version of CLT (SCLT) based on the premise that exposure to comprehensible input is sufficient to trigger incidental learning without the need for pedagogical grammatical guidance. They assert that "by the mid 1980s it had become increasingly evident that such learning did not develop

into accurate acquisition". Nor do they agree with Long and Porter (1985) when they proposed that comprehensible input needed to be experienced during interaction. This too, according to them (Sheen and O'Neill 2005: 269), did not provide evidence that interaction resulted in accurate acquisition of grammar nor that focus on form is the most instructional option. Nor do they (2005: 269) find evidence of the success of peripheral aspects such as 'awareness', 'attention', 'input enhancement', 'noticing' and others. In terms of language activities that are comprehensible, O'Neill (2000: 2) asserts that difficult structures should be located in contexts that give that language saliency and which also helps learners to infer meaning.

This lack of clear evidence would suggest that materials designers follow an pluralistic approach and expose their target learners to a variety of activities addressing a limited number of items in as suggested by Weaver, McNally and Moerman (2001) below; and do so in context as suggested by Anderson (2006).

Weaver, McNally and Moerman (2001: 18) suggest that teaching a limited number of grammatical concepts in the context of their use is far better in getting students to appreciate and use grammatical options and conventions more effectively than isolated grammar study. Anderson (2006: 29) explains by means of a diagram (Fig. 4.1) what teaching grammar in context involves (not to be confused with teaching English within a certain context and working with the culture of a certain context, for instance) and what he calls "zooming in and zooming out".

FIGURE 4.1: *Zooming In and Zooming Out* (Anderson 2006: 29)



By "zooming in and zooming out" Anderson means that grammar is sometimes explained in the context of an essay, sometimes in the context of a paragraph or sometimes in a sentence or even a part of a sentence – moving to or from a smaller chunk of writing to a larger chunk or vice versa is the act of zooming in or zooming out. It works well in combination with scaffolding (see section 4.3 on scaffolding in chapter 4).

Long's option 3, with its balance between fluency and accuracy in the teaching of English, when applied to English teaching and learning materials, is most likely to benefit learners receiving impoverished input inside and outside the classroom. Materials adapted to the teaching context can provide guidelines to assist the learners who wish to improve their proficiency autonomously.

All the varied responses to the focus on meaning/ form/ forms should urge educators and materials developers to keep in mind Canale and Swain's model of communicative competence (modified by Canale 1983; cf. also Alptekin 2002: 57-58) and strike a balance in the lessons and the materials between the four competencies: grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competencies (see chapter 3, section 3.4.2 for the definitions). These are possibly best taught through writing practice and presenting models of good writing in reading and comprehension passages and not ignoring the need for accuracy in the workplace.

The editorial of a legal journal points out the apparent general lack of functional literacy of law graduates, who according to the Department of Justice Director-General are unable to draw up affidavits and briefs. This, the editor of *De Rebus*, Van der Merwe (2007), declares, is because students, even the ones who have achieved good results, cannot write essays. "Yet writing is an essential professional skill in almost every branch of legal practice" (Van der Merwe 2007). (In fact, written communication is essential to all professions.) While these shortcomings may have their origins at school (primary and secondary) level, he believes they need to be addressed at tertiary and postgraduate levels as well.

4.5 AUTONOMY IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

There are three components to the language classroom, namely, the teacher, the learner, and the materials. Traditionally, the content of the class, that is, what is talked about, comes from the teacher or the material (Hall 2001: 232). The current approaches to language learning, the communicative approach and OBE, advocate learner-centredness. In terms of teaching and learning material, learners themselves are in a unique position to identify resource material that is relevant, because they best know what their own needs and interests are. Making materials learner-centred encourages autonomy in the learner. Clarke (1989: 134), for example, supports learner involvement in determining what happens in the classroom. Language learners' contributions should be considered in terms of the following principles:

1. learner commitment;
2. learners as materials writers and collaborators;
3. learners as problem solvers;
4. learners as 'knowers'; and
5. learners as evaluators and assessors.

This study attempts to involve the learners and invite their contributions, as listed above, in the design of the ENGL131 and ENGL132 materials.

Another important reason for encouraging autonomy in learners is because of the large classes it is difficult to assist each learner with his/her language problems. The workbook thus applies the strategy of scaffolding in order "for the student to become an independent and self-regulating learner and problem solver" (Hartman 2002, cited in Van der Stuyf 2002). The ENGL131 and ENGL132 coursebooks enable the educator to provide the basis or the scaffolding upon which the learner then, independently, builds further knowledge.

4.5.1 THE BACKGROUND TO AUTONOMOUS LANGUAGE LEARNING

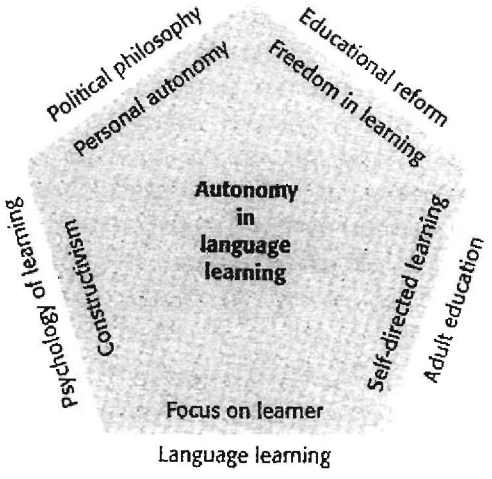
Benson (2001: 7) points out that second language acquisition precedes institutionalised learning or formal instruction by many centuries. Many people have learnt a second or foreign language informally. The modern theory of autonomy in language learning, which has developed over three decades, is concerned with the organisation of institutionalised learning. The theory of autonomy was also influenced by constructivist theories of learning which hold that "knowledge cannot be taught but

must be constructed by the learner" (Candy 1991: 252) – a belief contained in the thought of theorists such as Rousseau, Dewey, Freire and Rogers.

Early interest in the concept of autonomy, specifically in language education, was partly a response to ideals and expectations generated by the political turmoil in Europe in the late 1960s (Gremmo and Riley 1995: 152). The concept became known through work of the Council of Europe's Modern Languages Project. An outcome of this project was the establishment of the *Centre de Recherches et d'Applications en* Langues (CRAPEL). The founder of CRAPEL, Yves Châlon, is viewed as the father of autonomy in language learner (Benson 2001:7). The approach to autonomy in language learning at CRAPEL was influenced by research and practice in the field of adult[11] self-directed learning (Benson 2001: 33) which focuses on the processes of learning outside the context of formal education. From there, the idea of fostering autonomy has spread into language education.

Figure 4.2 below shows the various influences on the theory of autonomy in language learning.

Figure 4.2: *Major influences on the theory of autonomy in language learning* (Taken from Benson 2001: 22).



Major influences on the theory of autonomy in language learning

[11] Candy (1991), a researcher into adult education and lifelong learning connects self-directed learning with the nineteenth century interest in self-improvement and self-education.

4.5.2 ASSOCIATED CONCEPTS

In the language learning literature, the concept of independent learning or learning on one's own is referred to by different terms relating to autonomy. Among these are terms such as self-directed learning and self-access learning.

Benson (2001: 110) explains that *autonomy* is generally defined as "the capacity to take control over one's own learning". He makes a distinction between autonomy as an attribute of a learner and autonomous learning as a mode of learning, and educational practices[12] designed to foster autonomy. Benson (2001) is of the view that autonomy cannot be taught or learned and therefore treats autonomy primarily as an attribute of a learner. This implies that in the context of this study one of the objectives of a workbook should be to influence the attitude of the students to learning English – to encourage them to take responsibility or control of their own English language learning. Giving them exercises to do on their own will not be sufficient; a student must want to work on his/her own.

Linking autonomy to autonomous learning, Benson (2001: 110) defines *autonomous learning* as learning in which the learner's capacity for autonomy is exercised and displayed. It is demonstrated in various modes of learning, characterised by certain procedures and relationships between learners and teachers. He points out that "participation in self-directed modes of learning does not necessarily imply that the learner is autonomous". This supports his view that it is the learner's attitude which determines whether autonomous learning takes place; and that to give him work to do independently will not on its own encourage autonomy.

Another term related to autonomy and autonomous learning is *self-directed learning*. A specialist in adult education, Knowles (1975: 18; cited in Benson 2001: 33), defines self-directed learning as

> In its broadest meaning, 'self-directed learning' describes a process in which individuals take the initiative, with or without the help of others, in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating learning goals, identifying human and material resources for learning, choosing and implementing appropriate learning strategies, and evaluating learning outcomes.

[12] Benson (2001: 110) refers to *practice* as "a particular way of organising the process of teaching and learning. In this sense, self-access and learner training are examples of practices that may involve different modes of learning depending on the ways in which they are implemented."

Self-directed learning, or then, autonomous learning, involves self-accessing learning materials. Self-access acts as a support to self-directed learning. The first self-access language learning centres were built on the idea that access to a rich collection of second language materials would offer learners the best opportunity for experimentation with self-directed learning. *Self-access* is defined as a way of describing materials that are designed and organised in such a way that students can select and work on tasks on their own" (Sheerin 1991: 143).

The distinction between autonomy and self-directed learning may be confusing. Benson (2001: 34) explains that self-directed learning (in North American adult education) defines "a broad field of inquiry into the processes of non-institutional learning". Self-directed learning, in this field, tends to be viewed as the learner's overall capacity to carry out such learning effectively. Autonomy refers to the particular personal or moral qualities associated with this capacity. In short, in terms of language learning, autonomy is an attribute of the learner and self-directed learning is a particular mode of learning in which the learner makes the important decisions about content, methods and evaluation. Autonomy is therefore the capacity a learner possesses; and self-directed learning is that which learners can do according to the degree that they possess the capacity.

In the context of the modules in this study, autonomy - whether as a learner attribute, a mode of learning and an educational practice - is essential. Students need to take control of their own learning either because the classes are large and students seldom receive individual attention, or because they have diverse English language abilities and have to either catch up with their peers or proceed on their own. Some students are more inclined to be pro-active in their learning, but the appropriate kind of language teaching material should nudge even an indifferent learner to try and work independently. The language exercises should attempt to promote the desire in the student to self-access additional material or information[13] – this links up with the principles of outcomes-based education which state that learners should be able access information and literacies.

The communicative techniques of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT),

[13] Self-access material and the evaluation of it can be a study on its own. See Reichers and Lewis (2006): An evaluative checklist for self-access materials.

according to Sarwar (1999: 201), include the concept of *individualisation*. Benson (2001: 11) advances that the concept of autonomy is closely associated with the concept of individualisation as evidenced by the studies of Altman and James (1980), Brookes and Grundy (1988), and Geddes and Sturtridge (1982). It is suggested that autonomy and individualisation are associated because they are both linked to the concept of learner-centredness. Brookes and Grundy (1988: 1) suggest that

> one corollary of learner-centredness[14] is that individualisation will assume greater importance, as will the recognition of the autonomy of the learner as the ultimate goal.

These two concepts overlap insofar as both are about meeting the needs of individual learners.

The term *individualisation* covers such diverse-seeming topics as one-to-one teaching, home study, individualised instruction, self-access facilities, self-directed or autonomous learning and a learner-centred approach (Sarwar 1999; Geddes and Sturtridge 1982; Riley 1988). According to Sarwar (1999:202) and Riley (1988: 31), it encompasses a learner-centred approach to language and takes special note of ethnolinguistic aspects of language learning, in which the autonomous role of the learner is coloured by his "second language self-image" and the teacher learner roles prevalent in his sociolinguistic sphere. The association between individualisation and autonomy was criticised because early on individualisation implied that a learner worked in isolation. However, researchers on autonomy have more recently emphasised that "the development of autonomy necessarily implies collaboration and interdependence" (Benson 2001: 12).

For this study, individualisation (implying independent learning) and autonomy (including collaboration and interdependence) as described above, may be regarded as important criteria because a student will at times work on his/her own and sometimes in collaboration with other students, especially in the large UniLim English classes. These strategies are inevitable in large classes in which there will be a variety of learning styles. Language learning materials should attempt to cater for such a variety. This study prefers to view individualisation as defined by Sarwar (1999: 202; see above) which includes one-to-one teaching, home study, individualised

[14] Learner-centredness is part of the communicative approach to language learning and teaching. Cf. the section on CLT (section 3.4), in the previous chapter.

instruction, self-access facilities, self-directed or autonomous learning, a learner-centred approach, instead of focussing on Benson's distinction of individualisation meaning the isolation of the student. Sarwar's approach to individualisation is appropriate for the target group of this study because it relates to autonomous learning and multilevel large classes, and because it is applied to large classes of 100+ learners. Sarwar (1999: 202) uses the basic assumptions about language learning made by Logan (1980, cited in Sarwar 1999: 202) and Altman (1980) to validate the use of individualisation in teaching English language in large classes, in which learners need exposure to language learning, activities to build confidence, and a learner-centred approach to build rapport between teacher and learners.

Logan's (1980, cited in Sarwar 1999: 202) assumptions which call for individualisation in the language classroom are:

- There will be different learning styles
- Instructional materials can vary because people can learn form different sources
- Teachers can be facilitators instead of preachers – direct teaching is not essential
- A variety of learning activities can take place at the same time
- Learners learn a second language for different reasons

These descriptors are covered in Altman's (1980) tenets that characterise a language teaching method as individualised, namely:

- A syllabus that meets the needs, abilities and interests of each learner
- Goals, means, and expectations personalised for each learner
- Teaching methods tailored to the needs of the learners

The diverse learning styles, language abilities make it impossible to have a tailor-made syllabus and therefore language learning materials for each learner. It means that learners have to be offered a variety of optional activities (Sarwar 1999: 203); and made aware of the importance of taking control of their own learning.

Altman (1980; cited in Sarwar 1999) proffers "3 Rs of Individualisation": *reeducation*, *responsibility*, *relevance*. Sarwar adds another R: *rapport*. These 4 R's are meant to

be the individualisation applied in the language classroom and are, according to Sarwar (1999:2030), essential to the large classroom.

Reeducation: This element is described as changing the teacher-learner roles. The teacher becomes the facilitator and the learner the active agent in the learning process. Sarwar points out that this is especially important in the Pakistani context where the teachers and learners are used to the traditional roles of the teacher lecturing and the student being the passive learner. This would apply to the context of this study too, because despite of the new system of outcomes-based education, lecturers at the University of Limpopo still find it difficult to get students to participate in class (2006 personal interview with staff teaching in the Faculty of Humanities and Management Sciences).

Responsibility: Responsibility implies that the learner takes control of his/her own learning. This is often difficult for a student used to rote learning (which is frequently done for a second language). Such students lack the confidence to attempt learning on their own. A coursebook should provide tasks that students should monitor themselves.

Relevance: Global textbooks often contain material which is irrelevant to the student's world. (See discussion on *Culture* further on in this chapter). To encourage autonomous learning, and specifically individualisation, relevance means finding contexts of learning that are meaningful to the students.

Rapport: Sarwar (1999:203) points out that classroom management of a class with more than a hundred students is challenging for any teacher and that an atmosphere conducive to learning can only be built up through good rapport. She also recommends "humanising" [15]a large class. Tomlinson (2003:162,163) describes language materials that need to be "humanised" as materials that do not engage the learners because the materials do not connect to the learners' lives. He recommends that such materials be replaced with "more humanistic materials which involve the learners in gaining and reflecting on experience" (their own experiences).

[15] The concept of "humanizing" the classroom is taken up by Brian Tomlinson in Chapter 9:'Humanising the Coursebook' in his book *Developing Materials for Language Teaching* (2003:162-173).

Sarwar (1999:203) contends that by applying the above four principles one could individualise a large class as well as the learning tasks.

4.5.3 AUTONOMOUS BEHAVIOUR

Considering the various terms described above it is clear that autonomy in language learning is not "a single, easily describable behaviour" (Little 1990: 7). Little (1990: 8) goes on to state what autonomy is not:

- It is not a synonym for self-instruction; therefore autonomy is not learning without a teacher.
- In the context of the classroom, it does not demand the abdication of responsibility by the teacher; that is, it does not leave the learners to work on their own without guidance.
- Autonomy is not a teaching method.
- It is not a fixed state achieved by learners.

Although autonomy may be recognised in a variety of forms, it is basically described in terms of control, whether it is measurable and how it differs according to cultural context. Holec's (1981: 3) definition is one of the earliest definitions of autonomy. He declares autonomy as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning". By taking charge he means "to have and to hold responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of this learning". This implies that an autonomous learner makes all the significant decisions about the management and organisation of his/her learning, thus directing the course of his/ her own learning. Little (1991: 4) and Benson (2001: 49) argue that Holec's definition is inadequate. It does not make the cognitive factors involved in autonomy clear enough. Little (1991: 4) defines autonomy as

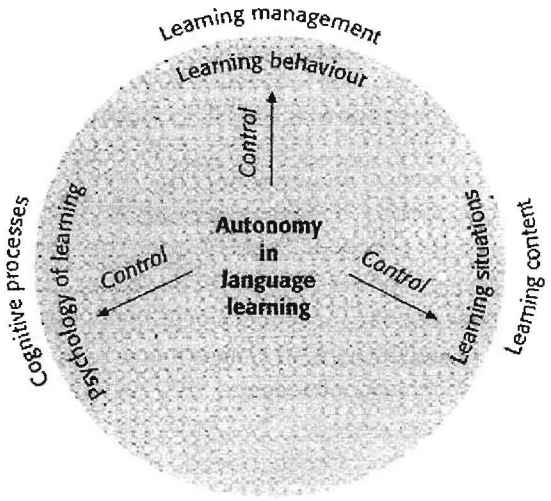
> a capacity – for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action. It presupposes, but also entails, that the learner will develop a particular kind of psychological relation to the process and content of his learning. The capacity for autonomy will be displayed both in the way the learner learns and in the way he or she transfers what has been learned to wider contexts.[16]

Benson feels that Holec and Little have covered but a part of the nature of autonomy. Benson (2001: 49) emphasises that autonomous learners should, in principle, have the freedom to determine their own goals and purposes if the learning is to be self-

[16] In discussion with colleagues who teach literature this very capacity is lacking in many of our first year English students. They appear unable to transfer what they have learnt to wider contexts.

directed – that is, have control. He, however, realises that any definition that attempts to cover every potential aspect of control may become too long for practical use. Autonomy in language learning should acknowledge the importance of three levels at which learner control may be exercised, namely, learning management, cognitive processes, and learning content. Benson (see Figure 4.3, below) best illustrates the interdependence of the different levels which are emphasised to different degrees by researchers and practitioners. The three levels indicated in the figure are interdependent. As stated by Benson (2001: 50), "Effective learning management depends upon the control of the cognitive processes necessarily involved in learning, while control of cognitive processes necessarily has consequences for the self-management of learning".

Figure 4.3: *Defining autonomy: the capacity to take control over learning* (Benson 2001: 50).



For the purpose of research, autonomy should be able to be measured. Nunan (2001: 92) asserts that autonomy is not "an all-or-nothing concept". It is a matter of degree. Holec (1988: 8, cited by Benson 2001: 51) asserts that autonomy is a capacity and the possession of a capacity does not necessarily mean that it will be exercised. This links up with Benson's standpoint that autonomy is an attitude. A student may be encouraged to be autonomous or work independently but whether he/ she will is his/ her decision – and so some students will be more autonomous than others.

4.5.4 SCAFFOLDING (also see 4.3 above)

Scaffolding is a teaching strategy which encourages autonomy. Language learning involves the development of new skills. This has both a psychological and social dimension. The psychological dimension entails the extent to which an individual is ready to perform a new skill (Ellis 2003: 179-182). The skills a learner already has form the basis for the ones still to be acquired (cf. Krashen's (1982) Input hypothesis – I + 1[17]).

4.6 LARGE MULTILEVEL CLASSES, AUTONOMY AND INDIVIDUALISATION

At UniLim the ENGL131 and ENGL132 modules are taught to large groups (see Chapter 2). Since the modules have to be taught to groups of 50 to 120 learners by eight staff members, the issue of language teaching in large multilevel classes and how it is addressed in learning and teaching materials cannot be ignored. Large classes pose problems with discipline and class management; and educators of these large classes (in the case of this study, classes of anything between 60 and 130 students) may feel nervous, uncomfortable and self-conscious before so many pairs of eyes. The assessment of oral and written work is arduous, time-consuming and debilitating. It is also difficult to develop rapport between educator and students and opportunities for individual attention are few. (Most large classes are multilevel classes. This increases the need for individualisation and for autonomous learning.) In addition, because there is summative assessment at the end of the module, materials need to provide uniformity of content for a team of teachers all teaching the same module to large classes because all those classes will eventually write the same examination.

4.6.1 DEFINITION OF LARGE MULTILEVEL CLASSES

There are different views as to what a large class represents. Hess (2001) defines a large class for the purpose of her book *Teaching Large Multilevel Classes* as consisting of 30 and more learners, although she admits that there are classes around the world with more than sixty students and even up to 600. This study defines a large class as one of fifty or more learners or students per class. A large class is

[17] Briefly, Krashen's input hypothesis submits people 'acquire' language best by understanding input that is slightly beyond their current level of competence. A language 'acquirer' can move **from** a stage 1 (where **I** is the acquirer's level of competence) **to** a stage I + 1 (where I + 1 is the stage immediately following **I** along some natural order) by understanding language containing **I + 1** (Krashen & Terrell 1983: 32).

multilevel because students differ in language acquisition ability, age, motivation, intelligence, self-discipline, literacy skills, attitude, interest and social background (Hess 2001: 1). In a class of thirty it is still fairly possible to get to know all the students' backgrounds, and names, their language needs and to give individual attention to those students with higher English language proficiency and those with very poor English language proficiency. This, however, becomes increasingly impossible if the class consists of 60 to 130 students – the classes in which, as described by Hess (2001: 2), teaching becomes more arduous, more exhausting, infinitely more demanding and infinitely more challenging – and more interesting because of the different perspectives, personalities and cultures (although interest wanes with increase in exhaustion). Hess (2001: 2-4) points out that there are benefits to these classes, such as that there are always enough students for interaction, there is a rich variety of human resources, the educator is not the only pedagogue, educators do not get bored, and there is the opportunity for professional development. Professional development is particularly the case in the context of this study. The group of educators teaching or facilitating the modules are compelled to constantly find better ways to set up or approach classroom and workshop activities. Unfortunately an institution's management seldom acknowledges the work of staff who handle these large multilevel classes. If the teaching staff appear to be coping, the management of an institution seldom sees fit to increase the staff complement, even if educators are overwhelmed by the management of a large class and the large amount of assessment tasks. While recognizing the various advantages of large multilevel classes, especially in terms of the development of alternative English Second Language teaching and learning methodologies, the researcher[18] has found that the challenges usually outweigh the advantages. Educators of classes of over sixty students frequently feel out of control (Hess 2001: 4; personal experience; personal discussions with secondary schools teachers in Limpopo and colleagues in the department). Organisation becomes extremely important. The development of the coursebooks for ENGL131 and ENGL132 were initiated for this reason – to help the educators maintain a certain amount of control and also to present unity of content, as

[18] The researcher has been responsible for the administration of large groups, that is 700 to 1000 learners per module, for about fifteen years. Amongst other things, this involves splitting the large group into smaller groups to be taught by the whole department – that is, teaching and workshopping groups of 60 to 130 multilevel students – besides the logistical nightmare of obtaining sufficient venues at times that will be suitable for learners from the different disciplines and faculties. The administrative duties involved with such a large group detract from teaching.

well as to have as uniform as possible assessment among the eight to twenty workshops that are conducted every week. Other challenges (Hess 2001: 5) are the management issues such as latecomers, checking homework assignments, excessive noise; the frustration created by the assessing of a huge amount of written work; providing for the variety of learning styles and language abilities; and getting the majority of quiet students to participate.

Latecomers distract both learners and educators in a smaller class, but even more so in a large class where it is difficult to get the attention of all sixty or a hundred learners with different levels of English comprehension. Checking homework can become a problem if the other learners are not challenged enough by a task given to them while the teacher checks the homework. Setting the level of complexity of a task or activity also becomes a problem when learners are at different levels – an activity may be difficult for some and easy to others. Those who finish the activity fast start speaking to other students and the class becomes noisy which distracts the students still busy with the activity. The noise level of 120 students is much higher and more difficult to control than that generated by 30 students. Assessing written work provides feedback for students (Hess 2001: 5) and gives the educator an indication of whether the students understand the work that was dealt with. In the context of the study, discussions with colleagues in the English department and other departments have shown that students do not always read the feedback because they are only concerned with the mark they have obtained. This adds to the frustration of educators since in-depth marking seems to be futile. (Feedback in large multilevel classes is an area requiring further research.) Most of these problems could be addressed more successfully in groups of less than 30 students. Smaller groups may not be an option because of staffing constraints, and so 'individualisation' and encouraging autonomous learning may be strategies to consider.

Hess (2001: 7-14) suggests eleven principles to cope with large multilevel classes. These should be considered when selecting activities in a coursebook. By varying the activities in terms of learning style and pace, individual and group tasks, including topics of interest for 17 to 22 year-old female and male students, questioning in such a way that responses are spontaneous and lively all contribute to a class which is more interactive and participative.

Accepting the challenges of the situation (termed Scarlett O'Hara by Hess)
Educators will find it easier to deal with the everyday challenges of their large classes with students of diverse abilities by accepting that some days will be worse than others. An educator who reflects on what type of activity worked and what type did not, and discusses teaching incidences with colleagues, will firstly find that he/she is not alone in feeling frustrated, and secondly that there are many opportunities to try out alternative approaches to both the activities and the students themselves.

Variety
When there are different learning styles, abilities and attention spans involved in teaching one specific class, a variety of activities is needed. For example, during a vocabulary lesson, one group can look up the definitions of words; another find sentences in the text in which the words appear; and yet another group can formulate new sentences. Variety is also important to prevent students from losing concentration.

Pace
Doing an activity too slowly or too fast can reduce its effectiveness, and the educator can lose control of the class because he/she may lose the attention of students because they become either bored or frustrated and disrupt the motivated students.

Interest
It is important to keep students interested in class. Few learn from a boring lesson, nor does the boring lesson stimulate participation and critical thinking. In terms of the teaching and learning materials (McGrath 2003; Tomlinson 1998, 2003) topics and activities should be chosen that interest the language learners. This encourages participation more than any other factor. Topics of interest include, for example, those which arouse learners' curiosity, tap into meaningful existential questions and touch learners' lives (Hess 2001: 10), such as family relations, relationships, music, sport, celebrities etc.

Collaboration
Collaboration entails working together and cooperating. By collaborating in class,

learners become teamplayers. They participate more, learn to compromise, negotiate meaning and become better risk-takers, and more efficient self monitors and self-evaluators. In addition, the classroom atmosphere and efficiency improve, as well as the learners' self-esteem. In a large class collaboration is essential. The educator cannot attend to the needs of each individual student. Learners therefore need to use each other as language resources. A constraint in the context of this study, is that in the ENGL131/132 classes it has been found that because the classes are large, learners are reluctant to ask questions in front of their peers. Learners also feel nervous, uncomfortable and self-conscious in front of their peers. This means that the educator needs to employ strategies to develop rapport between learners.

Examples of collaborative activities are:

- Group work in which a project is tackled together
- Pair work in which ideas are shared
- Peer reviews in which learners analyse and assess each other's work
- Jigsaw activities where each learner contributes a different aspect or section of an area of knowledge
- Collaborative writing in which learners together create a piece of writing

Individualisation (also see 4.4.3)

Hess (2001:12) points out that "individualising student work helps us to deal with the problem of finding the person in the crowd". She states that this strategy keeps everyone challenged, interested, and occupied with tasks that are not too easy or too difficult. It is important to provide learners with opportunities to work at their own pace, in their own style, and topics of their own choosing. Examples of ways to encourage individualisation are:

- portfolios
- poster reports
- self-access centres
- individual writing
- personalised dictionaries

Personalisation

It is important that learners do not feel that they are just student numbers. Large classes easily develop an atmosphere of impersonality and bureaucracy – this makes

a learner feel that his/ her opinion does not count. It is therefore essential that learners be given opportunities to share their views, special knowledge and experiences. Almost any reading or listening passage or speaking activity can be used to allow for personal input. Examples are:

- After reading about a controversial topic learners can write letters to the editor
- Mini-presentations about their hopes and dreams
- Create posters of places they have visited
- Learners can talk about someone they admire

Choice and open-endedness

Close-ended exercises allow for specific answers. In contrast, open-ended exercises allow many possibilities for choosing appropriate answers. Open-ended exercises, according to Hess (2001: 13), are more success-oriented and work well in most multi-level classes. Open-endedness promotes interest and correct pacing. Examples are:

- Giving beginnings of sentences and allowing them to be finished in an appropriate way
- Giving a set of questions allowing learners to answer a specific number of their choice
- Brainstorming
- Questions that can be answered in different ways

Setting up routines

Many personalities interact in a large class and so both the educators and the learners need the comfort and stability of established routines. Certain conventions should be established such as how attendance is checked; how students sign up for special projects, how they are notified of test dates, deadlines, special events, etc; how they check their reading progress.

Enlarging the circle

In the large classes as many students as possible should be involved in the lesson. The circle of active attention can be enlarged as follows:

- By not calling on the first learner that puts up his/ her hand but waiting until many hands are raised
- Instead of walking closer to a learner answering or talking, step back to allow

his/ her voice to carry across the room to reach more students

- By asking a question and allowing for thinking time before calling the name of a student to answer it. Silence in the classroom need not frighten us
- By not calling on students in a predictable order
- By listening carefully to learners and allowing learner-initiated topics to interrupt the lesson plan. A learner's question may be of more interest to the other learners than what the educator planned

Question the kind of questioning used

Hess (2001: 15) has found certain questions result in the liveliest responses and keep the entire class awake:

- Questions that begin with *Why*
- Requests that begin with *Could someone explain to me how...*
- Questions to which the educator does not know the answer.
- Requests for qualification or elaboration and start with *Could you please explain that*
- Questions initiated by students and moved on to the whole class by the educator.

All the above principles should be considered when designing activities or tasks for coursebooks for learners in large classes such as those in the context of this study and so get as all students actively involved in the coursebook activities, and therefore in the learning process.

4.7 MATERIALS, CULTURE AND INTERCULTURALITY

English is rapidly assuming the role of a world language. A conservative estimate is that there are approximately 570 million people in the world today who have a native or native-like command of English (Crystal 1997). No other language has spread around the globe as extensively as English; thus making it an international language.

With English being acknowledged as an international language[19] and with all that entails, there is a movement towards multicultural education (Banks & McGee-Banks

[19] Pulverness (2004) sees the term 'international language' in an entirely opposite light from the other authors. He sees it as the basis of a popular argument against the inclusion of a cultural dimension in the language classroom. I have not in my readings come across someone with a similar view of the term. Therefore in this study 'international language' will be used to entail the inclusion of the learners' culture'. Pulverness does, however, advocate intercultural awareness-raising in the classroom.

2004) or intercultural education (Pulverness 2002, 2003, 2004; Alptekin 2002, among others), brought about by the growing awareness of global context and the global implications of local actions (Pulverness 2003: 71, 2004: 426), and the diversity of cultures in the classroom – the ELT classroom, in this case. The role of English in the world, and within each culture that it comes in contact with, impacts on the teaching and learning of English in the classroom, and in turn on the development of specific language materials.

There has in recent years been a great deal of interest and activity in the development of materials and methodology for intercultural learning (Smith 1976; McKay 2000; Pulverness 2002, 2003, 2004; Alptekin 2002; Kilickaya 2004). In the South African context, the development of intercultural methodology and materials may be seen as part of 'decolonising education' (Moodley 2004: 1027-1040). This movement is, however, not confined to South Africa. A 'political consciousness' of language and culture – perhaps prompted by the concept 'linguistic imperialism' (Phillipson 1993) - echoes in many ESL classrooms in the world of non-native speakers of English.

With regard to the relationship between culture and an international language, Smith (1976: 18) asserts that:

- Learners of an international language do not need to internalise the cultural norms of native speakers of that language
- The ownership of an international language becomes de-nationalised
- The educational goal of learning an international language is to enable learners to communicate their ideas and culture to others

The implication of English taking on the role of international language is that "no nation can have custody over it" (Widdowson 1994: 385). He adds,

> to grant such custody of the language, is necessarily to arrest its development and so undermine its international status. It is a matter of considerable pride and satisfaction for native speakers of English that their language is an international means of communication. But the point is that it is only international to the extent that it is not their language. It is not a possession which they lease out to others, while still retaining the freehold. Other people actually own it.

If English as an international language does not belong to a single culture then it would seem that it is not necessary for language learners to acquire knowledge about the culture of those that speak it as native language (McKay 2000: 7). Smith's (1976:

18) assertions would thus have validity, in particular the one about sharing or communicating ideas and culture. McKay (2000: 7) submits that this may mean that it is not necessary for language learners to acquire knowledge about the culture of those who speak it as a native language. This may be extreme. To understand 'native speakers' way of doing or saying things'[20] or understand and master the idiom of the target language and cultural information embedded in phrases, it is often necessary to understand the culture or the history of the target language (in this case, English). However, at the same time, individual learners enter the language classroom with their own socially constructed beliefs, values, and volitions – justifying the inclusion of the learners' culture in the English language classroom. Making the language classroom intercultural acknowledges the learners' contributions to the language learning process.

Learners are not isolated individuals in the classroom and, therefore, if culture is "a social construct, the product of self and others' perceptions" (Kramsch 1993: 205), then it is inescapably part of the language classroom. The view that knowledge is created through the discourses of social communities has its roots in the learning theory of Vygotsky, that is, social constructivism. Social constructivism is a variety of cognitive constructivism that emphasises the collaborative nature of much learning. "All the higher functions originate as actual relationships between individuals" (Vygotsky 1978: 57). According to Vygotsky (1978: 57), human cognitive structures are essentially socially constructed. Knowledge is not simply constructed, but co-constructed.

Kramsch (1993) delineates three lines of thought concerning the teaching of language and culture.

1. *Establishing a sphere of interculturality*: this view promotes the idea that the learning of culture is more than merely the transfer of information between cultures. It is rather the contemplation of one's own culture in relation to another. The process of learning about another culture involves reflection on one's own culture as well as on the target culture.

[20] An interesting article with regard to problems with intercultural communication is: Woodman, G. 2005. Designing online training materials for German-British intercultural encounters. *Folio*, 9 (2):17-22. The German directness in contrast to the more indirect British way contributes to misunderstandings or gives offence which is not intended. This kind of situation can happen in many 'mixed-culture' contexts.

2. *Teaching culture as an interpersonal process*: this approach stresses that learning about a culture is not just about a presentation of facts but rather a process of trying to understand 'foreignness' or 'otherness'.
3. *Teaching culture as difference*: this view of culture highlights the fact that national identities are not monolithic. Within each culture there is a variety of characteristics that are related to age, gender, regional origin, ethnic background, and social class.

McKay (2000: 8) submits that central to the notion of an international language is that one learns the language to be able "to communicate aspects of one's own culture to others". Therefore for learners and educators to establish a "sphere of interculturality" (Kramsch 1993), is to reflect on their own culture in relation to other cultures. The focus of culture as part of language teaching is the need to understand a particular culture from the perspective of members of that culture. Kramsch (1993: 231) says:

> Through dialogue and the search for each other's understanding, each person tries to see the world through the other's eyes without losing sight of him or himself. The goal is not a balance of opposites, or a moderate pluralism of opinions, but a paradoxical, irreducible confrontation that may change one in the process.

Interculturalism entails the knowing about a culture (i.e. gaining cultural competence), but does not mean that one has to behave according to the conventions of that culture (accepting the culture) (Kramsch 1993). Byram (1998) distinguishes between *interculturism* and *biculturism*. He defines interculturism as assuming "a knowledge of, *rather* than acceptance of, another culture" – which is preferable because the learner does not give up his own culture. *Biculturalism* according to Byram (1998), is an individual identifying with and accepting the beliefs, values, and practices of another culture. For some learners the goal of acquiring a second or foreign language is to explain their own culture to others in English, but not accept the English culture and thus become *bilingual*. This differs from *biculturism*. It is possible to become bilingual without becoming bicultural. Thus it is acceptable, and in this study preferable, to choose coursebook activities in English, but related to the students' own cultural context, particularly for first-entering students. By looking at, speaking about and writing about one's own culture and mother tongue in another language makes one see one's own culture afresh – obtain a new worldview. Byram (1989: 137; 1990: 19) describes it as the "modification of monocultural awareness".

Significant for materials writers in choosing culture-related texts or tasks, are the four levels of culture described by Adaskou, Britten, and Fahsi (1990, cited by McKay 2000:8):

1. An *aesthetic sense* – in which a language is associated with the literature, film, and music of a particular country.
2. A *sociological sense* – in which a language is linked to the customs and institutions of a country.
3. A *semantic sense* – in which a culture's conceptual system is articulated in that language.
4. A *pragmatic sense* – in which cultural norms influence which language, is appropriate for which contexts.

These are necessary to consider when selecting written and visual texts for use in the classroom. Another factor to bear in mind is that texts that are appropriate for or accepted by urban learners may not always be suitable for rural students who may be more traditional and find 'global' texts foreign, that is, difficult to relate to or engage with. As Pulverness (2004: 2) states, most materials writers adopt the conventional strategy to begin a language learning book with, namely, the equipping students with the basic routines of introducing themselves: "For any kind of interpersonal encounter it makes sense to start with the 'I' " – that is, the known, the familiar, the own culture. This perspective, he declares "can be extended to quite a high level of competence in terms of representing the learner's own culture to others – becoming, in effect, 'ambassadors' of their own culture". This also makes the language classroom and its tasks more meaningful because the learner wants to communicate familiar information.

Another consideration for materials writers is the question of which culture to teach and therefore what type of materials to use. Cortazzi and Jin (1999) suggest three types of cultural information that can be used in textbooks or general language teaching materials.

1. *Target culture materials* which use the culture of a country where English is spoken as a first language.
2. *Source culture materials* which draw on the learners' own culture as content.

3. *International target culture materials* that use a variety of cultures in English and non-English-speaking countries around the world.

Another distinction can be made according to the learners' level. During the first year of tertiary studies students encounter the demands of 'academic culture and the academic language register. The texts and topics used in the first year of English could be more source culture materials – the known and familiar. This can progressively be changed to more international target culture materials from the second year onwards. Which texts and tasks to include in course materials, depends on the background and goals of the learners and the teacher. Ultimately, the focus is giving knowledge, not suggesting that learners accept particular values and beliefs (McKay 2000: 11). Some learners will wish to become bilingual, as defined above. Others will want to become bicultural. Both needs should be accommodated according to the dynamics of the classroom. This may lead to the development of integrated language and culture materials (Pulverness 2003: 427).

With regard to English and the language classroom in Africa, English may be regarded as a second language in urban school settings because the learners have a greater exposure to English in a natural setting. Learners in rural schools, in contrast, may experience English as a foreign language because they have hardly any exposure to English, and therefore little opportunity to use the language. This is the case for many students at UniLim. This has also been noted by Cleghorn and Rollnick (2002: 350) in the African contexts they have studied.

Cleghorn and Rollnick (2002: 351) also examine teaching and learning (specifically, language in the science and mathematics classroom in Africa) from a sociocultural Vygotskian (1978, 1986) perspective; that is, teaching and learning in terms of linking social action with cognition. They endorse the principal goal of education stated by Wells (1999: 335), which provides:

> An environment in which students, however diverse their background, engage collaboratively in productive, purposeful activities which enable them to take over the culture's toolkit of skills, knowledge and values so that they are able to participate effectively in the practices of the larger society.

The Vygotskian perspective draws attention to the close connection among language, meaning making, and practice, as well as to the complex role that the language educator must play "in guiding learners through the many different cultural, linguistic,

and cognitive borders that they encounter in the school setting" – particularly a school setting in which a former colonial language is the language of instruction. This raises the question (similar to those raised by McKay above) as to which culture's 'toolkit' of skills, knowledge and values should be used. Another question asked by Cleghorn and Rollnick (2002: 351) is what the nature is of the borders that need to be crossed by "an African student who has one name at school and another at home, one type of dress at school and another for home, one language for school and another for home, and for whom one type of behaviour is acceptable at school and another is acceptable at home?" They point out that such a student becomes two people. Schooling everywhere (and for that matter life – the private and the public) requires a kind of border crossing (from not knowing to knowing, for instance), and the borders are more obvious in non-Western school settings.

Although Cleghorn and Rollnick (2002) are concerned primarily with language in science, the arguments they offer are equally applicable to the English language classroom, particularly with regard to what is termed *border crossing*. They refer to early work by Heath (1983) which shows that learning through two languages fosters the ability to operate in two different forms of social practice. This makes border crossing (Jegede & Aikenhead 1999; Cobern 1996, 1998) possible – that is, the ability to shift cognitively as well as culturally from one world view to another. (World view, according to Cobern (1998), refers to culturally embedded presuppositions about the natural world – a fundamental organisation of the mind, a way of looking and understanding.) These two concepts are useful for understanding the adaptation of learners to school in light of the home culture and other variables mentioned.

Cleghorn and Rollnick (2002: 366) recommend that teacher education needs to incorporate the notion of border crossing (cross-cultural perspective) so that they assist educators in "expand[ing] their mediating roles to include that of cultural broker". This is crucial because "[t]he concept of border crossing joins the cognitive with the social, illuminating the importance of understanding the possible conflict between world views that learners, as well as teachers, may experience as they move from home to school and back again". Learners need this kind of intervention to move more comfortably among their different worlds.

As mentioned above, the distance between worlds may be small in some urban settings; or it may be great in rural areas making learning difficult, making the transition difficult. This again raises the question "Whose toolkit of skills, knowledge, and values, that is, whose culture, is to be acquired?"

What does become clear is that if the educator is from a different culture than the learners he/she should make an effort to learn about the learners' culture (as much as the learner learns about the culture of English) and so understand their responses to a lesson or a text. The communicative approach is not always successful – learners often do not spontaneously participate (cf. Chapter 3, section 3.4.4). A possible explanation could be rooted in traditional culture and the norms governing interaction between young people and adults (Shumba 1999, 1999b; Cleghorn & Rollnick 2002). Shumba (1999: 336) explains:

> Normal behaviour requires observing and respecting the linear hierarchy in which younger members have lesser privilege to query, criticise, and contribute to decision making, children who are inquisitive are often chided for being too clever. Although natural physical causes are accepted to explain some experiences, there is always belief in underlying causes of a mystical nature.

This explains why young children and even tertiary learners in some African cultures tend not to ask why things happen the way they do. Such societal norms also influence educators' teaching styles as well as educator-learner relations in the classroom. Not participating in class may be out of respect for the authority figure of the educator and not only because of shyness, nervousness or not knowing the answer.

Noteworthy is a comment by Cleghorn and Rollnick (2002: 357), suggesting that if learners' prior knowledge of a topic is embedded in traditional knowledge that is not brought into the classroom, only a form of *collateral learning* (Jegede 1995) may take place. "Collateral learning refers to the extent to which learners compartmentalise new knowledge alongside prior knowledge rather than integrating the two" (Cleghorn & Rollnick 2002: 357). Cobern (1998) terms this as *cognitive apartheid.* Some learners, however, become very adept compartmentalisers and perform well. Cleghorn and Rollnick (2002: 357) further point out that if what is taught in school reflects a Western form of culture often associated with English speakers and the content of the curriculum violates indigenous norms, values, and beliefs, it can be said

that English, the language of instruction, supports acculturation, if not assimilation, into another way of looking and another set of societal norms – requiring border crossing (cross-cultural perspective). This may sometimes be the choice of the individual learner, as is the conscious choice between bilingualism and biculturalism. Choice should always be an option.

Peacock, Cleghorn & Mikkila (2002) point out that the role of text materials in the educator-learner-text relationship is often left out of the discussions of language use between educators and learners. They argue that developers of text materials do not take into account the fact that the vast majority of the world's learners are learning via a language they do not use at home; and so they write as if the readers are L1 speakers of English. The following approaches to the mediation between materials and learners should be considered (Cleghorn & Rollnick 2002: 361):

- A crucial point in encouraging and enabling learners to learn independently is the way educators mediate between such materials and the learners. How educators mediate a text "depends on their content knowledge, their assumptions about the learners' abilities and prior knowledge, and their own predetermined understanding of how interaction in the classroom should occur" (Peacock *et al.* 2002: 60). These variables are what the ENGL131/132 coursebooks also have to take into account because eight staff members each teach the modules and may interpret and transmit the texts differently.
- Kress (1996: 15) indicates that texts are "potent cultural objects". Peacock (1997) confirms that it is because of this that educators should guard against not only exporting the format of the materials but also the ways that they tend to be used. Educators need to be familiar with the cultural aspects of visual literacy, both global and local, to mediate effectively between the texts and the learners. An extreme example is a visual text in the Arabic speaking countries where reading in Arabic takes place from right to left – the text could be misinterpreted if learners are not reminded to read it from left to right in the English classroom. McKay (2000: 8) gives the example of a language task about a garage sale and points out how in an Iranian setting it would be very strange to sell household items outside the house. Nor would Iranians sell pictures, especially not family pictures. Such a language task would be difficult for them to do.

- Clark (1997) and Peacock (1995) found that common words such as *observe* and *describe* caused confusion. Cleghorn and Shumba (2001, cited in Cleghorn & Rollnick 2002) remark that in Zimbabwe, the same word in Shona is used for something that is white and something that is transparent. It is important when developing materials, in L2 and multicultural settings, to pay attention to the way language and culture connect. (In Muslim classrooms certain foods are forbidden or certain western social practices are taboo. These topics are best avoided or handled very tactfully, without an educator imposing his/her beliefs.)
- Culture also appears to play an important role in learners' ability to produce written text. Cleghorn and Rollnick (2002: 361) admit there is little research but cite Caldas-Coulthard and Coulthard (1996) when suggesting that the traditional African valuation of speech over writing may impede learners' ability to write in ways that go beyond the anticipated L2-related problems of vocabulary and grammar. In a South African study, Inglis (1993) showed that written science assignments produced by one student within a week showed very different degrees of English language proficiency. Inglis (1993: 131) suggests that the quality of the writing may be related to the learner's declarative understanding of the content of the assignment. Poorly written assignments may be as a result of poor language proficiency or poor declarative knowledge[21].
- Cleghorn and Rollnick (2002: 364) stress the importance of using English in meaningful contextualisation, not to merely deliver disconnected facts.
- After taking all these points into consideration, it is important to note that, "to succeed academically, learners have to master formal language, be it the main local language, English, or another international language. The implication of

[21] Declarative knowledge is knowledge *about* something. Declarative knowledge enables a student to describe a rule of grammar and apply it in pattern practice drills. Procedural knowledge, on the other hand, is knowledge of how to do something. Procedural knowledge enables a student to apply a rule of grammar in communication. Language teachers and language learners are often frustrated by the disconnect between knowing the rules of grammar and being able to apply those rules automatically in listening, speaking, reading, and writing. This disconnect reflects a separation between declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge. Procedural knowledge does not translate automatically into declarative knowledge; many native speakers can use their language clearly and correctly without being able to state the rules of its grammar. Likewise, declarative knowledge does not translate automatically into procedural knowledge; students may be able to state a grammar rule, but consistently fail to apply the rule when speaking or writing. (http://www.nclrc.org/essentials/grammar/stratgram.htm. Date of access: 21 May 2007).

this for the current study is that while taking culture into consideration is essential, there needs to be a balance between accommodating culture and helping learners to master formal academic English.

Alptekin (2002: 63) also offers views on English as an international language and interculturalism in the language classroom. He suggests a pedagogic model to accommodate English as a means of both international and intercultural communication which will take into account the following criteria:

1. Successful bilinguals with intercultural insights and knowledge should serve as pedagogic models in English as an International Language (EIL) rather than the monolingual native speaker. (He believes the English spoken by speakers of English as a second or foreign Language to be a better example of EIL. The English of a native English speaker is not representative of EIL.)
2. Intercultural communicative competence should be developed among EIL learners by equipping them with linguistic and cultural behaviour which will enable them to communicate effectively with others, and also by equipping them with an awareness of difference, and with strategies for coping with such difference (Hyde 1998, cited by Alptekin 2002: 63).
3. The EIL pedagogy should be one of global appropriacy and local appropriation, in that it should prepare learners 'to be both global and local speakers of English and to feel at home in both international and national cultures' (Kramsch & Sullivan 1996, cited in Alptekin 2002: 63).
4. Instructional materials and activities should involve local and international contexts that are familiar and relevant to language learners' lives.
5. Instructional materials and activities should have suitable discourse samples pertaining to native and non-native speaker interactions. Discourse displaying exclusive native speaker use should be kept to a minimum, as it is is chiefly irrelevant for many learners in terms of potential use in authentic settings (Widdowson 1998, cited by Alptekin 2002: 63).

Alptekin (2002: 63) declares that "it is time for ELT to consider the implications of the international status of English in terms of appropriate pedagogies and instructional materials". The marginalisation and sometimes complete exclusion of culturally specific content in published teaching materials has also been a consequence,

according to Pulverness (2003: 426), of the 'communicative turn' taken by ELT since the late 1970s. Alptekin (2002: 59) criticises the model held up as the objective learners of English should strive to, namely the English of the native speaker. He declares that "communicative competence, with its standardised native speaker norms, is as utopian as the notion of the idealised native speaker-listener".

Materials designers need to consider the following elements when developing intercultural materials:

- Learners' language needs.
- Reconceptualisation of the view of culture by focusing on culture as a process of learning rather than an external body of knowledge to be acquired incidental to the 'facts' of language. What triggers learning is not culture but the *process of meaning generation*, and the differences and tensions that come form encountering various cultures (my emphasis) (Tseng 2002: 13). Tseng points out (2002: 14) that "any meaning we construct is a transaction between our own perspectives – developed form our past experiences in the world – and the reality of that present world". The tension between the known and the unknown, confronting and discussing it in the classroom engages the learners, generates comparisons and new perspectives which enhances the learning process.
- Topics which are culturally suitable: stereotypes and generalisations should be avoided – unless the purpose is discussion over a broad variety of examples and a particular group is not singled out. Therefore, the question must be asked whether the cultural or social groups represented in texts are stereotypes (Kilickaya 2004: 4). Sometimes these kind of texts can be used to challenge thinking about stereotypes (even educators' attitudes may be challenged).
- Is the cultural information about the source culture presented with comments which imply that the local culture is good or bad, inferior or superior? Have the cultural materials been written from a biased point of view? Not all educators may be able to deal with sensitive texts and so the materials developer may at first need to avoid 'radical' texts until everyone feels comfortable with them.[22]

[22] The researcher gave essay readings on the topic of Lobola to learners. From those readings learners had to write their own critical essays about the advantages and disadvantages of the custom. In the evaluation questionnaire on the coursebooks there were a few learners who although they were not

As mentioned above, the tension between two or three ways of 'doing things' can be used as part of the learning process by pointing out how things in different cultures may be done differently and not as an opportunity to be judgmental.

- If there are illustrations, they should be culturally appropriate (Kilickaya 2004: 4). For example, in a Muslim country one would not use illustrations depicting young women in shorts or wearing sleeveless or skimpy tops.
- Language is not simply a vehicle for conveying cultural meaning; but cultural meaning is deeply imbedded in language. Sometimes one might use examples of learners' L1. In this case translation has a place – translation tasks which perform other real-world cross-linguistic functions, such as summarising, interpreting and mediating (a key term of the Council of Europe's *Common European Framework*) (Pulverness 2004: 3).
- There is a case for taking lexical phrases as a foundation for developing socio-cultural awareness from the earliest stages of language learning (Porto 2001: 52-53). Porto explains:

> Given that lexical phrases are context-bound, and granted that contexts are culture-specific, the recurrent association of lexical phrases with certain contexts of use will ensure that the sociolinguistic ability to use the phrases in the appropriate contexts is fostered.

Interculturalism in the English language classroom and in the teaching texts contributes to humanising (cf. Tomlinson 2003: 162-173) the classroom by greater involvement of the learners and acknowledging their contributions to the teaching and learning process. Materials should emphasise diversity both within and across cultures since one could ask "Does not the culture of an international language become the world itself?" English as an international language has become part of many cultures throughout the world and thus the carrier of a diverse number of cultures, no longer just of the U.K. but of the world.

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asked about that specific topic, wrote comments that indicated that they did not like the topic. This raises the question of learner expectations of an English course. There are probably learners who do not want the content to involve their own culture, but prefer to encounter the English way. Are these learners from urban areas or schools? Were the respondents who were negative about the culture-specific topic male learners who disliked being confronted by criticism of the male view of Iobola in the readings? Did they feel that because their educator was white that she would probably view the topic in a negative light and so did not really wish to air their views before her?

4.8 CONCLUSION

ESL and SLA researchers and ESL teachers, theorists and practitioners, do not always agree with each other on the issues discussed in this chapter. Within an English department there will be disagreement about whether materials should be authentic and never simplified or adapted to the situation; whether grammar should be taught by formal instruction or implicitly, at sentence level or discourse level; or to what degree should the target culture or the source culture be included in the language materials. The learners themselves will have their own views and expectations of what constitutes good language materials. The literature indicates that there is a shift towards including the teaching of grammar and accuracy, but to do so in context. This suggests that doing so by means of tasks would be the best way. Bearing in mind the school background of the target students in the study, scaffolding would support them in the improvement of their English proficiency. This would, in turn imply that authentic material may sometimes be adapted to include scaffolding strategies. In terms of the large classes, the multilevels of the students and the principle of learner-centredness as part of OBE, CLT and TBLT, autonomy by means of language activities should be encouraged. When selecting topics or the content of activities or tasks, local culture should form a substantial part of the materials. The topics used in the materials need to keep groups of very different learners interested in the language. This is often not what educators find interesting – who are generally not from the same generation as their students.

Language which is difficult for the target group to deal with, such as academic language, should be located in contexts that give that language saliency and which also helps learners to infer meaning. The materials designer of in-house materials will need to consider all the above-mentioned issues, balanced by the input from the users of the materials. The complexity of the tasks selected will be determined by the ability of the target students and may change from time to time. (This is an advantage of the in-house coursebooks – changes can be made without much increase in costs.) With regard to the academic language needs, the modules' focus appears to be English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) rather than English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP).

The next chapter deals with different ways to evaluate language teaching and learning

materials and how to develop evaluation criteria. At the end of the chapter, a list of evaluation criteria drawn from the literature will be presented.

Chapter 5

SELECTING CRITERIA FOR MATERIALS EVALUATION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 2, the geographical, home, school, and institutional background of the typical ENGL131 and ENGL132 student were sketched in order to establish the context from which evaluation criteria for English for academic purposes (EAP) coursebooks for the modules can be drawn. Describing the target learners/ students merely as rural secondary school learners is too vague. The added descriptor 'rural' entails far more than just coming from outside urban areas. Without a clear description, urban educators, Department of Education officials, and policy-makers will tend to make decisions for rural learners based on assumptions from their own frames of reference. This applies to the Department's selection of appropriate language teaching and materials too. Their evaluation criteria will differ from those of educators involved in teaching English in the rural areas. This, in turn, has an impact on the analysis of the language learning materials and the needs analysis of the target population on which an evaluation is based. Chapters 3 and 4 examined the different approaches to ESL teaching to form the basis of the evaluation criteria.

This chapter examines the different methods that can be employed to develop evaluation criteria which will be used to judge English language learning and teaching materials. The objective of this is to develop context-appropriate evaluation criteria. A preliminary list of evaluation criteria based on the context of the target population and the key elements extracted from the literature studied will be submitted at the end of the chapter.

5.2 BACKGROUND TO MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT, ANALYSIS, AND EVALUATION

Tomlinson describes materials development as:

> both a field of study and a practical undertaking. As a field it studies the principles and procedures of the design, implementation and *evaluation* of language teaching materials. As an undertaking it involves the production, *evaluation* and adaptation of language teaching materials, by teachers for their own classrooms and by materials writers for sale or distribution. Ideally these two aspects of materials development are interactive in that the theoretical studies inform and are informed by the development and use of classroom materials (Tomlinson *et al.* 2001: 66; my emphasis).

This suggests, among other things, that materials development should find a balance

between practice and theory. Hutchinson *et al.* (1987) argues that practical considerations, as revealed by close evaluative questioning about the 'surface' of materials, must be treated jointly with theoretical factors, especially the implicit assumptions made about the mechanisms of effective language learning.

Evaluation of language learning materials is part of the process of materials selection or development. In this section, the nature and function of language learning and teaching materials, and the rationale for the analysis and evaluation of such teaching materials will be described.

5.2.1 DEFINING LANGUAGE LEARNING MATERIALS

Generally, when referring to learning and teaching materials it brings to mind the textbook[1] or the coursebook; and these are the central focus of this study. However, besides textbooks or coursebooks[2], (ELT) materials can include activities that may be "linguistic, visual, auditory, or kinaesthetic" and "presented in print, through live performance or display, or on CD-ROM, DVD or the Internet" (Tomlinson 2001: 66). According to Tomlinson (2003: 2), materials can be "instructional, experiential, elicitative or exploratory" because they can inform about the language, provide experience of the language by using it, stimulate language use or help learners to discover things about the language themselves. Innovative educators can adapt the materials to provide these features in the classroom by the way they use and present the textbook or coursebook. This study will examine only written materials because the target group has restricted or no access to other forms of learning materials.

Within the textbook genre, there is a distinction between 'global' or commercial textbooks (McGrath 2005; Tomlinson 2003: 3; Bell & Gower 1998: 116) and in-house coursebooks developed by teachers for their own learners. The writers of global textbooks, for example, are obliged to conform to a prescribed general pattern because they are developing materials for a wide range of students, teachers, and contexts (Bell & Gower 1998: 116-129). There may be the tendency by some

[1] [1] In this study a textbook refers to learning and teaching materials based on *text* (cf. McGrath 2005: 7; Tomlinson 2003 2:4; Richards 2001: 257) usually designed by professional materials writers and sold by commercial publishers for a general market.

[2] A coursebook is defined as "a textbook which provides the core materials for a course...[and] could serve as the only book which learners necessarily use during a course...[and] usually includes work on grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, functions and the skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking" (Tomlinson 1998:ix). Sheldon (1988: 237) refers to it as "the visible heart of any...programme".

authors/ publishers to make assumptions about what conditions the target students are learning in. For example, McGrath (2005: 36) points out that in recent years textbooks in Europe and North America have included integrated listening materials (which include cassette recordings with listening tasks). The assumption is that, firstly, the cassettes (or even more recent technology) will be available; secondly, that the teacher has access to a tape recorder (and an extension lead, a wall socket that works and even that the school has access to electricity), and then that the acoustics in the classroom are such that the recordings are audible to the whole group[3]. Global textbooks may therefore be unsuitable in certain contexts because they fail to take local needs or conditions into account (McGrath 2005: 153).

In developing in-house coursebooks, on the other hand, teachers can take their specific audience and context into account, and be innovative (Stranks 2003:330). In terms of external appeal, global textbooks are likely to be more 'glossy' and attractively illustrated whereas an in-house produced text is limited by financial constraints.

Jolly and Bolitho (1998: 111) contend that the further away the author is from the learners, the less effective the material is likely to be. This would justify the development of an in-house coursebook. The development of the in-house coursebook takes place close to the learner and thus more likely to take into account the needs of the learner in that context. Jolly and Bolitho believe that the most effective materials are those which take into account the students' language needs, their learning objectives, their style of learning, amongst other student needs in terms of ESL learning. This suggests a learner-centred approach to the materials (also cf. Masuhara 1998: 240-241 and her table below, 3.3.1) rather than materials focusing on the subject in terms of the syllabus. McGrath (2005: 153) concurs with Jolly and Bolitho when he states "the more distant one is from the reality of the classroom in which the materials are used, the more important it is to inform oneself about the context and the eventual users". This justifies the subject of chapter 2 of this study, which describes the general context of the target EAP student group at the University of Limpopo; and so serves as a basis on which the study can be constructed.

[3] Electricity and access to tape recorders is a problem in most rural schools in Limpopo; and at the University of Limpopo unreliable power points and audibility in large groups are common problems.

There clearly are benefits and limits to both types of books: whether it is the global textbook produced by a publishing firm or the in-house coursebook or materials produced within an institution. 'Good' materials, whether global or in-house, should, according to Methold (1972, cited in McGrath 2005: 153), display the following characteristics:

- Materials should set out to teach a predetermined body of knowledge, e.g., what is contained in a syllabus (Methold points out that some may wish to take issue with this);
- Materials should be divided into teachable segments (that is, consider time constraints and the quantity of material that can be covered in a particular lesson);
- Materials should take into account principles such as variety, weighting (of more important points), the content validity of exercises, the need for recycling;
- Materials should take into account local conditions (the classroom environment, conventional teaching and learning practices, and teachers' linguistic and methodological competence).

It is particularly the last point which is relevant to the present study and for establishing evaluation criteria for the appraisal of language materials used in the context (described in Chapter 2) of a one-year English for Academic Purposes (EAP) course for mainly first-entering students at UniLim.

This study will primarily concern itself with determining evaluation criteria to be applied specifically to an in-house coursebook, that is, materials in a coursebook designed around a particular course (ENGL131 and ENGL132 EAP courses) for a specific target population (low to intermediate English proficiency students requiring EAP) and a particular context (the University of Limpopo, Limpopo Province). The evaluation criteria extrapolated will focus on the actual environment of use.

5.2.2 THE CONTROVERSIAL ROLE OF THE CLASSROOM TEXTBOOK OR COURSEBOOK

The role of the textbook or coursebook in the classroom is controversial. The arguments for and against the use a text- or coursebook need to be taken into

account when evaluating a text- or coursebook because some of these arguments may be included as evaluation criteria[4].

In the seventies, Brumfit (1980: 30) argued that "even the best textbooks take away initiative of from teachers by implying that there is somewhere an 'expert' who can solve problems" for the educator and individual students. More harshly, he also declared that they (textbooks) are "masses of rubbish skilfully marketed". According to a number of scholars (Richards 1993, 1998: 132, citing Apple and Jungck 1991: 230, Shannon 1987), textbooks result in a "de-skilling" of educators. De-skilling is described as losing the skill to plan. This trivializes and marginalizes the role of the educator (McGrath 2005: 12; Richards 1998: 132). Ansary and Babii (2002) assert that a textbook could be confining and inhibit teachers' creativity. They refer to Ur (cf. Ur 1996: 183-195) when they contend that teachers may find themselves as mediators with no free hand, and slaves, in fact, to others' judgments about what is good and what is not. This, however, suggests that teachers cannot think for themselves or be flexible in the use of a specific textbook and deciding which activities warrant emphasis and which can be given to students to do on their own.

Harwood (2005: 149 -150) uses the title of an International Association for Teachers of English as a Foreign language (IATEFL) paper by Allwright (1981), "What do we want teaching materials for?", for his own article to argue that educators take either a strong anti-textbook position or a weak anti-textbook position. Harwood submits that although Allwright's question was provocative, Allwright does not suggest that textbooks have no value, but rather challenges the reader to think of criteria against which to evaluate a textbook.

The following are various general objections, other than that of 'de-skilling' or inhibiting of creativity, which could or have been raised against textbooks:

- if every group of students has different needs, no one textbook can respond to all differing needs;

[4] For example, the argument that a textbook may inhibit a teacher's creativity could be a question in the evaluation questionnaire in terms of flexibility of activities or tasks. By applying activities differently than suggested by the coursebook is creative. That the different lecturers teaching ENGL131 and ENGL132 use the coursebook creatively and according to their own unique teaching styles, is assumed by the author.

- topics in a textbook may not be relevant for and interesting to all;
- a textbook sets a prearranged sequence and structure that may not be realistic and situation-friendly;
- textbooks have their own rationale, and as such they cannot by their nature cater for a variety of levels, every type of learning styles, and every category of learning strategies that often exist in the class.

Ansary and Babaii (2002) suggest that during the last three decades, the reactions against textbooks have essentially been based on ad hoc textbook evaluation checklists.

Listed below are some of the counterarguments (Ansary & Babaii 2002; McGrath 2005: 10-11, drawn from Grant 1987; O'Neill 1982, 1993; Hutchinson & Torres 1994; Ur 1996) that have been submitted - *for* the use of coursebooks:

- a learner without a textbook is out of focus and teacher-dependent; and perhaps most important of all (Ansary & Babaii 2002):
- a coursebook gives direction – a map; and particularly, provides security, guidance and support for the novice teacher (Ansary & Babaii 2002);
- it provides language samples;
- it offers variety;
- it delineates what is to be learned and assessed, or in other words, a textbook can serve as a syllabus ;
- it provides support for revision and reinforcement outside the classroom;
- it provides structure for teaching; that is, a textbook is a framework which regulates and times the programs (Ansary & Babaii 2002);
- in the eyes of learners, no textbook means no purpose and therefore without a textbook, learners think their learning is not taken seriously (Ansary & Babaii 2002);
- it saves time – it is not possible to prepare every lesson from scratch; hence submit that a textbook provides ready-made teaching texts and learning tasks (Ansary & Babaii 2002);
- it gives "linguistic, cultural and methodological" support;

- it is a record of what has been done – this is can be for reports that may be required from the head of department or to brief a substitute educator.

Language teaching materials can be viewed as an instrument of control or of change. As Low (1987, cited in McGrath 2005: 9) has observed, an evaluation will depend on what your role is in relation to the language learning process. Your role, whether you are part of the administration, the financial director, a teacher, or the head of department, influences your choice of evaluation criteria and their priority. In the context of this study, the coursebooks also contribute to the professional development (cf. Nunan 1991; Edge & Wharton 1998) of the teaching staff who have not had training in ESL teaching in particular, but in English literature. The coursebook can raise an awareness of new approaches to teaching language as a second language (Nunan 1991; Edge & Wharton 1998) such as teaching EAP.

5.3 MATERIALS EVALUATION

Trialling and evaluation are vital to the success of any book or materials (Jolly and Bolitho 1998: 112). The importance of learner-centred evaluation has already been mentioned (see Chapter 2: 13-14); evaluation by the educators themselves is a regular aspect of language teaching. Deciding upon, and hence evaluating, learning materials or textbooks is something educators have had to do at some time or another in their teaching career. Williams (1983: 254) maintains that educators-in-training need to be acquainted with the principles of textbook evaluation because the practice of evaluation improves their competence in the language and hones their skills as teachers. One becomes an evaluator of materials whether one is the writer or the 'user' (be this a group or an individual) of a textbook or coursebook. In selecting a text, the writer may consider evaluation criteria pertaining to language learning and to what will 'sell' the book. The teacher or 'user', on the other hand, besides considering the effectiveness and suitability of the book in terms of language teaching and its being the core learning-teaching aid, will think in terms of its approach to language learning, own time and energy expended, as well as money invested (Sheldon 1988; McDonough & Shaw 2003; McGrath 2005:12). The importance individual educators attach to issues involved in language teaching will differ and so the evaluation criteria they apply to the language learning and teaching materials for their target group of learners may differ too (Williams 1983:254).

5.3.1 MATERIALS ANALYSIS VERSUS MATERIALS EVALUATION

Materials evaluation, according to Tomlinson (2003: 15), "is a procedure that involves measuring the value (or potential value) of a set of learning materials." It involves making judgements about the effect of the materials on the people using them and it tries to measure these effects (amongst others, their appeal and credibility to the learners, the validity of the materials etc.). In earlier studies (Sheldon 1987; Breen & Candlin 1987; Cunningsworth 1984), analysis was part of the evaluation process, which it is; but it is important to be aware that analysis is not evaluation. Tomlinson (2003: 16) and Littlejohn (1998) distinguish between an evaluation of materials and an analysis of materials. An evaluation focuses on the users of the materials and specifically on the effect the materials have on the users. An evaluation involves the making of judgements. An analysis of materials on the other hand, focuses on the materials themselves, and what they contain and do not contain. Materials first need to be analysed to ascertain the content, how it is presented, and the approach taken before an evaluation can be done. Analysis is a process which "leads to an objective verifiable *description* (McGrath 2005: 22). According to Littlejohn (1998: 191), analysis seeks to discover what there <u>is</u>. Below, Table 5.1, is McGrath's adaptation (2005: 23) of Littlejohn's table (1998: 195) showing three levels of analysis of language learning materials - from the physical and most objective, through likely demands the materials make on teachers and learners, to the conclusions about the underlying principles and philosophy of the materials (which become more subjective). No matter how rigorous and structured an evaluation is, it will always be subjective because it is value-driven. The third level of analysis borders on evaluation. Selecting and sequencing materials is based on a value judgment by the materials writer or by the users, if their views have been asked.

Table. 5.1: *Textbook analysis at three levels: adapted from McGrath and Littlejohn* (McGrath 2005: 23, based on Littlejohn 1998: 195-202)

Level	Focus of analysis	Examples of features to be considered
1	'what is there'	publication date; intended users; type of material; classroom time required; intended context of use; physical aspects, such as durability, components, use of colour; the way the material is divided up across components; how the students book is organised, and how learners and teachers are helped to find their way around
2	'what is required of users'	tasks: what does the leamer have to do? Is the focus on form, meaning or both? What cognitive operations will be required; What form of classroom organisation will be involved (e.g. individual work, whole class)? What medium will be involved? Who will be the source of language or information
3	'what is implied'	selection and sequencing of content (syllabus) and tasks; distribution of information across teacher and student components; reconsideration of information collected at levels 1 and 2

Evaluation seeks to discover whether what one is looking for (or what one perceives is *required* to be there) is there, and then to place a value on it – for instance, deciding their pedagogic worth or a suitable approach to ESL. Evaluation is therefore, not a description of the textbook or course book, but it does require an analysis as a starting point in order to 'evaluate' or place value. Evaluation also requires a needs analysis (cf. Masuhara 1998: 240-241, below) on which to base its values.

5.3.2 SITUATIONAL NEEDS ANALYSIS AND MATERIALS EVALUATION

All parties involved in the selection of appropriate text- or coursebooks will be aware of the needs of the learners and the staff teaching them, as well as of the situational constraints. Evaluation criteria may also be useful in the choice of a particular book for its adaptability to the context (Saraceni 2003: 72-73). Since there are many factors to consider (see Table 5.2 below of needs by Masuhara 1998:240-1), the task of choosing the most suitable book (or putting together suitable activities to produce a suitable course book) is complex and should not be approached superficially (Sheldon 1988; McGrath 2005) – hence the need for context or situation appropriate materials evaluation criteria.

Table 5.2: *List of needs identified in needs analysis literature* (Masuhara 1998: 240-241)

OWNERSHIP	KIND	SOURCE
LEARNER'S NEEDS	Personal needs	age; sex; cultural background; Interests; educational background; teacher's language proficiency
	Learning needs	learning styles; previous language learning experiences; gap between the target level and the present level of proficiency in various competence areas (e.g. skills, strategies) learning goals and expectations for a course
	Future professional needs	Requirements for the future undertakings in terms of : Knowledge of language Knowledge of language use L2 competence

OWNERSHIP	KIND	SOURCE
TEACHERS' NEEDS	Personal needs	Age; sex; Cultural background; Interests; educational background Teachers' language proficiency

OWNERSHIP	KIND	SOURCE
ADMINISTRATOR'S NEEDS	Institutional needs	socio-political needs; market forces; educational policy; constraints (e.g. time, budget, resources)

It is recognized (Sheldon 1987: 6; Tomlinson *et al* 2001: 23) that evaluators conducting the same review would come up with a different set of criteria. The variety

of needs and possible inputs show why this could be so. It also suggests that educators should be flexible and innovative enough to be able to adapt material to their specific context, their own teaching needs and those of their students. Sheldon (1988: 238) already predicted this in the eighties when he mentioned that with the expansion of desktop publishing, the textbook as we know it may be replaced by "...a 'published' core materials program, which the teacher could modify and supplement as required". Adapting, modifying and supplementing of materials still requires of an educator to evaluate materials (he/ she will surely look at other textbooks). To make a valid evaluation, and eventually well-informed decisions with regard to a particular textbook, requires having enough information about the various theories on which ELT is based, as well as knowledge of the background to, and experience in, his/her particular teaching context. This includes evaluative input from the learners as is apparent from Masuhara's table above. Since materials are used on and by learners (or students in the tertiary context) they should have a voice and their views and reactions be taken into account (Roberts 1996:386). It may be argued that learners do not make good assessors or evaluators because of their lack of experience or theoretical background. However, learners as the consumers can indicate, among other things, preferences, point out which activities are motivating or demotivating, which activities suit their style of learning, which activities encourage engagement and discussion, which activities are culturally appropriate and which are not, and whether the language used is clear and comprehensible or not.

5.3.3 TYPES OF MATERIALS EVALUATION

Various scholars (Cunningsworth 1984a, 1995; Sheldon 1988; Ellis 1997; Tomlinson 1998, 2003; Richards 2001; McDonough & Shaw 2003; McGrath 2005 – to mention but some) have described their views of how teaching materials are or should be evaluated. There is an overlap in the various methods suggested by such scholars, or merely different terms for a similar method. Tomlinson (1998: 11) points out that there is no one model framework for the evaluation of materials, but that the *framework* applied should be determined by the "*reasons, objectives and circumstances of the evaluation*" (my emphasis).

Sheldon (1988: 245) speaks of coursebook assessment being "fundamentally a subjective, rule-of-thumb activity. He maintains that "no neat formula, grid, or system

will ever provide a definitive yardstick" but anticipates that evaluating materials will eventually become "a more coherent, thoughtful enterprise". Almost a decade later, Ellis (1997: 36-42) refers to predictive and retrospective evaluation, and argues (1998: 222-3) for the need of whilst-use and post-use evaluation to determine the actual effects of the materials. Tomlinson (2003: 23-27) terms his similar types of evaluation as pre-use, whilst-use and post-use evaluation. McGrath (2005) speaks of a cursory or a systematic evaluation. He labels them 'first glance' evaluation and close evaluation. This is similar to what McDonough and Shaw (2003: 62 – 70) term 'internal' and 'external' evaluation. Some of the approaches are discussed below:

5.3.3.1 Pre-use evaluation

Included under this heading ('pre-use' is used by both Tomlinson and McGrath), are the 'rule-of-thumb' evaluation of Sheldon (1988: 246), the 'impressionistic overview' of Cunningsworth (1984: 1; the term is also used by McGrath 2005: 25), the 'predictive' evaluation of Ellis (1997: 36), the 'internal evaluation' of McDonough and Shaw (2003 62-70), and the cursory 'first-glance' evaluation of McGrath (2005: 29). These all imply a superficial evaluation, the type often undertaken by educators when having to decide on a textbook for their learners. This kind of evaluation may entail reading the publisher's blurb, the contents page and taking a quick look at the organization and topics, and in the case of Littlejohn (1998: 195) – an objective look at what is actually in the textbook, that is, "statements of description", "physical aspects of the material" and the "main steps in instructional sections". However, according to McDonough and Shaw (2003: 62), this type of 'external' evaluation does not imply superficial as meaning 'sketchy'; or 'cursory', the term used by McGrath (2005: 29). Their 'external evaluation' is a comprehensive listing of the external claims made by the textbook or coursebook extracted from the blurb, the introduction and the table of contents which include the intended audience (age, interests), the context, the proficiency level aimed at, presentation of materials, and the author's views on language and methodology.

Examples of the type of claims authors (or publishers) can make, are taken from Du Toit, Heese, and Orr (the blurb and the preface of *Practical Guide to Reading, Thinking And Writing Skills* 2006, tenth impression):

- The second edition of the well-known title *Achiever's Handbook* is a workbook designed to bridge the gap between school and post-school educational institutions, with the aim to help students attain academic readiness and language fluency.
- This book is designed for first-year students at a technikon, college or university. The following goals were set:
  - to improve reading, thinking and writing skills;
  - to bridge the gap between school and post-school educational institutions;
  - to help students gain confidence and experience in coping with post-school educational education and training;
  - to assist students in reaching a point of academic readiness;
  - to eliminate the problems first-year students have in meeting academic requirements;
  - to contribute towards reducing the high failure rate of first-year students at higher academic institutions.

Another example comes from *New Horizons in English Grade 8 Learner's Book* by Nick Coates (2000). Its blurb claims the following:

- *New Horizon in English Grade 8 Learner's Book* is part of a new English course for learners in the Senior Phase of education (Grades 7-9)
- This book was written for learners who use English as a second language and focuses on specific outcomes in the Language, Literacy and Communication learning area.
- *New Horizons in English*:
  - is outcomes-based
  - uses the communicative approach
  - focuses on the major language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing
  - gives particular attention to grammar and structures but in a practical, functional way
  - uses stimulating problem-solving and other activities, role-plays and projects, to integrate language- and skills-learning and prepare learners to use English in the real world

- is cross-curricular and covers specific outcomes in various learning areas
- is designed for continuous assessment and provides detailed guidance on assessment.

McDonough and Shaw (2003) point out that such claims (namely, such as those given above) need to be critically evaluated. One would seek to establish whether the claims made by the author or publisher are justified by using a similar list of points to consider as the one suggested by McDonough and Shaw (2003: 63):

- The intended audience
- The proficiency level
- The context in which the materials are to be used
- How the language has been presented and organized into teachable units/ lessons
- The author's view on language and proficiency
- Amount of learner involvement

While McDonough and Shaw (2003: 65) term this type of evaluation 'external evaluation', it is similar to what McGrath calls 'checklist evaluation'. They provide additional external features that can be 'externally' assessed, such as: Is a vocabulary list included? What visual material does the book contain (photographs, charts, diagrams) and is it for cosmetic value only or is it integrated into the text? Is the layout clear or cluttered? Is the material too culturally biased or specific?

Ellis' (1997: 37) predictive evaluation of materials is designed to make a decision which materials *to use*; which are best suited to their needs and situation. This evaluation is usually done using an 'expert's' checklist or guidelines (cf. Cunningsworth 1984a, 1995; and therefore falls under the 'checklist' type of evaluation described by McGrath 2005 below) based on a hypothesized process that teachers go through. Some educators do not go beyond this initial evaluation to do a more in-depth examination once the materials are being used. He argues that this method is inadequate if it not taken a step further because it will not become evident whether the materials used are suitable and effective in improving the learners' English proficiency.

In terms of 'pre-use' evaluation, McGrath (2005: 25) distinguishes between the impressionistic method and the checklist method (cf. Breen & Candlin 1987: 14; Dougill 1987: 29). Both these methods are superficial or 'external', and typical of how many language-teaching textbooks are selected (Ansary & Babaii 2002).

Another evaluation process suggested by McGrath (2005: 29) involves the analysis of materials through to the selection of suitable materials.

5.3.3.1.1 The impressionistic method

The impressionistic method (also described in Cunningsworth 1987, 1995) aims to obtain a general and wide-ranging impression of the material and focuses primarily on what is in the text- or coursebook in terms of what is in it for the learner, lesson length, learnability or accessibility, clarity of organization, and presentation.

5.3.3.1.2 The checklist method

As the name suggests this method makes use of a list of items which are marked off. McGrath (2005: 26) explains the reason for his distinguishing between the checklist method and the impressionistic method as follows:

> ...[The checklist method] contrasts *system* (and therefore ostensible *objectivity*) with *impression* (and implicitly *subjectivity*),...

McGrath names four advantages of this method, namely, that it is *systematic* (ensures that all important elements are included), *cost effective* (a lot of detail in comparatively short time), *convenient format*, and it is *explicit*. To further explain the method, he cites Skierso's definition (1991: 440, which includes Tucker's 1975 description) of the checklist method:

> A textbook evaluation checklist should consist of a comprehensive set of criteria based on the basic linguistic, psychological, and pedagogical principles underlying modern methods of language learning. These criteria 'should be exhaustive enough to insure assessment of all characteristics of the text book. And they should be discrete enough to focus attention on one characteristic at a time or on a single group of related characteristics' (Tucker 1975: 219).

McGrath (2005: 27; also Williams 1983) points out that the systematicity of this method is only a strength if the checklist of criteria it consists of, is relevant to the context in which it is being administered. The checklist needs to be tailored to the context as much as the materials adopted need to be adapted and tailored to a specific context; and as pointed out by Williams (1983) the criteria in a checklist are "a

reflection of the time at which they were conceived and of the beliefs of their designer".

5.3.3.2 Whilst-use evaluation

Tomlinson (2003: 24) describes this type of evaluation as the kind that is done while using the materials or observing their being used. Though he states that the whilst-use evaluation "can be more objective and reliable than pre-use evaluation as it makes use of measurement rather than prediction" (cf. Ellis 1997: 36-42), Tomlinson points out that it is "limited to measuring what is observable and cannot claim to measure what is going on in the learner's brain". Worth noting is his comment that although whist-use evaluation can measure short-term memory by means of observing learners' performance in the activities, durable and effective learning cannot be measured. Therefore, although it is a useful type of evaluation a teacher could be misled by whether the activities appear to work or not.

Tomlinson (2003: 24) gives a list (below) of what could be measured in a whilst-use evaluation, with the proviso that the items could be controversial and could be estimated "during an open-ended, impressionistic observation of materials in use". He points out that "greater reliability can be achieved by focusing on one criterion at a time and by using pre-prepared instruments of measurement".

- Clarity of instructions
- Clarity of layout
- Comprehensibility of texts
- Credibility of tasks
- Achievability of tasks
- Achievement of performance objectives
- Potential for localization
- Practicality of the materials
- Teachability of the materials
- Flexibility of the materials
- Appeal of the materials
- Motivating power of the materials
- Impact of the materials

- Effectiveness in facilitating short-term learning

Tomlinson states that except for mention of cases of student comments and feedback by Jolly and Ballito (1998: 92-115), whilst-use evaluation has received little mention in the literature.

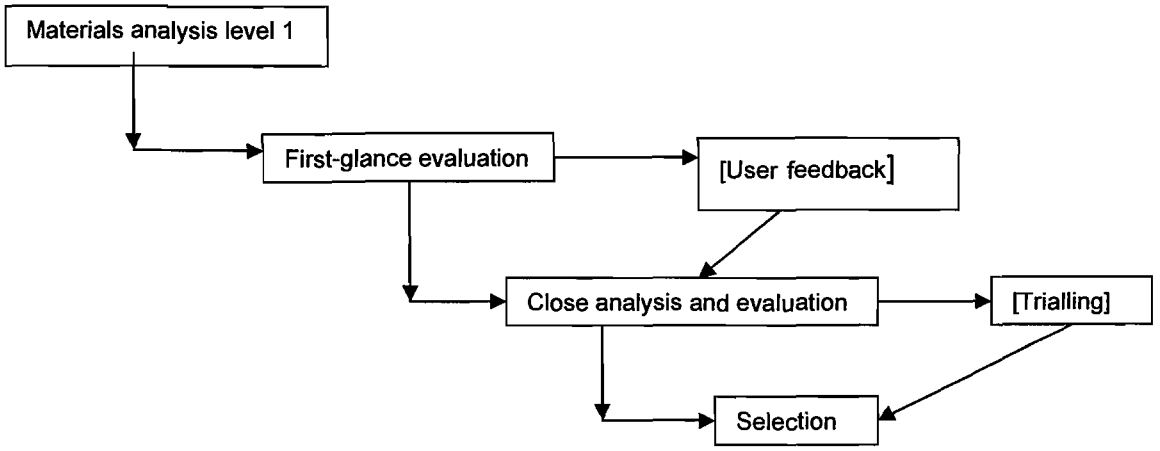
Whilst-use evaluation by both educators and their students may be an appropriate method to use to evaluate the in-house developed ('developing') materials of this study, despite the danger of being misled by what seems to work or not. The background and the context of the target student population have too large an impact on their English language learning and how they react to the language teaching to ignore their feedback.

5.3.3.3 Internal evaluation or the in-depth method

McGrath (2005: 27) explains in-depth evaluation as an evaluation method using techniques which "go beneath the publisher's and author's claims"; techniques which examine, for example, "the kind of language description, underlying assumptions about learning or values on which the materials are based or, in a broader sense, whether the materials seem likely to live up to the claims that are being made for them". Tucker (1975, cited in Ansary & Babaii 2002) also makes a distinction between internal criteria which are language-related and external criteria which give a broader view of the book.

Evaluation may be done in various ways (Sheldon 1987; Breen & Candlin 1987; Cunningsworth 1984) - hence this section being divided into various subheadings. The variety of evaluation methods is probably caused by the variety in contexts. As more evaluations have been done it is inevitable that more recent evaluators will use a combination of methods, that is, an integrated approach such as described by McDonough and Shaw (2003: 66), who view evaluation as done in stages in which the evaluator moves from an external evaluation to an internal evaluation. They state that with an internal evaluation, factors revealed and found to be appropriate to the target student group in the external evaluation, can be matched up "with the internal consistency and organization of the materials" (2003: 67). A process involving a series of steps is also suggested by McGrath (2005: 29). He presents his evaluation process in Figure (5.1):

Fig. 5.1: *From analysis to selection* (Figure taken from McGrath (2005: 29))



McDonough and Shaw, in théir integrated process, suggest that the following factors (2003: 67-70) be examined in at least two or preferably more units of a set of materials or book:

- The presentation of the skills in the materials.
- The grading and sequencing of the materials
- Where reading/'discourse' skills are involved, is there much in the way of appropriate text beyond the sentence?
- Where listening skills are involved, are recordings 'authentic' or artificial? Do speaking materials incorporate what we know about the nature of real interaction or are artificial dialogues offered instead?
- The relationship of tests and exercises to (a) learner needs, and (b) what is taught by the course material.
- Do you feel that the material is suitable for different learning styles? Is a claim and provision made for self-study and is such a claim justified?
- Are the materials sufficiently 'transparent' to motivate both students and teachers alike, or would you forsee a student/teacher mismatch?

Summed up, these criteria are: treatment and presentation of skills, the sequencing and grading of the materials, the type of reading, listening, speaking and writing materials contained in the materials, appropriacy of tests and exercises, self-study provision and teacher-learner 'balance' in the use of the materials. (These criteria

could also be applied in a checklist evaluation; the distinction being the stage in the teaching and learning process at which they are applied.) Ellis (1997: 37) views an empirical evaluation as being an in-depth evaluation (systematic).

In the context of this study, less attention is paid to the listening and speaking skills since the focus is more on academic reading and writing. This is not the ideal, but it cannot be avoided because of infrastructure, staffing and time constraints. Nor can the ENGL131 and ENGL132 modules address all the numerous shortcomings of the impoverished school education of many of its students. Hence the criteria may not explicitly include listening and speaking materials.

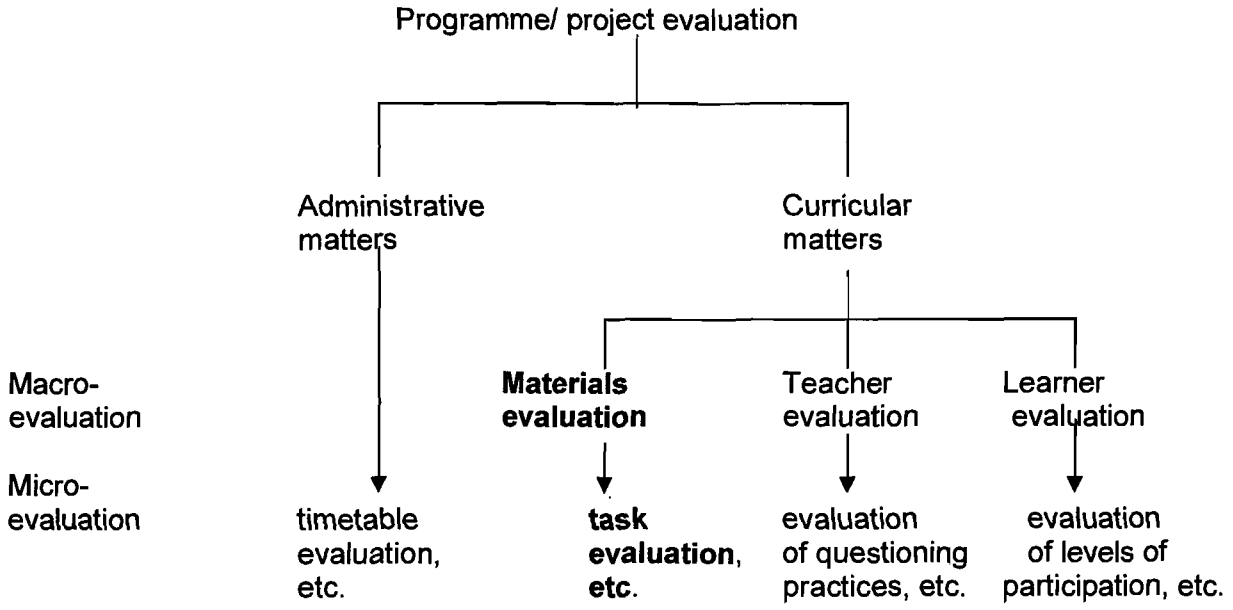
McGrath (2005: 28) points out that specific procedures suggested for a close examination (or then, an in-depth or internal examination), such as a focus on specific features (Cunningsworth 1995); close analysis of one or more extracts (Hutchinson 1987); or meticulous examination of two units using preset questions (Johnson 1986), may have disadvantages, although they are used because they entail a more considered approach to evaluation. These disadvantages include *representativeness* (the selected units may not be representative of the whole book); *partiality* (because close examination is narrowly focused and may give only partial insight into what the material offers); and *time and expertise required* (some close-evaluation projects may need a large amount of time and the skills of an expert which may not be available). The evaluation involved in this study, for example, is done by the researcher only, whereas the ideal would have been a team of at least two or three resulting in an even more in-depth evaluation than is possible for a single researcher.

5.3.3.4 Micro- and macro-evaluations

Both Ellis (1997: 37) and McDonough and Shaw (2003: 66) introduce the concepts micro- and macro-evaluation. These concepts can be subsumed by the ones already discussed. According to Ellis (1997: 37; 1998), micro-evaluation is when a teacher/ evaluator selects one particular task in which s/he is interested and conducts a detailed empirical evaluation. A teacher-oriented approach to evaluation is usually micro-evaluation. It may be on a day-to-day or lesson-by-lesson basis. It is characterized by focusing narrowly on a particular component of the curriculum (e.g. teaching coherence in writing. Are the activities in the unit on coherence in the

coursebook, effective?) or an aspect of the administration of the programme (How are the students in the programme best grouped into workshops?). A series of micro evaluations eventually result in a macro evaluation – an evaluation "carried out for accountability and/or developmental purposes by collecting information relating to various administrative and curricular aspects of the programme". This is perhaps best described by Ellis (1997, in Tomlinson 1998: 218) by means of Figure 5.2.

Figure 5.2: from Ellis (1998:219) *Macro- and micro-evaluation in language teaching* (my emphasis of the materials evaluation aspect).



Although the current study focuses on materials evaluation the administrative and curricular matters with their various sub-sections impact on the nature of the materials and the determining of evaluation criteria.

5.3.3.5 Post-use evaluation

Tomlinson (2003: 25) states that post-use evaluation is probably the most valuable (but least administered) type of evaluation because it can measure "the actual effects" of the materials on the users. "It can measure the short-term effect as regards motivation, impact, achievability, instant learning, etc., and it can measure the long-term effect as regards durable learning and application." He puts forward questions which post-use evaluation, specifically, can answer:

- What do the learners know which they did not know before starting to use the materials?
- What do the learners still not know despite using the materials?
- What can the learners do which they could not do before starting to use the materials?
- What can the learners still not do despite using the materials?
- To what extent have the materials prepared the learners for their examinations?
- To what extent have the materials prepared the learners for their post-course use of the target language?
- What effect have the materials had on the confidence of the learners?
- What effect have the materials had on the motivation of the learners?
- To what extent have the materials helped the learners to become independent learners?
- Did the teachers find the materials easy to use?
- Did the materials help the teachers to cover the syllabus?
- Did the administrators find the materials helped them to standardize the teaching in their institution?

(Tomlinson 2003:25)

The answers to the above questions can produce the information which can assist making appropriate decisions about how to use, adapt, or replace the materials being used. Tomlinson also suggests methods of measuring the post-use effects of materials (2003: 25). These include:

- tests of what has been 'taught' by the materials;
- tests of what the students can do;
- examinations;
- interviews;
- questionnaires;
- criterion-referenced evaluations by the users;
- post-course diaries;
- post-course 'shadowing' of the learners;

- post-course reports on the learners by employers, subject tutors, etc.

Thorough post-use evaluation is a time consuming process and requires a certain amount of expertise. Variables such as post-use attitude, teacher effectiveness, parental support, motivation, exposure to English outside the classroom and others, will also have to be taken into account to obtain a useful evaluation.

A slightly different approach to post-use evaluation is taken by McDonough and Shaw who use the term 'overall evaluation'. Ellis (1997) refers to an evaluation that is done once the materials have been trialled as "retrospective" evaluation.

After having done an external and an internal evaluation, McDonough and Shaw (2003: 70), for example, list four factors according to which an overall assessment can be made, namely, usability, generalisability, adaptability, and flexibility. They explain them as follows:

The usability factor. How much of the materials could be integrated into a particular syllabus, either as 'core' or supplementary. For example, materials may need to be selected that suit a particular syllabus or a set of objectives that need to be worked towards. The materials may or may not be able to do this.

The generalizability factor. Is there a restricted use of 'core' features that make the materials more generally useful? Perhaps not all the material will be useful for a given individual or group, but some parts might be. This factor can in turn lead to the consideration of the next point.

The adaptability factor. Can parts be added/extracted/used in another context/modified for local circumstances? There may be some very good qualities in the materials but, for example, the listening or the reading passages may be judged to be unsuitable and in need of modification. If the adaptation is thought to be feasible this may be done[5].

[5] Also see McDonough and Shaw 2003: 84-86; Islam and Mares 2003:86-101 on adapting materials.

The flexibility factor. How rigid is the sequencing and grading? Can the materials be entered at different points or used in different ways? In some cases materials that are not so steeply graded offer a measure of flexibility that permits them to be integrated easily into various types of syllabus. Individual educators using, for example, the ENGL131/ ENGL132 coursebooks can adapt any given task to their specific teaching style or use it to teach an item differently than suggested in its instructions. Not only should material be adaptable but educators too should be creative enough to recognise different ways of using the materials they have.

Having considered these factors, educators can come to their own conclusions regarding the suitability of the materials in their own contexts and for their specific target students/ audience. However, the success of the materials can eventually only be established once they have been used with the actual students.

Before moving to a discussion of how to select a set of criteria in a particular situation, mention needs to be made of the principles proffered by Tomlinson (1998: 7-21), on which to base an evaluation. This study intends selecting a number of the most relevant principles to its context as evaluation criteria to judge the coursebooks used in the ENGL131 and ENGL132 modules (see Chapter 3 of this study).

- *Materials should achieve impact, that is, have a noticeable effect on learners.* In the short term 'effect' could be taken to be what the learners appeared to enjoy and made them participate in class. Over a longer term of research this could be assessed in their achieving the required outcomes.
- *Materials should help learners to feel at ease* (cf. Krashen's (1985) 'affective filter'). Relevant to this study is the 'voice' of the materials which helps set the learner at ease. The learners should be able to relate to the 'voice' of the materials
- *Materials should help learners to develop confidence.* The argument for achieving success (completing the task) and simplification of language is particularly relevant in the present study.
- *What is being taught should be seen by learners as relevant and useful.* In the UniLim modules this is important in relation to EAP and the learners' content

subjects. The outcome should be to apply what they have learnt to their tertiary studies.

- *Materials should require and facilitate learner self-investment.* The researcher believes that a part of the materials should encourage autonomous learning, therefore be learner-centred.
- *Learners must be ready to acquire the points being taught.* to achieve this may be a problem in the situational context. The students in the ENGL131 and 132 classes have a diverse 'readiness' and ultimately it is the learner who controls what he/she selects, organises, and takes in (Kennedy 1973: 76). Designing the materials for a certain level of readiness is difficult in the context of the study because of the diverse abilities and capabilities of the target group.
- *Materials should expose the learners to language in authentic use.* This relates to Krashen's (1985) assertion that comprehensible input in the target language is necessary for acquisition. It also links the language used in the classroom to the language used in the 'real' world. It also links up with Nunan's second principle below - Materials should be authentic in terms of text and task. (See Chapter 4, section 4.2, for a discussion of authentic materials)
- *The learners' attention should be drawn to linguistic features of the input.* An 'awareness raising' of grammar is argued, not a return to formal grammar teaching.
- *Materials should provide the learners with opportunities to use the target language to achieve communicative purposes.* This implies learners' getting opportunities to interact and to negotiate meaning (Allwright 1984: 157)
- *Materials should take into account that the positive effects of instruction are usually delayed.* This should serve as consolation to teachers when they do not see immediate results. Ellis (1998: 222) argues for post-use evaluation of materials.
- *Materials should take into account that learners differ in learning styles.* Some students are more visual (learn by seeing – they may prefer learning from diagrams, pictures or other material for which one needs visual literacy), others auditory (learn by hearing - they may read to themselves aloud or like working in a discussion group) or kinaesthetic and tactile (learn by doing).

- *Materials should take into account that learners differ in affective attitudes.* An affective attitude is a person's emotional feelings towards an issue. Providing a variety of topics and different kinds of activity should cover most learners likes and dislikes.
- *Materials should permit a silent period at the beginning of instruction.* This is helpful to get the learners to focus on the subject at hand. For example, a short reading passage to read before testing comprehension can provide the silent period.
- *Materials should maximise learning potential by encouraging intellectual, aesthetic and emotional involvement which stimulates both right and left brain activities.* This is something the commercial textbooks are able to offer; more so than the in-house coursebooks. Including graphics in colour is one way of involving learners' aesthetic involvement. Printing material in colour is costly and in-house materials cannot provide this. However, humour, compassion and other emotions can be introduced by means of different reading material – short stories, poems and others.
- *Materials should not rely too much on controlled practice.* The rural context of the study, the schools the students of the target group come from, the little exposure to English in their environment, as well as being taught in large classes a certain amount of controlled practice is required.
- *Materials should provide opportunities for outcome feedback.* This would, in the context of the South African education system, be a critical criterion.

McGrath (2005: 153-154) also refers to these principles, but adds those of Nunan (1988: 1) which centre particularly on the communicative approach to language teaching and are relevant to the context of this study. McGrath (2005: 155) points out that the principles stated by various researchers and authors may not be generalisable and should be seen as a personal rationale. In the coursebooks of this study this has been the case. Much of the decision-making about what is included in the coursebooks has been left to the researcher. Since commencing this study her provisional selection of principles (and thus criteria) is primarily based on observations, staff discussions and personal interviews with teaching staff involved in the UniLim ENGL131 and ENGL132 modules. This warrants examination of the principles posited by Rossner (1998:143) who discusses educators' expectations of

materials and specifically the role of communicative principles. Nunan's principles cited by McGrath (2005: 154) are the following:

1. Materials should be clearly linked to the curriculum they serve.
2. Materials should be authentic in terms of text and task.
3. Materials should stimulate interaction.
4. Materials should allow learners to focus on formal aspects of the language.
5. Materials should encourage learners to develop learning skills, and skills in learning.
6. Materials should encourage learners to apply their developing language skills to the world beyond the classroom.

According to Rossner (1998: 143), for materials to conform to communicative principles, they should do the following:

- provide 'comprehensible input' for generalised rehearsal of skills and 'activation' of learners' interlanguage repertoire ;
- raise learners' awareness about language, communication, learning, etc.;
- provide experiences of communication in the new (first or second additive) language similar or parallel to those likely to be encountered beyond the learning situation.

The question an evaluator constantly needs to ask is whether the materials are doing 'what they are supposed to do' (Hutchinson & Waters 1997: 107). The focus of Hutchinson and Waters' (1997) study is English for Specific Purposes and so their principles would be appropriate to apply to the specific objective of teaching English for Academic Purposes, the objective of ENGL131 and ENGL132 modules. Their guiding principles are summed up below:

- *Materials provide a stimulus to learning.* Good materials do not teach; but encourage learners to learn. Hence the materials include interesting texts; enjoyable activities which engage the learners' thinking capacities; opportunities for learners to use their existing knowledge and skills; and content which both learner and teacher can cope with.
- *Materials help to organise the teaching-learning process, by providing a path through the complex mass of the language to be learnt.* Good materials should, therefore, provide a clear and coherent unit structure which will guide teacher and learner through various activities in such a way as to maximise the

chances of learning. This structure should help the teacher in planning lessons and encourage in the learner a sense of progress and achievement. On the other hand, materials should not be so tightly structured as to produce a monotonous pattern of lessons. A materials model must be clear and systematic, but flexible enough to allow for creativity and variety.

- *Materials exemplify a view of the nature of language and learning.* Materials should reflect the beliefs about language learning of the materials writer: if the belief is the learners thinking capacities should be engaged in language learning, the materials should not contain exercises which require little or no active thought. If the belief is that learning is enhanced by intense experiences with language, the texts provided should not be denuded of any human interest. If the belief is that learning is helped by frequent reinforcement, items to be learnt should be processed several times. Tomlinson (1998; see his list above about *controlled practice*) does not hold the same view about the latter point.
- *Materials reflect the nature of the learning task.* Language learning is a complex process involving many different kinds and levels of knowledge. In the heyday of structuralism, it was assumed that knowledge of the structures was the same as knowing a language and that repetition led to learning. Materials writing was a simple task of isolating the structure, writing a text to exemplify it and pattern drills to practise it. The current view recognises that language learning is a very complex and little understood process. Materials should try to create a balanced outlook which both reflects the complexity of the task, yet makes it appear manageable.
- *Materials can have a very useful function in broadening the basis of teacher training, by introducing teachers to new techniques.* Familiar teaching techniques tend to become a habit and if teachers are not challenged to use new or different ones, the language lesson can become very tedious and unchallenging and in turn inhibit participation and interaction – the heart of a language lesson.
- *Materials provide models of correct and appropriate language use.* Hutchinson and Waters mention this point last (1987: 108) because it is a necessary function of materials, but it is all too often taken as the only purpose, with the result that materials become simply a statement of language *use* rather than a

vehicle for language *learning.* Language teaching materials should not be the kind of beginner's guide to Applied Linguistics, which is so prevalent in ESP (and this may also be a weakness of the ENGL131 coursebook). Linguists, may be endlessly fascinated by the analysis of discourse as it is their chosen specialist field. For the doctor, the secretary and the engineer *language may have little such attraction.*

A large number of principles have been presented, several overlap and some are more important to one materials developer than another. The final decision about which principles are essential and which are desirable is determined by the educational context of the student. Though materials essentially should be underpinned by principles inflexibility should be avoided (Tomlinson 1998: 148; McGrath 2005: 160).

5.4 SELECTING A SET OF EVALUATION CRITERIA

Tomlinson (2003: 26) expresses the concern that in his experience many countries decide on the use of a textbook based on the collective impression of a national curriculum committee instead of by means of set criteria. This links up with Ellis' (1997: 36-41) definition of predictive evaluation, which McDonough and Shaw (2003: 71) describe as an evaluation in which the evaluators base their evaluation on what they *think* will happen if the materials looked at are used. From the literature it appears that there is now consensus that a more systematic and therefore empirical evaluation is preferable when evaluating language materials. Ellis (1997: 36-41) points out that to make an empirical evaluation more manageable is to do a micro-evaluation, that is, choose a particular task to evaluate in detail.

Allowing for all the different views concerning evaluation, ways of evaluating and evaluation criteria, Ansary and Babaii (2002) are probably correct in saying that no neat formula or system may ever provide a definite way to judge a textbook. As previously mentioned in this chapter the specific context of the target English language learning group will be a crucial factor in determining the main evaluation criteria. However, in addition to context, the application of a set of universal characteristics of EAP textbooks may help make textbook evaluation a coherent,

systematic and reflective activity. Tucker (1975: 359-361, cited in Ansary and Babaii 2002) suggests that a system for textbook evaluation should include the following:

- a predetermined data-driven theory-neutral collection of universal characteristics of EFL/ESL textbook[6] materials, discrete and precise enough to help define one's preferred situation-specific criteria,
- a system within which one may ensure objective, quantified assessment,
- a rating method that can provide the possibility for a comparative analysis,
- a simple procedure for recording and reporting the evaluator's opinion,
- a mechanism by which the universal scheme may be adapted and/or weighted to suit the particular requirements of any teaching situation,
- a rating trajectory that makes possible a quick and easy display of the judgments on each and every criterion, and
- a graphic representation to provide a visual comparison between the evaluator's preferred choices as an archetype and their actual realizations in the particular textbook under scrutiny.

Similar to Tucker's (1975) suggestions, Tomlinson's (2003: 27) approach is to submit questions which will serve to establish criteria against which to evaluate the checklists and criteria lists which are to be used to judge learning/teaching materials.

- Is the list based on a coherent set of principles of language learning?
- Are all the criteria actually evaluation criteria?
- Are the criteria sufficient to help the evaluator to reach useful conclusions?
- Are the criteria organized systematically (for example, into categories and subcategories which facilitate discrete as well as global verdicts and decisions)?
- Are the criteria sufficiently neutral to allow evaluators with different ideologies to make use of them?
- Is the list sufficiently flexible to allow it be made use of by different evaluators in different circumstances?

Ansary and Babaii (2002) suggest a set of universal features of EFL/ESL textbooks which may be found helpful in establishing criteria for the materials in the present

[6] In this study, these will be adapted to focus on EAP materials.

study. They categorise the features under *approach*, *content presentation*, *physical make-up* and *administrative concerns*:

Briefly, these features are summed up below:

Approach:

- Dissemination of a vision (theory or approach) about
  - the nature of language
  - the nature of learning
  - how the theory can be put to applied use (This is a principle mentioned in the CLT, TBLT and OBE approaches.)

Content Presentation:

- Stating purpose(s) and objective(s) - (This answers an OBE principle.)
  - For the total course
  - For individual units
- Selection and its rationale
  - Coverage
  - Grading
  - Organization
  - Sequencing
- Satisfaction of the syllabus
  - **To the teacher**
    - Providing a guide book
    - Giving advice on the methodology
      - Giving theoretical orientations
      - Key to the exercises
    - Supplementary materials
  - **To the student**
    - Piecemeal, unit-by-unit instruction
    - Graphics (relevant, free from unnecessary details, colourful, etc.)
    - Periodic revisions
    - Workbook
    - Exercise and activities
      - In the classroom
      - Homework
      - Sample exercises with clear instructions
      - Varied and copious
    - Periodic test sections
    - Accompanying audio-visual aids

Physical Make-up:

- Appropriate size and weight
- Attractive layout
- Durability
- High quality of editing and publishing
- Appropriate title

Administrative Concerns:

- Macro-state policies
- Appropriate for local situation
  - Culture
  - Religion
  - Gender
- Appropriate Price

Some of the features are suitable for the context of this UniLim study.

Tomlinson (2003: 28) also submits universal criteria for evaluating language materials. By universal criteria he means criteria that apply to any language learning materials for any learners/students. Examples would be evaluating whether the materials provide useful opportunities for autonomous thinking; whether the instructions are clear; whether the materials cater for individual learning styles; and whether the materials will engage students affectively.

5.5 DESIGNING AN EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

In terms of the universal criteria when designing an evaluation questionnaire, Tomlinson (2003: 28-33) gives the following practical advice:

- *subdivide some of the criteria*

  This involves setting more specific questions and is particularly relevant when materials are to be adapted or revised. His example is the question "Are the instructions: succinct? sufficient? self-standing? standardised? separated? sequenced? staged?"
- *monitor and revise the list of universal criteria*

  Here he gives a checklist:

  1. *Is each question an evaluation question?* (See 5.3.1)

     If a question is an analysis question the answer is likely to be a 'yes' or 'no' or a 1 or a 5 on a five point scale. For example, 'Does each unit include a reading passage?' If it is an evaluation question, the answer can be graded at any point of the scale. For example, 'To what extent are the reading passages useful?'
  2. *Does each question only ask one question?*

     If one question asks two questions it cannot be used in a numerical grading of the materials: for example, 'Are the materials attractive? Would your students enjoy them?'

3. *Is each question answerable?*

   Tomlinson (2003: 29) explains that although this would appear to be obvious some questions in published lists of criteria are too wide and vague to be helpfully answered or only experts would be able to answer the question. He cites an example from Grant (1987: 122):

   > Is it culturally acceptable?
   >
   > Does it achieve an acceptable balance between knowledge about the language, and practice in using the language?

3. *Is each question free of dogma?*

   Although an evaluator's questions will be a reflection of his/her language teaching principles, there is the danger of dismissing potentially useful materials if the evaluators' approach is too rigid in terms of methodology. This is especially the case if the target group of students is very diverse.

4. *Is each question reliable in the sense that other evaluators would interpret it in the same way?* For example, the concept 'authentic material' may not be interpreted by everyone in the same way and so there may be a wide range of answers to the question 'Are the materials sufficiently authentic?' Tomlinson (2003: 30) suggests a question such as 'Do the materials help the learners to use the language in situations they are likely to find themselves in after the course?'

- *Categorise the list*

  Categorising the universal criteria (see Ansary and Babaii 2002) gives focus to the list and enables generalisations to be made (Tomlinson 2003:30). It is also helpful in generating additional criteria within a category.

  Some examples from Tomlinson are: cultural perspective, topic content, activities, and methodology.

- *Develop media-specific criteria*

  These criteria apply the specific medium by the materials being evaluated, that is, written materials, videos, etc.

- *Develop content-specific criteria*

  These criteria would relate to topics covered by the materials. For example in this study the criteria for the ENGL131 module would be about grammar

topics, while the topics for the ENGL132 module would relate to academic writing skills.

- *Develop age-specific criteria*

  These criteria would be appropriate for the age of the target group and thus would be suitable for their cognitive and affective development, and relate to their previous experiences, interests, wants and needs.

- *Develop local criteria*

  The actual or potential environment of use is central to these criteria. Tomlinson (2003: 31) describes these questions as not being concerned "with establishing the value of the materials per se but rather with measuring the value of the materials for particular learners in particular circumstances". This set of criteria "is unique to the specific evaluation being undertaken and which is ultimately responsible for most of the decisions made in relation to the adoption, revision, or adaptation of the materials". These criteria can be based on some of the following characteristics of the environment, amongst others: the type of institution; the resources of the institution; class size; the background, needs and wants of the students; the background, needs and wants of the educators; the objectives of the modules; the intensity and extent of the teaching time available; the amount of exposure to the target language outside the classroom.

  These criteria are of particular concern to this research.

- *Develop other criteria*

  This would be relevant when the evaluation is more specific, such as, teacher-specific, gender-specific, culture-specific or L1 or L2 specific (see Tomlinson 1998: 240-241 *List of needs identified in needs analysis literature* given above: 147-148).

- *Trial the criteria*

  The criteria should be trialled to ensure that the criteria are sufficient, answerable, reliable and useful.

- *Conducting the evaluation*

  Tomlinson (2003: 32-33) recommends the following steps for conducting an effective evaluation:

  - make sure there is more than one evaluator;
  - discuss the criteria to make sure there is uniformity of interpretation;

- answer the criteria independently and isolated from the other evaluators;
- focus in a large evaluation on a typical unit for each level (and then check its typicality by reference to other units);
- give a score for each criterion (with some sets of criteria weighted more heavily than others);
- write comments at the end of each category;
- at the end of the evaluation aggregate each evaluators scores for each criterion, category of criteria and set of criteria and then average the scores;
- record the comments shared by the evaluators;
- write a joint report.

However, despite the argument for universal criteria which make an evaluation more systematic, and less impressionistic, and perhaps 'imprecise', it has to be noted that each evaluation exercise will be distinctive because the local conditions differ from institution to institution. Roberts (1996:386) insists that evaluators "base materials evaluation on the local context"; as Sheldon (1988) cautions with regard to his own checklist that evaluators "emphasize other factors that relate specifically ... to their own unique situations" (1988: 242). Roberts argues further (albeit contentiously), that evaluators selecting textbooks for teaching, for example, German to third-year pupils at a comprehensive school in England do not need to check whether their criteria agree with those of evaluators choosing textbooks for 14-year-olds somewhere in the USA or outer Mongolia and vice versa. He raises the question whether there is such a thing as "evaluative consensus". He states that he does not advocate complacency, but that one shouldn't wait to discover whether "there is any foundation upon which universal criteria could be erected" – that is fully informed by research - but to carry out materials evaluation "within the bounds of what is known and possible today" (1996:386). Roberts believes that the only true universal criteria which can feature on a checklist are "theoretically trivial", for example, the cost, availability and durability of materials. He argues that "more complex criteria, such as cultural bias, will have different exponents, depending on the setting in which given materials might be employed" (1996:387). He states if the recommendation that all evaluations be based on local content (Sheldon 1988: 242; Roberts 1996:386; Tomlinson 1998: 92,

2003: 31; McGrath 2005: 35) is valid then one should "expect criteria to vary and even be idiosyncratic". He admits that applying systematic procedures, however, will ensure that evaluators "speak the same language" although the topics may vary (1996: 387). It is for this reason that in this study the opinion of both students and teaching staff will be elicited and the 'experts who will be asked to rate the final list of criteria will be selected because they have extensive experience in teaching English to students who are speakers of African languages and from a rural background – the context of this study.

5.6 EVALUATION CRITERIA DRAWN FROM THE LITERATURE DISCUSSED IN CHAPTERS 2 TO 4

Taking into account what has been discussed in Chapter 5 about materials evaluation and the factors that should be considered, Chapters 2 to 4 have been closely scrutinised with the purpose of extracting the key elements pertaining to the target students' background and the current ESL teaching and learning and SLA theories and approaches. It has been ascertained that the following elements should be included in language learning materials and on which the core evaluation criteria (with an EAP slant) used to judge the coursebooks in this study, should be based.

1. The desired outcomes should be clearly stated so that learners are able to demonstrate that they understand and can apply the desired outcomes within a certain context.
2. *Learners should engage* in language tasks rather than just learning a language – that is, engage learners in *using* language practically, rather than just 'displaying' language (Ellis).
3. Tasks should make and negotiate meaning and understanding; practise and apply language structures and conventions in context; practise and achieve comprehensible pronunciation - that is, achieve *communicative competence.*
4. Fluency and acceptable language is the primary goal; *accuracy* is judged not in the abstract but in the *context.*
5. Activities or tasks should help learners acquire the *four basic language skills* in order to:
    5.1 *Listen* to lectures effectively so that they can remember main ideas and take notes.

5.2 Develop and practice the *reading* techniques of skimming, scanning and speed reading for reading textbooks, articles and other academic material, as well as develop reading comprehension and vocabulary.

5.3 *Speak* (interact) with educators and other learners.

5.4 *Write* academic essays, examination essays, dissertations and reports by developing process writing skills.

6. Tasks should give learners the opportunity to *summarise* spoken and written discourse as an important part of academic writing.
7. Recognise and practise *collocations*, (that is, the habitual co-occurrence of individual lexical items in one area) as recommended for EAP (Jordan 2004; Hyland 2006).
8. There should be activities for which students need to use dictionaries. The effective and optimal use of dictionaries should be encouraged because it encourages learner-centredness.
9. *Recycling* (in TBLT – Nunan 2004) of structures or items should be practised: a linguistic item cannot be mastered one hundred percent the first time a learner encounters it, but it needs to be reintroduced over a period of time and preferably in different content areas.
10. Activities should be based on *authentic* materials. Unless learners are given the opportunity to experience samples (tasks) of language use elicited by means of some kind of communicative activity, they may not develop the kind proficiency needed to communicate fluently and effectively.
11. Learners should engage in tasks on topics of *interest* to them because intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in what is being communicated by the target language.
12. Learners should engage in *learner-centred activities* to foster autonomous or independent learning.
13. Tasks which foster *autonomous learning* should be included because by means of such activities or tasks language learners learn how to construct their own knowledge rather than having it transmitted to them by an educator.
14. The habit of *reflecting* on their language studies should be developed. Materials should apply consciousness raising techniques to make learners reflect about how they do the tasks and how and what they learn. Reflecting on their own experiences when encountering more 'humanistic' content in

materials (cf Tomlinson 2003: 162-173) also encourages participation.

15. *Scaffolding* should be built into the tasks/ activities to support the learner until he/she has mastered the skill or grammar rule. (Bringing to the comprehension process pre-existing knowledge, and then try and fit new knowledge into the pre-existing framework). Within a lesson, one task should grow out of, and build upon, the ones that have gone before".
16. To recognise and engage with *linguistic variation* is a central concept in materials and methodology. Variety is also important to prevent students from losing concentration or becoming bored.
17. Activities or tasks should be included by means of which students should learn and practise to distinguish between different *academic genres*.
18. Activities should be included for which students need to *collaborate* - students participate more, learn to compromise, negotiate meaning and become better risk-takers, more efficient self monitors and self-evaluators. In addition, both the classroom atmosphere and efficiency improve, as well as the learners' self-esteem.
19. The coursebooks need to include activities in which students use *cognitive skills* of selecting, classifying, reasoning, evaluating, and problem solving to participate in lectures, seminars and workshops.
20. Start with the familiar or simpler language tasks before engaging with the more complex. A crucial consideration in the presentation of language tasks is in terms of *grading* and *sequencing* of tasks, namely, grammatical complexity, the length of the text, the density in terms of how much information is packed into the text, how it is disseminated and used, the explicitness of the information, the amount of low-frequency vocabulary, the discourse structure and the clarity with which it is signalled
21. Develop skills required to use the various types of *reference materials* for research.
22. Show *critical awareness* of language usage (respond to the aesthetic, affective, cultural and social values in texts). Think and express their thoughts and emotions logically, critically and creatively; which involves reflecting critically on values and attitudes and then responding with empathy to the thoughts and emotions of others;
23. To develop and value other languages, cultures and literacies in our

multicultural country (thereby developing a shared understanding of a common South African culture) and in international contexts – a *sphere of interculturality.*

5.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter has dealt with the principles English language educators would expect to underlie the tasks, activities, exercises, and assessment contained in teaching and learning materials. From the literature reviewed it is clear that evaluation of a coursebook or textbook can be based on a variety of criteria, the import of which may differ depending on the context in which it is used.

The preliminary criteria have been listed in the order that the ELT and learning theories have been discussed in Chapters 3 to 4. These criteria form a basis for the research questionnaires (Appendices A, B and C) which will be administered to the ENGL131 and ENGL132 students and the teaching staff.

The next chapter describes the research methodology used to establish the evaluation criteria which the users – the students and the teaching staff – view as appropriate for the evaluation of the ENGL131 and ENGL132 in-house coursebooks in the context of the University of Limpopo. Another list of criteria will be compiled from the combination of the preliminary list that emerges from the fieldwork and the one given above from the literature. This combined list will then be rated by senior academics with experience in the field of teaching English as a Second Language at a tertiary institution, where the majority of the students are rural students.

CHAPTER 6
METHOD OF RESEARCH

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the method employed to evaluate the coursebooks used for ENGL131 and ENGL132 English modules, a one year service course at the University of Limpopo. The method is an empirical investigation which consists of needs analysis questionnaires and evaluation questionnaires administered to students enrolled for the course and also semi-structured group interviews conducted with a sample of the students; staff evaluation questionnaires and a group interview with the teaching staff; an evaluation questionnaire for experienced senior lecturers outside the UniLim English Studies Department; and an evaluation of the coursebooks using the evaluation criteria which emerged from the investigation.

6.2 THE AIMS OF THIS STUDY

The primary aim of the study, as stated in Chapter 1, is to establish context appropriate evaluation criteria, which currently do not exist, to evaluate the current in-house English language coursebooks that are being used for a one year EAP course offered as two modules, namely, ENGL131 and ENGL132. It also aims to provide recommendations for the revision of these current materials, based on the extrapolated evaluation criteria from the relevant literature and the comments by users of the materials, to make them more suitable for mainly rural students from input impoverished schools enrolled for an EAP course at the University of Limpopo.

6.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

The study was a cross-sectional once-off survey (Nunan 1994; Brown 2003; Dörnyei 2003). Data were gathered by means of quantitative and qualitative methods in order to establish the key criteria for the evaluation of the ENGL131 and ENGL132 coursebooks from the perspective of the users – students and teaching staff. To increase the reliability of the investigation, methodological triangulation (questionnaires providing both quantitative and qualitative data, and group interviews providing qualitative data) and source triangulation (students, teaching staff, and outside experts) of data were used to collect data (Brown 2005). An inquiry audit was done by outside experts with extended experience of teaching English language to rural South African students to verify the appropriateness of the evaluation criteria.

6.4 STUDY POPULATIONS

The study populations consisted of five groups: 3 groups of students, one group of teaching staff, and outside experts.

6.4.1 RANDOM SAMPLE OF 115 STUDENTS

A random sample of 150 students enrolled for ENGL131 and ENGL132 was chosen to complete the needs analysis questionnaire A (Appendix A).

A random sample was drawn because the needs analysis was not the primary aim of the study and concern for 'questionnaire fatigue' if the entire group of 940 was asked to complete two lengthy questionnaires within a few months. There were 8 ENGL131 and ENGL132 groups (which each lecturer could split into 2 smaller, more manageable groups if he/she so wished) and these had their English classes on different days of the week. The lecturers were asked to select every first and fifth student as they were sitting in the class and give them a questionnaire to complete. 150 questionnaires were handed out and 115 returned the completed questionnaire. Therefore, Questionnaire A was administered to 115 students who had enrolled for and used both ENGL131 and ENGL132 coursebooks.

The respondents consisted of 57% female and 41% male students (2% did not indicate their gender). Most of the students were between the ages of 17 to 22 years (82%) and were SePedi L1 speakers (50%), followed by XiTsonga (25%) speakers. Seventy-seven percent of the respondents attended secondary school in Limpopo Province (71% went to rural schools and 26% attended urban schools).

6.4.2 STUDY POPULATION OF 375 STUDENTS ENROLLED FOR COURSE

The evaluation questionnaire B was administered to all the groups who had completed ENGL131 and ENGL132 (except for the ENGL132 examination) at the end of 2006 on the Thursday before the study week prior to the final ENGL132 examination. Of the target group of 940 students, 375 completed the questionnaire. The researcher was concerned about the size of the sample; however, Fowler (1988: 41) argues "that a sample of 150 people will describe a population of 15,000 or 15 million with virtually the same degree of accuracy, assuming all the other aspects of the sample design and sample procedures were the same".

Sixty two percent of the respondents of this evaluation questionnaire were female and 36% were male students. Eighty five percent of the students were in the 17 to 22 years age group and most of the students were SePedi mother tongue speakers (56%). Twenty four and a half percent of the students were XiTsonga speakers. Few students indicated which languages they viewed as their second languages. Only 7% indicated that English was their second language. Eighty one percent of the students came from Limpopo and 14% from Mpumalanga. Most of the students attended rural schools (75%) and 24% urban schools (1% did not answer this question).

6.4.3 RANDOM SAMPLE OF 15 STUDENTS

Four semi-structured group *interviews* (appendix C) were held with 15 (three groups of 4 students and one group of 3 students; 9 female and 6 male). Since qualitative interviews are time-consuming to conduct and analyse, only a limited number of students were interviewed. The students were randomly selected at the end of the two modules. The selection was done by marking the name of every 40th student on the classlist. Selecting every fortieth student meant that there was an equal random chance that a student from each group would be selected. This came to a total of 23 students. The list of names was put up on the noticeboards around campus.

Twenty came to see the researcher who explained the aim of the interviews and set up times for the interviews convenient to the students and then divided them into 4 groups of 5 interviewees and set times for each group.

Eventually only 15 of those selected turned up, hence there were three groups of 4 students and one of 3.

6.4.4 STUDY POPULATION OF 7 STAFF MEMBERS

A questionnaire (questionnaire C, appendix C) was administered to the seven teaching staff (excluding the researcher who is the eighth staff member), the entire Department of English Studies. The group consisted of 3 female and 4 male lecturers of which 3 had doctorates (one in literature and 2 in an area of English Language Studies). Only one was an English native speaker. The minimum teaching experience was 8 years, the maximum 38 years and the median was 20 years. One of

the staff had no secondary school teaching experience, while another had 10 years secondary school teaching experience; and the median was 4 years.

6.4.5 FIVE SENIOR LECTURERS SELECTED ON BASIS OF EXPERIENCE

The final evaluation questionnaire (questionnaire D, appendix D) was sent to six senior lecturers who had extensive experience in teaching tertiary students from rural secondary schools. Most had also taught at secondary schools for a few years. They were from Sultan Qaboos University (19 years experience, including UniLim), University of the Western Cape (24 years experience), UniLim, English for Science Students (21 years experience), UniLim, EduPark campus, UniLim, and North-West University, Mafekeng campus (26 years). In addition, interviews were held with two lecturers from the School of Education in the English Methodology department to supplement the questionnaires.

6.5 INSTRUMENTATION

6.5.1 QUESTIONNAIRE A (cf. APPENDIX A)

A *questionnaire* (A) was designed for the language students enrolled for ENGL131 and ENGL132. This questionnaire was primarily aimed at ascertaining the language learning needs and interests of these students. It consisted of 3 questions pertaining to personal data, 7 questions pertaining to their school background and 24 to their needs and language learning practices. The questionnaire, after eliciting the personal data, used mainly three methods of eliciting data (2 closed-ended and 1 open-ended):

- Multiple choice items. Respondents were offered a range of answers to a question to which they could respond by marking the one they regarded being the closest to what they believed or marking 3 and rating them from 1 to 3 – with one being the most important and 3 the least important.
- Likert scales containing four response options from the positive 'very useful' to the negative 'not useful at all'. Neutral items were avoided because of the concern that respondents might use the middle category (e.g. not sure/ uncertain/ neutral) to avoid making a real choice. The 'middle ground' gives the options 'partly useful' and 'not really useful' (Dörnyei 2003: 36-38).
- Open-ended questionnaire items which form the qualitative dimension of the questionnaire. The respondents were allowed the opportunity to give their own views on the materials.

It was piloted with 4 students who had not registered for both modules in the same year. They found it rather lengthy. A few questions which extracted similar data were removed. The questionnaire was changed into a booklet format which made it appear shorter and easier to handle.

6.5.2 QUESTIONNAIRE B (cf. APPENDIX B)

A *questionnaire* (B) was designed for the language students enrolled for ENGL131 and ENGL132. This, in contrast to the previous questionnaire, was an evaluation questionnaire. The evaluation questionnaire consisted of three personal data questions, one question to establish the degree courses the students in the study were enrolled for, two questions to determine where they went to school (urban or rural) and 54 evaluation questions based on the ELT theory examined in Chapters 3 to 5. The questionnaires requested the students' evaluation of the workbooks as well as what, in their view, should be addressed by the coursebooks. The questionnaire, after eliciting the personal data, uses mainly Likert scales (6 response options – Strongly disagree, disagree, partly disagree, partly agree, agree, strongly agree) to elicit data (Dörnyei 2003: 36-38; Cronje 1993). Neutral items were not included so as to prevent the respondents from avoiding making a choice (Dörnyei 2003: 36-38). The questions were all closed-ended but an opportunity to give personal comments was given at the end of the questionnaire.

The statements to which students responded were grouped under some of the main ELT approaches or issues examined in Chapters 3 and 4. The headings were not arranged in any particular order of importance. Some of the statements could also have been placed under another heading because the principles of certain approaches overlap.

The rating scales were repeated at the top of each page so that the respondents did not need to turn back to the previous pages. (Some respondents did not see the statement that accompanied the rating scale and thus did not respond to that question. Elsewhere, a slightly higher percentage of no *response* seems indicative of uncertainty.) The questionnaire was piloted with three students who would not be part

of the sample. The length of the questionnaire was such that it was easily completed in 45 minutes, the duration of a lesson.

6.5.3 SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS (cf. interview prompts, Appendix E)

Four semi-structured group *interviews* (C) were held with 15 (three groups of 4 students and one group of 3 students; 9 female and 6 male). The questions had been piloted with three students who were not part of the interviews.

The same questions were asked in each group interview. The unit outline of both the ENGL131 and ENGL132 coursebooks were written on the board to remind the students what was in the coursebooks. Probing questions were asked where a particular student was shy to respond or if the researcher required clarification.

6.5.4 QUESTIONNAIRE C – STAFF (cf. APPENDIX C), SUPPLEMENTED BY UNSTRUCTURED, OPEN-ENDED INTERVIEW

6.5.4.1 Staff Evaluation Questionnaire: A questionnaire was designed for the teaching staff to evaluate the coursebooks from their perspective and to establish which criteria in their view are essential in the UniLim context. The questionnaire was piloted by asking a previous colleague, now working for another institution, to go through it. Some questions were moved and the incorrect numbering of two questions was corrected. The questionnaires were distributed to be completed at the staff members' convenience.

The questionnaire was an evaluation questionnaire. Section A gave descriptors of ELT terms the literature staff may be unfamiliar with. Section B consisted of B1 with 3 personal background questions and B2 with 20 evaluation questions pertaining to the current coursebooks. Section C consisted of 29 evaluation questions to determine what the individual staff members believe should be in the coursebooks. Likert scales were used with 6 response options (Strongly disagree, disagree, partly disagree, partly agree, agree, strongly agree) and once again neutral items were avoided. Questions concerning the same issue, e.g. CLT principles, grammar instruction, were grouped together. Opportunity was given for personal comments on the coursebooks at the end of the questionnaire.

6.5.4.2 A staff group interview of one and a half hour was held with the seven staff members of the department. The interview centred on the coursebooks but was unstructured in that individuals were asked to give their views on various aspects of the coursebooks on the basis of what they had observed i) when using the coursebooks and ii) observed when marking the student's tests, essay assignments and examination essays.

6.5.5 QUESTIONNAIRE D – EXPERTS (cf. appendix D)

An evaluation questionnaire was designed that was a merging of the two preliminary questionnaires (A, B, and C) and the student and staff group interviews. The questionnaire used mainly Likert scales (4 response options – unimportant, optional, reasonably important crucial) to elicit data (Dörnyei 2003: 36-38; Cronje 1993). Neutral items were not included (as with the other 3 questionnaires) so as to prevent the respondents from avoiding making a choice (Dörnyei 2003: 36-38). The questions were all closed-ended but an opportunity to give personal comments was given at the end of the questionnaire.

6.5.5.1 Two semi-structured interviews (Appendix F) were held with two members of staff from the English Methodology department in the School of Education to supplement the questionnaires.

6.6 PROCEDURE

A step-by-step procedure was followed in order to arrive at the evaluation criteria which could be applied to the coursebooks in order to make recommendations for changes or additions.

6.6.1 The first *questionnaire* (A) was primarily aimed at ascertaining the language learning needs and interests of these students. There were 8 large ENGL131 and ENGL132 groups (of about 120 to 160 students, which each lecturer could split into 2 or more smaller, more manageable groups if he/she so wished, and which most did so that there were about 16-20 smaller groups) and these had their English classes on different days of the week. 4 weeks in to the second semester, the lecturers were asked to select every first and fifth student as they were sitting in the class and give them a questionnaire to complete. The students were assured of the confidentiality of

their responses on the questionnaires and verbally when handing out the questionnaires.

6.6.2 As mentioned, the second *questionnaire* (B) was an evaluation questionnaire which was administered to the whole study group. The evaluation by the students needed to be done at the end of the year at the end of the second module (ENGL132), when they had worked through all the units in both coursebooks. The students were informed beforehand about the administering of the questionnaire. Copies of the questionnaire were given to each lecturer to hand out to his/her groups on the Thursday in October before the students' study leave was due to commence for the 2006 November ENGL132 examination. Instead of 940 students only 375 attended their classes that day. This was unexpected since the study week was only due to start the following week. It was not anticipated that half the group would stop attending class on the Thursday. However, a larger group of responses is not likely to have changed the results significantly since 41% is a representative sample of the ENGL131 and ENGL132 student population (cf. Fowler 1988: 641).

6.6.3 Four semi-structured group *interviews* were also conducted with students. These interviews were done during the last weeks of the final semester. The groups consisted of 3 groups of 4 students and one of 3 students (6 male and 9 female students). They were divided into groups in the order that they came to see the researcher. The groups were mixed gender except the one in which there were 3 female students. The unit outline of both the ENGL131 and ENGL132 coursebooks were written on the board to remind the students what was in the coursebooks. Students were assured of the confidentiality of their responses. The same questions were asked in each of the four interviews and where a particular student was shy to respond or if the researcher required clarification probing questions were asked. The researcher tried to record the first interview on a tape recorder, but it inhibited the students' responses and the eventual sound quality was poor. So the researcher took notes of the responses instead. Each interview was not longer than thirty minutes. Before commencing, the students were again assured of the confidentiality of their responses.

6.6.4 At the beginning of 2007 an evaluation questionnaire was administered to the seven staff members. The questionnaire was sent by e-mail and they were given the option to e-mail the completed questionnaire back or send a hardcopy. All seven questionnaires were completed and sent back within 3 weeks.

6.6.5 An unstructured interview was held on Thursday, 28 July 2007, in the slot for departmental meetings to supplement the questionnaires. Each of the seven staff members had their copies of the ENGL131 and ENGL132 coursebooks with them so that they could consult any remarks they had written in them whilst using them since 2003. Staff had been asked to record their observations about the 'teachability', shortcomings and success or not of the coursebook activities, as well as note any special needs that the students in their groups appeared to have. The researcher of this study went through the coursebooks unit by unit and encouraged open discussion. The researcher recorded the various views and comments.

6.6.6 After the data from Questionnaires A, B, C and the interviews had been analysed an evaluation questionnaire was designed based on the evaluation criteria from both the literature and from the results of the empirical study. This was e-mailed to the 6 outside experts to validate the evaluation criteria. Of these 6 only 5 returned the questionnaires. Two interviews were held with two lecturers in the School of Education from the English Methodology department to supplement the questionnaires. The duration of each interview was about 45 minutes. Each interview was held in the office of the individual staff member.

6.6.7 This set of final criteria was used to evaluate the ENGL131 and ENGL132 coursebooks and recommendations were made for changes to the current coursebooks based on these criteria.

6.7 DATA ANALYSIS

The responses to the two student questionnaires were analysed by means of the Statistical Analysis System (SAS) programme for frequencies. The staff and outside 'experts' questionnaires were analysed by means of MS Excel. The frequency data of all four questionnaires were analysed. The qualitative comments added to the questionnaires by the respondents and the responses from the interviews (student,

staff and outside experts) were recorded and interpreted by the researcher. The mean and standard deviation were added to the results of the evaluation questionnaire by students (Questionnaire B). This was not done in the other questionnaires because the sample populations were smaller, particularly the teaching staff (7) and the 'experts' (5) and the needs analysis questionnaire consisted of many open-ended questions which were not considered for a frequency count.

6.8 CONCLUSION

A study such as this would benefit from having a team of researchers to collect and study various types of data at different times of the materials development process. This was partially done with the help of the researcher's colleagues who gave feedback on their observations in class on how the students dealt with and coped with the coursebooks and what they viewed were the students' English language strengths and weaknesses.

In general, however, the study has produced a variety of interesting input from which evaluation criteria could be extracted. This in turn provides the foundation for designing a set of coursebooks that will answer to most of the EAP needs of the students underpinned by the theories and approaches in current English second language teaching practice.

CHAPTER 7
DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the results of the questionnaires and the interviews conducted. The results are reported as well as interpreted. The objective is to discover the needs of the target population and ascertain the main criteria for the evaluation of the ENGL131 and ENGL132 coursebooks as articulated by the users (the students and teaching staff) of these coursebooks by means of their responses to the questionnaires and the interviews conducted. The students' comments were not edited for spelling or grammar.

7.2 QUESTIONNAIRE (A) - NEEDS ANALYSIS

7.2.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDENTS (RESPONDENTS)

The students who responded to this questionnaire were mainly between the ages of 17 and 19 years (46%) and between 20 and 22 years (36%). Eight percent of the students were between the ages of 23 to 25 years and 5% were older. Five percent did not provide this information. This may be because they were in a hurry to complete the rather lengthy questionnaire booklet, or less likely, that they were embarrassed at being older students.

There were more female respondents (57%) than male respondents (41%). This seems to be the pattern for these modules since there are also more female respondents in the evaluation questionnaire. Two percent of the respondents did not give their gender, which could be attributed to their not wanting their responses to be linked to their gender.

The majority of respondents (96%) were English second language speakers or English was their third language. Many respondents (74%) did not give an indication where English fitted in and only gave their mother tongue. No student indicated a speaking knowledge of Afrikaans. This does not correlate with the researcher's observation of students coming to her office, who, when overhearing her conversation in Afrikaans with someone else, will speak quite easily in Afrikaans. This is probably because of the political connotation linked to Afrikaans.

The respondents were mainly SePedi L1 speakers (50%), followed by XiTsonga (25%) speakers. Seventy-seven percent of the respondents attended secondary school in Limpopo Province; 71% went to rural schools and 26% attended urban schools.

Most of the respondents (42%) obtained a D symbol for English in the Grade 12 examination. A D symbol is a mark between 50 and 59 %. Twenty-two percent obtained an E (a mark between 40 and 49%) and 3% an F (below 40%). Therefore, most of the respondents (66%) obtained between 35% and 59 %. Twenty-five percent (those who obtained an E and an F) of the group need to enhance their overall English proficiency for their tertiary studies because having obtained below 50% for English at the secondary school level indicates that they will most likely struggle with the English academic discourse and result in failure to cope with content subjects presented in English – the language of learning and teaching. Those with a D symbol probably also need to ensure that their English proficiency enables them to cope with reading and understanding the various textbooks required for their content subjects.

7.2.2 TERTIARY BACKGROUND AND ENGLISH NEEDS

The degrees for which the respondents were enrolled were mainly in the Humanities (68%), but also from the Law faculty (10%), Management Sciences, that is, for B. Admin (13%) and B.Com (2%), and the Sciences (5%). (2% did not respond to the question.) This covers a wide variety of disciplines represented in the ENGL131 and ENGL132 modules which suggests different kinds of language and vocabulary needs, as well as core skills and activities, particularly academic language skills.

The students were offered 7 different reasons for enrolling for the ENGL131 and English 132 modules and were asked to indicate those that were applicable to them.

Table 7.1: *Q. 10. Why have you registered for ENGL131 and ENGL 132?* (More than one reason could be marked.)

I hope it will improve my English
I like learning English
It is compulsory for my degree course
I need to speak and write English well to get a good job
It is an international language. If I want to travel abroad I need to

know English to communicate
I needed an extra course to make up my credits
I need to learn how to write essays and assignments for my other subjects

The main reasons given were mainly "I hope it will improve my English" (74%) and "It is compulsory for my degree course" (61%). Although for a reasonably large percentage English was a compulsory subject they do appear to want to improve their proficiency. Forty-four percent indicated that they needed to speak and write English well to get a job.

Few respondents (4%) chose these English modules just to make up credits. A few respondents (6%) added additional comments[1]:

1. *I need to communicate effectively*
2. *English is never enough, so I learn new words everyday*
3. *Talk fluently with my clients at work*
4. *To speak fluently*
5. *Improve my writing skills*
6. *Broaden my knowledge*

Comment 2 suggests that this respondent would like more contact hours or more personal attention because he/she encounters new vocabulary daily. Comment 6 implies that the respondent either wants to broaden his/her knowledge of English or by learning English, having access to more knowledge. Although these comments, except comment 2 and possibly comment 6, were covered by one of the options given, they probably wanted to emphasise their specific need for English.

7.2.3 TEXTBOOK - BUYING HABITS

When asked whether they bought textbooks, 53% of the respondents indicated that they bought textbooks only for some subjects. The subjects for which most respondents indicated that they bought textbooks were Sociology (29%), Psychology (27%), Social Work (16%), Political Science (12%) and Criminology (3%). All the other subjects showed lower percentages. The main reasons indicated for buying textbooks for theses subjects were that they could not pass the subject without a textbook and that the lecturer taught from the textbook. Only 12% indicated that they bought a textbook because the lecturer was strict and insisted on their buying it. (In the group interview with staff, five out of the seven believed that the students for

[1] All the comments from the questionnaire are exactly as they were written by the students. They have not been edited for grammar or syntax because in their original form a reader can see the degree of language proficiency the students in the study display.

ENGL131 and 132 would not buy a prescribed commercial textbook.) These findings confirm that UniLim students tend not to buy textbooks and rely on notes, handouts, the library and photocopies (see Question 13, below).

This culture of doing without textbooks probably already comes from the schools. According to Taylor and Vinjevold (1999:169), teachers in rural schools do not use language materials or do not know how to use them (Baxen & Green 1999: 264; Pile & Smythe 1999: 314; Wickham & Versveld 1999: 354). (See Chapter 2 of this study.) Besides not being able to afford textbooks (34%), textbooks not having been used in the school classroom could be a reason for students not buying textbooks unless compelled to. It could also suggest that students need to be taught how to use textbooks and cope with more complex English than they are used to, as well as deal with subject specific language. However, 83% of respondents in this study declared that they did use textbooks in grade 12. This contradicts other research (Taylor & Vinjevold 1999; Taylor 2001:9; Taylor & Prinsloo 2005: 5).

The additional comments given at the end of the question as to why they bought certain books seem to indicate their need to confirm what they have heard in the lectures or to compare class handouts and the textbook. One respondent mentioned that students avoided speaking to the lecturer – this would suggest that a textbook gives the support otherwise received from consultations with a lecturer. The invitation to comment was also an opportunity to complain about outdated library reference books and lazy lecturers who only rely on textbooks and do not give handouts. The comments below are examples given:

I can't write tests without it
To compare lecturers' handouts and text books
For research purpose
I compare my class notes and textbook to pass
I want to learn more
Student resist to speak to lecture
I think it will help me as psychology is my major course
For reference sake
Our library textbooks are outdated
My lecturers of these subjects are lazzy

Table 7.2: Question 13. *Why didn't you buy textbooks?*

They could indicate more than one of the following:

I cannot afford to buy textbooks.
They are not available in the local bookshops.
The notes I take are sufficient.
We get very good handouts from the lecturers.
I think we should get free handouts from the lecturers
We only use part of the textbook.
I make use of the books in the library.
I can write the tests or examinations without using a textbook/ coursebook.
I buy some textbooks; but I don't buy one for English because English is not a major subject
I can study without textbooks

The main reason given for not buying textbooks was that they could not afford to buy them (34%). Six percent believe the handouts should be free. Twenty three percent indicated that they received good handouts and 25% made use of library books. Fifteen percent did not buy textbooks because they used only part of the book. This would justify the development of specially tailored course books, particularly if the cost could be kept down. Only 3% indicated that they could write tests or examinations without using a textbook and 1% could study without a textbook. Only 3% indicated that while buying other textbooks they did not buy textbooks for English because it was not a major subject. These responses show that students are aware of the necessity of having the textbook but that they have to buy selectively because they have financial constraints (see Chapter 1). The comments which students added show that they make use of alternative methods to acquire the material:

We photocopy the relevent section of the textbooks
I sometimes make copies
I borrowed the other textbooks from friends

7.2.4 EDUCATOR PREFERENCE

Question 14, which wanted to ascertain the students' preference for an English lecturer from a particular country, race or gender, highlighted interesting viewpoints. The following options were given and they were asked to choose 3 and rate them from first to third preference.

Table 7.3: Q. 14. *To study English, which lecturer would you prefer to have?*

A lecturer who belongs to the same culture as you (e.g. a Sepedi/ SeSotho/ Xhosa lecturer)?
A black lecturer from SA?
A black lecturer from another country?
A white lecturer from Britain?
A white lecturer from SA?
An Asian lecturer?
A young female lecturer?
An older female lecturer?
A young male lecturer?
An older male lecturer?
Any lecturer who understands your customs and traditions?
Any lecturer who is qualified to teach English?

First Preference: 41% preferred any lecturer who is qualified to teach English, 13% preferred a white lecturer from Britain and 9 % preferred a black lecturer from South Africa. It seems generally, students rate the fact that the lecturer is qualified to teach English as the most important. The preference of 13% for a British lecturer indicates a desire to learn the English spoken by native English speakers or perhaps 'standard' English because not all native English speakers necessarily speak intelligible English (e.g. Glaswegian; the Manchester dialect). The preference of 9% respondents for a black South African lecturer possibly denotes the wish to have someone from a similar background who may be likely to understand their English language problems.

Second preference: The highest second preference was for any lecturer who understood his/her culture and traditions (22%) followed by a white lecturer from South Africa (15%) and any lecturer qualified to teach English (6%.)

Third preference: The highest third preference was again any lecturer qualified to teach English (24%), followed by a white South Africa lecturer (8%) and a lecturer who understands their customs and traditions (8%).

Some respondents were apparently clear about their first preference and so did not bother giving their second and third preferences - for the first preference 8% did not answer the question, for the second preference 26% did not indicate their second preference and for the third 31% failed to respond. From the preferences rated the highest it appears that students wish to be taught a 'standard-type' English, but also wish to have their customs and traditions acknowledged, that is have a 'humanised'

classroom and thus a 'humanised' coursebook as described by Tomlinson (2003: 162) (see Chapter 3, section 3.10 on Interculturality and ELT).

The following telling comments were added:

Anyone whom I can understand
Any strict lecturer
As long as he/she does his work
Any lecturer who we can understand
Any lecturer who knows English very well
Anyone whose excellent and commited

These comments indicate that students want language teaching by an educator who is intelligible, can keep discipline in the class (in discussion with ENGL131 and 132 students, some students have expressed annoyance with unruly or noisy 'communicating' students who make it difficult to hear the lecturer or do the work), and knows his/her subject. Age, gender or race are not important considerations.

Question 15, which focuses on accent and pronunciation, shows that the respondents are not concerned whether the educator is a L1 (20%) or L2 speaker (9%) as long as they can understand him/her (62%). (9% did not respond to this question.)

7.2.5 MATERIAL CONTENT[2]

In response to the question (No. 16) on whether the current coursebooks contained enough passages about events and customs related to their culture, 43% replied positively and 55% disagreed (2% did not respond). The response to the question whether the current coursebooks contained too many passages and activities involving 'western' culture 54% agreed and 43% disagreed. Since the difference is not large, this would imply that an integrated approach (including the source culture as well as the target culture) might be called for. (3% did not respond.) Fifty-four percent of the respondents felt that future coursebooks should contain 26%-50% local cultural content[3]. Twenty-one percent felt the local cultural content should be 51% to 75% of the coursebook. This confirms a more integrated content, leaning towards local content. This supports the idea of in-house materials which are tailored for a specific

[2] Material content in this study means what the reading and comprehension passages and language activities are about.
[3] Local cultural content in this study refers to the cultures of the students from Limpopo. This means articles, stories reading passages etc. will include customs of and events in the SePedi, TshiVenda and Tsonga cultures.

audience, something commercial textbooks do not want to consider because such a textbook is only relevant to students who can understand the cultural background.

7.2.6 LEARNING STRATEGIES

Questions 19 and 20 wanted to establish whether the respondents liked to work in groups both in the classroom and when studying for examinations. The questions were given as statements with the options of choosing only one answer. The statements given were: Question 19 - *I prefer to do the English workshop activities and tasks* and Question 20 - *I prefer to study for the examinations:*

Table 7.4: Q's 19 and 20. *How you prefer working on English activities and tasks and examinations?*

by myself (on my own)
with a friend
in a group of 3 students
in a group of 5 students

In terms of classroom activities and tasks, most respondents wanted to work on their own (41%), 28% liked working with a friend, 17% liked working in a group of 3 and 12% in a group of 5. (2% did not respond.) With regard to studying for examinations, 45% preferred studying on their own, 26% with a friend, 19% in a group of 3 and 3% in a group of 5. (6% did not respond.) From these responses it would seem that at least 40% of the students preferred to work on their own and almost 60% would have liked to work with at least one person. To work on tasks in pairs or in small groups of three is probably the best option in this context when encouraging group work and collaborative learning.

7.2.7 ENGLISH LANGUAGE NEEDS

Question 21 sought to find out whether students believed they needed grammar instruction at tertiary level. Eighty-five percent declared that they did and 10 percent felt they did not. (4% did not respond.) Students clearly feel that they need grammar instruction.

The aim of Question 22 was to find out what the respondents felt they needed in terms of English language skills. They had to either agree or disagree with the statements in Table 7.5.

Table 7.5: *Students' beliefs about their English language skills.*

		Agree	Disagree	No response
1	I like reading	96%	3%	1%
2	I can read well enough for my studies	78%	17%	4%
3	I understand most of what I read in my textbooks for my other subjects	77%	20%	3%
4	I need to read faster in order to do all my work for all my modules	63%	32%	5%
5	I often do not understand what I am reading	30%	64%	6%
6	I can read and interpret graphs with ease	56%	38%	6%
7	I do not always understand the written instructions in the coursebook	38%	58%	4%
8	I often do not understand my lecturer	25%	70%	5%
9	I don't know how to take down good lecture notes	20%	75%	5%
10	I am able to summarise chapters of textbooks	67%	30%	3%
11	I like to write in English	90%	7%	3%
12	I **cannot** express my ideas clearly in written English	38%	58%	4%
13	I **can** express my ideas in spoken English	78%	21%	1%
14	I find it difficult to speak to my lecturer in English because s/he makes me nervous	19%	77%	4%
15	I find it difficult to speak to my lecturer in English because I don't know enough English words.	26%	70%	4%

Some of the questions were similar or articulated differently to cross-check the validity of the respondents' answers. There is a pattern in the responses which reflects the majority of respondents' belief in their own ability. This may be slightly inflated, particularly of written communication.

According to option one, 96% of the respondents liked reading. This contradicts what has been generally observed when speaking to the students about their reading habits. (This is even a problem encountered when interviewing potential postgraduate students – when asked what they read or have read it is often limited to prescribed books in their undergraduate years and newspapers.) Research has shown that South Africans do not have the means, or often the inclination, to read (Jordan 2007: 8). The researcher has for the period of this study made a wide range of magazines available for students to fetch from her office. Only a few came regularly to fetch one – usually the same students. From observation in the classroom it also appears that students equate 'reading' with studying'. Little reading is done for pleasure and this is confirmed by the study commissioned by the Department of Arts and Culture. (See Chapter 3 EAP, section 3.3.3: EAP and Materials – Academic Reading.)

In statement 2, 78% respondents indicated that they read well enough for their studies and in statement 3, seventy-seven percent indicated that they understand most of their subject textbooks. They appeared to have an over-inflated idea of their reading and comprehension proficiency. If an examination paper or test paper contains reading passages that are more than a page, many students find it difficult to finish within the set time, even with the help of a dictionary to aid comprehension. Respondents (63%), in statement 4, do however admit to needing to read faster for their various modules. Responding to statement 5, the majority of respondents (64%) believed that they generally had no problem understanding what they read. Thirty percent, a fairly large number, did admit to having reading comprehension problems. (6% did not respond to the question.) This indicates the need for comprehension tests and vocabulary building exercises.

Fifty-six percent of the respondents believed that they are able to read and interpret graphs easily, while 38% do not (6% did not respond.) There was not a great difference in the numbers agreeing or disagreeing - which could point at a need for honing visual literacy.

When it comes to understanding written instructions (statement 7), 58% said they do not have difficulty understanding the written instructions, whereas 38% do. (4% did not respond to the statement.) The percentage having difficulty is high enough (almost 40%) to warrant attention to teaching the skills needed for understanding instructions and for materials writers to ensure the clarity of instructions. There is also the possibility that students skim over the instructions or not read them closely because they are used to hurrying through exercises or tasks. Time pressure is part of assessment, but it is perhaps something that can be increased gradually and the more difficult tasks can be given as homework. This indicates the need for autonomous learning as well enhanced reading skills.

Students appeared not to have problems understanding their lecturer (statement 8) – 71% indicated that they disagreed with the statement of 'often not understanding' their lecturer. Twenty-five percent felt they had difficulty understanding their lecturer. (4% did not respond.)

Regarding statement 9 which refers to the students' inability to take good notes, 75% disagreed. The majority thus felt they could take good notes. This is not confirmed in practice. The notes taken in the classroom show a general disorganisation. There are often are no dates in the margin indicating on which day the notes were taken; notes for various subjects appear in the same notebook which has corners torn out (presumably to sent a note to someone) and little or no coherence in the notes written down in the notebook. The majority (67%) of respondents also agreed that they are able to summarise chapters of books (statement 10.) Thirty percent admitted to not being able to do so. This would still indicate a need to address summary writing which is an essential skill for note taking and note making. The results of the summary writing assessment written in 2006 showed an average mark of 41%. This contradicts the majority of students' belief that they are able to summarise effectively.

In response to statement 11, 90% expressed a liking for writing in English. This could be to pacify the researcher, but if genuine, this positive attitude could be used to motivate students to learn to write well and proficiently.

With statement 12, on their inability to express their ideas clearly in written English, 38% agreed that they could not. However, when speaking English most respondents (78%) felt that they could express themselves. Students appeared to be more confident with spoken English communication than with written English communication. This is confirmed by observations (personal communication with colleagues) that students who in class and in consultations are able to hold conversations in comprehensible English do not necessarily display the same proficiency in their written work. In discussion with students, especially law students and those enrolled for media studies, the desire was expressed for classes teaching speaking skills. This may indicate the need for the introduction of an English speaking skills module, perhaps outside ENGL131 and ENGL132 modules as an extra module. The current ENGL131 and ENGL132 class size is too large for teaching effective speaking skills – not all students will be able to be have a turn to give a presentation or even to just speak briefly, hence the need for an extra module for speaking skills or the introduction of extra contact period for speaking skills. (This could perhaps be solved by tutorials, but the staffing and venue constraints make it a logistical nightmare – it would involve about 47 workshops per week of 20 students per

workshop for speaking skills, in addition to the 16 to 20 current workshops (multiplied by 3 contact periods a week) for the reading and writing skills. With a staff of 8 this would mean each staff member would have to teach about at least 12 weekly contact periods to the ENGL131 and ENGL132 groups. That would exclude the other undergraduate and postgraduate courses. (See page 211 further on.)

From the responses to statement 14 it seems that the majority of respondents (77%) were not too nervous to speak to their lecturer in English. Nor did they, according to the responses to statement 15, find it difficult to speak to their lecturer because of insufficient vocabulary. The poor participation, which is experienced by many UniLim lecturers in English classes and other subjects, could perhaps, among other factors, be attributed to cultural norms as indicated by Cleghorn and Rollnick (2002). (See Chapter 4, section 4.7, Material, Culture and Interculturality.)

The non-responses for each statement, especially concerning specific skills, could indicate uncertainty and perhaps being loathe to admit to a shortcoming. It also appears that non-responses were slightly higher if the statement was a negative one and pointed to the students' lack of skill, and lower if the statement was positive or if the lack of skill could be blamed on the materials, the lecturer or an entity outside themselves. Another interpretation could be made, namely that the question was ambiguous and so the respondent did not know how to respond.

The purpose of the statements Question 23 was to confirm the respondents' replies to some of the statements in question 22 concerning their view of their English proficiency. Question 23 presented the following statements about their English writing skills (Table 7.6). They were asked to agree or disagree with the statements. The percentages are given alongside.

Table 7.6: *Students' beliefs about their English writing skills*

		Agree	Disagree	No response
1.	I can express my thoughts and ideas well in written English	78%	21%	1%
2.	My lecturer clearly understands what I write in English.	80%	17%	3%
3.	I need to write more in English now than at school, but am unable to	36%	62%	2%

4.	I need to learn more grammar rules to write better English	90%	9%	1%
5.	I often have too little time to write a good essay.	44%	53%	3%

The responses to Question 23, statement 1 confirmed the respondents' general belief (78%) that they are able express themselves well in English. In the researcher's view (based on experience) and fair consideration, this belief is inflated. (The reason for this inflated idea of their actual competence should be investigated.) The majority (80%) also believe that their lecturer clearly comprehends their written work (statement 2.) According to teaching staff (personal group interview 2006: see section 6.6 in this chapter), they found that some of the student essays were incoherent and almost unintelligible. This contradicts the students' view (80%) that lecturers clearly understand their writing. The responses to statement 3 show that that almost two thirds (62%) of them believe they are able to cope with the writing demands of university. Pertinent to the issue of teaching grammar (statement 4), 90% of respondents believe that they need to learn more grammar rules to write better English. The viewpoint about sufficient time for writing an essay is reasonably equally divided – 44% believe they have too little time and 53% believe they do not. This could be a fairly accurate assessment of their ability to write unassisted, that is, without the help of dictionaries or time to articulate their ideas.

Question 24 sought to establish what students found useful in the coursebooks in terms of improving their comprehension of academic English and academic reading skills (Table 7.7).

Table 7.7: *Students' views about the usefulness of the coursebooks in terms of academic reading*

		Very useful	Partly useful	Not really useful	Not useful at all	No response
1.	reading the reading passages at the beginning of each unit	67%	23%	1%	6%	3%
2.	using my dictionary properly	81%	12%	1%	4%	2%
3.	learning new vocabulary	77%	12%	3%	4%	1%
4.	doing all the vocabulary exercises	63%	29%	2%	5%	1%
5.	discussing the vocabulary that is used in the exercises	60%	29%	4%	5%	2%
6.	discussing topics of interest that are referred to in the exercises	68%	17%	10%	3%	2%
7.	learning the correct punctuation for a sentence	78%	15%	2%	3%	3%

8.	doing exercises involving, verbs, adjectives, prepositions	77%	13%	5%	3%	2%
9.	learning about the function of parts of speech in the sentences I read	67%	25%	3%	3%	2%
10.	learning about different ways of reading	64%	21%	10%	3%	2%
11.	answering the comprehension test questions	69%	23%	2%	4%	2%
12.	learning about the active and passive voice in a sentence	68%	22%	6%	3%	2%
13.	learning about the content of the introduction of an essay	75%	14%	5%	4%	2%
14.	learning about the structure of good paragraphs	66%	23%	5%	4%	2%
15.	learning about topic sentences	68%	24%	2%	3%	3%
16.	learning about the content of the conclusion of an essay	71%	21%	3%	3%	2%
17.	learning about signpost/ linking words in a piece of writing (coherence)	71%	17%	7%	3%	2%
18.	learning how facts are organized and presented in a passage or chapter	75%	17%	3%	3%	2%

It may be argued that there are many factors influencing students' views and a variety reasons for the respondents' beliefs about language learning, which could shape the kind of responses given. The validity of the interpretations could thus be questioned. Yet, the results of question 24 in particular, do indicate the perceived English language needs of the respondents and these requirements need to be taken into account when developing language materials for them. The majority of respondents rated all the activities as *very useful*, but the ones that were rated by 70% and more as *very useful* for improving comprehension and reading for their studies were statements 2 (dictionary use), 3 (new vocabulary), 7 (punctuation), 8 (parts of speech), 13 (what to include in essay introductions), 16 (what to include in essay conclusions),17 (linking or transition words), and 18 (organisation of information in written communication).

At the end of Question 24 comments on the content were invited. There were several that expressed their satisfaction with the coursebooks, but the following comments and criticisms were worth noting in terms of changing some of the activities in the coursebooks (Table 7.8).

Learning about anaylizing [sic] (This student had perhaps not had to or thought of analysing questions or sentences.)

Sometimes the exercises seem too childish; not challenging enough (A valid criticism – the mixed ability classes are a problem. This needs to be addressed in the way the activities are dealt with by the lecturer, for example, giving suggestions in a teachers' book by using the same task but giving the more proficient students more complex things to do and those with low English proficiency less complex things to do.)

Writing many works without being marked [sic] (The answers are posted on the glass-fronted noticeboard but students who get there first remove them despite locks.)

Topic sentences and grammar (Students have found Topic sentences difficult to identify and even more difficult to use in their writing.)

It helps me to improve my English vocabulary (This respondent values vocabulary.)

They are good on the basis of good lecture you have (This respondent regards the coursebook as supporting a lecture.)

Lecture of essay introductions was not understandable (in discussion with staff this unit appears to be an area of difficulty – may need to be simplified.)

Marks must be allocated according to answers (this respondent seems to want to be rewarded in marks for work done.)

The exercises on referencing are very useful in the coursebook (another student responded to question 27 that the unit should be changed – as this is a part of academic writing students need to be informed what is part of academic writing and cannot be left out.)

Question 25 sought to establish which activities in the coursebooks (in particular the ENGL132 coursebook) the students find help them with their English writing.

Table 7.8: *Students' views about the usefulness of the coursebooks for improving their writing skills*

		Very useful	Partly useful	Not really useful	Not useful at all	No response
1.	reading comprehension and reading passages as examples of how a good English sentence should be written	**75%**	15%	2%	5%	3%
2.	learning to use my dictionary	67%	20%	5%	6%	2%
3.	learning about correct punctuation in a sentence	**78%**	12%	4%	4%	2%
4.	doing all the vocabulary exercises	55%	28%	13%	2%	3%
5.	learning new vocabulary	60%	26%	8%	4%	2%
6.	learning about good, correct English sentence structure	**79%**	13%	3%	3%	2%
7.	learning to read faster and more pages in a shorter time than in Grade 12	57%	22%	15%	3%	3%
8.	learning about parts of speech (e.g verbs, nouns, adjectives, etc)	**73%**	19%	4%	3%	1%
9.	learning how to use parts of speech to write good sentences	**74%**	18%	3%	3%	2%

10.	doing the comprehension tests	57%	25%	10%	5%	3%
11.	discussing different topics in the workshops that are mentioned in the exercises	61%	23%	9%	5%	2%
12.	learning how to use the active and passive voice	**71%**	18%	7%	3%	1%
13.	practising to analyse an essay topic using task and topic words	65%	22%	4%	7%	2%
14.	learning to recognize and write a topic sentence	65%	22%	6%	4%	3%
15.	learning to develop logical arguments	56%	23%	10%	8%	3%
16.	learning to use signposting/ linking words	63%	22%	5%	8%	2%
17.	learning how to write an introduction to an essay	**77%**	11%	4%	4%	4%
18.	learning how to write a conclusion to an essay	**73%**	13%	4%	7%	3%
19.	practising to write supporting sentences	57%	29%	9%	3%	2%
20.	learning how to organise and present facts in a passage or essay	**71%**	19%	4%	4%	2%

The activities the majority of respondents (70% and more) found very useful were activity 1 (reading comprehension reading and the passages as models of appropriate English), 3 (correct punctuation), 6 (English sentence structure), 7 (learning to read faster i.e. finding more information faster), 8 (learning about parts of speech), 12 (active and passive voice), 17 (essay introductions), 18 (essay conclusions), and 20 (organisation of information.) The researcher infers from these and the previous question's responses that what students find useful is also what they feel they need to practise in terms of language learning. That they want to learn correct or appropriate sentence or essay structure can also be inferred from the statements that are indicated as *very useful*. Comparing the responses of Questions 24 and 25 it would appear that the respondents did not make much of a distinction between what they needed to improve in their comprehension and reading skills and what they needed to improve in their writing skills - which may not be such a bad thing since the language skills should be seen as interwoven and not distinct from each other in everyday academic use. The responses to both Questions 24 and 25 indicate that students want grammar (sentence structure, parts of speech, essay structure) and punctuation addressed (see Chapter 4, section 4.4 Grammar Instruction).

What is interesting is the 8% *not useful at all* position on signal words and logical thinking – crucial aspects to good writing. Perhaps these respondents had a good

secondary school teaching and feel they can do it. An alternative explanation could be that they do not understand those units and cannot recognise or use signal words to present an argument logically in formal writing.

Questions 26, 27, and 28 asked respondents to write down what they think should be removed, changed or added to the coursebooks respectively. (Not all the comments are clearly expressed and so the interpretations are made from the researcher's observations, discussions with students and colleagues, and 15 years of experience in the institution.) It is important to consider the comments because the fact that some have made the effort to write a comment (they could instead in the lengthy questionnaire have ignored the opportunity as some did) shows that the issue each has commented upon is important to the individual.

In Question 26, 46% of the respondents stated that nothing should be removed, as opposed to 37% who suggested some parts should be removed (17% gave no comment). The comments, below, are those that students added after Question 26. They need to be considered.

(Comments about similar language issues are grouped together. Students' comments are in italics [once again unedited] and the researcher's interpretation follows in regular print.)

Repeating one essay twice: Students are required to write at least two drafts before the final version – this student, and the next two seem to dislike process writing.
Having to write essays on one topic everytime
Repeating the same topic

The following are understood as those items a student wishes to have removed:
Scrambled sentences and linking words
Writing essays and introductions
Topic sentence with supporting sentence
Irrelevent exercises like matching a picture to a number: These exercises are meant to show that logical order is important – this respondent and the next possibly see pictures as too unsophisticated. There are, however, some students who do not agree.
Story pictures should be taken out

Prepositions, active and passive voice: These suggestions could be interpreted as students not wanting formal grammar instruction. However, these are items students have particular difficulty with as shown in essays, examinations and tests.
Active and passive voice
Parts of speech

Exercises which are not going to be marked: This indicates the need for feedback – this is something that needs to be addressed. Answers at the end of the coursebooks will just be copied. The theft of the answers posted on the noticeboards may be prevented by also

locking the two class panels on either side of the ones (locked) used for putting up the answers.
The graphs: This respondent and the next *either* find graphs difficult and thus do not like working with them *or* they view them as unnecessary because they can work with graphs.
The systematic graph

The lots of reading passages: This respondent responded similarly to Q27 - Reading passages should be reduced – he/she clearly does not like reading.
Unecessary stories: This respondent may prefer activities which require little reading or may not like reading for pleasure.
More things should be added: The 'things' have not been indicated. Perhaps he/she would like more activities or perhaps explanations of certain grammar forms.
A lot of comprehensions: This respondent and the next probably find a great deal of reading taxing.
Comprehension passages
Nothing, but the selling part of coursebooks: The request for cheaper (each coursebook costs about R30) or free coursebooks comes up regularly.

Question 27 offered respondents the opportunity to suggest changes. Twenty-four percent of the respondents did not give comments while 35% wanted changes and 41% did not. Where some of the respondents would like to see changes are shown below:

(Here too, similar comments are grouped together and are in italics [once again unedited] and the researcher's interpretation follows in regular print.)

Introductions: It has been observed by the researcher and the other teaching staff that students find the unit on the writing of introductions difficult to understand and apply. Their essays show this. Clearer examples will need to be found
Since 132 is harder than 131, the works should be mixed
The percentage things: The researcher assumes this refers to the graphs which involve percentages – this may indicate a problem with numeracy.

Writing essays: These 5 responses indicate that writing is important to the respondents but that they want to write on different topics and not do several versions of one essay as is the case in process writing.
More essays
The number of essays
The essay topics
Repeating the same topic

Writing bibliography: These three comments possibly point at that the respondents find these areas difficult and that the way they are presented should be changed to be more comprehensible or reader-friendly.
Introductions
Conclusions and introductions

The price of the coursebooks should be less (Cost remains a factor to some students – 6% of the responses to question 27 and 2% of the responses to question 26.) (See also above – the last comments to Question 27.)
I think we must get them for free
Only the price
Nothing, but we mustn't buy the coursebooks at all
Price

Reading passages should be reduced: This and the next three responses may indicate a need for reading skills, particularly reading faster.
Very long passages and tasks
Decrease the units: There are about 11 units covered in each coursebook. Perhaps some topics need more time and attention.

Grammar: This respondent suggested in Q26 that certain grammar items should be removed – perhaps he/she wishes the approach to change.
Vocabulary: This student may want the vocabulary activities to be changed.

More activities concerning English improvements: This respondent probably would like to focus on his/her weak points.
Entertaining topics like teenage pregnancy should be introduced or included: Topics of interest for young adults are important for class participation and motivation.

The system of marking, everything should be marked: Marks are important to this and the next respondent. This is echoed by two other students in question 28.
There should be no tasks without marks

The lecturer must stop joking: Perhaps the respondent does not think there is too much levity in the classroom – or the lecturer and the respondent do not share the same humour – an aspect which could be discussed with students.
Wasting our time and are difficult: Perhaps this student is discouraged because he/she cannot cope.

Question 28

Seventeen percent did not respond with comments. Some students expressed their satisfaction.
No, I think everything that we need is there
No, the coursebook is well organised
No, the way they are structured they are okay
I am quit impress a lot about the workshop books
No, the coursebook is well organised
No.Everything is fine and easy to understand

Fifty-five percent wanted to add something to the coursebooks and 29% did not. The comments were, however, similar to those given after question 27, which indicates that there is more a sense of wanting changes than additions. (See Appendix G for the full list of additions that were suggested and the researcher's interpretation.)

To sum up the comments in questions 26, 27, and 28, the issues the ENGL131 and ENGL132 students seem most concerned about are:

- Complexity of exercises
- Marks for exercises done in coursebooks
- The unit on introductions and conclusions
- The price
- Essay topics – a greater variety
- Reading skills

- Problem-solving tasks
- More space in the formatting and a stronger binding
- The role of pictures in tasks -
- Debates and discussions – the desire for speaking skills
- Comprehension exercises – too much reading
- Current issues of concern to the youth, e.g. teenage pregnancies

7.2.8 STUDENT INTERESTS

(For the list of interests, see the questionnaire appended: Appendix A.)

Question 29 gave a list of interests which the respondents had to rate in order of preference. The objective of this was to establish the students' interests to help in the selection of reading passages and essay topics. The five that were rated highest were politics (25%), sport, (23%), reading magazines (23%), relationships (23%), and religion (20%). These were followed by 'how to have a healthy body' (19%), reading newspapers (17%), the media (17%), television soapies (14%), and African literature (11%). The other topics of interest recorded lower percentages. A preference was shown for the African genre where topics distinguished between western and African literature and music, for example. This indicates that many passages used in a coursebook should relate to the students' culture and interest (cf. Chapter 4, section on Interculturality). Catering for students' interests in the coursebooks will encourage them to engage in the language activities (Islam 2003: 258) and take part in class discussions. Griffith (2007: 97) has found that students regard television, movies and songs as strategies for learning a language whereas these are not regarded by teachers as very important. Materials designers should consider including these media in the materials to motivate participation and engagement with the target language.

7.2.9 CONCLUSION

As anticipated by the researcher, the majority of students in the sample are SePedi speakers from rural area of Limpopo between the ages of 17 to 22 years of age. Most students have enrolled for the Engl131 and ENGL132 modules to improve their English. These students tend not to buy textbooks, except for some subjects such as Psychology and Sociology. They want a lecturer who is intelligible. They wish the coursebooks to consist of at least 50% local cultural content. The majority believe they need grammar instruction. The majority said that they like reading but 'reading' is

often used to mean 'studying'. Most are likely to read very little, as established by the Department of Arts and Culture (Jordan 2007). There is an indication that although some students complain about too many reading and comprehension passages (which the researcher interprets as having difficulty with reading because there is no reading culture (Jordan 2007)) that they realise the need for activities to practise academic reading, to test their comprehension, increase their vocabulary and develop visual literacy (graphs). They would like to improve their English speaking skills or have the opportunity to interact more. The majority indicated that they have no difficulty expressing themselves in written English. They, however, have an inflated belief of their English writing skills. Generally, the students feel their English language skills are adequate. There were few who wanted things removed from the coursebooks but there were suggestions for changing the coursebooks, for instance, not doing a number of drafts of their essays. The outside interests of the students that rated the highest were politics, sport and relationships. On the whole, the students were satisfied with the coursebook.

7.3 GROUP INTERVIEWS (SEE QUESTIONNAIRE, APPENDIX. E)

Four semi-structured group interviews were held with four groups of students; three groups of 4 students and one of 3. There were 9 female students and 6 male students. The duration of each group interview was about 30 minutes. The headings of each unit in the two coursebooks were written on the board to remind the interviewees what topics were covered in them. (See Chapter 6, section 6.4.3 and 6.6.3)

7.3.1 QUESTIONS 1 AND 2: THE ENGL131 COURSEBOOK

Topics in the ENGL131 coursebook that some respondents felt were not so useful were prepositions, verbs and tenses. However, there was not always agreement in the groups. The interviewer observed that interviewees who were confident and proficient in expressing themselves felt that much of the grammar dealt with in the coursebooks had been done at school and therefore felt that much of the grammar was not useful. However, of the 15 interviewees nine 9 (60%) still wanted to have grammar covered in the coursebooks. Most of the interviewees mentioned problems with punctuation – a very basic skill. (In their essays punctuation is very badly done.) The feeling was expressed that ENGL131 (the grammar component) was difficult and

marks should be awarded for all the exercises. One student asserted that with an awareness of correct grammar the essays he produced were of a better quality.

When discussing the unit on dictionary work, only one in one group reported having used a dictionary at school. Another group felt that the unit on dictionary work was too long[4]. However, most of the interviewees conceded that using the dictionary helped them increase their vocabulary. One suggested more interesting activities to learn more vocabulary. Collocations could be taught instead of individual words.

Feedback was an issue mentioned by five interviewees. Perhaps the number of tasks or activities done in a week could be fewer so that the lecturer can give feedback in class. The large classes are an obstacle. According to colleagues (personal communication), peer assessment and peer feedback has not been successful because the students do not have sufficient knowledge of grammar to recognise errors in each others written work. Discipline also becomes a problem in classes with more than 40 students – while checking the work of students, those who have done the exercise get bored and start talking to each other. The faster student can be kept busy with a more complex task for which the feedback can be posted on the noticeboard. The solution may lie in giving feedback to some of the work in the class and others on the secure noticeboard.

7.3.2 QUESTIONS 3 AND 4 – ENGL132 COURSEBOOK

In the ENGL132 coursebook, the groups reported that summary writing was the biggest problem and one interviewee indicated that he did not understand why summary writing should be included in the course. Another interviewee wanted better feedback, for example, to be shown an example of what an acceptable summary is. A law student felt visual literacy was less important since they did not need to interpret many graphs during the first year of their law studies. At least one student per group wished to have more time allocated to the interpretation of graphs and expressing the interpretation in writing.

[4] In a test (March, 2006) for which students had 45 minutes to complete a comprehension test, use words from the passage to construct their own sentences (5 sentences), and a question for which they needed to indicate the meaning in context and the part of speech of 5 words, only 11 from a group of 78 finished within 45 minutes, 50 finished after an hour and 17 needed 75 minutes. This indicates that students need to increase their reading speed, guess the meaning of words from the context and learn to use their dictionaries more effectively and faster.

Some felt that the unit on linking words should be left out because it was too difficult. This was countered by students in the same group that they found them important because it taught them to order their arguments logically and write coherently. This highlights a flaw in the coursebooks. They need to clearly indicate the objectives of each unit so that students know why they are learning a specific skill. Not all lecturers may do this as a matter of course.

All interviewees said that they needed to enhance their reading and writing skills. Five indicated that they wanted more time allocated to reading skills. A law student mentioned that reading speed was crucial in reading law books in the library because they had to return them after two hours because there were not enough books on the reserve shelf for a specific assignment.

Three interviewees wanted speaking skills introduced. These were two law students and a media student. This remains a practical problem – in large classes not all students can have a turn and the reserved student does not have the courage to participate. Arranging time slots and venues for separate tutorials (see discussion on p. 201) of about 15 students would seem to be the answer, but it may not be possible to arrange an additional 16 to 20 timeslots and venues to accommodate these. A separate module should perhaps be designed with its own coursebook. (See also a comment by one of the experts in response to questionnaire D, appendix D, discussed in section of Chapter 8). The priority in the ENGL131/ 132 modules is to provide the core skills that first-entering students need to be able to deal with their academic work – academic reading and writing.

The interviewees were on whole satisfied at having a coursebook which gave structure to the course. Most of them still believed that they learn in a classroom setting and autonomous learning appeared to be a foreign concept. However, each group agreed that learning independently is a strategy that would be particularly useful in a large class.

7.3.3 CONCLUSION

The majority of students felt they needed grammar instruction or at least be made aware of grammar rules. Increasing vocabulary was considered important and this should be done by using a dictionary effectively and learning words that were used together – collocations – would be helpful. The unit on dictionary work should be checked for length. Summary writing is generally a difficult skill to acquire, but is crucial. Students expressed the wish for more practice in academic reading. Introducing speaking or presentation skills may have to be considered, to a lesser extent by means of communicative activities within these two modules of this study and eventually an extra module.

7.4 EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE (B)

7.4.1 BACKGROUND

This, in contrast to the previous questionnaire, is an evaluation questionnaire (see Appendix B) and was administered at the end of the second module (ENGL132) to all students attending the last but one class of the semester - 375 students. As pointed out in Chapter 6, the evaluation questionnaire consists of three personal data questions, one question to establish the degree courses the students in the study were enrolled for, two questions about where they went to school (urban or rural) and 54 evaluation questions.

7.4.2 EVALUATION RESULTS

The results show a central tendency to agreement (around 80%) with the statements presented, with the percentage disagreement just above or below 10%.

The statements to which students responded have been grouped under the main ELT approaches or issues examined in Chapters 2 to 5. The headings have not been arranged in any particular order of importance. Some of the statements could also be placed under another heading because the principles of certain approaches overlap (see also Chapter 6). (Attention is drawn to the percentages of either agreement or disagreement that differ from the general pattern by typing those examples in bold.) Statements 19, 35, and 50 show a slightly raised incidence of *no response* (33 (9%), 39 (10%) and 31 (8%) respectively). The rating scales were repeated at the top of each page so that the respondents did not need to turn back to the previous pages.

Some respondents did not see the statement that accompanied the rating scale. Elsewhere, a slightly higher percentage of no *response* seems indicative of uncertainty (See also Chapter 6).

Table 7.9: *Communicative Language Teaching related questions* (Discussed in Chapter 3, section 3.3)

(TABLE LEGEND: Strongly disagree = SD; disagree = D; partly disagree = PD; partly agree = PA; agree = A; strongly agree = SA; no response = NR; mean = M; standard deviation = SD) (These abbreviations apply to all the tables in Chapter 7.)

The results that need particular attention have been highlighted in bold

STATEMENTS	SD	D	PD	PA	A	SA	NR	M	SD
7. The coursebooks are useful in helping me to communicate confidently and competently in English.	21 (6%)	12 (3%)	9 (2%)	43 (11%)	130 (35%)	154 (41%)	6 (2%)	4.93	1.35
	T=11%			T=87%					
8. I always understand the instructions in the coursebook.	15 (4%)	37 (10%)	36 (10%)	90 (24%)	122 (32%)	69 (18%)	6 (2%)	4.28	1.37
	T=24%			T= 74%					
9. The tasks encourage me to talk to other students.	19 (5%)	16 (4%)	8 (2%)	56 (15%)	136 (36%)	134 (36%)	6 (2%)	4.83	1.34
	T = 11%			T = 87%					
10. The tasks encourage me to cooperate and work with other students.	10 (3%)	15 (4%)	19 (5%)	131 (13%)	51 (35%)	146 (39%)	3 (1%)	4.92	1.24
	T = 12%			T = 87%					
11. The tasks are on topics that generate discussion.	25 (7%)	21 (6%)	31 (8%)	78 (21%)	121 (32%)	93 (25%)	6 (2%)	4.43	1.44
	T = **21%**			T = 77%					
12. The tasks encourage class participation.	13 (3%)	11 (3%)	9 (2%)	47 (13%)	131 (35%)	164 (44%)	0 (0%)	5.04	1.22
	8%			**92%**					
13. The reading passages and tasks are authentic (real, as we actually experience things outside the classroom).	18 (5%)	20 (5%)	28 (8%)	60 (16%)	117 (31%)	128 (34%)	4 (1%)	4.68	1.40
	T = 18%			T = 81%					

In Table 7.9 the respondents appear to be satisfied that the coursebooks help them communicate in English (statement 7). However, the coursebooks do not appear to communicate instructions clearly enough (24% disagree with statement 8). They generally agree that the tasks encourage communication amongst each other (statements 9, 10 and 12), with no indication of uncertainty in response to the issue of participation – all respondents rate their answer (0% no response). The responses to

statement 11 appear to contradict this - unless it indicates that students participate and communicate because the tasks require it, but that it is not the topics themselves that generate discussion. (see the statements under *engaging the students' interest.)* Although the responses to the above statements show general agreement students feel there should be more opportunities for participation and discussion (see statement 53). This sentiment could also be linked to the desire expressed by some of the comments in questionnaire A for more practice in speaking skills. Eighty-one percent of the respondents agree that the passages are authentic (statement 13) but there seems to be doubt because there is a slightly raised disagreement of 18%.

Table 7.10: *Formal grammar instruction* (Discussed in Chapter 4, section 4.4)

(TABLE LEGEND: Strongly disagree = SD; disagree = D; partly disagree = PD; partly agree = PA; agree = A; strongly agree = SA; no response = NR; mean = M; standard deviation = SD)

The results that need particular attention have been highlighted in bold

Statements	SD	D	PD	PA	A	SA	NR	M	SD
14. Doing the ENGL131 grammar tasks teaches me what I didn't learn in secondary school.	68 (18%)	58 (16%)	31 (8%)	55 (15%)	69 (18%)	85 (23%)	9 (2%)	3.69	1.85
	T = 42%			T = 56%					
15. The ENGL131 grammar tasks make me aware of the grammar errors I often make.	9 (2%)	10 (3%)	7 (2%)	23 (6%)	123 (33%)	202 (54%)	1 (0%)	5.26	1.11
	T = 7%			**T = 93%**					
16. Working through both coursebooks improves my English vocabulary.	11 (3%)	7 (2%)	6 (1%)	33 (9%)	108 (29%)	209 (56%)	1 (0%)	5.26	1.13
	T = 6%			**T = 94%**					
17. The ENGL131 grammar tasks help me learn about the structure of the English language.	7 (2%)	9 (2%)	11 (3%)	43 (11%)	145 (39%)	160 (43%)	0 (0%)	5.11	1.08
	T = 7%			**T = 93%**					
18. The ENGL131 grammar tasks help me to write error-free sentences.	29 (8%)	24 (6%)	15 (4%)	63 (17%)	122 (32%)	122 (33%)	0 (0%)	4.58	1.51
	T = 18%			82%					
19. Formal grammar tasks are necessary to improve my English for my studies.	9 (2%)	2 (1%)	7 (2%)	35 (9%)	133 (35%)	156 (42%)	33 (9%)	5.19	1.04
	T = 5%			T = **86%**					

According to Table 7.10, a reasonably high percentage (42%) of respondents disagree that the ENGL131 coursebook covers grammar they did not do at school. However, 56% of them agree that grammar is encountered which was not covered at school. This could be mainly students from rural schools since 75% of the respondents attended rural schools. A large percentage of respondents (93%) agree that the

grammar tasks make them aware of their errors (statement 15); however, fewer (82%) feel that the grammar tasks have helped them write error-free sentences (statement 18). Despite this, most students (86%) believe that they need formal grammar tasks to improve their English. (This percentage is likely to have been higher. There was a 9% no response, which could perhaps be attributed to their not seeing the statement because it was included with the rating headings at the top of the page.) The 0% 'no response' to statements 15 to 18 could indicate that students have clear ideas about the role of grammar instruction in the classroom. The students' uncertainty about whether grammar tasks actually help them to write error-free sentences could be because they do not seem to link sentence structure and grammar. This could also explain their apparent dislike of 'parts of speech' (see comments to questionnaire A) - they do not understand the function of parts of speech in a sentence. For example, in class, the word *leave* in the sentence *She has gone on leave* would by most of the researcher's students be labelled a verb. (A word's function within a sentence is not considered – they know *leave* as a verb and so to them it remains a verb no matter what its position in the sentence.) The tasks in the coursebooks appear to have contributed to an increased vocabulary, according to 94% of the respondents. There seems to be general agreement that there is a place for grammar in the coursebooks, but perhaps more as a function of awareness-raising or noticing (see chapter 4 for a discussion of these concepts). The raised disagree response to statement 18 (18% as compared to statement 15 – 7% and statement 17 – 7%) may suggest that Long's (1997; see Chapter 4, section 4.4.3) approach of 'focus on form' (as opposed to formS) should be considered where grammatical items are dealt with only within the context of a sentence or paragraph. 'Focus on form' can also take place when giving feedback – which students (93%) feel they need more of. (See statement 20 in the next cluster of statements in Table 7.11.)

Table 7.11: *Autonomous learning* (discussed in Chapter 4, section 4.5)

(TABLE LEGEND: Strongly disagree = SD; disagree = D; partly disagree = PD; partly agree = PA; agree = A; strongly agree = SA; no response = NR; mean = M; standard deviation = SD)

The results that need particular attention have been highlighted in bold

Statements	SD	D	PD	PA	A	SA	NR	M	SD
20. I need more feedback about my work to help me improve my English.	6 (2%)	10 (3%)	5 (1%)	30 (8%)	100 (27%)	219 (58%)	5 (1%)	5.34	1.06
	T = 6%			T = **93%**					

21. The coursebooks encourage me to work on my own.	16 (4%)	12 (3%)	18 (5%)	49 (13%)	133 (36%)	144 (38%)	3 (1%)	4.89	1.29
	T = 12%			T = 87%					
22. The coursebooks help me to work at my own speed or pace.	16 (4%)	31 (8%)	13 (4%)	60 (16%)	132 (35%)	116 (31%)	7 (2%)	4.65	1.39
	T = 16%			T = 82%					
23. The coursebooks help me to prepare in advance for my workshops.	10 (2%)	9 (2%)	18 (5%)	42 (11%)	146 (39%)	143 (39%)	7 (2%)	4.99	1.16
	T = 9%			T = 89%					
24. The coursebooks teach me to be independent and self-driven.	13 (4%)	19 (5%)	15 (4%)	61 (16%)	130 (35%)	129 (34%)	8 (2%)	4.81	1.29
	T = 13%			T = 85%					
25. The unit on dictionary work is useful for independent study	12 (3%)	18 (5%)	8 (1%)	25 (7%)	117 (31%)	190 (51%)	7 (2%)	5.14	1.26
	T = 9%			T = 89%					

Statement 20 in Table 7.11 is included in the group pertaining to autonomous learning (see Chapter 4, section 4.5) because feedback helps a language learner to reflect about his/her errors made and what can be done to avoid making the same mistakes. It is also clear that the respondents wish to receive more feedback. It may have to be built into the lesson. The units should perhaps contain fewer exercises and include time for feedback and going through the tasks. There seems to be general (not enthusiastic) agreement that the coursebooks contribute to independent learning and autonomous learning. This includes knowing how to use a dictionary effectively (statement 25). The slightly higher rate of disagreement in statement 22 (16%) than in the other statements of this group (6%, 12%, 9%, 13%, 9% respectively) could indicate that some students feel they should be allowed more time to complete activities. Time is almost always a problem to a large number of students – especially during examinations or tests. (See footnote 4 in this chapter.)

Table 7.12: *English for Academic Purposes* (discussed in Chapter 3, section 3.3)

(TABLE LEGEND: Strongly disagree = SD; disagree = D; partly disagree = PD; partly agree = PA; agree = A; strongly agree = SA; no response = NR; mean = M; standard deviation = SD)

The results that need particular attention have been highlighted in bold

Statements	SD	D	PD	PA	A	SA	NR	M	SD
26. The reading passages encourage me to read.	12 (3%)	8 (2%)	8 (2%)	36 (10%)	118 (31%)	190 (51%)	3 (1%)	5.18	1.17
	T = 7%			T = **92%**					
27. I have learned additional vocabulary from the various reading passages.	5 (1%)	8 (2%)	11 (3%)	47 (13%)	140 (37%)	161 (43%)	3 (1%)	5.13	1.04
	T = 6%			T = **93%**					

28. The grammar activities in the Engl131 coursebook make me aware of correct English language usage that must be applied to my other courses.	10 (3%)	8 (2%)	6 (1%)	29 (8%)	123 (33%)	195 (52%)	4 (1%)	5.24	1.11
	T = 6%			T = **93%**					
29. The tasks in the Engl132 coursebook have helped me think of writing essays as a series of steps (a process).	8 (2%)	5 (1%)	13 (4%)	27 (7%)	110 (30%)	207 (55%)	5 (1%)	5.29	1.08
	T = 7%			T = **92%**					
30. The Engl132 coursebook tasks have improved my academic essay writing skills.	15 (4%)	7 (2%)	6 (2%)	32 (8%)	130 (35%)	181 (48%)	4 (1%)	5.15	1.19
	T = 8%			T = **91%**					
31. The graphs and other visual literacy tasks are useful for my studies.	23 (6%)	17 (5%)	20 (5%)	76 (20%)	123 (33%)	112 (30%)	4 (1%)	4.60	1.41
	16%			83%					
32. I can apply what have learnt from the various coursebook tasks to my other courses.	10 (3%)	16 (4%)	12 (3%)	32 (8%)	141 (38%)	161 (43%)	3 (1%)	5.05	1.21
	T = 10%			T = 89%					
33. The note-taking tasks make me aware of listening carefully in class.	7 (2%)	10 (3%)	16 (4%)	32 (8%)	119 (32%)	186 (50%)	5 (1%)	5.17	1.13
	9%			**90%**					
34. Tasks involving groupwork encourage me to practise speaking English.	13 (3%)	10 (3%)	13 (3%)	29 (8%)	107 (29%)	200 (53%)	3 (1%)	5.17	1.24
	T = 9%			T = **90%**					
35. The coursebook tasks teach me to think carefully how to present an argument when I communicate or make oral presentations for all my courses.	4 (1%)	10 (3%)	12 (3%)	49 (13%)	125 (34%)	136 (36%)	39 **(10%)**	5.05	1.07
	T = 7%			T = 83%					
36. The various tasks make me think seriously about what has been written or said so that I can question or criticise it.	13 (4%)	26 (7%)	24 (6%)	64 (17%)	146 (39%)	94 (25%)	8 (2%)	4.59	1.32
	T = 17%			T = 81%					

There is a high percentage of agreement (Statements 26, 27, 28, 29, and 30 in Table 7.12) that the coursebooks encouraged reading, increased vocabulary, awareness of correct English in all subjects, process writing in particular for academic essays. This suggests that the coursebooks should keep using reading passages for practising reading techniques and building vocabulary, and teach writing by means of process writing. From comments in Questionnaire A and the response to statement 55 (below), it would appear students do not like being required to read many and long

passages. However, it would not be wise to reduce the reading passages since many students have a problem with reading too slowly (see footnote 4, in this chapter) as well as having had too little exposure to a wide vocabulary (because of a lack of access to books at home or school) and the techniques involved in working out the meaning of a word from its context. It may be wise to use a readability test such as the Flesch-Kincaid readability index (see footnote 11 in Chapter 3) to measure the difficulty level of the reading passages selected for the coursebooks. Reading passages of different complexity can be included. Introducing the SQ3R (see footnote 10 in Chapter 3) reading strategy by Robinson (1961, 1971), in addition to skimming and scanning, may also be helpful to students in reading a number of textbooks for their different content subjects.

The positive responses to statements 33 and 34 suggest that the coursebook activities involving note-taking makes them aware of having to listen closely; while groupwork requires them to interact in English.

Although the respondents on the whole agree with statement 36 (81%), the increased percentage of disagreement (17%) may imply that the tasks are not challenging enough to engender critical thinking, or alternatively it could imply that some students do not think critically or question when reading. Critical thinking and questioning are crucial to EAP and other tertiary studies and will need to be addressed in the coursebooks.

Table 7.13: *Engaging the students' interest*

(TABLE LEGEND: Strongly disagree = SD; disagree = D; partly disagree = PD; partly agree = PA; agree = A; strongly agree = SA; no response = NR; mean = M; standard deviation = SD)

The results that need particular attention have been highlighted in bold

Statements	SD	D	PD	PA	A	SA	NR	M	SD
37. The tasks are interesting and up-to-date.	20 (5%)	19 (5%)	32 (8%)	70 (19%)	123 (33%)	104 (28%)	7 (2%)	4.55	1.39
	T = 18%			T = 80%					
38. Many of the tasks are relevant to my general studies.	24 (6%)	21 (6%)	24 (6%)	77 (21%)	120 (32%)	101 (27%)	8 (2%)	4.50	1.44
	T = 18%			T = 80%					
39. The tasks cover topics I am interested in.	38 (10%)	28 (7%)	32 (9%)	102 (27%)	105 (28%)	64 (17%)	6 (2%)	4.08	1.51
	T = **26%**			T = 72%					

40. I am motivated to do and complete the tasks *because* they involve topics I am interested in.	29 (8%)	36 (10%)	31 (8%)	102 (27%)	102 (27%)	70 (19%)	5 (1%)	4.14	1.48
	T = **26%**			T = 73%					
41. The task topics motivate me to talk about them to my fellow students.	34 (9%)	25 (7%)	22 (6%)	72 (18%)	122 (33%)	86 (23%)	14 (**4%**)	4.33	1.54
	T = 22%			T = 74%					
42. The task topics motivate me to talk about them to my tutor/ lecturer.	42 (11%)	35 (9%)	34 (9%)	74 (20%)	118 (32%)	64 (17%)	8 (2%)	4.04	1.59
	T = **29%**			T = 69%					

Although the majority respondents seem to agree with all the statements (69% - 80% for this cluster of statements) in Table 7.13, regarding the content of the coursebooks and the students' interests, the higher percentage of disagreement compared to the other clusters denotes that the topics are not entirely about what students at this level are interested in. This can be particularly inferred from statements 39 and 40. In other words, the topics do not elicit a response and encourage sufficient interaction. This suggests that the students' views about what they like to discuss should be ascertained in class, or by questionnaire (see the results of question 29 of Questionnaire A, 7.2).

Table 7.14: *Elements of OBE in materials*

(TABLE LEGEND: Strongly disagree = SD; disagree = D; partly disagree = PD; partly agree = PA; agree = A; strongly agree = SA; no response = NR; mean = M; standard deviation = SD)

The results that need particular attention have been highlighted in bold

Statements	SD	D	PD	PA	A	SA	NR	M	SD
43. I know what the objectives of the various workshop units are.	22 (6%)	28 (7%)	42 (11%)	90 (24%)	120 (32%)	64 (17%)	9 (3%)	4.23	1.39
	T = **24%**			T = 73%					
44. The tasks are varied (gap filling, mct, writing full sentences, completion of sentences, etc) and need a variety of responses.	14 (4%)	14 (4%)	22 (6%)	60 (16%)	143 (38%)	114 (30%)	8 (2%)	4.76	1.27
	T = 14%			T = 84%					
45. I can use the reading and writing skills which I have learnt in the classroom, in situations outside the workshop.	6 (1%)	9 (2%)	10 (3%)	55 (15%)	143 (38%)	144 (39%)	8 (2%)	5.05	1.06
	T = 6%			T = **92%**					
46. The coursebook tasks deal with English language usage in different ways.	6 (1%)	10 (3%)	9 (2%)	62 (17%)	145 (39%)	136 (37%)	7 (1%)	5.01	1.07
	T = 6%			T = **93%**					

47. The various tasks make me think, argue and write logically.	4 (1%)	6 (2%)	10 (3%)	31 (8%)	150 (40%)	167 (45%)	7 (1%)	5.23	0.96
	T = 6%			T = **93%**					
48. Completing tasks successfully gives me the confidence to use English.	8 (2%)	7 (2%)	9 (3%)	28 (8%)	125 (33%)	192 (51%)	6 (1%)	5.25	1.07
	T = 7%			T = 92%					

The higher percentage of disagreement (24%) for statement 43 than for most of the other statements in the questionnaire indicates that probably many students are not clear about the objectives of each unit and reflects a shortcoming that needs to be taken up in the subsequent coursebooks, despite the fact that including a description of the objectives and outcomes will increase the number of pages and therefore the costs. The high percentage of agreement for statements 45 to 48 appear to suggest that although they are not clear about the objectives of the units, the respondents feel that the coursebooks contribute to the learning outcomes which they need in the field of language learning.

Table 7.15: *Cultural content*

(TABLE LEGEND: Strongly disagree = SD; disagree = D; partly disagree = PD; partly agree = PA; agree = A; strongly agree = SA; no response = NR; mean = M; standard deviation = SD)

Statements	SD	D	PD	PA	A	SA	NR	M	SD
49. Some of the coursebook tasks show an interest in my life outside the workshop.	15 (4%)	12 (3%)	17 (5%)	68 (18%)	109 (29%)	148 (39%)	6 (2%)	4.86	1.30
	T = 12%			T = 86%					
50. The coursebooks show an awareness of different cultures.	26 (7%)	17 (5%)	17 (4%)	67 (18%)	104 (28%)	113 (30%)	31 (8%)	4.58	1.49
	T = 16%			T = 75%					
51. The coursebooks respect my culture.	31 (8%)	36 (10%)	12 (3%)	80 (22%)	106 (28%)	106 (28%)	4 (1%)	4.38	1.57
	21%			78%					
52. The coursebooks give me the opportunity to tell others about my customs and traditions.	26 (7%)	21 (6%)	21 (6%)	57 (15%)	91 (24%)	151 (40%)	8 (2%)	4.68	1.53
	T = 18%			T = 80%					

The average percentage of agreement for this cluster of statements on cultural content in Table 10, is not as high as the previous cluster, but it does indicate a general agreement that there is some awareness of their culture in the content of the coursebooks. In terms of statement 51 where the percentage of disagreement is a reasonably high (21%), it would appear that from some students' viewpoint the coursebooks do not respect their culture. The word *respect* may have been

interpreted differently – perhaps to mean that there is not enough mention of their specific culture. For example, Venda students may feel there are few topics concerning their culture, which is different to the Pedi or Tswana culture. The respondents who disagreed could also have interpreted the statement as meaning there was not sufficient acknowledgment of their particular culture or the African culture in general. This statement should have been better worded. It could be inferred from the slightly higher percentage of disagreement that it expresses the wish for more culturally relevant or appropriate topics.

Something to bear in mind is that although one speaks of African culture there is not one large culture that covers all African ethnic groups. There are different nuances. For example, the Venda wedding customs will not be identical to the Zulu marriage customs just as Germans have different customs from the English although they are both called Europeans.

Table 7.16: *General concerns*

(TABLE LEGEND: Strongly disagree = SD; disagree = D; partly disagree = PD; partly agree = PA; agree = A; strongly agree = SA; no response = NR; mean = M; standard deviation = SD)

The results that need particular attention have been highlighted in bold

Statements	SD	D	PD	PA	A	SA	NR	M	SD
53. There *should* be more opportunities for participation and discussion.	14 (4%)	3 (1%)	3 (1%)	36 (10%)	122 (32%)	192 (51%)	5 (1%)	5.23	1.13
	T = 6%			T = **93%**					
54. The teacher should be the one who speaks the most in the classroom.	137 (36%)	77 (20%)	41 (11%)	37 (10%)	37 (10%)	40 (11%)	6 (2%)	2.67	1.75
	T = **67%**			T = 31%					
55. The reading passages *should* be longer - to give me English reading practice.	61 (16%)	56 (15%)	32 (9%)	66 (18%)	79 (21%)	72 (19%)	9 (2%)	3.72	1.77
	T = **40%**			T = 58%					
56. There *should* be more tasks involving pictures or graphics.	46 (12%)	34 (9%)	38 (10%)	71 (19%)	102 (27%)	81 (22%)	3 (1%)	4.05	1.65
	31%			68%					
57. The tasks *should* be more about the topics that deal with African culture and customs.	45 (12%)	39 (10%)	36 (10%)	78 (21%)	74 (20%)	99 (26%)	4 (1%)	4.06	1.69
	T = **32%**			T = 67%					
58. The tasks *should*	25	18	15	42	105	167	3	4.84	1.49

be more challenging.	(7%)	(5%)	(4%)	(11%)	(28%)	(44%)	(1%)		
	T = 15%			T = 84%					

With a 93% agreement for statement 53 the respondents clearly believe there should be more tasks which allow for discussion. They want to participate. This is obvious from their response (67% disagreement) to the teacher doing most of the speaking in class (statement 54). This indicates that the desire is there for participation and for communicating in English. This may be realized by providing tasks and activities on topics of student interest (see the cluster of statements above on engaging students) and problem-solving tasks (see section on questionnaire A: student comments in response to question 28 (6.2.7 above) about wanting puzzles) in pairs or small groups.

7.4.3 CONCLUSION

In brief, the main issues established by questionnaire B are that the activities need to be more communicative. However, there is a problem with lack of student participation in class and so to stimulate participation the coursebook activities will have to be about topics that the students are interested in. (Cf. the responses to question 28 in Questionnaire A, above).

There is an indication that students want formal grammar included in the lessons, but it may be more effective to teach both explicitly (focus on form) and implicitly (by means of consciousness-raising and noticing), for example, explicitly when giving feedback on their tasks and implicitly while doing the language exercises or activities.

With regard to EAP, while the students agree that reading and writing skills, as well as vocabulary building is encouraged, to encourage it further, the topics addressed in the reading and comprehension should be more on local customs and events and topics of interest to young adults. To increase their reading speed and text comprehension, skills they need to cope with the textbooks used in their content subjects, for tests and examinations the SQ3R (see Chapter 3, section 3.3 EAP and academic reading) reading technique could be followed in the coursebooks. This could also be a reading technique which they could use when studying on their own. A shortcoming of the coursebooks is that the objectives of each unit are not spelt out clearly enough. This needs to be done. Although students believe that the coursebooks generally address

critical thinking and questioning, these skills need to be reinforced as they are crucial to EAP by perhaps making some of the tasks more challenging.

7.5 QUESTIONNAIRE C: TEACHING STAFF EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

7.5.1 BACKGROUND

Of the 7 seven staff members who completed the questionnaire there is only one native English speaker. Five staff members (75%) are English second language speakers and one is an English third language speaker. Five have postgraduate qualifications in English literature and 2 in English linguistics or language studies. All have at least a master's degree in English. The least years of teaching experience is 8 years and the most is 38 years, with the median being 20 years. They were asked how much of their teaching experience was spent teaching at schools and only one had only tertiary teaching experience and the most experience in teaching at the school level was 10 years with a median of 3.5 years[5]. The fact that 5 of the staff have postgraduate qualifications in literature means that they are less aware of all the language teaching theories and approaches and the debate surrounding aspects of these. This impacts on how they use the coursebooks.

The statements to be evaluated were presented in two sections, namely an evaluation of the current coursebooks and then statements to evaluate what the teaching staff believed should ideally be in the coursebooks. The statements under the two sections were not put in a specific order (see Appendix C). In the analysis, however, statements (both referring to current and ideal coursebooks) relating to a certain ELT approach or issue have been grouped together.

7.5.2 STAFF EVALUATION

The coursebook as teaching support (teaching practicalities)

The following statements seek to establish whether the coursebooks are supportive of teaching and learning in the ENGL131 and ENGL132 classroom.

[5] These statistics would have remained much the same even if the researcher was included. The researcher is an English second language speaker and has a Master's in English Language Studies.

Table 7.17: *Do the coursebooks support language teaching and learning*

Statements	Disagree	Agree
4. The coursebooks give structure to the modules.	5 (71%)	2 (29%)
5. The coursebooks give direction and guidance in teaching the module content.	0	7 (100%
6. The coursebooks are helpful in providing uniformity throughout the course.	0	7 (100%
7. The coursebooks give freedom to practise one's own individual teaching style.	2 (29%)	5 (71%)
23. The coursebooks restrict your creativity as an English language educator.	5 (71%)	2 (29%)
48. The course content of ENGL131 and ENGL132 should be changed so that academic writing can be taught from the beginning throughout both modules.	1(14%)	6 (86%)
51. There should be a Teacher's Handbook to accompany the coursebooks.	1 (14%)	6 (86%)

In Table 7.17, all the respondents agree that the coursebooks give direction in teaching the course content and help to give unity to the modules. However, most (71%) disagree that the coursebooks give structure to the modules which seems to contradict what they expressed in statements 5 and 6. Seventy-one percent of the respondents agree that the coursebooks allow them to practise their own teaching style and their creativity is not restricted. All respondents believe academic writing should be taught from the beginning and be part of both modules. This would imply that while teaching and practicing writing throughout both modules, the one module would stress the structure of an essay and the organization of information, the other would focus on grammar and editing.

Questions 31, 32, 35, 39, 40, 44, and 45 had one no response, which could mean that a respondent found the question ambiguous or had no definite viewpoint about it.

OBE

The OBE approach underpins the South African system of education (see Chapter 3, section 3.2) and so the coursebooks need to address some of its major tenets in terms of language teaching.

Table 7.18: *The extent to which the coursebooks include OBE principles*

Statements	Disagree	Agree
10. The coursebooks implicitly indicate the academic outcomes students are working towards.	2 (29%)	5 (71%)

18. The coursebooks enable learners to manipulate and practice specific features of the target language (English).	1 (14%)	6 (86%)
30. The coursebooks should promote a critical stance to language use in different language registers and academic genres.	0	7 (100%)
31. All the activities in the coursebook should be authentic or naturalistic.	1 (14%)	5 (71%)
38. The tasks/activities should provide opportunities for learners to think and talk about language learning (i.e. take a critical stance to their own learning and the classroom pedagogy).	1 (14%)	6 (86%)

The outcomes of each coursebook unit appear to be obvious to the majority of the respondents (71%). The activities, according to 86% of the respondents, provide opportunity to use English. Most of them believe the activities should be authentic and should encourage learners to respond to different genres and respond critically – showing a critical awareness of language usage. Table 7.18 covers some of the OBE tenets described in chapter 3, section 3.2 of this study.

CLT

The principles of CLT (Communicative Language Teaching; see Chapter 3, section) overlap with some that are also part of OBE, TBLT (Task Based Language Teaching; see Chapter 3, section 3.4) and EAP (English for Academic Purposes; see Chapter 3, section 3.3). Thus some of the statements concerning an issue that is an important part of current language teaching will reappear in those groups. Central to these are the role of communication of meaning, fluency, accuracy and authenticity.

Table 7.19: *The extent of communicative activities*

Statements	Disagree	Agree
11. Both coursebooks focus on communication of meaning ('getting the message across') and fluency.	1 (14%)	6 (86%)
12. The coursebooks provide opportunities for learners to interact with each other.	0	7 (100%)
13. The coursebooks provide opportunities for learners to interact with their tutor/lecturer.	0	7 (100%)
17. The activities in the coursebook are authentic (as in the real world).	3 (43%)	4 (57%)
31. All the activities in the coursebook should be authentic or naturalistic.	1 (14%)	5 (71%)
32. Authentic tasks or activities *should* not be simplified or adapted to the English proficiency of learners.	4 (57%)	2 (29%)
33. The coursebooks *should* focus on the communication of meaning/ 'getting the message across' (that is, interaction and fluency) *only*.	5 (71%)	2 (29%)
34. The coursebooks *should* include tasks/activities that teach grammar and accuracy.	0	7 (100%)
36. Academic writing *should* be taught without focus on grammar and	6 (86%)	1 (14%)

accuracy.		
41. The materials *should* allow learners to rehearse, in class, communicative skills.	2 (29%)	5 (71%)

The majority of respondents in Table 7.19 find that the coursebooks focus on communication of meaning and that they provide opportunities for interaction between learners and between learners and lecturers. There is not a clear majority declaring the coursebook activities as authentic, but that they should be, is agreed by 71% of respondents. However, 57% do not agree (14% no response) with the 'strong' version of CLT (see Chapter 3, section 3.4 on CLT) which does not advocate simplifying authentic materials. Nor do the majority of respondents (see statements 33, 34 and 36) believe that grammar and accuracy should be excluded as advocated by the strong version of CLT. Seventy-one percent agree that language materials should provide learners with opportunities to practise communication. This group of responses support principles of CLT – interaction, communication of meaning, working with authentic materials (see chapter 3, section 3.4), but adds focus on form (grammar) (see Grammar instruction Chapter 4, section 4.4.4) and practice (see TBLT and PPP in Chapter 3, section 3.4, p. 87).

Table 7.20: *Implementation of TBLT and the authenticity of tasks*

Statements	Disagree	Agree
31. All the activities in the coursebook should be authentic or naturalistic.	1 (14%)	5 (71%)
35. The coursebook activities *should* all be in the form of *tasks (see descriptor above).*	3 (43%)	3 (43%)

One of the principles of TBLT (and of CLT) is that the tasks (as described in the list of descriptors on the questionnaire) should be authentic (Table 7.20). The respondents agree this should be so. (A question which should have been asked is what each respondent would view as 'authentic' - this would have been helpful to assist the materials writer to evaluate the 'authenticity' or not of activities selected for the coursebooks.) Fifty percent of the respondents agree that all the activities should be tasks, while 50% disagree. This could indicate the desire for a variety of activities. (See chapter 3, the section on TBLT.) It also depends on what the materials developer views as a task. (The descriptors at the beginning of the questionnaire gave definitions of 'authentic' and 'task' as used by the researcher, but these could still be interpreted differently by individual respondents.)

Learner-centredness

OBE and the main approaches to language teaching, namely CLT, TBLT, EAP and autonomy in learning, all advocate learner-centredness (Clarke 1989: 134). Learner-centredness encourages the learner to communicate and to take responsibility for his/her own learning. Statements, found under *Autonomous learning* (Chapter 4, section 4.5) and *EAP* (Chapter 3, section 3.3), could also have been included in this cluster about learner-centredness.

Table 7.21: *Learner-centredness of materials*

Statements	Disagree	Agree
38. The tasks/activities *should* provide opportunities for learners to think and talk about language learning (i.e. take a critical stance to their own learning and the classroom pedagogy).	1 (14%)	6 (86%)

In Table 7.21, most of the respondents (86%) agree that in the English classroom the learners must reflect on their own learning and participate in what happens in the classroom – not leaving it all to the lecturer or tutor. The student responses (Questionnaire B, appendix B) to the statement about who should speak the most in class showed that they would like to participate and communicate more in class. Strangely enough, students remain passive in the lessons and only if they are interested in the topic of discussion do they begin to interact spontaneously.

Table 7.22: *Formal Grammar Instruction*

Statements	Disagree	Agree
14. The ENGL131 coursebook focuses on *form* (grammatical features) and *accuracy* only.	4 (57%)	3 (43%)
15. The coursebooks are too predictable – use an assembly line approach.	5 (71%)	2 (29%)
34. The coursebooks *should* include tasks/activities that teach grammar and accuracy	0	7 (100%)
36. Academic writing *should* be taught without focus on grammar and accuracy.	6 (86%)	1 (14%)

An issue that remains a bone of contention is that of whether or not formal grammar instruction is useful in improving English proficiency (Table 7.22). (See Chapter 4, section 4.4.) From the responses to the above statements, the majority of respondents believe that activities that teach grammar and accuracy should be included. They do not agree that the ENGL131 coursebook focuses only on grammar – although the

ratio of 4:3 would suggest that there could be room for improvement. Consideration could be given to Long's approach of 'focus on form' where context is crucial and teaching discrete grammatical items without a context is avoided. Bax's (2003) Context Approach should also be taken into account in the UniLim context. The 100% agreement for the inclusion of grammar and accuracy activities may be because the context of the study is an academic institution and language accuracy is an important element of written communication and research papers.

English for Academic Purposes

The context of English language learning is a tertiary institution where English is the language of learning and teaching. It therefore makes sense that the English taught is for academic purposes, especially for those students who do not want to major in English. The views of the students are reflected in their responses as indicated in Table 7.23.

Table 7.23: *The elements of EAP included in materials*

Statements	Disagree	Agree
24. The academic outcomes of the modules *should* be clearly and explicitly indicated in the coursebooks.	1(14%)	6 (86%)
25. The emphasis of the coursebook activities *should* be on all four language skills (i.e. listening, speaking, reading writing) equally.	5 (71%)	2 (29%)
26. The emphasis *should* be mainly on reading and writing in this academic context.	1(14%)	6 (86%)
27. There *should* be exercises that focus on increasing vocabulary.	1(14%)	6 (86%)
28. The skills of note-taking and note-making *should* be practiced in one of the coursebooks.	2 (29%)	5 (71%)
29. There *should* be tasks that allow learners to practice to verbalise data such as that presented in graphs, tables, graphics or other visual representations of data.	0	7 (100%)
30. The coursebooks *should* promote a critical stance to language use in different language registers and academic genres.	0	7 (100%)
37. The coursebooks *should* contain tasks that focus on ideas such as ideology, identity, subjectivity and power in the area of language teaching.	3 (43%)	4 (57%)
38. The tasks/activities *should* provide opportunities for learners to think and talk about language learning (i.e. take a critical stance to their own learning and the classroom pedagogy).	1(14%)	6 (86%)
42. The tasks/ activities *should* provide practice in cognitive skills such as selecting, reasoning and problem-solving tasks (e.g. rescuing a cat out of a tree).	1 (14%)	6 (86%)
43. Summary writing is an important academic skill.	0	7 (100%)
44. Many of the tasks/ activities in the coursebooks *should* be open-ended (not only one correct answer).	2 (29%)	4 (57%)

49. A section or unit about reference and research skills *should* be included in the coursebooks.	1 (14%)	6 (86%)

There is general agreement (Table 7.23) that students should know the outcomes of the module, as well as of each individual unit. This is a shortcoming of the present coursebooks. According to OBE principles, the outcomes should be clearly described. This is usually done at the beginning of each unit. There is majority agreement that in this context the coursebook should focus more on reading and writing and less on the other two language skills. Although some student comments indicate that they feel there are too many reading and comprehension activities, they realise they need reading and writing skills (cf. above, student comments and interviewees' response in sections 6.2 and 6.3.2 respectively), but they would also like to have classes which focus on speaking skills. Vocabulary building exercises should be included is the majority view (86%). This may be linked to activities involving different language registers and academic genres. Both OBE and EAP point out the importance of the language learners developing critical awareness of language and expressing their opinions by means of open-ended questions or activities (Chapter 3, sections 3.2 and 3.3 respectively). Only 57% agree that the coursebooks should include activities that focus on issues such as ideology, identity, subjectivity and power. One respondent commented that "most of our students are at a basal stage of academic literacy and so focus on power, ideology, etc. may be a little too much." The respondents agree that summary writing (100% agreement) and activities providing practice in cognitive skills (86% agreement) are necessary. While there is general agreement about the inclusion of a unit on referencing and research, comments indicated that it should be limited to what the students needed for essay writing because at a first year level students are not expected to do research for more than their essays. One colleague suggested that note-taking and note-making be removed and so devote even more time to the reading and writing skills. This could be considered, while ensuring that in summary writing students are aware that note-taking and note-making involves summarizing skills.

Autonomous learning

OBE, CLT and TBLT encourage learner-centredness and independent learning.

Table 7.24: *The need for autonomy in learning*

Statements	Disagree	Agree
9. The coursebooks encourage learners to work on their own and to take responsibility for their own learning.	4 (57%)	3 (43%)
19. There is sufficient support in the tasks for students to be able to work on their own.	1 (14%)	6 (86%)
45. The materials *should* encourage learners to work independently and monitor their own progress.	0	6 (86%)
There *should* be scaffolding (sufficient support to do a task) *built into* the tasks/activities to enable learners to work on their own.	0	7 (100%)

From statement 9 in Table 7.24 it appears teaching staff feel that the coursebooks do not encourage enough independent learning. According to the staff's rating, there is, however, enough support for students to make it possible for them to work on their own (86% agree). If they have the support, yet do not work on their own it may be that students are too teacher-dependent or do not have the right attitude to learning. This would confirm Benson's view (2001: 110) that autonomy cannot be taught or learned, but is primarily as an attribute of a learner. This implies that in the context of this study the coursebook activities (and the lecturer) should try to influence the attitude of the students to learning English – to encourage them to take responsibility or control of their own English language learning. Giving them exercises to do on their own will not be sufficient; a student must *want* to work on his/her own.

Culture and Interculturality

If English, as an international language, no longer belongs only to the English (McKay 2000:7), but is shared, it means that the English culture will also be seen in relation to the other cultures it comes into contact with in the classroom. Another consideration for including local culture in the materials is the pedagogic principle of first offering to the students what is familiar before moving on to the unknown.

Table 7.25: *The need for culturally appropriate materials*

Statements	Disagree	Agree
16. The coursebooks contain culturally appropriate activities.	1 (14%)	6 (86%)
47. The tasks /activities *should* be culturally appropriate and relevant.	1 (14%)	6 (86%)

The responses to the statements in Table 7.25 show that the staff are in agreement with culturally appropriate materials. Statement 16 indicates that they believe that the

present coursebooks do this. According to the student questionnaire B (see 6.4.2), some students wish to see the cultural content increased. The researcher believes that using material which has a local cultural content is likely to engage students more in the classroom activities because the familiarity gives them the confidence to participate and so is linked to the next group of statements about engaging students' interest.

Engaging with tasks and language activities

To encourage participation students must want to engage in the activities. Participation is a frustrating problem in the ENGL131 and ENGL132 classes, although it is not limited to English classes.

Table 7.26: *The importance of activities which engage students*

Statements	Disagree	Agree
21. The coursebooks take cognizance of the learners' interests.	2 (29%)	5 (71%)
50. The materials *should* be visually pleasing – that is, have enough 'white space' and some graphics.	1 (14%)	6 (86%)

That the teaching materials should 'catch' the students' attention and engage them is agreed by the respondents as shown in Table 7.26. Twenty-nine percent disagree that the current coursebooks do so. The responses to the statements about culture, interests and engaging the students confirm Islam's (2003: 258) assertion that no publisher, educator or materials designer would deny that "the potential for language acquisition is enhanced when language input is relevant, significant, salient, engaging and of interest to the student". This is confirmed by McGrath (2003) and Tomlinson (1998; 2003). It also links up to the Context Approach as a way to teach English advocated by Bax (2003; see the last paragraph of section 3.4 in Chapter 3 - CLT). Generally the acceptance of certain statements seems to suggest that the weak version of CLT rather the strong version is acceptable in this context.

Table 7.27: *Issues concerning task complexity*

Statements	Disagree	Agree
8. The coursebooks are suitable for mixed ability groups.	2 (29%)	5 (71%)
20. The tasks/ activities are sequenced from simpler to more difficult tasks	2 (29%)	5 (71%)

32. Authentic tasks or activities should not be simplified or adapted to the English proficiency of learners.	4 (57%)	2 (29%)
39. The activities *should* be suitable for mixed ability (multi-level) groups.	1 (14%)	5 (71%)
40. The activities/ tasks *should* be more challenging than the current ones.	2 (29%)	4 (57%)
46. There *should* be scaffolding (sufficient support to do a task) *built into* the tasks/activities to enable learners to work on their own.	0	7 (100%)

Completing a task or activity gives a sense of satisfaction and this leads to confidence. If all the tasks are beyond the ability of most students this will lead to frustration and this may hinder language learning. Most of the respondents (71%) in Table 7.27 agree the current coursebooks provide for mixed ability groups. Fifty-seven percent of the respondents disagree with the strong CLT tenet that authentic material should not be simplified. Yet 57% agree that the tasks should be more challenging (Statement 40). All agree that there should be a degree of scaffolding to support the students in doing tasks and to assist them to work autonomously. The scaffolding may sometimes mean the simplification of sections of the materials. The non-response by one respondent to statements 32, 39, and 40 may be an indication of uncertainty about how complex and challenging the tasks should be.

7.5.3 CONCLUSION

The staff all agreed that academic writing should be taught from the first semester and stretch over both modules. It is also essential that students engage in language activities which give them the opportunity to respond to different genres and respond critically – showing a critical awareness of language usage. Summary writing is an essential component of academic writing and students should have enough practice.

In terms of the critical outcomes, as they are stated in OBE, the objectives of each unit in the coursebooks are obvious to staff but not to students, and so should be clearly stated at the beginning of each unit.

The staff believe tasks should be authentic, but they may be simplified where deemed necessary. Scaffolding should be built into the activities in order to help students until they can manage on their own. The staff agree that the principles of CLT (and of OBE and TBLT), such as interaction, communication of meaning, engaging with authentic

materials (see chapter 3, section 3.4) should be supported by the materials, but affirm that focus on form (grammar) should also be included. The preference seems to be for a variety of types of activities and not only tasks. The coursebook activities should encourage students to reflect on their own learning and participate in what happens in the classroom – not leaving it all to the lecturer or tutor. This coincides with the students' preference for learner-centredness. Learner-centredness should lead to independent or autonomous learning.

7.6 TEACHING STAFF GROUP INTERVIEW

An unstructured interview was held on 28 July, 2007 with the seven staff members (see also Chapter 6, section 6.5.4.2). There was general consensus that students did not participate sufficiently in class, they often displayed an inflated sense of their English proficiency, students who spoke well did not necessarily write well, and many found it difficult to summarise facts from different sources and present a coherent argument in their own essays. Incoherent writing was frequently a problem, and combined with verbosity made some essays unintelligible. The language studies lecturers found the ENGL132 coursebook particularly 'teaching friendly'.

All welcomed the fact that the coursebooks gave them structure and direction on what to teach and that the students also had something to follow, work on and write in, in class. In the past, although books were prescribed, only a small number bought them. The majority of staff (71%) do not believe that if the department prescribes a textbook that students will buy it.

The following suggestions were made:

- The first module of the year (ENGL131) should start with academic writing instead of grammar and academic reading skills because students are likely to be writing essays for their content subjects already during the first semester and so they need to be taught process writing from the beginning of the year to enable them to deal with the academic essays and assignments demanded by the other course for which they are enrolled.
- Comprehension test passages should cover a variety of genres to accommodate the various disciplines and faculties represented. Passages

from African literature could be included, but the general feeling was that the content should be a mixture of topics focusing on academic demands.

- Colleagues felt that language accuracy in written work was a problem and that teaching grammar should be addressed in the coursebooks. Instead of at the beginning of the year, it could be part of the editing phase in the writing process practiced in the second semester.
- Visual literacy was viewed as an important aspect that needed to be taught. (Several students complained about having to do graphs and found activities involving pictures, juvenile.)

7.6.1 CONCLUSION

To summarise the main points of the unstructured interview: the members of staff agreed that student participation was a problem as was incoherent writing. Students find it difficult to synthesise information or arguments from different sources. It was reiterated that academic writing should be part of both modules. The second semester could place emphasis on grammar and the editing of their essays.

Reading and comprehension passages should expose students to a variety of genres. Activities requiring visual literacy should be included in the coursebooks as they would encounter graphs, tables and diagrams in their content subjects and would be required to interpret these.

7.7 SUMMARY OF PROVISIONAL CRITERIA EXTRACTED FROM THE LITERATURE AND FROM THE COURSEBOOK USERS (STAFF[6] AND STUDENTS).

The input from the users of the ENGL131 and ENGL132 coursebooks has highlighted certain evaluation criteria which staff and students as stakeholders involved in the ENGL131 and ENGL132 modules view to be the essential in the coursebooks designed for the University of Limpopo context.[7] These 'user' criteria have been combined with criteria extracted from the literature (see Chapters 2 to 5 and in chapter

[6] Staff and students are users of the coursebooks – staff use them to teach and students use them to learn from.

[7] The criteria obtained from the empirical study may not be exactly the same as those chosen by English teaching staff at another tertiary institution. It is also possible that repeating the empirical study three to five years from now, slightly different criteria may emerge because the infrastructure, the size of the classes and the language teaching at rural schools may have changed.

5 specifically section 5.6) to form a provisional list of evaluation criteria to assess the coursebooks. These evaluation criteria next need to be validated by senior lecturers who have several years of experience teaching of mainly rural tertiary students.

The provisional criteria are the following:

1. On a practical level, both students and staff want something concrete in hand to *give direction and guidance* to the modules for language learning and teaching. (Chapter 5: section 5.2.1; Student interviews: 6.3; Staff interview: 6.6.)

2. The students wish it to have a stronger binding and more space for the answers. Price, white space, and durability is a criterion. (Chapter 7, questionnaire A, Appendix G.) If possible materials need to be visually attractive because this makes 'doing' the tasks more appealing to work with. A balance will have to be found between including graphics, white space and the costs of the coursebooks.

3. The coursebooks should support the lectures and guide the lecturers – both for uniformity across all the classes and giving the students something to work with on their own. (Chapter 1: 1.1; Chapter 7: Student questionnaire A, 7.2.) In this context 'support' is taken to mean providing a core of activities which sum up the module content so that all students will be able to carry out the assessments, whether formative or summative, because the content has been offered in all groups. This criterion could be combined with criterion 1.

4. Activities should *engage* students (and therefore motivate them and enhance learning) the activities need to involve topics on familiar cultural issues and about what they are interested in, at this age (see Chapter 7, section 7.2.8) and further, Questionnaire A,: Question 29). The criteria to ensure engagement are i) inclusion of local *cultural content* and ii) topics of *interest* to students between the ages of 17 to 22 years (which will be included in reading and writing topics). (Chapter 1, section 1.1; Chapter 7: 461)

5. *Vocabulary* building exercises, particularly, academic vocabulary, are a requirement. Teaching collocations may be one way to do so by means of exercises involving, for example, phrasal verbs. Dictionary work also contributes to vocabulary building. (Chapter 3: section 3.3.3 – EAP and materials.)

6. *Sufficient academic reading passages to practise the reading techniques* of skimming, scanning, speed reading and study reading and the SQ3R reading approach. The fact that students complain about too many reading and comprehension passages is an indication of their finding reading taxing, rather than unnecessary. (Chapter 3, section 3.2.3; section 3.3.3; Chapter 7, sections 7.2.7, 7.3, 7.4.2, 7.5.)

7. *Summary writing* is an essential skill required particularly in an academic environment - for effective note-taking and note-making. (Chapter 3, section 3.3.3 – academic writing; Chapter 7, sections 7.2, 7.3, 7.4.)

8. Students prefer to write on a different topic each time instead of revising their previous draft on the same topic. To maintain their interest a variety of topics needs to be offered. A balanced mix of topics from the different disciplines and topics pertaining to their interests as indicated in the needs analysis questionnaire (see section 7.2.5. This criterion links up with the requirement in EAP to cover a variety of genres. Thus the criterion would be that the coursebooks offer *writing practice in different genres and on various topics.* (Chapter 3, section 3.3; Chapter 7, section 7.2)

9. In addition to letting students write on a variety of topics, writing activities should allow *practice in composing, exploring, conceptualizing, drafting, revising, and creating.* Current language teaching approaches advocate process writing rather than product writing and practice in the aforementioned skills will result in a better product. (However, the students in the study do not like revising their various drafts. There is often little difference between their rough draft and the final draft. It may be that they cannot recognize their grammatical or writing errors) (Chapter 3, sections 3.2, 3.3)

10. *Critical thinking* and a questioning approach to texts are crucial in EAP and essay-writing. This can be addressed in the following ways: firstly, by students engaging in authentic tasks, their responses to texts and in process writing. (Chapter 3, section 3.2; 3.3, 3.4)

11. A section should be devoted to *analyzing instructions* in the coursebook activities and to any tasks or assignments in their content subjects, in exam preparation, as well as essay topics, to teach students to focus and write only on what has been asked. (Chapter 3, section 3.3)

12. Writing tasks should also raise awareness of transition words (linking words), organizing and presenting arguments logically and coherently, and the *structure* of an essay (introduction, body, conclusion, references). (Chapter 3, section 3.3)

13. The desire for opportunities for interaction and therefore communication in English, between the students and their lecturer, and among the students themselves, was expressed. The coursebook needs to ensure that numerous tasks or activities require students to *interact and communicate* in English. (Chapter 3, sections 3.2, 3.3, 3.4)

14. Although the emphasis, according to responses, should be on communicating meaning, staff and students feel *grammar* should be taught. It should be taught *in context* rather than as discrete items. Editing their own writing and peer editing is probably the best way to make students aware of correct sentences. (Chapter 4, sections 4.4, 4.4.3; Chapter 3, section 3.4 (Willis 2007).)

15. The most popular kind of *task* to encourage interaction is one that requires *problem-solving* (Prabhu 1987; see comments in Questionnaire A, Question 28 – the responses about puzzles. These most likely pertain to problem-solving activities). (Chapter 3, section 3.4.)

16. *Authentic materials* should be used in the coursebooks but *simplifying* some of them may be necessary. One way of simplifying them could be to apply the Flesch-Kincaid readability test to a text and simplify too complex text. (Chapter 3, sections 3.3 and 3.4; Chapter 4, sections 4.2, 4.3; Chapter 7 - Staff Questionnaire, 7.5: Table 14). (Cf. Criterion 17.)

17. Activities or tasks should be *scaffolded* to support the language learner until s/he has mastered a skill. (This also encourages independent learning.) This includes the sequencing of tasks in order of complexity. (Chapter 4, section 4.3, 4.4, 4.6.)

18. The coursebook activities should be *learner-centred.* Students do not want the teacher to do all the talking, but wish to share in the classroom interaction and make a contribution, thus giving them autonomy and greater control over how and what they learn. (Chapter 3: sections 3.3.3, 3.4.3; Chapter 7: Questionnaire B: Statement 54).

19. The coursebooks should encourage *autonomy (i.e. students taking control of their own learning) in language learning.* They can do additional exercises on their own or work on projects independently. This is a crucial criterion in the UniLim context because most of the classes have 40 or more students. (Chapter 4, section 4.4.) Criteria 18 and 19 could combine to become one criterion.

20. Working on tasks should be done in *pairs* or *small groups* of about 3 members. (Student preference is shown for working with a maximum of 3 people. See Questionnaire A, section 6.2.6 above.) (Chapter 3, section 3.3, 3.4, Chapter 4, section 4.6.)

21. There should be tasks of different *complexity* because the classes are large, multilevel classes, which means that the level of proficiency varies between low and high proficiency. If the activities are all of a similar complexity a section of the students will always be frustrated either because they find the work to difficult or not sufficiently challenging. (Chapter 4, section 4.6.) The students

eventually write the same assignments and examinations, but to do so they all need to reach the appropriate level by different paths.

22. There is a need for *feedback*. Feedback can have two dimensions: students are still 'marks' focused and this together with wanting to do something only for marks and not focusing on the acquiring of academic skills, indicates the need for explicit communication of the outcomes (and the rationale for them) of each unit in the coursebooks as well as feedback on their work. This produces two important criteria, namely i) feedback on student work ii) outcomes stated at the beginning of each unit. (Chapter 4, section 4.6.) The coursebooks can provide written feedback by having a section which gives the answers for the various activities. The students can also check whether they are achieving the necessary academic skills against the list of outcomes at the beginning of each unit.

7.8 CONCLUSION

On the whole, the students and the teaching staff questionnaires and interviews have highlighted similar basic evaluation criteria, despite students having an apparently inflated view of their English proficiency (it is not supported by their written work). With regard to language teaching methodologies there are also slight differences of opinion among staff as to where the emphasis should be placed in the specific context of the ENGL131 and ENGL132 modules at UniLim. However, staff are generally in agreement about elements which should be dealt with in the workbooks and that adapting authentic tasks is acceptable. It appears that for the purpose of the coursebooks for ENGL131 and ENGL132, the weak version of CLT is preferable and that English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) and Jordan's (2004) approach is at the moment (this could eventually change as the situation changes) more suitable for this context than English for Specific Academic Purposes and Hyland's (2006) approach.

The next chapter will combine the evaluation criteria extracted from the literature with the criteria emphasized by the users to create a final list of evaluation criteria. These will be validated by the ratings allocated to them by the experts whose responses to their own questionnaire (D) will be discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 8
FINAL EVALUATION CRITERIA FOR IN-HOUSE MATERIALS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The provisional evaluation criteria presented in this chapter are a combination of criteria revealed by a study of the relevant literature (Chapters 3, 4 and 5) about ESL teaching and learning and those that emerged from the empirical study (Chapters 2, 6, and 7) and then finally validated in this chapter by senior lecturers with many years of teaching rural students (a median of 24 teaching years in a range of between 19 to 27 years). The validation of the provisional list by these experts has been done by means of a questionnaire and interviews. After the validation by the experts a final list will be compiled.

The criteria on this final list will be used to evaluate the materials for particular learners in a particular environment, that is, the students enrolled for the ENGL131 and ENGL132 modules at the University of Limpopo who are mainly first-entering student students who live and went to school in the rural areas of Limpopo, Mpumalanga or Venda. These criteria will ultimately influence the decisions made about additions or changes to the coursebooks.

8.2 PROVISIONAL CRITERIA

The two lists of criteria extracted from the literature survey (Chapter 5, section 5.6) and the empirical study (Chapter 7, section 7.7) are synthesized to form the provisional criteria to be validated by the panel of 'outside' experts. The list of provisional evaluation criteria to be validated by the 'experts' is the following:

1. On a practical level, both students and staff want something in hand to *give direction and guidance* to the modules for language learning and teaching. The students wish it to have a stronger binding and more space for the answers. Price, white space, and durability are criteria.
2. The coursebooks should *support* the lectures and guide the lecturers – both for uniformity across all the classes and for the students to have something tangible to work with on their own.
3. The learning *outcomes* towards which the students have to work should be clearly indicated. Although these may be pointed out by the lecturers in the class, they should be in writing at the beginning of a unit.
4. *Engage* in language tasks rather than just learning a language – that is,

engage learners in using language practically, rather than just 'displaying' language (Ellis 1997). This supports the argument for students to engage with *authentic* materials. Unless learners are given the opportunity to experience samples (tasks) of language use elicited by means of some kind of communicative activity, they may not develop the kind of proficiency needed to communicate fluently and effectively.

5. Activities should *engage* students (and therefore motivate them and enhance learning) the activities need to, for example, involve topics on familiar cultural issues and topics of interest to students of 17 to 22 years of age (see Questionnaire A, section 6.2.5: Question 29). The criteria should therefore include local *cultural content* and students' *interests*. Activities or tasks on topics of *interest* to the learners are necessary because intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in what is being communicated by the language and so will stimulate participation, interaction and critical thinking.
6. Make and negotiate meaning and understanding; practise and apply language structures and conventions in context; practise and achieve comprehensible pronunciation - that is, achieve *communicative competence*. (Fluency and appropriate language is the primary goal; accuracy is judged not in the abstract but in the *context*).
7. Acquire the *two basic language skills* in order to:
   7.1 Develop and practise the *reading* techniques of skimming, scanning and speed reading for reading textbooks, articles and other academic material, as well as develop reading comprehension and vocabulary.
   7.2 *Write* academic essays, examination essays, dissertations and reports by developing process writing skills.

   Although in the ideal situation as found in the literature, a coursebook would cover all four language skills, in the UniLim situation staff, time, timetable and venue constraints have led to an emphasis on reading and writing skills in the coursebooks because the these are most urgent. It does not mean that the need to develop listening and speaking skills in class is ignored. Students are encouraged to do both.
8. *Summarise* spoken and written discourse as an important part of academic writing.
9. The coursebook should contain *vocabulary*-building activities. The students

also believe they should work at increasing their vocabulary. Dictionary work also contributes to vocabulary building. Teaching collocations may be another way to increase vocabulary. Exercises involving, for example, phrasal verbs could be one way of learning words which are used together. Recognising and practising collocations, (that is, the habitual co-occurrence of individual lexical items in one area) as recommended for EAP (Jordan 2004; Hyland 2006).

10. Coursebooks should give practice by means of *recycling:* a linguistic item cannot be mastered one hundred percent the first time a learner encounters it, but it needs to be reintroduced over a period of time and preferably in different content areas
11. Engage in *learner-centred activities* to foster autonomous or independent learning. This entails constructing their own knowledge rather than having it transmitted to them by an educator.
12. Develop the habit of *reflecting* on their language studies. Materials should apply consciousness raising techniques to make learners reflect about how they do the tasks and how and what they learn.
13. Use *scaffolding* built into the tasks/ activities to support the learner until he/she has mastered the skill or grammar rule. (Bringing to the comprehension process pre-existing knowledge, and then try and fit new knowledge into the pre-existing framework). Within a lesson, one task should grow out of, and build upon, the ones that have gone before".
14. To recognise and engage with language items in a variety of forms – *linguistic variation*[1] - which is a central concept in materials and methodology. The same item can be used for different functions or in different forms or practised in different ways. Variety is also important to prevent students from losing concentration or becoming bored.
15. Learn and practise to distinguish between different *academic genres.*
16. *Collaborate* - They participate more, learn to compromise, negotiate meaning and become better risk-takers, and more efficient self monitors and self-evaluators. In addition, the classroom atmosphere and efficiency improve, as well as the learners' self-esteem.

[1] *Linguistic variation* exists at one given time as opposed to linguistic change which occurs over time. One variety is represented by the different pronunciations of a word like *barn* by an Eastern New Englander and by a speaker of the Great Lakes Northern dialect; another is illustrated in the difference between the chief British and American meanings of the noun *vest.* www.Bartlby.com. Date of access: 23 August 2007.

17. Use and practise their *cognitive skills* of selecting, classifying, reasoning, evaluating, and problem solving to participate in lectures, seminars and workshops.
18. Start with the familiar or simpler language tasks before engaging with the more complex. A crucial consideration in the presentation of language tasks is in terms of *grading* and *sequencing* of tasks, namely, grammatical complexity, the length of the text, the density in terms of how much information is packed into the text, how it is disseminated and used, the explicitness of the information, the amount of low-frequency vocabulary, the discourse structure and the clarity with which it is signalled
19. Develop skills required to use the various types of *reference materials* for research. This is important for academic essay writing. In the first year level of the students in this study, students need only a basic knowledge of research writing and referencing. This skill is expanded in subsequent years.
20. Show *critical awareness* of language usage (respond to the aesthetic, affective, cultural and social values in texts). Think and express their thoughts and emotions logically, critically and creatively; which involves reflecting critically on values and attitudes and then responding with empathy to the thoughts and emotions of others;
21. To develop and value other languages, cultures and literacies in our multicultural country (thereby developing a shared understanding of a common South African culture) and in international contexts – a *sphere of interculturality.*
22. There is a need for *feedback*. Feedback can have two dimensions: students are still 'marks' focused and this together with wanting to do something only for marks and not focusing on the acquiring of academic skills, indicates the need for explicit communication of the outcomes (and the rationale for them) of each unit in the coursebooks as well as feedback on their work. This produces two important criteria, namely i) feedback on student work and ii) outcomes stated at the beginning of each unit.

8.3 VALIDATION OF CRITERIA BY PANEL OF EXPERTS

Questionnaires were e-mailed to six experienced university lecturers not in the UniLim English Studies Department. Only five returned the questionnaires. However, this had been the intended number for the sample population. The respondents were one each from the North-West University (Mafikeng campus), the Sultan Qaboos University (Muscat, Oman), the University of the Western Cape, one from the Turfloop (outside Polokwane) campus of UniLim and 1 from Edupark, a UniLim satellite campus. They have had 26 years (6 years secondary school), 19 years (1 year secondary school), 24 years (12 years secondary school), 21 years, and 27 years English teaching experience, respectively. All had extensive experience of teaching students from rural homes and schools – the target user of the coursebooks.

The respondents were requested to rate the criteria in the questionnaire on a scale of four options, namely, *unimportant* (1), *optional* (2), *reasonably important* (3) or *crucial* (4).

The responses to the questionnaire were as follows:

Table 8.1: *The 'experts" responses to the provisional criteria.*

Criterion **The coursebooks for the above-mentioned target audience should:**	**Un-important**	**Optional**	**Reason-ably important**	**Crucial**
1. be cheap (R60 or less).	2 (40%)	0	1 (20%)	2 (40%)
2. be reasonably durable with enough space to fill in answers.	0	1 (20%)	1 (20%)	2 (40%)
3. provide a basic framework for students and educators across all lectures and workshop groups.	0	0	1 (20%)	**4 (80%)**
4. support the content of the lectures and guide the student through the module content.	0	0	2 (40%)	3 (60%)
5. clearly indicate the desired learning outcomes for each unit.	0	0	1 (20%)	**4 (80%)**
6. engage students by providing activities covering topics of interest to students in the range of 17 to 24 years of age.	0	2 (40%)	2 (40%)	1 (20%)
7. engage students by providing some activities that are familiar and relevant to their cultures.	0	1 (20%)	3 (60%)	1 (20%)
8. include content involving students' cultural knowledge to help them acquire and increase their linguistic knowledge.	0	1 (20%)	3 (60%)	1 (20%)
9. include activities which teach interculturality (learning to value one's	0	1 (20%)	4 (80%)	0

own and others' culture).				
10. include many activities where students need to make and negotiate meaning and understanding.	0	0	1 (20%)	**4 (80%)**
11. have activities to practise and apply language structures and conventions in context.	0	0	2 (40%)	3 (60%)
12. contain activities that engage students in *using* English in practical exercises and tasks, rather than just learning *about* English.	0	0	2 (40%)	3 (60%)
13. contain activities that have as primary goal, fluency and appropriate, comprehensible language.	0	0	2 (40%)	3 (60%)
14. teach accuracy not in the abstract but in *context*.	0	1 (20%)	2 (40%)	2(40%)
15. provide activities to practise and achieve comprehensible pronunciation.	0	1 (20%)	2 (40%)	2 (40%)
16. provide exercises which promote vocabulary building.	0	0	2 (40%)	3 (60%)
17. contain a unit on dictionary work.	1 (20%)	1 (20%)	2 (40%)	1 (20%)
18. do collocation exercises to promote vocabulary building and learning idiomatic English.	0	2 (40%)	1(20%)	2 (40%)
19. focus mainly on two of the four language skills, namely reading and writing.	0	1(20%)	3 (60%)	1(20%)
20. contain sufficient reading passages to practise skimming, scanning, speed reading and close reading.	0	2 (40%)	1 (20%)	2 (40%)
21. provide activities to practise summary writing.	0	0	2 (40%)	3 (60%)
22. contain writing activities should allow practice in creating, composing, exploring, conceptualizing, drafting, and revising.	0	0	1 (20%)	**4 (80%)**
23. let students interact with texts and write on topics which require critical thinking and a questioning approach to texts.	0	0	0	**5 (100%)**
24. provide ample opportunities to write in different academic genres.	0	0	2 (40%)	3 (60%)
25. contain a section devoted to the analysis of instructions and essay topics.	0	2 (40%)	1 (20%)	2 (40%)
26. raise awareness in writing tasks of coherence, cohesion, transition words, and logical presentation of arguments.	0	0	0	**5 (100%)**
27. contain activities to develop the cognitive skills of selecting, reasoning, analyzing, classifying, sequencing and evaluating	0	0	0	**5 (100%)**
28. because the classes are large (50 - 90 students per group), contain a variety of activities to accommodate different learning styles, and abilities, as well as prevent students from losing concentration.	0	1 (20%)	2 (40%)	2 (40%)
29. in terms of the large classes,	0	0	2 (40%)	3 (60%)

encourage 'individualisation', i.e. provide the opportunity to do individual work by working on one's own at one's own pace.				
30. allow for 'personalization' despite the large classes, by giving the opportunity for personal input to prevent an atmosphere of impersonality and bureaucracy – a danger in large classes.	0	0	3 (60%)	2 (40%)
31. for large classes, include questions and requests (e.g why? Explain how to?) that result in lively participation.	0	1 (20%)	3 (60%)	1 (20%)
32. ensure that there are numerous activities that encourage interaction and communication in English.	0	0	2 (40%)	3 (60%)
33. raise awareness of correct grammar.	0	1 (20%)	2 (40%)	2 (40%)
34. contain tasks (as defined in task-based teaching and learning) which involve problem-solving	0	1 (20%)	1 (20%)	3 (60%)
35. contain authentic tasks which are simplified where necessary.	0	3 (60%)	1 (20%)	1 (20%)
36. 'scaffold' (have support built into the task to assist the learner) activities or tasks to support a learner until a skill has been mastered.	0	2 (40%)	1 (20%)	2 (40%)
37. have activities and tasks that are mainly learner-centred.	0	1 (20%)	1 (20%)	3 (60%)
38. contain activities that encourage autonomy in language learning, i.e. develops independent learners.	0	0	2 (40%)	3 (60%)
39. encourage collaboration in pairs or groups of not more than 3, for students to learn to participate, negotiate meaning, compromise and take risks.	0	1 (20%)	1 (20%)	3 (60%)
40. sequence the activities in order of complexity to promote a feeling of achievement.	0	0	3 (60%)	2 (40%)
41. 'recycle' language items taught, because a language item cannot be mastered fully the first time it is encountered, but must be reintroduced over time in different contexts.	0	2 (40%)	2 (40%)	1 (20%)
42. have activities that encourage reflection, i.e. reflecting about how and why they do the tasks.	0	1 (20%)	1 (20%)	3 (60%)
43. contain activities that engage students with a variety of linguistic structures.	0	0	2 (40%)	3 (60%)
44. should provide feedback.	0	0	1 (20%)	**4 (80%)**

8.3.1 RATING: MAINLY *CRUCIAL* AND *REASONABLY IMPORTANT*

Criteria 3, 5, 10, 22, 23, 26 27 and 44 are all viewed as *crucial* by the majority (80%-100%) of the respondents. Criterion 3 supports the idea of materials forming a framework or skeleton of the two modules for teaching staff and students, to give unity

to the course. This confirms the responses by students and teaching staff (see Chapter 7, sections 7.5.2 and 7.6). The 100% rating as *crucial* for criterion 5 indicates that the coursebooks should explicitly articulate the learning outcomes for each coursebook unit. The respondents' view that criteria 10, 22, 23, 26 and 27 are crucial, confirms that the teaching approach should provide practice in the CLT tenet of negotiating meaning and comprehension as well as activities to develop the cognitive skills required for academic reading and writing.

Criterion 44 is obviously necessary, since it would be a strange kind of teaching which did not provide feedback. However, it emphasizes the need for clear feedback and in the case of the large groups and the difficulty of erratic attendance[2], giving feedback not only in class, but also some kind of written feedback. Feedback is also helpful for students to reflect on what they are able to do and where they may have misunderstood an instruction or made a mistake and may encourage independent learning. Students tend to view feedback in terms of marks only. For example, many want all language exercises or tasks that they complete to be awarded a mark which counts towards their semester mark (see comments at the end of Questionnaire A). If something does not count towards the semester mark they often do not do the exercise or activity. Feedback, what is understood by the term and what kind of feedback students may expect, should perhaps be discussed and clarified with students at the beginning of a module. The materials developer needs to consider how, when and where the feedback about the various language activities is going to be provided. This too may seem to be very obvious, but the inclination of many students is to just copy the answers without attempting to work through the activity to test their ability or proficiency. Although copying without much reflection cannot be completely prevented, it can be offered in a way which requires a little more effort than just providing the answers in the coursebook. Feedback can be given in the coursebook, in class, on noticeboards or on the Internet. The materials developer needs to decide on the most appropriate method for the context in which the materials are to be used.

[2] There are frequently timetable clashes, especially in the case of repeaters of the modules or a few who only enroll in the last year of their studies because they suddenly realize the ENGL131 and ENGL132 modules are a prerequisite to obtaining their degree. Thus a student may attend only one or two of the three contact periods a week and miss some of the verbal feedback in class. The clashes are not always the fault of the student but of the timetable.

To connect feedback with reflection, it is worth noting that the criterion on reflection (criterion 42) received a rating of 40% for *reasonably important* and 60% for *crucial*. The inclusion of activities which encourage reflection is therefore considered an essential criterion. The researcher has found that students often do not appear to reflect about a language activity they work on. They are unable to give reasons for their answers or why an activity was approached in a certain way. Reflection or deliberation is part of critical thinking which is crucial to academic discourse and practising it results in enhanced use of English for studying.

Criteria 4, 11, 12, 13, 16, 21, 24, 29, 30, 32, 38 and 43 were all rated 40% *reasonably important* and 60% *crucial*, indicating that they are all criteria that are also essential considerations in materials development for the target group. Criterion 4 links up with criterion 3 and supports the concepts of unity, guidance and direction with regard to content, teaching and learning, which the coursebooks should provide. Criteria 11 and 13 underscore the need in coursebook activities for applying language structures and conventions, while also giving opportunities for acquiring language fluency. There is clear agreement with criterion 12 that students practise applying English in practical tasks rather than just learn about English. The respondents agree that vocabulary building exercises (criterion 16) should be included. Summary writing (criterion 21) is viewed as an essential skill to be addressed by language materials. Practice in writing in different academic genres is also rated as *reasonably important* to *crucial*. This confirms the teaching staff's preference for a variety of academic genres, as expressed in the group interview with them (see Chapter 7, section 7.6). Criterion 29 addresses the strategy of individualization[3] in large classes and this is related to personalization in criterion 30. Including activities that allow the individual in a large group to make personal input and do some activities at his/her own pace, is seen by the majority of respondents as essential. This links up to criterion 38, which encourages autonomy in learning. (Autonomy or independent learning is rated slightly higher than criterion 39, which encourages collaboration.) Activities encouraging

[3] In this study *individualization* is used as pertaining to the individual as opposed to the group – activities done on one's own and not in a group and therefore being responsible on one's own for completing it. *Personalisation* refers to the students' personal framework or environment. For example, giving reading comprehension or writing topics for which students needs to describe their personal circumstances, feelings and views such writing about their family or their village.

interaction (criterion 32) is another criterion which advocates a CLT tenet[4]; while criterion 43 includes the provision of activities which allow students to deal with various linguistic structures. This is important because, during their studies, students from different faculties encounter a variety of linguistic structures in the different subjects they take.

8.3.2 RATING: MAINLY *REASONABLY IMPORTANT*

The following criteria are still rated as important but lean slightly away from being *crucial*. The rating of criterion 40, for example, which addresses the issue of sequencing activities in order of complexity, weighs more heavily towards *reasonably important'* because 60% rated *reasonably important* and 40% *crucial*. Sequencing is therefore important, even if not as crucial as those criteria rated above. Criterion 30 also receives a 60/40 rating (as opposed to the 40/60: *reasonably important/ crucial* rating above), leaning more heavily towards *reasonably important*. This still means, however, that 'personalizing' or 'individualising' large classes by designing or including activities that allow for personal input should be viewed as criteria by materials designers.

Eighty percent of the respondents rated criteria 7, 8, 9, 14, 15, 19, 28, 31, 33, 34, 37, 39, and 42 as *reasonably important* to *crucial* (60% for *reasonably important* and 20% for *crucial*, with 20% for *optional*), but not as heavily as the above-mentioned criteria. Criteria 7, 8, and 9 focus on topics that are familiar to the students (beginning with what is 'known') and therefore involves the students' various cultures (mainly the SePedi, Tsonga or TshiVenda cultures) by using these cultures to increase their linguistic knowledge of English as well as learning to value their own cultures before getting to know the cultures of others. Interesting to note is that the ratings for 7 and 8 (about local culture) were *optional* – 20%, *reasonably important* – 60% and *crucial* – 20%, while criteria 9 which refers to 'interculturality' was rated *optional* – 20% and *reasonably important* - 80%. This could indicate that interculturality was viewed slightly less important than local culture at the first-entering level at which the modules in this study are pitched. The ratings also indicate that culture is not necessarily regarded as crucial (cf. Cleghorn & Rollnik 2002 on bilingualism and biculturalism; see also Chapter 4, section 4.7). Criterion 14 deals with teaching accuracy in context

[4] The other CLT tenet is the negotiation of meaning and comprehension as found in criteria 10, 22, 23, 26 and 27.

while criterion 15 activities to achieve comprehensible pronunciation. Both have a 20/40/40 rating for the optional/ reasonably important/ crucial options, which suggests that, while grammar instruction is felt to be important enough to be included in language materials, how it is taught is not of primary importance, or focusing on it explicitly is not essential. Although not crucial, the rating of criterion 15 indicates that the respondents feel it is important to teach comprehensible pronunciation. In terms of the focus of the modules in this study being mainly reading and writing skills, the response to criterion 19 indicates that the skills are important (20% rated *crucial* and 60% *reasonably important*). The fact that only two language skills (reading and writing) are focused upon, may not be viewed as crucial but perhaps for the materials designers to decide (the 20% *optional* rating added to the 60% *reasonably important* rating). Criterion 28 has an equal *reasonably important* and *crucial* rating; but the 20% optional rating gives it a reasonably important slant. This suggests, in comparison to the rating of criterion 29 and 30, that accommodating diverse learning styles and abilities in the materials is viewed as not quite as important as working individually and allowing personal input. The criterion encouraging strategies to enliven the lesson (criterion 31) and encourage participation is rated with a slant towards *reasonably important* which suggests that such strategies would be important (it underlines interaction and communication - supporting a CLT approach). The rating for criterion 33 is the same for *crucial* and *reasonably important* suggesting that awareness-raising is a strategy that should be applied in materials. The 60% *crucial* rating for criterion 34 makes problem-solving tasks an important element of language materials. This is most likely because problem-solving tasks are communi-cative if done in pairs or groups because such tasks generate consultation, discussion and interaction. Criterion 37 was rated as *crucial* by 60% of the respondents and as *reasonably important* and *optional* each by 20%. This may indicate that the educator is not entirely viewed as only a facilitator or guide. Learner-centredness is an important criterion but the educator still has a key role to play. The educator can select activities with which he/ she can provide guidance to a greater or lesser extent and those with which the learners can assist each other in completing them. This is confirmed by the majority of respondents rating criterion 39 the same as criterion 37 – suggesting that the respondents believe it to be crucial that there be tasks or activities which involve collaboration in pairs or groups. That the groups should not consist of more than 3 members seems acceptable and this supports the students' preference for not

studying with more than one or two people (see Questionnaire A, section 7.2.6, questions 19 and 20). Criterion 42 has been mentioned above in connection with feedback (criterion 44), but is also a learning strategy that can be encouraged in students that tend to view the educator as the authority and source of all knowledge without reflecting about the activities or tasks. Sixty percent of the respondents rate reflection as *crucial.*

8.3.3 RATING: BETWEEN OPTIONAL AND REASONABLY IMPORTANT

Criteria 2, 6, 17, 18, 20, 25, 36, and 41 are rated by the 'experts' between *reasonably important* and *optional.*

Criterion 2, concerning the durability of the materials and the amount of 'space' for writing answers came from the students' needs analysis questionnaire. The 'experts' have also rated it reasonably equally across *optional* (20%), *reasonably important (20%)* and *crucial* (40%). (One person did not fill in a rating and this may have been because it was accidentally missed.) Students wanted cheap materials (or free) that are durable. The 'experts' also rate it as important. What is interesting to note is that the respondents do not think that covering topics of interest to the target population age group in an attempt to engage them is very important (criteria 6). Forty percent rate this criterion as unimportant. The respondents rate a unit on dictionary work (criterion 17) across all four options with the highest rating of 40% for *reasonably important (*see 8.3 below for further comment). Using collocation exercises to increase vocabulary is rated as *optional* by 40% and by forty percent as *crucial* – this indicates collocation (criterion 18) may be an evaluation criteria. Criterion 20 (reading techniques) is also rated by 40% as *crucial* and by 40% as optional. This is odd, as it seems that either the respondents believe that reading skills are essential or that they can be optional. Reading skills are an essential component of EAP (see Chapter 3, section 3.3.3). Criterion 25 also ranges between 40% for *crucial* and 40% for *optional* with 20% for *reasonably important.* The 40% for *crucial,* tips the scale towards reading techniques being reasonably important as a criterion. Analysing instructions and specifically essay topics, are an important part of process writing and cannot be left out. Scaffolding (criterion 36) has the same rating as criteria 20 and 25 above, and thus scaffolding is also regarded as being an important criterion. Criterion 41 which deals with recycling of language items leans towards *optional* because the rating by only 20% is *crucial.* Although not as crucial as some of the other criteria the

materials designer has the 'go ahead' to reintroduce language items done previously until they have been mastered.

8.3.4 RATING: MAINLY OPTIONAL

Criterion 35, concerned with the authenticity of materials, was rated by 60% as *optional*. This seems to suggest that authenticity is not viewed as very important, whether authentic tasks are simplified or not.

The only two criteria which were viewed by one or two respondents as unimportant were criterion 1 (40% of respondents) on the issue of cheap materials and criterion 17 (1 respondent i.e. 20%) on the issue of dictionary work. The majority (60%) rate price to be reasonably important to crucial. The students wish the coursebooks to be free or cheaper. At the moment, therefore, a reasonable price for the coursebooks should remain a criterion. Regarding the issue of a unit for teaching dictionary work, responses from the students, (see Chapter 7: the analyses of both questionnaires A and B) indicate that they find dictionaries and dictionary work useful. The literature (refer to Chapter 3, EAP, section 3.3:51-52; Griffiths 2007) supports dictionary work as a learning strategy which develops academic vocabulary. Currently it should remain a criterion until it is found that most students enter university, in this case UniLim, with the necessary dictionary skills.

8.3.5 CONCLUSION

The majority of the provisional evaluation criteria have been confirmed as having to be included in the coursebooks for the target population. Most of the criteria have been rated within the *reasonably important* to the *crucial* range. The two exceptions are the need for teaching dictionary work and trying to produce cheap materials. Both, however, have been strongly suggested by the teaching staff and students in the case of criteria 17 (dictionary work) and by the students in the case of criteria 1 (the price). It should be possible to compromise on both.

8.4 INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEWS

Two staff members from the School of Education in the Language Methodology Department were interviewed separately to ascertain the view of experts who trained

Limpopo language teachers with regard to teaching materials. The interview was unstructured but the interviewer made use of interview prompts (see Appendix G).

8.4.1 TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Interviewee A has 8 years teaching experience in linguistics and teacher training, of which 2 years were secondary school teaching.

Interviewee B has 19 years teaching experience of which 3 years were at a secondary school and the rest in teacher training.

8.4.2 INTERVIEWEES' OPINION OF TEXTBOOKS/ COURSEBOOKS

Interviewee A's opinion of textbooks or teaching materials was asked. She believes textbooks are essential in the classroom and outside the classroom as a back-up for the student as well as to work on their own. She finds that students tend to want to leave the responsibility for any learning to the teacher instead of taking responsibility for their own learning. She also finds that students do not buy the 'support packs' that she compiles and makes available to them. (This correlates with the experience of the staff of the UniLim English Studies Department of students not buying textbooks.)

Interviewee B was also asked to state her view of textbook use in the language classroom. She said that it is a useful guide and support but should not be regarded as the alpha and omega of a lesson. Her perspective of why teachers in rural schools do not use textbooks in their lessons as reported by the PEI research project (Taylor & Vinjevold 1999), was that teachers tend to want ready-made lessons and if the textbook does not match what is in the syllabus they do not use it. She feels that teachers generally lack creativity or confidence to use any given text as a resource. They will say they have no books but she will see piles of books in the staffroom bookshelves that can be used for lessons. She has found that especially older teachers do not prepare lessons.

8.4.3 CRITERIA FOR SELECTING A TEXTBOOK OR COURSE MATERIALS

In response to the question about which criteria she applies in selecting materials, ***Interviewee A*** said that firstly, the text had to deal with issues of methodology, then address specific challenges students faced in class and covered what was in the

course outline. Her focus was on reading strategies, writing skills, and the concepts and terms that were part of the subject discourse. She highlighted items such as sentence structure, academic register, expressing cause and effect in writing, paraphrasing and summary writing. For her current group of students she had compiled a support pack of materials. She evaluates the materials at the end of a course and adds or removes exercises.

Interviewee B looks for a textbook which is integrated, which combines grammar with content. She believes grammar cannot be taught entirely implicitly (which she termed 'by the way' learning); some explicit focus on form is needed but it must be taught in a context. Language structure should not be left out and it needs reinforcement. She looks for versatile, interesting reading passages. Local cultural content is included because one should start from the 'known and familiar. She warns that African culture cannot be boxed as one thing – there are different nuances in the cultures of African ethnic groups. Familiar cultural issues addressed in materials provide opportunities to get students to interact. The distinction between spoken and written language should be pointed out to students. She likes textbooks with chapters or units that each have their own theme because a theme keeps things together, the vocabulary and sentence structure can be reinforced by repetition. Authentic tasks can also be included, for example, getting students to design a questionnaire or a dinner menu.

8.4.4 WHEN, WHY AND HOW IS THE TEXTBOOK/ COURSEBOOK SUPPLEMENTED?

To the question of when, why and how she supplements the textbook or course material ***Interviewee A*** said that students had different grammar problems and not all the students had the same grammar problems. She would supplement the materials if there was a clear problem they all experienced or if there was one she had not predicted and had not included in the materials. She pointed out that she only addressed one grammar problem at a time in their writing or as it came up in a text they were working on in class.

Interviewee B would add idioms, proverbs and common idiomatic expressions. Few current language textbooks cover or include these. She finds that teachers expect students to use these in their writing but they do not teach them. The students'

vocabulary generally needs to be expanded and so she would add extra 'functional' vocabulary pertaining to the theme being covered in a lesson. She also believes in simplifying texts by replacing unfamiliar 'difficult' words with known words to make the text more readable.

8.4.5 CONCLUSION

Although the interviewer made use of prompts the interviewees were asked to freely give their thoughts about the role of textbooks and what they required from a textbook and how it, or generally language materials, is (are) and should be used in the classroom. The criteria they mentioned were similar to those identified from the data from the student and teaching staff questionnaires and interviews. Significant was the comment by interviewee B who indicated that textbooks were not really used in some of the schools. This indicates that first-entering students need to learn how to use their textbooks effectively and extract relevant information from them. This includes extracting information from the content pages, the table of contents, the index and bibliographies and the abstracts of articles, as well as making notes, summing up important chapters and writing abstracts in English, the institute's language of learning and teaching. This, in turn, means that the kind of purposeful (i.e. functional) English which they can use in their content subjects, should be taught - with the emphasis on reading techniques, comprehension of English (especially texts), expanding vocabulary, and writing logical, well-organised essays.

8.5 FINAL EVALUATION CRITERIA FOR THE EVALUATION OF THE UNILIM ENGL131 AND ENGL132 EAP MODULE COURSEBOOKS

8.5.1 OVERVIEW OF FINAL EVALUATION CRITERIA IN ORDER OF CRUCIALITY

Taking into account both the responses to the questionnaires by the experts and the two interviews, the evaluation criteria below are listed in order of cruciality as inferred from the results of the questionnaires and the interviews. The criteria in this list will then be simplified by removing any unnecessary repetition (see 8.5.2).

1. The coursebooks should provide a basic framework for students and educators across all lectures and workshop groups.
2. Each unit or chapter should clearly indicate the desired learning outcomes.

3. The coursebooks should include many activities where students need to make and negotiate meaning and understanding.
4. The coursebooks should contain writing activities should allow practice in creating, composing, exploring, conceptualizing, drafting, and revising.
5. Language activities in the coursebooks should require students to interact with texts and write on topics which require critical thinking and a questioning approach to texts.
6. Writing tasks should teach coherence, cohesion, transition words, and logical presentation of arguments.
7. The coursebooks should contain activities to develop the cognitive skills of selecting, reasoning, analyzing, classifying, sequencing and evaluating.
8. Feedback should be provided in writing.
9. The coursebooks should reinforce the content of the lectures and guide the student through the module content.
10. The coursebooks should consist of activities to practise and apply language structures and conventions in context.
11. The coursebooks should contain activities that engage students in *using* English in practical exercises and tasks, rather than just learning *about* English.
12. The activities in the coursebooks should have as primary goal, fluency and appropriate, comprehensible language.
13. The coursebooks should provide exercises which promote vocabulary building.
14. Coursebook activities should provide practice in summary writing.
15. The coursebooks should provide ample opportunities to write in different academic genres.
16. In terms of the large classes, 'individualisation', i.e. provide the opportunity to do individual work by working on one's own at one's own pace, should be built into some of the activities.
17. Specifically for the large classes, the coursebook activities should provide the opportunity for 'personalization', that is, personal input to prevent an atmosphere of impersonality and bureaucracy.
18. The materials developer should ensure that there are numerous activities that encourage interaction and communication in English.
19. The coursebooks should contain activities that encourage autonomy in language learning, i.e. develops independent learners.
20. They should contain activities that engage students with a variety of linguistic structures.
21. The activities should be sequenced in order of complexity to promote a feeling of achievement.

22. Students should be engaged by activities that are familiar and relevant to their cultures.
23. To start with what is familiar and 'known' to the students, the coursebook content should include involving students' cultural knowledge to acquire and increase their knowledge about and practical application of the target language, English.
24. Activities should be included which teach interculturality (learning to value one's own and others' culture).
25. Language structure and grammatical accuracy should not be taught in the abstract, but in *context*.
26. There should be language activities to practise and achieve comprehensible pronunciation.
27. The materials should focus mainly on two of the four language skills, namely reading and writing.
28. Because the classes are large (50 - 90 students per group), the coursebooks should contain a variety of activities to accommodate different learning styles, and abilities, as well as to avoid monotony and prevent students from losing concentration.
29. To encourage lively participation in large classes, coursebook activities should include questions (e.g why? Explain how to?) that are open-ended.
30. Texts used in the coursebooks should be used as models of correct grammar.
31. The coursebooks should contain tasks (as defined in task-based teaching and learning) which involve problem-solving.
32. Activities and tasks in the coursebooks should be mainly learner-centred.
33. Tasks and activities should encourage collaboration in pairs or groups of not more than 3 (the needs analysis indicated that most students want work in groups no larger than 3), for students to learn to participate, negotiate meaning, compromise and take risks.
34. The coursebook should contain activities that encourage reflection, i.e. reflecting about how and why and for what purpose they do the tasks.
35. The coursebooks should be reasonably durable with enough space to fill in answers.
36. In order to engage students and hold their attention, activities should include topics of interest for students in the range of 17 to 24 years of age.
37. Collocation exercises can be included to promote vocabulary building and learning idiomatic English.
38. The coursebooks should contain sufficient reading passages to practise skimming, scanning, speed reading and close reading.
39. The coursebook should contain a section or a unit devoted to the analysis of instructions and essay topics.

40. Activities should be 'scaffolded' (have support built into the task to assist the learner) to support learners in their learning until a language skill has been mastered.
41. Specific language structures should be 'recycled' – that is, reintroduced over time in different contexts - because a language structure cannot be mastered fully the first it is encountered.
42. Authentic tasks, which are simplified when too complex, can be part of the coursebooks.
43. The coursebook should contain some activities requiring dictionary work.
44. The developer of the materials should aim to produce reasonably priced coursebooks (R60 or less).

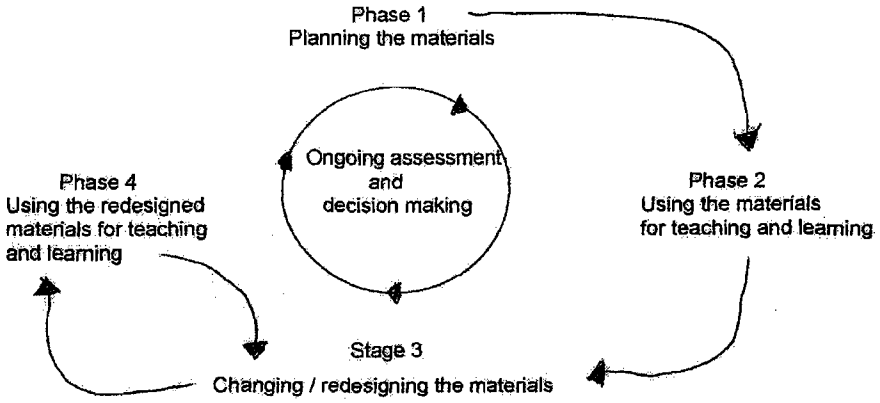
8.5.2 PROBLEMS ADDRESSED: SPECIFICITY, MEASURABILITY AND OPERATIONALISATION OF EVALUATION CRITERIA

Criteria should be measurable and so the wording is crucial. The criteria developed in this study could be criticized for being too broad or not sufficiently detailed. However, the researcher is concerned that simplifying the criteria too much in order to make them measurable may result in a criterion becoming too vague. For example, in terms of CLT the criterion could declare that materials 'are communicative'. For the materials developer one word does not cover all the aspects that an activity must include in order to measure up to all the CLT principles. To make sure that the materials are 'communicative' more individual criteria could be articulated such as, 'The activities need be authentic' (Which definition of 'authentic'?), 'The activities must be interactive' (Will the interaction be spontaneous or contrived?), The activities must be learner-centred' (Should all activities be learner-centred?) , 'The activities must be done in pairs or groups' (What is the quality of the interaction between students? What should the size of the group be in the context of the target population?), and so on.

The problem of simplifying the criteria to make them measurable is, firstly, that this will result in numerous criteria if the course combines several ESL and teaching approaches, such as EAP, CLT, TBLT, and adapted versions thereof; and secondly, each evaluator may interpret the concepts differently. The researcher would like to apply core criteria to the present coursebooks and then apply any other criteria which have emerged from the study, in subsequent phases of the materials development process. The researcher views the materials development process of the in-house materials (in the context of this study) "as a continuing and cyclical process of

development, revision, maintenance and renewal" (Johnson 1989, cited in Graves 1996:4). This needs to continue throughout the 'life' of the materials. This definition by Johnson (1989) and Graves (1996) refers to course development, but the researcher believes that their description of the curriculum process is also a description of the materials design and development process. Figure 8.1 illustrates the materials design and development process (figure adapted from Graves 1996: 4) as adapted by the researcher:

Figure 8.1: *The process of in-house materials design and development*



8.5.3 THE FINAL CRITERIA

The final evaluation criteria that would be most relevant to the objectives of the current ENGL131 and ENGL132 coursebooks are those listed below.

1. The coursebooks should provide a basic framework of and guidance through the course content for both students and educators.
2. Each unit or chapter should clearly indicate the desired learning outcomes for the modules that make up the course (an OBE principle).
3. The coursebook should include many activities which provide the opportunity for interaction, communication, negotiation of meaning and understanding; that is, activities whose primary goal is fluency and appropriate, comprehensible language (a CLT principle).
4. The coursebook activities should include writing activities which involve and provide practice in academic process writing: analysing topics or instructions,

creating, conceptualising, drafting, and revising (an EAP principle).

5. Language activities in the coursebooks should require students to interact with texts (academic reading) and write on topics which require cognitive skills, that is critical thinking and a questioning approach to texts (as for academic writing) for which students need to select, reason, analyse, classify, sequence and other such skills (an EAP approach).
6. The writing tasks should raise an awareness of cohesive devices (e.g. transitional words and expressions, pronouns, repetition, parallel structures, old/new information) to assist students with the presentation of logical arguments in their own writing (an EAP approach).
7. The materials designer must provide feedback appropriate to the context of the study.
8. The coursebook should contain a variety of activities by means of which English grammar (language form and conventions) can be practiced and applied; specifically within context, not as discrete items. (The weak version of CLT.) Focus on form may be explicit (see criterion 20).
9. The coursebooks should provide activities involving dictionary work and collocations which will help students expand their vocabulary and use of idiomatic English. (Component of EGAP.)
10. Summary writing activities should be included in the materials as a skill to use for note-taking, note-making, and essay writing. (Component of EGAP.)
11. The coursebooks should provide opportunities to write in different academic genres. (Component of EGAP.)
12. The coursebooks should contain several activities that encourage autonomy in language learning, that is, independent learning.
13. In terms of large classes, the coursebook activities should provide opportunities for 'personalisation', that is, personal input to prevent an atmosphere of impersonality and bureaucracy.
14. The coursebook activities should be sequenced according to complexity to promote a feeling of achievement as the simpler tasks are successfully completed (Krashen's input hypothesis). (An alternative, though very similar, is scaffolding, that is building 'support structures' into activities until the learner is able to manage more complex ones.)
15. The coursebooks should apply the pedagogical principle of working 'from the

known to the unknown' by including activities relevant to and from the local cultures. This should generate discussion and participation and so help to increase the students' linguistic knowledge.

16. The coursebooks should, later in the year, include some activities which teach interculturality – learning to value one's own and others' culture.
17. The coursebook should for the present focus on only two of the academic language skills, namely, academic reading and writing. (EAP.)
18. In terms of large classes, the coursebooks should attempt to include activities that accommodate different learning styles – for example, auditory, visual, and kinaesthetic – as well as prevent monotony.
19. A number of activities should contain open-ended questions to encourage lively participation in large classes. (For example, 'why', 'explain how to...'.)
20. Most of the grammar exercises should teach by awareness-raising, that is, implicitly. (There is, however, a role for explicit focus on form and accuracy – see criterion 8.)
21. Language structures (grammar) should be 'recycled' or repeated at intervals because language structures are not completely mastered the first time they are done.
22. The coursebooks should contain tasks which involve problem-solving. (TBLT.)
23. Activities and tasks should be mainly learner-centred. (CLT, TBLT, EAP.)
24. Some tasks and activities should be done in pairs or small groups of 3 for students to learn to collaborate, interact and take risks. (CLT.)
25. The activities should encourage reflection, that is, encourage students to reflect about how and why and for what purpose they do a task.
26. The workbooks should be reasonably durable and with sufficient space to fill in answers.
27. To encourage participation by keeping students engaged, the coursebooks should include topics that are of interest to young adults between the ages of 17 and 24 years.
28. The coursebooks should contain sufficient reading passages to practise the reading techniques of skimming, scanning, speed reading and close reading. (EAP.)
29. Authentic tasks (simplified if too difficult) should be included in coursebook activities.

30. The coursebook developer should endeavour to produce reasonably priced coursebooks.

8.6 CONCLUSION

The final list of evaluation criteria was eventually drawn up after the experts validated the criteria presented to them in Questionnaire D and by means of interviews. Some questions had addressed the same issue but had been couched in different words for the sake of cross checking. The provisional criteria were all rated at least optional to reasonably important. The two last-mentioned were each rated as unimportant by only one of the 'experts'. A list of 30 criteria remained from the original provisional list of 44. The coursebooks will be evaluated against these final criteria in the next chapter and changes or additions will be recommended.

CHAPTER 9

THE APPLICATION OF THE EVALUATION CRITERIA TO AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR CHANGES AND ADDITIONS TO THE COURSEBOOKS

9.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter established the final evaluation criteria by which the current coursebooks should be judged. The responses to the questionnaire, consisting of the provisional criteria (from the literature and the input from students and staff – see the list at the end of Chapter 7), were sent for validation to senior lecturers and professors with experience in teaching rural students at a tertiary level. Interviews were conducted with two members of staff involved in teacher training in the Department of Language Methodology to reinforce some of the provisional criteria. The final list of evaluation criteria was then compiled. (It is at the end of the previous chapter.)

This chapter aims to evaluate the English coursebooks by means of the criteria developed, applying a rating scale to indicate the extent to which the individual criteria are met by the coursebooks, and recommend additions or changes to subsequent coursebooks. The researcher will then reflect on the criteria and also offer teaching guidelines on how the changes and additions could best be achieved and implemented in practice.

9.2 THE CURRENT COURSEBOOKS

9.2.1 The ENGL131 Coursebook (see Appendix H)

This coursebook addresses mainly English grammar (such as parts of speech, sentence structure), vocabulary, and reading techniques and comprehension tests. The language activities involve language structures in a context, as well as a few that require discrete output. There is a unit for self-study as well as one for revision, which should be done by the students on their own and then they could go to their educator with any problems or questions.

9.2.2 ENGL132 Coursebook (see Appendix I)

This coursebook is used in the second module, which focuses on academic writing. It is the one that the language studies lecturers find the most 'teacher friendly' (see Chapter 7, section 7.6). It deals with the different stages of process writing (writing

introductions and conclusions, paragraphs with topic sentences), and draws attention to topic analysis (task words and topic words), transitional markers, collecting information, organising the information and presenting it logically.

It has been suggested by colleagues that the two coursebooks be integrated so that structured academic writing is done throughout the year. Another suggestion was that the grammar component be dealt with as problems arise when treating reading or writing activities in the first module, and then focusing explicitly on grammar and grammar rules and conventions in the second module (as in process writing), where language editing is done after the content and presentation of arguments has been dealt with.

9.2.3 A summary in table form of the activities in both coursebooks. (Appendix J)
The table in Appendix J shows the distribution of activities in the current coursebooks according to the receptive and productive language skills, the language focus and particular skills needed for students' academic work.

9.3 THE EVALUATION INSTRUMENT

The extent to which the coursebooks satisfy each criterion was measured by means of the following evaluation instrument:

	1 • 2 • 3 • 4
The specific criterion	Does not fully meet ◄► Fully meets the criterion

The rating options in the evaluation instrument take account of the degree to which the criterion is met in terms of quality and the appropriate language level for first-entering tertiary students. *Quality* in this context is defined as materials which the ESL, first-entering, rural students can comprehend, relate to and engage with to improve their English proficiency. *Level*, in this context, means that the coursebooks take account of the age and proficiency of the majority of the target student population. The researcher judges the proficiency of the target student population to be mainly in the range of lower intermediate to intermediate, with a small number being at the higher intermediate[1] level (as defined by Cactus Language Training 2007). The age range is

[1] **Lower Intermediate**
The students can understand and use simple structures fairly consistently, and can ask and respond to

17 to 22 years, which influences the topics of interest of this group, as well as cultural and intercultural content.

The options from 1 to 4 denote the following:

1: Does not meet the criterion.

This means that the coursebook does not address this criterion or if it does, only in a very minor way and then not at the appropriate level. Additions or fundamental changes need to be made.

2: Does not sufficiently meet the criteria.

A number of changes and additions need to be made.

3: Almost meets the criterion.

A few things may need to be added and minor changes made.

4: Fully meets the criterion.

A rating of 4 means that the coursebooks fully meet a criterion in terms of both quality and language level of the students.

9.4 EVALUATION OF THE ENGLISH COURSEBOOKS BY MEANS OF THE CRITERIA DEVELOPED AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR CHANGES OR ADDITIONS

The researcher has given the following rating to the coursebooks and has had them validated by two colleagues, one from language studies and another from literature studies.

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a wide range of simple questions. They have a reasonable idea of how the tense system works, and have an active vocabulary of around 700 words. They can express themselves in familiar contexts, although they still make a quite a lot of mistakes.

Intermediate
The students have a good understanding of simple structures, but lack accuracy and do not feel at ease with them just yet. They need to consolidate what they know and they are also ready to learn new and more complex forms. They can express themselves in most common situations and hold conversations on a range of topics.

Upper Intermediate
The students display a good grasp of all the essential structures and can use them with a reasonable degree of accuracy. Although they have some language gaps and make some errors, they can communicate effectively and appropriately in most situations, including on unfamiliar topics. They are ready to learn more complex forms and more advanced vocabulary.

Criterion 1: The coursebooks should provide a basic framework of and guidance through the course content for both students and educators.

EVALUATION: The coursebooks (called coursebooks because they provide the core materials for the course) provide a basic framework of the course (split into two modules) for both students and educators. They give both educators and students direction and guidance by means of the table of content and notes in working through the module content. The criterion is not fully met because there is the need for some additional information in the form of notes.

RATING: 3

RECOMMENDATION: Additional notes should be added to those grammar structures or aspects of academic writing with which students have particular problems, such as punctuation (something the students seem to randomly apply in their writing without much thought to whether the punctuation makes the meaning clear – long run-on sentences merely split by a comma), using the appropriate form of a word in a sentence (e.g. not: *If you sit next to old people you can get something gainfully*; but: *If you sit next to old people you can learn something valuable/ you can gain knowledge*), correct sentence structure, writing topic sentences, introductions and conclusions.

The additional notes both in the coursebooks (and supplemented by workshops) will also provide guidance in terms of ESL teaching for the educators, according to the principles which emerged from the study and the development of the criteria. The coursebooks should continue to centralise diverse approaches to language teaching while still accommodating different teaching styles.

Criterion 2: Each coursebook unit should clearly indicate the desired learning outcomes as emphasised in OBE.

EVALUATION: That there is no clear articulation of the learning outcomes at the beginning of each unit is a shortcoming of the current materials. The educators are required to verbally inform the students of the outcomes when introducing each unit; but since it can only be assumed that they do so, that is inadequate. Hence the rating given is that of not meeting the criterion at all.

RATING: 1

RECOMMENDATION: The learning outcomes should be clearly stated. Each unit should begin with a clear statement describing (in measurable terms) the expected

outcomes of the unit (see the example given below). The outcomes should be articulated in writing to guide and remind both students and educators of what the unit seeks to achieve. These outcomes can also become the students' language learning targets and give more focus to their language learning (see example in section 9.6 of this chapter: Teaching Guidelines).

Example: ENGL131 Coursebook, Unit 1 (Appendix H).

UNIT 1 - NOTE-TAKING

Outcomes:

When you have worked through this unit you should:

- *be able to explain what both note-taking and note-making involves;*
- *be able to explain the reasons for taking **effective** notes;*
- *be able to use different note-taking techniques;*
- *have your **own** list of abbreviations, for example, as used in sms language;*
- *be able to use the Cornell system of taking notes;*
- *be able to take and make effective notes;*
- *be able to draw and use mind maps.*

Criterion 3: The coursebook should focus on *only* two of the academic language skills, namely, academic reading and writing.

EVALUATION: The coursebooks focus primarily on academic reading and writing skills because written communication is important in academe. These two skills are covered in the coursebooks – the ENGL131 coursebook, Unit 9, covers reading techniques and the entire ENGL132 coursebook deals with process writing. These two skills are covered well, and therefore the coursebooks meet the criterion.

RATING: 4

Criterion 4: The coursebook activities should include writing activities to work through the different stages of academic process writing.

EVALUATION: The entire ENGL132 coursebook deals systematically with process writing: analysing topics or instructions, creating mind maps, conceptualising, drafting, and revising. Analysing topics and understanding topic sentences are problem areas for many students. The ENGL131 coursebook also provides opportunities for writing practice, but the emphasis is more on sentence structure than on the steps of the

academic writing process.

RATING: 3.5

RECOMMENDATION: The coursebook activities must clearly describe the steps to be followed in process writing and provide activities that develop the skills required to write a logical, well-constructed essay. More mapping activities should be added to illustrate the process graphically. This can be done by including more activities in both coursebooks which require mapping, such as ENGL131 Coursebook, Unit 1: activity 9 and ENGL132, Unit 7: activity 3 ii) (see Appendix H). Each writing task can be preceded by an exercise in mapping. At least two or three activities which entail mapping should be added. The students' writing skills will only improve from writing more and so, as mentioned before in this chapter (9.2.2), the two coursebooks should gradually be integrated to offer academic writing activities from the first module through to the second module. The emphasis on grammar structures should be in the second module. This change in the order of the module and course content will then be reflected in the coursebooks.

Criterion 5: The coursebooks should teach cohesive devices for well-constructed, logical essays.

EVALUATION: The ENGL132 coursebook contains eight focused activities which require the use of cohesive devices, such as transitional words and expressions, pronouns, repetition, parallel structures, old/ new information. A helpful aid to understanding and using cohesive devices is to illustrate them by means of models of essays in which these devices have been applied effectively, such as in the ENGL132 Coursebook (Appendix I), Unit 7: activity 3 and Unit 11: activities 5 and 6. The units covering these devices have sufficient notes and relevant exercises.

RATING: 4

Criterion 6: Summary writing activities should be included in the materials.

EVALUATION: The present ENGL132 Coursebook unit (Unit 1) includes notes on summary writing and five passages to summarise. The process writing stages in the ENGL132 Coursebook, Units 3 (Writing introductions), 4 (Topic sentences), 6 (Collecting, Organising and Presenting Information) and 7 (Writing conclusions) all contain activities that require the skill to sum up core ideas – whether by writing topic sentences or summing up what an essay is going to be about or coming to a

conclusion.

RATING: 4

Criterion 7: The coursebooks should provide opportunities to recognise and write in different academic genres.

EVALUATION: There are only a few examples of different academic genres such as models of legal, nursing and media discourse. One example is in ENGL131 Unit 2:

Activity 1:

Read the passage below and answer the questions that follow it:

The Labour Relations Act (LRA), Act 66 of 1995 with the subsequent amendments sets out the rights of employers and employees and their organisations more clearly than before. This should provide the parties with more certainty with regard to the exercise of these rights.

The Act also favours conciliation and negotiation as a way of settling labour disputes. It expects parties to make a genuine attempt to settle disputes through conciliation before going on to the next step, which could be arbitration, adjudication or industrial action. By providing for a more simplified dispute resolution process, the Act aims to achieve a quick, effective and inexpensive resolution of disputes. It thereby aims to reduce the level of industrial unrest, and to minimize the need for costly legal advice. The Commission for Conciliation, Mediation and Arbitration (CCMA) plays a critical role in actively conciliating and arbitrating disputes, and also provides advice on a range of issues to the parties concerned.

(A guide to the Labour Relations Act, 1995 (as amended),
Published by the Department of Labour)

RATING: 2

RECOMMENDATION: By means of the coursebooks the students should be exposed to texts from a variety of academic genres (such as law, nursing, agriculture, media studies, social studies, natural sciences – the disciplines and faculties the target students come from) and be given activities that enable them to write in these genres. They should be asked to write reports, office memos, letters of application or complaint, book reviews, legal briefs, abstracts for research articles and several other forms. An example of an abstract from an academic journal (below) could serve as a model and students could be asked to write their own after they have read an article.

EXAMPLE:

Abstract

This paper reviews empirical research on vocabulary learning strategies in a second/foreign language. A tetrahedral model of person, task, context, and strategies is first proposed to foreground the review. Next, empirical research along task, person, and contextual dimensions is reviewed. Specifically, the review focuses on task-dependent guessing

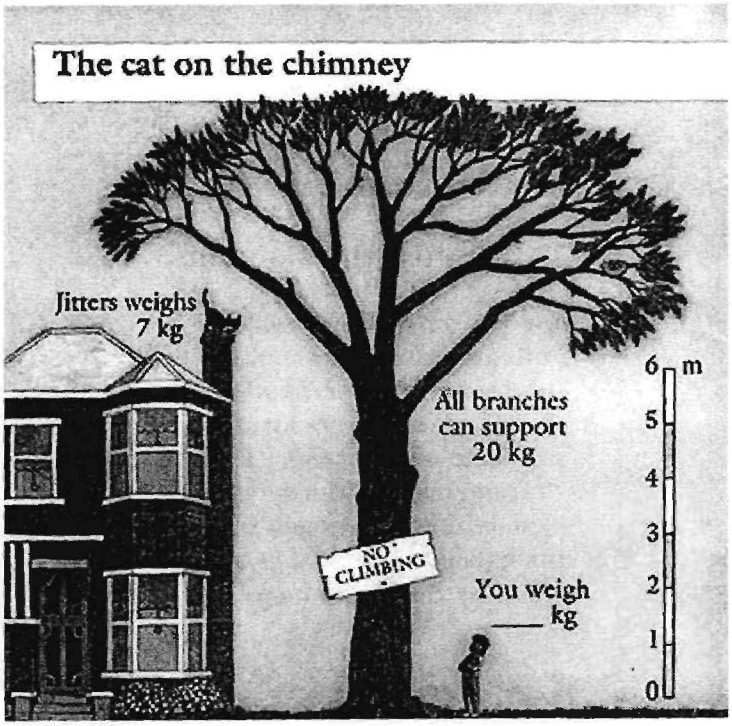
strategies, dictionary strategies, note-taking strategies, rote rehearsal strategies, and encoding strategies. Instead of searching for the best strategies that produce the best results, the author argues that the choice, use, and effectiveness of vocabulary learning strategies depend on the task, the learner, and the learning context. The paper ends by calling for a diversification of effort in both top-down theory building that provides clearer guidance to future research and more bottom-up empirical research that goes beyond the presentation and retention of words.

(Peter Yongqi Gu. 2003.Vocabulary Learning in a Second Language: Person, Task, Context and Strategies. *TESL-EJL,* Vol 7(2).)

Criterion 8: The coursebooks should contain tasks which involve problem-solving.

EVALUATION: Although there are about six activities that involve a deep approach to problem-solving tasks in the coursebooks – mainly in the ENGL132 Coursebook – these are not sufficient. The following is an example of one of these which generates lively discussion and critical thinking (ENGL132 Coursebook, Unit 10, activity 3):

Activity 3. Read and follow the instructions:



1. Your cat Jitters is on the chimney and is afraid to come down. How can you rescue him without causing harm or injury?

2. Brainstorm possible ways to bring the cat down from the chimney. Work in groups of three.

3. Use several items. One item is not enough.

4. Write YOUR solution as a set of instructions ("How to rescue the cat").

RATING: 2

RECOMMENDATION: The coursebook should provide more problem-solving activities so that the students receive practice in critical thinking and expressing the solutions in writing. Tasks that require more in-depth thinking will hopefully develop a more critical approach to language in students. More activities (at least one per unit) such as the one above should be added to the ENGL131 Coursebook to break the monotony of grammar activities and to generate communication within small groups.

Criterion 9: <u>The coursebooks should provide activities involving dictionary work and collocations.</u>

EVALUATION: The unit (ENGL131 Coursebook, Unit 2) covers the various ways in which a dictionary can be used by students to assist them in their studies fairly

comprehensively. However, there are only one or two exercises emphasising collocations[2] (not taking into account the self-study unit on prepositions).

RATING: 3.5

RECOMMENDATION: The effective use of dictionaries should be taught by means of practical activities as ways to expand their vocabulary. Using collocations is one such language activity which could help expand students' vocabulary and improve their use of idiomatic English, and it is suggested that collocation exercises be included in each unit. A simple example is:

Choose the appropriate adjective to complete the sentence.
He spoke English with a ..... French accent.

a) average
b) widespread
c) careless
d) pronounced
e) chronic

Useful collocations that can be taught are those commonly used in academic discourse, for example, *administer a questionnaire, conduct an interview, present a paper*, etc.

Criterion 10: The coursebooks should contain sufficient reading passages to practise the reading techniques of skimming, scanning, speed reading and close reading.

EVALUATION: There are opportunities to practise all these skills, as well as the information on how to practise speed reading on their own, using any of the reading passages in the coursebooks. The reading passages are of varying complexity but at a language level that most students can comprehend and on topics of general interest. By using the formula given below to calculate their reading speeds students can practise reading faster using various reading passages in the coursebooks.

Formula to calculate reading speed:

$$\frac{\text{NUMBER OF WORDS IN PASSAGE (e.g. 400) x 60 sec}}{\text{DIVIDED BY THE TIME YOU TOOK IN SECONDS (e.g. 3 mins 30sec = 210 seconds)}}$$

[2] A collocation, as defined by Richards *et al* .(1987), is "the way in which words are used together regularly". They give the example of how one says *The doctor performed an operation* but not *The committee performed a discussion.* Instead *discussion* is used with *held*: *The committee held a discussion.*

Therefore $\frac{400 \times 60}{210} = 114.3$ wpm

(As a university student you must aim at a reading speed of 200 wpm.)
RATING: 4

Criterion 11: Coursebook activities which require academic reading techniques should call for a variety of cognitive skills.

EVALUATION: Close reading requires cognitive skills such as concentration, critical thinking, a questioning approach to texts, reasoning, analysing and others. Both coursebooks attempted to provide passages that stimulate critical thinking, analysis, evaluation, and general monitoring of their own learning and metacognitive strategies. For example, the two reading passages in Unit 10, comprehension 4, (ENGL131 Coursebook) are examples of two different genres. Students need to be able to recognise this, and also explain why and in what way they differ content-wise and linguistically, by employing metacognitive strategies. Converting information from text form to table form such as activity 3, Unit 8 (ENGL132 Coursebook) in which information provided in a letter is categorised and inserted into a table.

RATING: 3.5

RECOMMENDATION: The coursebooks should include more academic reading activities from the different disciplines to which the students belong, that is, passages from their textbooks which require the application of reasoning, analysis, categorising, synthesising and discovering which strategies work best. Although rote learning is discouraged by the OBE education system, students still do a great deal of it and focus on acquisition of information instead of developing cognitive skills. Cognitive skills need to be practised and so eventually break the self-sustaining momentum (cf. Chapter 2, section 2.7.2.2) that rote-learning has acquired in many students.

Criterion 12: The activities should teach students to reflect on the purpose of the task they are doing and which particular skills and strategies they require to do it (metacognition).

EVALUATION: The approach currently applied, in the ENGL131 Coursebook in particular, to encourage reflection[3] about language, is to start with a short

[3] Reflection: there are various definitions of reflection (see Benson (2001: 90). Reflection is a key component of autonomy (also of TBLT, see Chapter 3: 68, 89). Dewey's (1933: 9) definition is one of

comprehension test. Students are given the opportunity for a 'silent period'[4] to silently read the passage of about 300 words, think about the content, reflect on how the main idea is expressed by means of written English, and then select the appropriate answer. This criterion links up with the previous one (Criterion 11). By reflecting on how language is used in a text, students use metacognitive strategies. The key purpose of the short reading passages and the questions that follow it is to get the students to immediately focus on English language and the meaning it conveys or the message it communicates, by thinking about it, and connecting their prior knowledge of English lexis and syntax with new ideas and concepts.

RATING: 2

RECOMMENDATION: The objective of most coursebook activities should be to encourage students to reflect on their own language learning skills and metacognitive strategies. (Educators should draw attention to this, as reflection supports learner-centredness and is an important component of autonomy.)

Criterion 13: The coursebook should provide the opportunity for interaction, communication, negotiation of meaning and understanding.

EVALUATION: The coursebooks contain a number of activities which generate interaction and negotiation of meaning. Describing, questioning and explaining are components of the process of negotiating meaning. However, although the students have expressed the wish for more opportunities to speak, this is contradicted by their lack of participation in class. When the activities that do stimulate spontaneous participation are analysed, it appears that interaction occurs most when the activities are about relationships, music, soccer, politics, and cellphones - and entail problem-solving. Such topics encourage questions and explanations.

RATING: 2

RECOMMENDATION: Although the primary focus in the course is on reading and writing skills, coursebook activities are needed which provide sufficient opportunities

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the early ones and has been frequently cited: "active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge". In the context of this study, the definition by Boud *et al.* (1985: 19) is particularly relevant.". They define reflection as "a generic term for those intellectual and affective forms for those intellectual and affective activities in which individuals engage to explore their experiences in order to lead to a new understanding and appreciation.

[4] This has various meanings. Here it is used to mean five or ten minutes at the beginning of the lesson when there is no interaction. Students read the text in front of them to concentrate on how meaning is expressed by language and how to respond to the questions.

to use English to communicate verbally. Oral communication, particularly negotiating and arguing, should serve as scaffolding for written communication. Interacting, discussing, reasoning, and debating orally are the first step to developing and applying cognitive skills. Arguments clearly formulated and then expressed by means of verbal interaction (e.g. to persuade or convince) until understood by the other person, pave the way for expressing the argument more accurately in written communication.

Criterion 14: Authentic materials (simplified if too difficult) should be included in coursebook activities.

EVALUATION: Articles from magazines and newspapers have been used to design activities which require the application of language skills: ENGL131 Coursebook, Unit 2, activity 10; Unit 6: activity 1; Unit 7: activity 1; and others; ENGL132 Coursebook, Unit 1: activities 3 and 6; Unit 9: activity 1; and others). The first activity mentioned is a dictionary page from one of the dictionaries used by students and its purpose is to focus on how to retrieve information from a real dictionary. Activity 1 of the same unit (see the example included with criterion 7) uses a passage from a Department of Labour publication to familiarise students with the legal language and concepts they are likely to encounter, not only in their studies but also in everyday life.

RATING: 2

RECOMMENDATION: More authentic texts from different academic genres such as interpreting graphs, recording laboratory experiments, writing case studies, analysing advertisements, writing reports, designing questionnaires, writing book and music reviews, should be added to the materials.

Criterion 15: A number of activities should contain open-ended questions to encourage lively participation in large classes.

EVALUATION: The majority of activities can be used to generate class or group discussion, but students all too often remain passive, to the frustration of the educators.

RATING: 3

RECOMMENDATION: Additional coursebook activities that encourage and compel lively, spontaneous class or group participation are essential; but in particular, guidelines need to be given to the educators as a separate handout. (Participation

generates 'brainstorming', which is a prerequisite to negotiating meaning, formulating arguments and eventually communicating these arguments clearly in writing.)

Criterion 16: The coursebook should contain a variety of activities by means of which English grammar (language form and conventions) can receive explicit attention within context.

EVALUATION: The coursebook has sufficient exercises that focus on specific grammar structures in context. The ENGL131 Coursebook (Appendix H) has mainly activities which focus explicitly on grammar. The type of language exercise can be changed to focus on different grammar forms in one context instead of several activities that focus on one specific grammatical structure as it has done. Its focus is too heavily on what Long (1997 – see Chapter 4, section 4.4.2) terms 'focus on formS'.

RATING: 4

RECOMMENDATION: Although there may be objections to discrete activities with focus on forms, some of the activities will be kept because there are grammar items which need particular focused attention. Examples of activities that will be retained are those, for example, concerning sentence structure, particularly Unit 3: activity 8 (this one is suited to awareness-raising and recognizing and selecting complete and correct sentences) or concerning Parts of Speech, as in Unit 5: activity 3(d) Nouns (the nouns to be identified are in a paragraph and therefore in context and the same paragraph can be used to make students aware of where the other parts of speech are in relation to the nouns). On the other hand, an activity such as Unit 5: activity 3c will be removed because it deals with discrete items which are not in context nor in the context of the short comprehension (*The History of Money*) as are the activities before it.

Criterion 17: It should be possible to use all coursebook activities to teach grammar implicitly (encountering input repeatedly) with the texts as models of appropriate English. (There is, however, a role for explicit focus on form and accuracy – see criterion 16.)

EVALUATION: There are sufficient reading passages in the coursebooks from which students could acquire appropriate English grammar and syntax implicitly.

RATING: 3

RECOMMENDATION: The reading passages used for comprehension, cohesive devices or any other aspect of reading and writing skills should all be used to teach English implicitly. This includes encouraging 'noticing', which the researcher believes is achieved more easily when a student is encouraged to reflect about a text just read. Initially, the educator should point out certain cohesive devices which the student should look at and reflect about. (Such an approach can be adopted with grammar structures, vocabulary and academic concepts too). This should eventually become part of the students' reading and learning strategies. Since EAP is the main focus, some of the present texts should be substituted with texts containing examples of academic language so that students learn to recognise and apply cohesive devices in English as well as their content subjects.

Criterion 18: Language structures (grammar) should be 'recycled' or repeated at intervals because language structures are not completely mastered the first time they are done.

EVALUATION: This is done in the revision exercises.

RATING: 3.5

RECOMMENDATION: Although this criterion is almost fully met, more revision activities should be added at regular intervals to provide additional exposure to a structure already dealt with, and to reinforce the structures that have just been taught. Revision exercises are also intended to encourage independent learning (see criterion 23). A student can use them to check whether he/ she is able to use the structures taught previously. Repeating grammar activities at a later stage may be used to ascertain whether the students have mastered the structure or item.

Criterion 19: The materials developer must provide feedback appropriate to the context of the study.

(Refer also to the discussion of results concerning this criterion (previously provisional criterion 44, in Chapter 8, section 8.3.1: 247.)

EVALUATION: The coursebooks do not provide any feedback. This remains a problem because the students tend to copy answers provided in the coursebooks.

RATING: 1

RECOMMENDATION: Feedback, that is the answers to closed-ended activities or models of appropriate responses to open-ended questions, should be provided in

writing so that the students can reflect on how to improve their writing and language proficiency. This can be done in the form of a separate coursebook appendix which can be distributed to students at the end of a unit when they have completed the coursebook unit activities.

Criterion 20: The coursebooks should include activities about local culture (Limpopo) and other cultures to teach interculturality.

EVALUATION: There are some activities related to local cultures, such as using texts describing local happenings or events, and students have the opportunity to explain and give their views of local customs in essays on, for example, the custom of Lobola or the incidence of extended or nuclear families.

RATING: 2

RECOMMENDATION: More activities with the background of familiar preferred local culture and customs should be included. These also relate to the principle behind Criterion 27.

Criterion 21: To actively engage students, the coursebooks should include activities about topics that are of interest to young adults between the ages of 17 and 22 years.

EVALUATION: Some of the topics are about the students' interests, such as a reading passage on 'Kwaito kingpin' Mandoza, (ENGL131 Coursebook, Unit 7, activity 1), the origin of soccer (ENGL131 Coursebook, Unit 8, activity 1), the passages on organisation and relevance (Miriam Tlali, Oswald Mtshali in ENGL132 Coursebook, Unit 5), but there should be more.

RATING: 3

RECOMMENDATION: To ensure that the topics dealt with in the various activities are what young adults are interested in, they should be asked to bring materials about their hobbies, things like relationships, local politics, local culture and customs and generally things they like reading about, to include in the coursebooks. Such contributions will ensure that this criterion is met, as well as criterion 27.

Criterion 22: Coursebook activities and tasks should be mainly learner-centred.

EVALUATION: It is possible for the students to use all the activities to discover the grammar rules for themselves. Learning in the language classroom should if it is learner-centred be a bottom-up process (Freire 1996; Prabhu 1992). Unfortunately,

many students wait for the educator to point out the English language conventions for them, instead of discovering them by means of practice, reflection and questioning.
RATING: 3
RECOMMENDATION: The majority of tasks should be learner-centred to make the learners responsible for their own learning. The activities and instructions should encourage students be active and engage with the activities in such a way that 'learning' takes place instead of only 'instruction'. This also leads to learner autonomy. Teaching techniques need to be applied by the educators to stimulate participation and to encourage students to ask questions and take responsibility for obtaining information themselves. Criterion 12, on reflection, is closely connected to this, as is Criterion 15, which promotes the use of open-ended questions (Why? When? What? How?).

Criterion 23: The coursebooks should contain activities that encourage autonomy in language learning, that is, independent learning.
EVALUATION: If students worked through the coursebooks carefully on their own and worked the answers out themselves, they could write the formative and summative assessments without attending all classes.
RATING: 4

Criterion 24: In terms of large classes, the coursebook activities should provide opportunities for 'personalisation', that is, personal input to prevent an atmosphere of impersonality and bureaucracy.
EVALUATION: Personalisation has been directly addressed by giving a number of short writing assignments on personal issues and experiences. For instance, students are required to write on their reasons for enrolling for English, their first day on campus, the villages or towns they come from and similar topics.
RATING: 4

Criterion 25: Some tasks and activities should be done in pairs or small groups of 3 for students to learn to collaborate, interact and take the risk to participate, respond, and negotiate meaning.
EVALUATION: Most of the activities can be done in pairs or groups. There are a few activities where students are instructed to work in pairs or groups. Such instructions

should be inserted into more activities. It cannot be assumed that educators will encourage pair- and groupwork without specific instructions.

RATING: 3.5

RECOMMENDATION: Instructions to work in pairs or small groups must be added to more of the activities.

Criterion 26: The coursebook activities should be sequenced according to complexity to promote a feeling of achievement as the simpler tasks are successfully completed.

EVALUATION: The coursebook activities in each unit are sequenced from simple activities to more complex ones in order to build students' confidence and to make sure that the basic skills have been mastered before moving on to the more complex. The whole course follows this sequence.

RATING: 4

Criterion 27: The coursebooks should apply the pedagogical principle of working 'from the known to the unknown'.

EVALUATION: The coursebooks have attempted to do so, but there is room for improvement. Although the classes are multi-level in terms of English proficiency, the majority of students are from rural schools and so at the beginning grammar activities are done that are at approximately Grade 10 level and writing tasks are on personal, familiar topics such as: Why have you enrolled for an English module? Such input is needed from the students to ascertain what they are familiar with.

RATING: 3

RECOMMENDATION: The activities should show progression in moving from the known or familiar to the unknown or unfamiliar, such as starting off with grammar activities at a Grade 10 level and writing tasks about personal topics such as: Describe your family or your town or village or describe your first day at university. An example of the mismatch between what rural students are familiar with and the final Grade 12 summative assessment was indicated by a rural teacher, who pointed out that the examination paper contained a question about hockey, a topic her learners are not familiar with at all.

Criterion 28: In terms of large classes, the coursebooks should attempt to include activities that accommodate different learning styles (for example, analytic, auditory, visual, and kinaesthetic).

EVALUATION: Except for the kinaesthetic (although the some educators usually put on dramatic performances to illustrate language conventions or appropriate writing style/ learning style), the coursebooks have at least one or two activities per unit that cater for the basic different learning styles, such as alternating between reading passages aloud or silently, brainstorming ideas (thinking of an idea, expressing it verbally and seeing the idea written on the board), and interpreting data from texts and graphs and putting it in writing. However, instructions need additional instructions for the educators

RATING: 3.5

RECOMMENDATION: The instructions to all four activities need to ensure that educators approach the activities in such a way that at least the analytic, auditory and visual learning styles are catered for when a specific activity is dealt with.

Criterion 29: The workbooks should be reasonably durable and with sufficient space to fill in answers.

EVALUATION: The coursebook sometimes comes apart from handling. Some activities need more space for the answers to be filled in.

RATING: 3

RECOMMENDATION: The coursebooks should be durable enough to withstand the daily wear and tear. The layout of the pages must be such that there is enough space for the answers.

Criterion 30: The coursebook developer should endeavour to produce reasonably priced coursebooks.

EVALUATION: A coursebook of 60 to 70 pages cannot be produced much cheaper than R20 to R30 – the price asked. The university printing section copies and binds the coursebooks and sells them through the campus bookstore at little or no profit.

RATING: 4

9.5 REFLECTING ON THE CRITERIA DEVELOPED IN THIS STUDY

As briefly mentioned in Chapter 8 (section 8.5.2: Specificity, Measurability and Operationalisation of Evaluation Criteria), the evaluation criteria developed in this study could be criticised for not being specific enough or that they are problematic in terms of measurability. In this section the researcher reflects on how 'user-friendly' the criteria proved to be, and how the formulation of some of them could be improved or their focus changed.

Some of the criteria may appear to be too obvious, but this is why English language materials for rural schools need criteria which differ from those for materials for the more sophisticated urban student (see also the comment on instructions at the end of this section).

While applying the final criteria, the wording of Criteria 2 and 11 was simplified because they were found to be ambiguous.

Giving direction and guidance (Criterion 1) may appear to be an obvious criterion which hardly needs listing, but because a coursebook by definition provides the core materials for the course, the module objectives, as well as the users (particularly rural users), always have to be kept in mind when selecting activities: hence the importance of criterion 2.

Not clearly stating the learning outcomes (Criterion 2) in the current coursebooks is a serious shortcoming. The researcher hopes that stating the outcomes in writing will provide focus to the purpose of each unit and motivate students to engage with activities. Finding activities boring may be the result of not being aware of their purpose. Knowing that a cluster of activities will teach language skills that can be applied in other subjects and one day in a job may promote focus and participation.

Criterion 3, which focuses only on reading and writing skills, is applicable to the current coursebooks, and the adapted ones which will be produced as a result of this study. It will be applicable only until the contact hours of the course can be increased, the number of students per group substantially reduced or the students' academic reading and writing proficiency has substantially improved. Only once any of these

improvements to the situation occur, can the focus of the criterion shift to all four language skills.

Criterion 6 can be improved by rewording it to read: *The coursebooks should contain a variety of summarising activities throughout, to extract main points and arguments from various texts.* Summary writing involves summing up main ideas and expressing them in writing. A core activity in academic writing is extracting main ideas from various sources, then synthesising them, extracting similar ideas and grouping them under a topic sentence, which in turn sums up the central idea in a paragraph. Note taking and note making require the same skill, as do mind maps. Thus, in criterion 6, all the mentioned activities are covered by the term *summarising* as opposed to summary writing. Students need to be aware that it is not an isolated skill which involves only an isolated passage that needs to be summarised.

Criterion 9 should probably be split into two criteria, although both relate to vocabulary, One criterion could refer to dictionary work, which involves vocabulary and the use of a dictionary as a grammar resource, and the other to learning collocations.

Discrete grammar activities or exercises in the ENGL131 Coursebook (Criterion 16) may need to change because the students may find such activities boring or repetitive. The researcher believes that students need to know the metalanguage of English grammar and syntax (to recognise, monitor and correct their errors in writing). Boredom may be prevented by using texts and contexts that address the 'known' and familiar (Criteria 20 and 27) or the general interests of their age group (Criterion 21).

To be made measurable and specific, Criterion 20 needs to be simplified to read: *The coursebooks should include activities about local culture (Limpopo) as well as other cultures to teach interculturality.*

The researcher also felt there may be criteria that could be added. For instance, clear instructions, a very basic criterion which one would assume would not need to be listed, is in this context a key criterion. After reflecting on why the students did particularly badly in the 2007 ENGL132 examination, it was ascertained that the instructions to two of the sections – which appeared clear to the educators – were not

clearly understood by the students. Both examination questions had been frequently practised during the semester and the students were informed that these would be asked. In Unit 8 (ENGL132 Coursebook), the unit on plagiarism and acknowledging sources, students were provided with examples of how to acknowledge sources both within the text and at the end of an article or thesis in the bibliography. The question in the exam was taken from the coursebook. It gave 5 statements which acknowledged sources, but incorrectly, and the students had to rewrite them and reference correctly. Most of the students received 0/10 for that question. Their response was that they did not understand the instructions. The instructions read: *Correct the following sentences containing references as acknowledged in the text of an essay. Use the bibliography given below (p 8) to help you.* One of the incorrect sentences was: *According to Guy Butler, eminent Africans feel that a country would not exist without a lingua franca.* (The bibliography provided below the sentences gave them the year of the publication – 1985.) The answer required was: *According to Butler (1985), eminent Africans feel that a country would not exist without a lingua franca.* Very few students were able to give the correct answer. In the same paper, a comprehension passage with questions on alcoholism was followed by the examination question on summary writing with the instruction to sum up the reasons for drinking too much or becoming an alcoholic. In the ENGL132 coursebook (Unit 1), the instructions preceding the passages to be summarised all follow the same pattern, namely the maximum number of words the summary should be, that a suitable heading should be given to the heading and that they should write the summary in full sentences. The educator who set the paper neglected to include the phrase *of the comprehension passage* in the instruction and so many students made up a summary instead of summarising the reasons from the passage. These students were unable to make a connection between what they had always done when asked to summarise, the passage they had just answered questions on and which they now were required to summarise. Nor did any student ask the invigilators for clarification. Assumptions cannot be made that students are able to understand instructions on their own outside the classroom context and without the explanation or prompts by the educator. Therefore, for autonomy and independent study, very clear, precise and simply-worded instructions are as important in the coursebooks as in the examinations.

The researcher as materials designer and developer feels that the formulation and application of the criteria has been an invaluable exercise, in terms of her own development as ESL educator and materials developer and the materials evaluation process. Rigorous consideration of each criterion has highlighted aspects of ESL teaching and learning not considered in much depth before. Teaching practitioners always face the danger of becoming inured to theoretical principles and deal with them superficially in everyday teaching, without much reflection on whether they are applicable or practicable in all ELT situations.

9.6 TEACHING GUIDELINES TO IMPLEMENT THE CHANGES TO THE ENGL131 AND ENGL132 COURSEBOOKS

The coursebooks have been systematically evaluated for the first time. This will be repeated as the situational variables change. This section thus serves as a guideline for the materials designer to change the coursebooks, as well as providing guidelines on how the activities, individual units and the coursebooks can be approached by the educators to enhance the utilisation of the coursebooks by the students.

Criterion 2: *Learning outcomes*

Each unit needs to be carefully scrutinized to ensure that the learning outcomes have been met. Educators should ensure that they stress these outcomes when dealing with the activities in each coursebook unit.

Example: Engl131 Coursebook, Unit 1 (Appendix H). The outcomes of each unit, as the example below indicates, must be added.

UNIT 1 - NOTE-TAKING

Outcomes:

When you have worked through this unit you should:

- *be able to explain what both note-taking and note-making involves;*
- *be able to explain the reasons for taking **effective** notes;*
- *be able to use different note-taking techniques;*
- *have your **own** list of abbreviations, for example, as used in sms language;*
- *be able to use the Cornell system of taking notes;*
- *be able to take and make effective notes;*
- *be able to draw and use mind maps.*

Criterion 3: *Language skills*

Until the contact periods can be increased to include speaking and listening skills, as well as having smaller groups, the coursebooks will focus mainly on academic reading and writing. The other two skills, listening and speaking, although not the primary focus of the modules, can obviously not be left out completely because they are by their nature inevitably part of language learning. They are simply not emphasised or dealt with explicitly. Listening and speaking are dealt with implicitly by means of group work and pair work in class.

Criterion 4: *Process writing*

Although the students find it tiresome to revise drafts of their essays, it is an essential exercise if their academic writing in the language of learning and teaching, in this case English, is to improve overall. In future coursebooks, at least one or two writing tasks of 300 to 500 words will need to be added to the ENGL131 coursebook. This can be extended to an essay of least one A4-page every second unit in the ENGL132 coursebook. However, if more writing practice is introduced, it may be necessary to introduce peer editing (as suggested by one of the senior evaluators) at the beginning of the first module – the lecturers teach other courses as well and cannot mark 100 assessment tasks each week (see Chapter 2, section 2.3). Peer editing has not been very successful in the past. Little awareness of sentence structure and the function of parts of speech in written sentences, on the part of a large number of the students of the target population, and time constraints contribute to this. To satisfy criterion 4 and to get students to do more writing, effective self-editing and peer editing will have to become part of the modules; perhaps by adding a marking key to the ENGL131 coursebook and coaching them on how to use it for 5 minutes every lesson in the first module.

Another alternative would be applying high stakes/ low stakes assessment. This is not the high stakes testing applied in the USA, in which "students, teachers, administrators, and entire school systems must account for student performance" (Loschert 2000:1). Instead, it is a method adapted to be used in large classes where the marking load is very heavy. Should an educator receive 60 essays to mark once a month, he/ she could come to agreement with the students that over three months

each student would have one essay marked thoroughly for a higher mark. Of the sixty essays submitted, twenty would be marked thoroughly and detailed feedback given for a mark out of 50. These essays would receive high stakes assessment. The next twenty essays would be given a medium stakes assessment, marked, for instance, for structure or tense, or for appropriate punctuation. A mark out of, say, 25 would be given. The last group of 20 essays would be given a low stakes assessment, that is, a mark out of 5 or ten just for having written the essay and kept to the topic, for example. The three groups' essays are rotated. Each student will, over a period of 6 weeks, have had one essay thoroughly marked and one less thoroughly and one superficially (for only one or two writing or language structures), for a lower mark. The student will not necessarily know until the third round when his essay will receive a high stakes assessment. This approach would lighten the load for the educator and each student would have at least one essay thoroughly marked.

Although it may be argued that assessment is not part of the coursebooks, the number of writing opportunities provided in them is determined by how much marking an individual educator can cope with in a semester.

Criterion 5: *Cohesive devices*

Although there are ample activities to practise these, they can be revised. For example, the notes and examples on introductions and conclusions appear too difficult for the students and the cohesive devices are less evident in the examples. New examples of introductions and conclusions of specifically academic essays should be added. As mentioned in criterion 4 above, a piece of writing of about one A4-page should be assigned every two weeks so that students can practise applying these devices.

Criterion 6: *Summarising*

Summary writing is rated as crucial by the majority of 'experts'. Summarising texts is a skill that is widely used in academe. Students are frequently unaware of how much they use the skill: informally, when telling a friend the gist of a book they read or movie they watched and formally, to take or make notes and collect information from various sources for an academic essay, as well as writing the topic sentences for each paragraph of their essays. Although the criterion is met, summary writing skills can be

sharpened by getting the students to sum up the main points of **any** text in the two coursebooks. (See Criterion 18 on 'recycling' – a skill such as summarising is probably also not acquired 'once-off' and so students need not be limited to summarising only the passages in the unit on summary writing.) One of the teaching staff felt that note-taking was less important than writing skills. The unit on summary writing could be included in the unit on note-taking and note-making to illustrate how summary writing is applied. New passages will be substituted from time to time, preferably from textbooks being used in other subjects.

Criterion 7: *Different academic genres*

This criterion is important because the target population in this study is enrolled in various faculties and disciplines, and is thus exposed to different language registers, subject-specific vocabulary and concepts which are applied to the various academic genres. The researcher has attempted to use short extracts from different academic sources as comprehension tests or for a grammar focus. (Refer to the ENGL131 Coursebook (Appendix H), for example, Unit 2 (the short comprehension is from the Labour Relations Act; Activity 3 (d) of Unit 5 is from a nursing textbook; activity 1 in Unit 6, the reading passage is about a local development project.) There, however, needs to be a greater variety of academic genres which the students should learn to recognise and write in, such as project reports, lab reports, progress reports, book reviews, designing research questionnaires or interviews and case studies, to mention but a few. These will be included in both coursebooks; but in the ENGL132 Coursebook, which focuses on process writing, the writing conventions of some of the different disciplines will be examined in order to develop an awareness of alternative forms of academic writing.

Criterion 8: *Problem-solving activities*

The 'father' of problem-solving activities is Prabhu (1987), and this is one of his key techniques for teaching a language communicatively. Examples of the kind of activity or task that can combine authenticity (criterion 14) with problem-solving (criterion 8) and meet principles of the CLT and TBLT approaches (Chapter 3, sections 3.4 and 3.5), are described below. Problem-solving activities (done in groups of 3, the preference expressed in the student needs analysis in Chapter 7, section 7.2.6) which can be added are:

- designing a health programme encouraging good eating habits for teenagers. This will involve picture posters, showing and explaining food labels, giving oral presentations of the benefits or disadvantages of certain foods. Students will have to think about and use new vocabulary, use visual literacy skills and report writing and presentation skills with a specific audience in mind.
- doing market research on campus to determine how many students have cellphones, which are the most popular brands and whether and how many students use 'MXit'. This will expose students to interviewing skills and/or the designing of questionnaires, discovering and explaining cellphone terms and a more formal language register for a written report and preparing visual and oral presentations of the brands.
- doing market research on the use of dictionaries on campus. Similar skills will be needed as for the above activities.

Generally, the students should learn more about the different kinds of language from the different tasks involved within the larger directive. Although there is a speaking component in the projects above, it is dealt with implicitly. The emphasis of the modules remains on the written product.

Criterion 9: *Dictionary work and collocations*

Besides knowing how to use a dictionary for information about grammar and to check spelling, students will need to use it to look up the meaning of academic words which they encounter during their studies and having to write according to the conventions of each of their content subjects. In terms of collocations, students need to learn which words are used together, especially academic phrases. In order to build on their current vocabulary, words taken the Academic Word List compiled by Coxhead (1998, 2000, Appendix A) can be included in the coursebook vocabulary activities.

Criterion 10: *Reading techniques*

A prerequisite to criterion 11, this criterion requires coursebook activities that teach students to apply different reading techniques (skimming, scanning, speed reading and close reading) to texts, in particular close reading (also termed study reading), which they need to master particularly for studying and when gathering information for written assignments. The outcomes stated at the beginning of the unit (criterion 2,

above), explaining why there are many reading passages, may diminish the antipathy several students expressed about having so many reading passages in the coursebooks (see responses to the needs analysis questionnaire A in Chapter 7).

Criterion 11: *Cognitive skills*

More activities should be included to develop and teach these skills. Some of the passages can be substituted with those on topics of interest to students and about which they may have strong views; also some they are familiar with – students will be more inclined to read these and reflect on them. These could be on: i) *I have fallen in love with a man belonging to a different religion. Can this work out?* i) *Should the PSL team who negotiated a big sponsorship be rewarded with a few million rand?* Extracts from different academic genres should also be added.

Criterion 12: *Reflection*

The objective of most coursebook activities should be to encourage students to reflect *consciously* on their own learning skills and strategies (metacognitive – thinking about and understanding the learning process, but particularly their own preferred approach to learning and thus able to control and manipulate (Graham & Harris, 1993). Reflection helps them focus on how they use English to express ideas appropriately and correctly – not regard English as merely the channel for information, as may be the case in the content subjects. The kind of 'silent period' for reflection mentioned in the previous section should be accommodated within the lesson time to reflect on any kind of language task – on *how* to articulate the answer not only on the correct factual answer.

Criterion 13: *Interaction and negotiation of meaning*

Interaction and negotiation of meaning is a precursor to written communication as is explained in the previous section under criterion 13. It therefore needs to be part of the lesson, although the focus of the course is academic reading and writing. To get students speaking they need to engage with a task. Hence they need to be interested in it enough to want to speak about it. Although the specific inclusion of topics of interest as a criterion was not rated as highly important by the experts, in the context of this study, it should be established whether activities pertaining to their interests result in more engagement, participation and interaction by the students. More

activities such as brainstorming essays on topics such as *Lobola*, *Teenage Pregnancies* and *Marriage customs* can be added. An activity such as Unit 10: activity 3 in the ENGL132 Coursebook (see appendix I or section 9.4, Criterion 8 for the activity), in which students in small groups have to decide what to use (they are given a picture with different objects – they can select a few, or all) to rescue a cat stuck on the roof, has been found to be very popular. After they have discussed it in the group and decided on a system to rescue the cat, they also have to communicate in writing by writing down the chosen procedure as a list of instructions. (The same activity can be used to practice the organisation and presentation of information in process essay writing – *Criterion 5.*)

Criterion 14: *Authenticity*

True (or the weak version, according to Holliday 1994) CLT means using authentic material without simplification. This study has found that that in this context simplification is justified. One example of simplification that may be necessary is when the vocabulary is such that it prevents overall comprehension. Unfamiliar vocabulary should initially be replaced with more familiar words (Darian 2001). The more difficult version could be inserted in a later unit to establish whether the students are then able to cope with it. Another way of simplifying complex authentic texts is by applying a readability test, such as the Flesch-Kincaid test (see Chapter 3, section 3.3.3, Footnote 11), and simplifying a passage initially to an index of say 50 to 60 and to an index of 60 to 70 later in the semester.

Criterion 15: *Active participation*

There are various reasons for students not participating sufficiently in class. Some of these have been discussed in Chapter 3, section 3.4.4 - Limitations of CLT. If the class is large (50 to 80 students) students will also be reluctant to take a risk in front of so many strangers. One of the best ways to get a response is to make use of open-ended questions, for example, 'why?', and 'explain how to...'. Besides being a strategy used by the educator in class, these questions can also be part of the written instructions in the coursebook activities, for instance, in the Unit on visual literacy (ENGL132 Coursebook, Unit 5: activities 1,2, and 3): *How would you pot a plant? How would you apply the Heimlich manoeuvre to someone who is choking?* Questions that challenge them on topics that they are familiar with are also more likely to

produce response and participation, e.g. *What is wrong/ right with South African soccer? Should university residences be integrated?*

Criterion 16: *Grammar activities*

As argued, not all activities focusing on explicit grammar instruction should be removed from the Engl131 Coursebook. Instead, the activities should be redesigned to integrate academic reading and writing and editing. If a certain structure, which students have problems with, appears in a reading passage, its use in the passage can be pointed out. If there is a problem of clear communication in a text, it is natural to then focus on the language structure. Awareness-raising of (or noticing) correct grammar within a context, followed by one or two exercises using a specific structure as reinforcement, that is, applying both implicit and explicit grammar instruction may be the most appropriate in the context of this study. It may be difficult to acquire the correct grammatical structures for academic writing implicitly by means of interaction in pairs or small groups of ESL students with low to medium intermediate ESL proficiency, because neither really have a good enough command of the language to act as models of correct English for each other.

Criterion 17: *Implicit grammar acquisition*

Listening to good English (not necessarily RP) and reading English texts is an ideal way to acquire English, but students are generally reluctant to read. The educator should occasionally read aloud to emphasise both meaning and appropriate language use. For implicit language learning, interaction with the educators remains important as they are the "models' of comprehensible and appropriate English. Doing comprehension tests and summary writing should raise awareness of idiomatic and correct English. Reading of all kinds of genres cannot be sufficiently encouraged. (The researcher makes a variety of magazines available to the ENGL131 and ENGL132 groups to encourage 'reading for pleasure'. This is still the most implicit method to learn or acquire a language.)

Criterion 19: *Printed feedback*

The solution to giving feedback to the coursebook language activities would be to provide the answers to activities on the intranet by means of a programme such as WebCT. However, while this should be done, another alternative will have to be

considered because not all students are computer literate. The system of feedback needs to be effective for language learning to take place. Feedback on essay writing, in this case model essays, can put up on the noticeboards in the form of model essays. Direct feedback given on an essay also has problems. One word, a phrase, or one-sentence comments at the end of an essay or an underlined error are not always sufficiently clear feedback for the students to react to and improve their language or writing style. Students often just look at the mark received and do not bother to read any comments (personal communication with a history professor who made a special effort several times to give clear feedback at to essays 1999). Feedback will have to be given verbally in the classroom in addition to the other methods suggested.

Criterion 20: *Culturally–based content*

The coursebooks have activities that make use of information about local (Limpopo) and South African culture. As suggested, there should be more of these, particularly on issues students feel strongly about, since these will generate interaction. Tseng (2002: 14, as cited in Chapter 4, section 4.7) points out that "any meaning we construct is a transaction between our own perspectives – developed from our past experiences in the world – and the reality of that present world". The tension between the known and the unknown, confronting and discussing it in the classroom, engages the learners, generates comparisons and new perspectives which enhances the learning process. It is for this reason that including cultural content in the coursebooks is important.

Criterion 21: *Student interests and engagement*

For students to become motivated enough to engage in an activity they need to be interested in the subject matter or the approach (doing puzzles, winning quizzes, role-play). The coursebooks have attempted to include some activities that may be of interest to the students. This has, however, been from the perspective of the researcher and from observation. The intention is to ask students to bring articles, stories, newspaper reports, a passage from one of their content-subject textbooks that they found interesting or difficult, and these will be converted into language, reading or writing activities for the coursebooks.

Criterion 22: *Learner-centredness*

As mentioned in section 9.4 and 9.5, learner-centredness means that learners take responsibility for their own learning. This is crucial at the tertiary level, but should already have been inculcated at school. One of the reasons for the compilation of the coursebooks was to have reading, writing and language activities that could be done by the students and guided or facilitated by the educators and so move away from 'the lecture'. The coursebooks, therefore, can be learner-centred, but the researcher is not sure whether all educators encourage learner-centredness or whether some educators generally just revert to 'chalk and talk' because the students themselves remain passive and leave everything to the educator. Participation, autonomous learning (taking responsibility) and interaction have been found to vary from group to group. The researcher, for example, has a large group of first-year nursing students who generally participate far more than her other group of Arts and Law students. The nursing students do practical nursing in the hospitals already in their first year of study. The interaction at work with patients could be the reason for their confidence and greater participation.

An attempt could be made to involve the students in teaching. This may contribute to greater learner-centredness. If students are given the responsibility to teach they may become more pro-active learners. Educators will be recommended to assign certain sections of the work to the students and let them teach their peers. This will form part of their assessment and they will be given a mark towards the semester mark. For example, a reading passage will be given to a group of three and each of them will be asked to focus on a particular aspect in it, such as, vocabulary, sentence structure or the use of transition words for coherence. One student will deal with an activity in which the focus is vocabulary from or connected to the context. The second student may deal with types of sentences and will use those in the passage as illustration and will come up with a related activity. The last one will deal with transition words and find an appropriate activity which relates to the reading passage. (Small children sometimes learn more from their siblings than from their parents and this most likely applies to students too.) Being made to take responsibility for communicating information to peers may help to engender overall responsibility. If such tasks are expected from them regularly they may develop the appropriate attitude to their learning and not view the educators as the sole source of information, and marks.

Criterion 23: *Autonomous learning*

The coursebooks themselves encourage autonomy because a student can work at his/ her own pace and complete the activities in advance or catch up when having been absent. If a student is committed and believes in teaching himself/ herself, such a student is an autonomous learner – a trait that in a large class would be to his/ her benefit. There are usually more activities in the coursebooks than can be done in class. These are meant for the students to attempt on their own at home. However, not all students have the kind of attitude towards their work that makes them want to work autonomously. They tend to wait to be told what to do or even when they have been asked to do work at home, a number will come to class without having done the assigned activities. Yet if they are told they will receive marks for an activity it is done immediately. Perhaps a system needs to be put in place to reward the completion of an activity – by awarding one or two marks for having completed certain activities on their own. These will count towards the semester mark.

Criterion 24: *Personalisation*

Personalisation is introduced by means of activities where students are asked to give their views about issues or to describe somebody in their family or their village. Linked to personalisation is the concept of individualisation. Some activities are not done in a group and the interaction is between an individual student and the educator. Most of the activities can be either done in pairs or in a group if the objective is communication. On the other hand, the educator can decide to let students work individually. Individual assessment is occasionally necessary; as is group work.

Criterion 25: *Pair and group work*

From the needs analysis, but also from observation in class, the majority of students prefer pair work or a group no larger than 3. The activities are such that this is possible. Group work spreads the responsibility of finding the answer or solution to a question and takes the pressure off the low level proficiency student in particular. Most of the activities can be done in pairs or in a group. The decision when to get students to work in a group and for which activities, depends on the educator or the dynamics of the class on a particular day. The coursebook should generally provide instructions for group work.

Criterion 26: *Sequencing*

This criterion relates to Krashen's input hypothesis (1985) – comprehensible input (i + 1). A similar alternative is scaffolding, that is, building 'support structures' into activities until the learner is able to manage more complex ones. Most of the units in the coursebooks start with the simple activities and end with more complex ones. For example, Unit 7 in the ENGL131 Coursebook deals with tenses. The comprehension test passage serves as a model of tenses in a context. Activity 3 asks students to change the tense of a paragraph from the passage into another tense. Activity 4 is a passage which is in the form of a cloze test and students must look at the time words to decide which verb form must be filled in. The unit ends with their having to write a paragraph in which they need to use the appropriate time words and verb tense form indicated by the topic given to them. For instance: *Describe your first day at on campus; Describe a typical day in the life of your mother/father; What are your plans for 2010?*

Criterion 27: *'Known to the unknown' content*

As mentioned, this could be done by including more activities relevant to and from the local cultures and some on topics about which young adults are interested in – not necessarily what the materials developers think is 'good' for the students and which they 'should' be interested in. Familiarity with a topic should generate discussion and participation and so help to increase the students' linguistic knowledge (that is, how English works: sentence structure, idiom, speech acts) as well as their confidence, which in turn will make them more accepting of the 'unknown'.

Criterion 28: *Accommodating different learning styles*

There are two ways that different learning styles could be implemented in the language activities. A separate handout could be included for the educators with suggestions for different ways of doing one of the activities in each unit (not for all activities because this will be too prescriptive). Accommodating different learning styles in the classroom usually involves speaking and telling, reading aloud, writing on the board, making use of visual materials and encouraging them to work with each other (but letting those who prefer working on their own to sometimes work on their own, depending on the main objective of the activity). In the coursebooks, different instructions will be given for one activity, with each instruction catering for a different

learning style. The suggestion in criterion 8 to design a presentation to teach teenagers about healthy eating habits can serve as an example. Students can be given a range of activities that they do within the main activity such as i) deciding on which foods they are going to speak about – putting them into categories; designing and making posters or models to supplement the presentation; conducting a survey; giving a written report of the procedure followed for the whole presentation (or recording, analysing and interpreting the results of the survey); giving the oral presentation; or evaluating the presentation before the actual presentation to the audience. Each student should be able to find an activity with which he/she feels comfortable and by means of which he/ she learns new vocabulary and has the opportunity to communicate in English in a way that suits him/her best.

Criterion 29: *Coursebook format*

For the low price not much more than staples to keep the pages together, can be offered. However, the cost should not increase substantially if margins are made a little wider and provision is made for more space between activities so that students can fill in answers and also make notes of feedback given in class.

Criterion 30: *Price*

Changes to the materials will be made to the benefit of the students' language learning and so a higher price (within reason) will be inevitable.

9.7 CONCLUSION

The coursebook material needs to be suitable for the language abilities of the present students and not be culturally threatening or completely alien. The activities need to be sufficiently challenging yet not so complex that they deflate the confidence of first-entering tertiary students encountering academic discourse for the first time. The reading passages and the activities need to be of interest to the students because a general complaint by lecturers across disciplines is that students are apathetic in class and do not really want to participate in lessons and workshops. This may be a consequence of the school system in rural areas or because the topics covered in the learning materials are not what the students wish to engage with. The local context needs to be apparent in most of the language activities, while also introducing students to new and different contexts - but perhaps to a lesser extent because they

are mainly first year students. The advantage of in-house produced materials such as the ENGL131 and ENGL132 coursebooks in this study is that they can be changed without much additional cost. Removing a unit or an activity and replacing it with another does not mean that the whole book has to be reprinted. The main thrust of the coursebooks for ENGL131 and ENGL132 remains English for Academic Purposes, but specifically English for General Academic Purposes.

CHAPTER 10
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

10.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter concludes the study and sums up the key findings. It makes recommendations for further research and identifies the limitations of the study. The focus of the study was the development of evaluation criteria by means of a literature review and empirical research. This was followed up by the application of these evaluation criteria to the in-house EAP coursebooks designed for a tertiary one year EAP course. Recommendations were made for changes and additions to the coursebooks.

10.2 LITERATURE REVIEW

A review of the literature concerning the current approaches to ESL teaching, the various views about materials, materials design and different methods of materials evaluation, was done. Arguments for and against the most commonly used approaches to teaching English as a second or foreign language were examined in relation to the rural context of the study and the implication of the varying points of view for the in-house coursebooks. Some of the contentious issues that emerged from the literature were: Do textbooks or materials stifle educators' creativity? Is CLT the only and the best approach to second language teaching in all contexts? Should language materials be used to teach 'form' explicitly or implicitly? What is meant by 'authentic materials'? Should authentic materials be simplified for certain contexts or not? Should the students' culture be reflected in the materials? Which culture should be represented in language teaching materials – the source culture or the target culture? Can language learners be taught to become autonomous learners? All these issues need consideration before designing and developing materials for a specific context. Thus, bearing in mind the context of the target population, a preliminary list of materials evaluation criteria, based on the examination of the relevant literature was drawn up; after which the empirical study was done.

10.3 THE DEVELOPMENT AND APPLICATION OF EVALUATION CRITERIA FOR THE IN-HOUSE COURSEBOOKS

The study consisted of two phases: first, the development of evaluation criteria and second, the application of these criteria to the coursebooks in use.

10.3.1 CRITERIA DEVELOPMENT

The context of the study was delineated and described before reviewing the literature and extracting appropriate theory-based criteria. Subsequently, empirical data were collected by means of both qualitative and quantitative triangulation, from a triangulation of sources, namely, students, teaching staff and outside experts. The research instruments were closed and open-ended questionnaires and semi-structured and unstructured interviews. The materials were evaluated while being used – the users being both the students and the educators. The collected data from students and teaching staff were then analysed, after which another list of preliminary evaluation criteria was drawn up. The two lists, that is, one from the literature study and the other from the empirical data, were combined to compile a provisional list of evaluation criteria. This provisional list was put before the outside experts in a questionnaire, while interviews were held with other outside experts. From the analysis of this data a final list of materials evaluation criteria was drawn up.

10.3.2 EVALUATION OF THE COURSEBOOKS

A rating scale was used to allocate a value to the extent to which each criterion was fulfilled or satisfied in the coursebooks. After the evaluation of the coursebooks recommendations were made for changes or additions. A post-evaluation reflection gives consideration to various possible approaches to the recommended changes and additions.

10.4 THE RECOMMENDED CHANGES AND ADDITIONS TO THE CURRENT COURSEBOOKS

It is necessary to sum up briefly why the ENGL131 and ENGL132 coursebooks needed to be evaluated because this determines to a large extent some of the evaluation criteria selected. The need for the evaluation of the ENGL131 and ENGL132 coursebooks for the mainly EAP course, came about after two years of using them. The coursebooks had initially been written at the beginning of 2003 when

it became apparent that the enrolments for the two modules were increasing drastically and the workshop groups were becoming unmanageably large. The large workshop groups and the involvement of the literature staff who had not taught language for several years were the main reasons for the urgent production of materials. Textbooks had been prescribed in previous years but few students had bought them. From 2003 the researcher (also the materials developer) had held numerous discussions with colleagues about which English language needs of the students should be addressed by the coursebooks and which of the various coursebook activities appeared less or more successful. Until then the evaluation had been superficial. There also were areas of disagreement about several issues, such as, which was the best ESL teaching approach for the target population, whether there should be any formal grammar instruction if the focus of the course is academic reading and writing; whether a commercial textbook should be prescribed and should the materials use activities that addressed topics from the local cultures, namely those of the students. Besides decisions about the most appropriate teaching approach to use in the materials (EGAP or ESAP), the content split between two coursebooks because of the introduction of the modular system also affected the selection of coursebook activities. All these factors created the need for a systematic, thorough, and retrospective evaluation, and the need to establish materials evaluation criteria to evaluate the coursebooks and effect changes to satisfy the criteria developed.

10.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study developed criteria to evaluate in-house materials limited to a specific course at a specific institution and could therefore be deemed unable to be generalized to other tertiary institutions. However, it is possible that other tertiary institutions that also have a student population consisting mainly of rural ESL students could apply the evaluation criteria to their own in-house materials.

Another constraint was that it was only possible to ask students to evaluate the coursebooks at the end of a module after the whole coursebook had been worked through. This meant the questionnaires could only be administered shortly before the examinations and by that time many of the students had taken early study leave and did not attend class.

The incidence of 2% or more non-responses to some questions to students could indicate that those questions were ambiguous and could have been more clearly worded.

The researcher relied a great deal on colleagues to assist in the collection of data. They were asked to write down their observations when marking the test and examination scripts, to administer questionnaires in a class of one hour, to attend an interview and then complete their own questionnaires. This may have led to 'research fatigue' although no one indicated this.

The wording of the criteria may invite critique and such possible shortcomings are reflected on in Chapter 9, section 9.5.

10.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This study is but the beginning of the investigation into what kind of language learning and teaching activities should make up the language materials of the UniLim EAP course (consisting of two modules). The materials evaluation criteria will need to be revisited every few years as the English language proficiency and study skills of the students entering UniLim (it is anticipated that the majority will still come from rural schools; but that could be another research project) change; as may the institution's infrastructure and admission requirements.

More empirical research, such as the President's Education Initiative (1999), needs to be done to assess the situation regarding the teaching of grammar (or not) in rural schools.

The issue of interculturality, the proportion of target culture used in the materials versus the source culture, and whether the preference for one or the other differs between rural and urban contexts, are all issues that could be further researched - not only at UniLim with its mainly rural students, but also in the wider South African context. The status of English as an international language and the concept interculturality are being investigated world-wide and could ultimately have an impact on ESL teaching practices and the designing of materials.

Further research is urgently required into ESL teaching in the rural context because a large section of South Africa's school-going population live in rural areas. Research is needed on whether OBE and CLT are practicable in large rural classes, whether a modified application of OBE and CLT is required and whether the rural learners can relate[1] to the prescribed textbooks for ESL teaching.

At a micro-level, each unit in the workbooks should be examined and the language activities in each assessed to ascertain whether they are useful and practicable, and most importantly teach what they are supposed to teach and contribute to improved language proficiency.

Further research should also be done by means of pre- and post tests to establish whether the students' English proficiency, particularly their EAP proficiency, actually improves as a result of using the coursebooks.

10.7 CONCLUSION

There is the danger of educators relying too heavily on materials in the class and neglecting to do thorough preparation or ignoring the fact that each class of students brings its own particular dynamics to a lesson and therefore requiring an educator to teach the same item differently to different groups. Despite this danger, language teaching and learning materials can form the backbone of a lesson or workshop and be an invaluable learning resource for both students and educators. A superficial evaluation of materials may initially suffice, but in the long term it becomes imperative to do a more in-depth evaluation of materials used to keep up with the changing language needs of the students. An advantage of the in-house produced coursebooks is that if the evaluation criteria expose shortcomings in the coursebooks and that certain language activities do not work or become boring because they have been used for several years, they can be replaced without replacing the whole book.

The study has produced a variety of interesting student and educator input from which evaluation criteria could be extracted. An examination of the comments by the students gave an insight into the student perspective of the coursebooks and what

[1] In a personal communication, an experienced rural ESL teacher expressed her frustration with the topic of the comprehension in the 2007 Grade 12 examination paper – Hockey – a game that rural students have little or no knowledge of.

they like and dislike. The evaluation criteria in turn provide the basis for the design of the coursebooks that should satisfy most of the EAP needs of the students, because they are underpinned by the theories and approaches in current English second language teaching practice.

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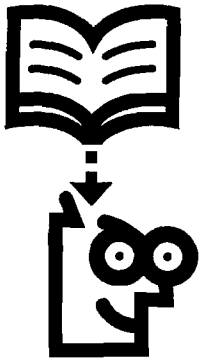
APPENDICES TO PHD THESIS

Development and application of evaluation criteria for tertiary in-house EAP materials

by

R.V. McCABE

APPENDIX A: STUDENT NEEDS ANALYSIS QUESTIONNAIRE



MODULES: ENGL131 and ENGL132
MATERIALS EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS

- The purpose of this questionnaire is to find out if you think your ENGL131 and ENGL132 workbooks meet your English language needs for your university studies.
- Show your answer with an **X** where appropriate and add a comment where necessary.
- Please complete it and return it in class.

Thank you for your time and effort. Your contribution is greatly appreciated

All questionnaires are strictly confidential and will be kept confidential by the researcher who will be the only person to have access to them.

A. Personal data

1. *What is your AGE?*

1.	17 to 19 years	2.	20 to 22 years	3.	23 to 25 years	4.	Other

2. *What is your GENDER?*

1.	Female	2.	Male

3. *What is your MOTHER-TONGUE (language spoken at home)?* Show it with a **1**.
IF you speak more than one language at home mark your second language with a **2** and your third language with a **3**.

1.	Afrikaans	
2.	English	
3.	XiiTsonga	
4.	isiXhosa	
5.	isiZulu	
6.	isiNdebele	
7.	SePedi	
8.	SeSotho	
9.	SeSwati	
10.	SeTswana	
11.	Tshivenda	

OTHER: _____

4 *Which SECONDARY SCHOOL did you attend?* (Please add in which Province)

_____

5. *Was your school*

1.	On a farm?	
2.	In a rural village?	
3.	In a town?	
4.	In a city?	

6. *Which symbol did you receive for English in Grade 12?*

1. A	2. B	3. C	4. D	5. E	6. F

7. *Did you use textbooks for English as a subject in Grade 12?*

1.	Yes	2.	No

OTHER: _____

8. *For which degree programme are you registered at university?*

1.	BA	
2.	BA (CELS & MUST)	
3.	BA (COMM)	
4.	BINST	
5.	BAMDST	
6.	BATRLI	
7.	LLB	
8.	Diploma in Labour Law	
9.	BADMIN	
10.	BCom (Accounting)	
11.	BCom (Economics)	

12.	BSc	
13.	BCur	

OTHER: _____

9. *Why have you registered for ENGL131 and ENGL 132?* You may mark more than one reason.

1.	I hope it will improve my English	
2.	I like learning English	
3.	It is compulsory for my degree course	
4.	I need to speak and write English well to get a good job	
5.	It is an international language. If I want to travel abroad I need to know English to communicate	
6.	I needed an extra course to make up my credits	
7.	I need to learn how to write essays and assignments for my other subjects	

OTHER: _____

10. *Do you buy textbooks for your tertiary studies?*

1.	Yes, for all subjects	2.	Only for some subjects	3.	No, I don't

11. *If you buy textbooks, for which subjects do you buy a textbook?*

_____

_____

12. *Why did you buy a textbook or course book for these subjects?* (Mark the most relevant reasons with an **X** – not more than 3.)

1.	I cannot study to pass the subject modules without a textbook/workbook	
2.	The lecturer is very strict and insists we buy the textbook	

3.	The lecturer teaches from the textbook	
4.	The lecturer sells the textbook	
5.	They are easily available from the campus bookstore	

Other:_____

13. *If you don't buy textbooks, why don't you?*
(You may mark (X) more than one of the possible reasons given below)

1.	I cannot afford to buy textbooks.	
2.	They are not available in the local bookshops.	
3.	The notes I take are enough.	
4.	We get very good handouts from the lecturers.	
5.	I think we should get free handouts from the lecturers	
6.	We only use part of the textbook.	
7.	I make use of the books in the library.	
8.	I can write the tests or examinations without using a textbook/ workbook.	
9.	I buy some textbooks; but I don't buy one for English because English is not a major subject	
10.	I can study without textbooks	

Other reason: _____

B. Cultural issues in teaching and materials content

14. *Preferred Lecturer: To study English would you prefer to have:*
Mark your **3** top preferences (**1** – first preference; **2** – second preference; **3** – third preference)

1.	A lecturer who belongs to the same culture as you (e.g. a Sepedi/ SeSotho/ Xhosa lecturer)?	
2.	A black lecturer from SA?	
3.	A black lecturer from another country?	
4.	A white lecturer from Britain?	
5.	A white lecturer from SA?	
6.	An Asian lecturer?	

7.	A young female lecturer?	
8.	An older female lecturer?	
9.	A young male lecturer?	
10.	An older male lecturer?	
11.	Any lecturer who understands your customs and traditions?	
12.	Any lecturer who is qualified to teach English?	

OTHER _____

15 *Language of lecturer: To study English would you prefer to have*

1.	An English first language speaker	
2.	An English second language speaker	
3.	A lecturer who speaks in a way that I can understand his/her English	

16. *Concerning my CULTURE and the CONTENT of the ENGL131 and ENGL132 workbooks NOW in 2006, the workbooks:*

have enough reading passages about events and customs related to my culture.

1.	Yes	2.	No

17. *Concerning my CULTURE and the CONTENT of the ENGL131 and ENGL132 workbooks NOW in 2006, the workbooks:*

have too many reading passages and activities that describe how things are done in the western culture.

1.	Yes	2.	No

18. *Concerning my CULTURE and the CONTENT of the ENGL131 and ENGL132 workbooks I would PREFER that the workbooks:*

contain the following % (percentage) of reading passages and activities about rituals, events, traditions and customs (how things are done) related to my culture

1.	0-25%	2.	26-50%	3.	51-75%	4.	76- 100%

C. Learning strategies

19. *I prefer to do the English workshop activities and tasks*

1.	by myself (on my own)	
2.	with a friend	
3.	in a group of 3 students	
4.	in a group of 5 students	

OTHER

_____

20 *I prefer to study for the examinations*

1.	by myself (on my own)	
2.	with a friend	
3.	in a group of 3 students	
4.	in a group of 5 students	

OTHER:_____

D. English language needs

21. *In your opinion, do you need English grammar instruction (teaching) at university?*

1.	Yes	2.	No

22. *What is your opinion about the following statements? Mark in the appropriate column.*

		Agree	Disagree
1.	I like reading		
2.	I can read well enough for my studies.		
3.	I understand most of what I read in my textbooks for my other subjects		
4.	I need to read faster in order to do all my work for all my modules		
5.	I often do not understand what I am reading		

6.	I can read and interpret graphs with ease		
7.	I do not always understand the written instructions in the workbook		
8.	I often do not understand my lecturer		
9.	I don't know how to take down good lecture notes		
10.	I am able to summarise chapters of textbooks		
11.	I like to write in English		
12.	I cannot express my ideas clearly in written English		
13.	I can express my ideas in spoken English		
14.	I find it difficult to speak to my lecturer in English because s/he makes me nervous		
15.	I find it difficult to speak to my lecturer in English because I don't know enough English words.		

23. *What is your opinion about the following statements? Mark in the appropriate column.*

		Agree	Disagree
1.	I can express my thoughts and ideas well in written English		
2.	My lecturer clearly understands what I write in English.		
3.	I need to write more in English now than at school, but am unable to		
4.	I need to learn more grammar rules to write better English		
5.	I often have too little time to write a good essay.		

24. *What, in the workbooks, do you think is USEFUL in helping you to improve your English COMPREHENSION and READING SKILLS in your studies?* Show your opinion by putting an **X** in the appropriate column.

		Very useful	Partly useful	Not really useful	Not useful at all
1.	reading the reading passages at the beginning of each unit				
2.	using my dictionary properly				
3.	learning new vocabulary				
4.	doing all the vocabulary exercises				
5.	discussing the vocabulary that is used in the exercises				
6.	discussing topics of interest that are referred to in the exercises				
7.	learning the correct punctuation for a sentence				
8.	doing exercises involving, verbs, adjectives, prepositions				
9.	learning about the function of parts of speech in the sentences I read				
10.	learning about different ways of reading				
11.	answering the comprehension test questions				
12.	learning about the active and passive voice in a sentence				
13.	learning about the content of the introduction of an essay				
14.	learning about the structure of good paragraphs				
15.	learning about topic sentences				
16.	learning about the content of the conclusion of an essay				
17.	learning about signpost/				

	linking words in a piece of writing (coherence)				
18.	learning how facts are organized and presented in a passage or chapter				

Any comments about the workbook's content? _____

_____

25. *What, in the workbooks, do you find USEFUL in order to improve specifically your WRITTEN English?*

		a. Very useful	b. Partly useful	c. Not really useful	d. Not useful at all
1.	reading comprehension and reading passages as examples of how a good English sentence should be written				
2.	learning to use my dictionary				
3.	learning about correct punctuation in a sentence				
4.	doing all the vocabulary exercises				
5.	learning new vocabulary				
6.	Learning about good, correct English sentence structure				
7.	learning to read faster and more pages in a shorter time than in Grade 12				
8.	learning about parts of speech (e.g verbs, nouns, adjectives, etc)				
9.	Learning how to use parts of speech to write good sentences				
10.	doing the comprehension tests				

11.	discussing different topics in the workshops that are mentioned in the exercises				
12.	Learning how to use the active and passive voice				
13.	practising to analyse an essay topic using task and topic words				
14.	learning to recognize and write a topic sentence				
15.	learning to develop logical arguments				
16.	learning to use signposting/ linking words				
17.	learning how to write an introduction to an essay				
18.	learning how to write a conclusion to an essay				
19.	practising to write supporting sentences				
20.	learning how to organise and present facts in a passage or essay				

Other? _____

OTHER _____

_____

26. *What do you think should be taken out of the workbooks?*

_____

27. *What do you think should be changed in the workbooks?*

_____

28. *Is there something that you think should be added to the workbooks?*

_____

_____

E. Your Interests

29. *What are you INTERESTED in?* (What would you like to read about or talk about?)

Show the **5** most important ones in order of your preference (**1**= most favourite; **2**= next favourite **3**= a favourite; **4 and 5** also favourites, but less than the others)

1.	Politics	
2.	Sport	
3.	Economics	
4.	The Media	
5.	Law	
6.	Science	
7.	Agriculture	
8.	Religion	
9.	Science	
10.	Nutrition	
11.	Music - African music	
12.	Music - western music	
13.	Music - all kinds of music	
14.	My culture's customs	
15.	The customs of other cultures	
16.	Facts about your own province	
17.	Facts about other provinces in SA	
18.	Facts about overseas countries	
19.	The history of your own people	
20.	History of the world	
21.	Reading magazines	
22.	Reading newspapers	
23.	Reading books - African literature	
24.	Reading books - Western literature	
25.	Writing letters	
26.	Writing poetry	
27.	Writing short stories	
28.	Writing sms messages	
29.	Life and activities of celebrities (famous people)	
30.	Movies about relationships and love	
31.	Movies with a lot of action	

32.	Television: News and current affairs	
33.	Television: Soapies	
34.	Television: Talk shows e.g. Oprah, Ricki Lake	
35.	Television: Game shows	
36.	Cooking and baking	
37.	Painting, drawing, sculpture	
38.	Needlework, sewing, dressmaking	
39.	How to improve your appearance	
40.	How to have a healthy body	
41.	Fashion	
42.	Cars	
43.	Relationships (how to have a happy family; love life)	

Other

_____

_____

Thank you very much for your time and valuable contribution to my research.

****

CONFIDENTIALITY

I trust Mrs R. McCabe will maintain the confidentiality she has promised and therefore I give my permission that this information be used to the benefit of the ENGL131 and ENGL132 modules.

Signed:
Date:

MODULES: ENGL131 and ENGL132
MATERIALS EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS

I would like your opinion whether the ENGL131 and ENGL132 workbooks meet your English language needs for your university studies. I also wish to find out what you think the workbooks should contain or not.

The results will be used to improve the present workbooks.

Indicate your answer with an **X.**

Please complete it and return it in class to your lecturer.

Thank you for your time and effort towards my research. Your contribution is greatly appreciated

R.V. McCabe

All questionnaires are strictly confidential and will be kept confidential by the researcher who will be the only person to have access to them.

APPENDIX B: STUDENT EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Section A: Personal data

1. What is your age?

	17 -19 years		20 -22 years		23 - 25 years		26 years or older
1		2		3		4	

2. What is your gender?

	Female		Male
1		2	

3. *What is your MOTHER-TONGUE (language spoken at home)?* Show it with a **1**. (IF you speak more than one language at home mark your second language with a **2** and your third language with a **3**.)

1.	Afrikaans	
2.	English	
3.	XiTsonga	
4.	isiXhosa	
5.	isiZulu	
6.	isiNdebele	
7.	SePedi	
8.	SeSotho	
9.	SeSwati	
10.	SeTswana	
11.	Tshivenda	
12	other	

4. For which degree programme are you registered at university?

1	BA	
2	BA (SW)	
3	BEd	
4	B INST	
5	LLB	
6	Diploma in Labour Law	
7	BADMIN	
8	BCom	
9	BSc	
10	BCur	
11	Other	

4. Where do you live?

1. in a rural area	
2. in an urban area (city)	

5. In which province?

8 Mpumalanga	
2 North-west	
3 Gauteng	
4 Free State	
5 Western Cape	
6 Northern Cape	
7 Eastern Cape	

9 KwaZulu-Natal	
10 Other (outside SA)	

6. Where did your secondary schooling take place?

1. in a rural area	
2. in an urban area (city)	

Section B: Evaluation of ENGL131 and ENGL132 coursebooks/ workbooks

1. The word **task** covers all language exercises or activities that are in the workbooks.
2. **Urban** is connected to a city or town.
3. **Rural** means outside towns and cities – on farms and in villages.
4. **Text** means a piece of writing.

RATE YOUR ANSWER ON A SCALE OF 1 TO 6. **1** IS *STRONGLY DISAGREE* AND **6** IS *STRONGLY AGREE*.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Partly disagree	Partly agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**

Communicative Language Teaching

7. The workbooks are useful in helping me to communicate confidently and competently in English.

1	2	3	4	5	6

8. I always understand the instructions in the workbook.

1	2	3	4	5	6

9. The tasks encourage me to talk to other students.

1	2	3	4	5	6

10. The tasks encourage me to cooperate and work with other students.

1	2	3	4	5	6

11. The tasks are on topics that generate discussion.

1	2	3	4	5	6

12. The tasks encourage class participation.

1	2	3	4	5	6

13. The reading passages and tasks are authentic (real, as we actually experience things outside the classroom).

1	2	3	4	5	6

Formal Instruction

14. Doing the ENGL131 grammar tasks teaches me what I didn't learn in secondary school.

1	2	3	4	5	6

15. The ENGL131 grammar tasks make me aware of the grammar errors I often make.

1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX B: STUDENT EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

16. Working through both workbooks improves my English vocabulary.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Partly disagree	Partly agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

17. The ENGL131 grammar tasks help me learn about the structure of the English language.

1	2	3	4	5	6

18. The ENGL131 grammar tasks help me to write error-free sentences.

1	2	3	4	5	6

19. Formal grammar tasks are necessary to improve my English for my studies.

1	2	3	4	5	6

20. I need more feedback about my work to help me improve my English.

1	2	3	4	5	6

Autonomous learning

21. The workbooks encourage me to work on my own.

1	2	3	4	5	6

22. The workbooks help me to work at my own speed or pace.

1	2	3	4	5	6

23. The workbooks help me to prepare in advance for my workshops.

1	2	3	4	5	6

24. The workbooks teach me to be independent and self-driven.

1	2	3	4	5	6

25. The unit on dictionary work is useful for independent study.

1	2	3	4	5	6

English for Academic Purposes

26. The reading passages encourage me to read.

1	2	3	4	5	6

27. I have learned additional vocabulary from the various reading passages.

1	2	3	4	5	6

28. The grammar activities in the Engl131 workbook make me aware of correct English language usage that must be applied to my other courses.

1	2	3	4	5	6

29. The tasks in the Engl132 workbook have helped me think of writing essays as a series of steps (a process).

1	2	3	4	5	6

30. The Engl132 workbook tasks have improved my academic essay writing skills.

1	2	3	4	5	6

31. The graphs and other visual literacy tasks are useful for my studies.

1	2	3	4	5	6

32. I can apply what have learnt from the various workbook tasks to my other courses.

1	2	3	4	5	6

33. The note-taking tasks make me aware of listening carefully in class.

1	2	3	4	5	6

34. Tasks involving groupwork encourage me to practise speaking English.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Partly disagree	Partly agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

35. The workbook tasks teach me to think carefully how to present an argument when I communicate or make oral presentations for all my courses.

1	2	3	4	5	6

36. The various tasks make me think seriously about what has been written or said so that I can question or criticise it.

1	2	3	4	5	6

Engaging

37. The tasks are interesting and up-to-date.

1	2	3	4	5	6

38. Many of the tasks are relevant to my general studies.

1	2	3	4	5	6

39. The tasks cover topics I am interested in.

1	2	3	4	5	6

40. I am motivated to do and complete the tasks *because* they involve topics I am interested in.

1	2	3	4	5	6

41. The task topics motivate me to talk about them to my fellow students.

1	2	3	4	5	6

42. The task topics motivate me to talk about them to my tutor/ lecturer.

1	2	3	4	5	6

OBE

43. I know what the objectives of the various workshop units are.

1	2	3	4	5	6

44. The tasks are varied (gap filling, mct, writing full sentences, completion of sentences, etc) and need a variety of responses.

1	2	3	4	5	6

45. I can use the reading and writing skills which I have I learnt in the classroom, in situations outside the workshop.

1	2	3	4	5	6

46. The workbook tasks deal with English language usage in different ways.

1	2	3	4	5	6

47. The various tasks make me think, argue and write logically.

1	2	3	4	5	6

48. Completing tasks successfully gives me the confidence to use English.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Partly disagree	Partly agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

Culture

49. Some of the workbook tasks show an interest in my life outside the workshop.

1	2	3	4	5	6

50. The workbooks show an awareness of different cultures.

1	2	3	4	5	6

51. The workbooks respect my culture.

1	2	3	4	5	6

52. The workbooks give me the opportunity to tell others about my customs and traditions.

1	2	3	4	5	6

Section C: Evaluation criteria

53. There *should* be more opportunities for participation and discussion.

1	2	3	4	5	6

54. The teacher should be the one who speaks the most in the classroom.

1	2	3	4	5	6

55. The reading passages *should* be longer - to give me English reading practice.

1	2	3	4	5	6

56. There *should* be more tasks involving pictures or graphics.

1	2	3	4	5	6

57. The tasks *should* be more about the topics that deal with African culture and customs.

1	2	3	4	5	6

58. The tasks *should* be more challenging.

1	2	3	4	5	6

Please write any OTHER COMMENTS that you have about the ENGL131 and ENGL132 workbooks in the space below.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

APPENDIX C

ENGL131 AND ENGL132 TEACHING STAFF
MATERIALS EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

The aim of this questionnaire is to evaluate our current ENGL131 and ENGL132 workbooks in order to *improve* them. I have provided descriptors for some of the terms as they are understood in the field of teaching English as a second or additive language (ESL), as well as the way we at UniLim approach the ENGL131/132 modules, namely teaching English for Academic Purposes (EAP).

A. DESCRIPTORS

The Communicative Approach: an approach to foreign or second language teaching that emphasizes the goal of language learning to be communicative competence - this includes principles such as: focus is more on meaning (shared meaning and negotiated meaning) than on form; language learning is learning to communicate; fluency and acceptable language is the primary goal; accuracy is judged not in the abstract *but in the context*; students are expected to interact with other people, either in the flesh, through pair and group work, or in their writings; and teaching is learner-centred. ***Communicative competence****:* the ability not only to apply the grammatical rules of a language in order to form grammatically correct sentences but also to know when and where to use these sentences and to whom.

Form*:* as opposed to *meaning*; used in phrases such as 'linguistic form' or grammatical form'; grammatical characteristics of, for example, a sentence.

Fluency: the features which give speech the qualities of being natural and normal, including native-like use of pausing, rhythm, intonation,etc.

Accuracy: this refers to the ability to produce grammatically correct sentences but may not include the ability to speak or write fluently.

Authentic materials*:* "materials [that] come from the world of realia rather than from textbooks" ; materials that use language " ...as it appears in everyday speech – that is, *in its full complexity*. These might include language-based realia, such as 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. Different kinds of objects can be used to support communicative exercises, such as a plastic models to assemble from directions. (These would also be termed 'naturalistic').

The product approach*:* an example/ model is provided with various exercises to do in order to draw attention to its important features. The attention is focused on the written product - essay, report, etc.

The process approach*:* The process approach highlights the composing processes which writers go through. Meaning is the primary focus rather than form. It advocates learner-centredness which encourages learners to take responsibility for their own learning. By going through the various stages of the cyclical writing process, namely, brainstorming and discussion, drafting, revisions and editing until the final draft is submitted, learners can make clear decisions about the direction of their writing.

Task*:* most tasks will involve cognitive processes such as, selecting, classifying, ordering, reasoning, and evaluating. The task must have an outcome which is at the same time, the goal of the task for the learners.

Culturally relevant: this implies that materials include elements such as forms of address, expressions of politeness, discourse conventions and situational constraints on conversational behaviour, and also focus on customs and traditions from the learners' culture. Tasks would be culturally inappropriate if they gave offence.

B. QUESTIONNAIRE

Where appropriate, indicate your answer with an **X** or circle the answer's allocated number that is applicable.

B.1 Personal Data:

1. Is English your :

first language / mother tongue?	
second language	
third language?	
fourth language	

2. How many years experience do you have of teaching English? _____

3. How many years of the total experience involved school teaching (primary/secondary)? _____

B.2 **The current ENGL131 and ENGL132 coursebooks/ workbooks**

Please rate your response to the following statements on a scale of 1 to 6 .

Circle the number applicable to your response.

1 IS *STRONGLY DISAGREE* AND **6** IS *STRONGLY AGREE.*

Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**slightly disagree**	**partly agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**

	Str Dis	Dis	Sl Dis	Par agr	Agr	Str Agr
4. The coursebooks give structure to the modules.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. The coursebooks give direction and guidance in teaching the module content.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. The coursebooks are helpful in providing uniformity throughout the course.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. The coursebooks give freedom to practice one's own individual teaching style.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. The coursebooks are suitable for mixed ability groups.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. The coursebooks encourage learners to work on their own to take responsibility for their own learning.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. The coursebooks implicitly indicate the academic outcomes students are working towards.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Both coursebooks focus on communication of meaning ('getting the message across') and fluency.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. The coursebooks provide opportunities for learners to interact with each other.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. The coursebooks provide opportunities for learners to interact with their tutor/lecturer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. The ENGL131 coursebook focuses on *form* (grammatical features) and *accuracy* only.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. The coursebooks are too predictable – use an assembly line approach.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. The coursebooks contain culturally appropriate activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. The activities in the coursebook are authentic (as in the real world).	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. The coursebooks enable learners to manipulate and practice specific features of the target language (English).	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. There is sufficient support in the tasks for students to be able to work on their own.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. The tasks/ activities are sequenced from simpler to more difficult tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. The coursebooks take cognizance of the learners' interests.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. The coursebooks relate to most of the learners' language needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. The coursebooks restrict your creativity as an English language educator.	1	2	3	4	5	6

C. *What characteristics do **YOU** believe good language learning and teaching materials for our UniLim students **SHOULD** contain?*

	Str Dis	Dis	Sl Dis	Par Agr	Agr	Str Agr	
24. The academic outcomes of the modules should be clearly and explicitly indicated in the coursebooks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
25. The emphasis of the coursebook activities should be on all four language skills (i.e. listening, speaking, reading writing) equally.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
26. The emphasis should be mainly on reading and writing in this academic context.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
27. There should be exercises that focus on increasing vocabulary.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
28. The skills of note-taking and note-making should be practiced in one of the coursebooks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
29. There should be tasks that allow learners to practice to verbalise data such as that presented in graphs, tables, graphics or other visual representations of data.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
30. The coursebooks should promote a critical stance to language use in different language registers and academic genres.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
31. All the activities in the coursebook should be authentic or naturalistic.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
32. Authentic tasks or activities should not be simplified or adapted to the English proficiency of learners.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
33. The coursebooks should focus on the communication of meaning/ 'getting the message across' (that is, interaction and fluency) *only*.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
34. The coursebooks should include tasks/activities that teach grammar and accuracy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
35. The coursebook activities should all be in the form of *tasks (see descriptor above).*	1	2	3	4	5	6	
36. Academic writing should be taught without focus on grammar and accuracy.		1	2	3	4	5	6
37. The coursebooks should contain tasks that focus on ideas such as ideology, identity, subjectivity and power in the area of language teaching.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
38. The tasks/activities should provide opportunities for learners to think and talk about language learning (i.e. take a critical stance to their own learning and the classroom pedagogy).	1	2	3	4	5	6	

39. The activities should be suitable for mixed ability (multi-level) groups.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40. The activities/ tasks should be more challenging than the current ones.	1	2	3	4	5	6
41. The materials should allow learners to rehearse, in class, communicative skills.	1	2	3	4	5	6
42. The tasks/ activities should provide practice in cognitive skills such as selecting, reasoning and problem-solving tasks (e.g. rescuing a cat out of a tree).	1	2	3	4	5	6
43. Summary writing is an important academic skill.	1	2	3	4	5	6
44. Many of the tasks/ activities in the coursebooks should be open-ended (not only one correct answer).	1	2	3	4	5	6
45. The materials should encourage learners to work independently and monitor their own progress.	1	2	3	4	5	6
46. There should be scaffolding (sufficient support to do a task) *built into* the tasks/activities to enable learners to work on their own.	1	2	3	4	5	6
47. The tasks /activities should be culturally appropriate and relevant.	1	2	3	4	5	6
48. The course content of ENGL131 and ENGL132 should be changed so that academic writing can be taught from the beginning throughout both modules.	1	2	3	4	5	6
49. A section or unit about reference and research skills should be included in the coursebooks.	1	2	3	4	5	6
50. The materials should be visually pleasing – that is, have enough 'white space' and some graphics.	1	2	3	4	5	6
51. There should be a Teacher's Handbook to accompany the coursebooks.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Please feel free to add extra comments anywhere where there is space, on a separate page or on the back of the questionnaire.

Your time, effort and input are greatly appreciated.

Thank you.

Rose-marie

APPENDIX D: PANEL OF EXPERTS QUESTIONNAIRE

A QUESTIONNAIRE TO ASSESS FINAL EVALUATION CRITERIA FOR ESL IN-HOUSE LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING MATERIALS

The ENGL131 and ENGL132 modules at UniLim teach English for General Academic Purposes to anything from 650 to 1,000 students in 20 groups. The target audience or users of these coursebooks are mainly rural students who attended rural schools. (About 73% of the students in this study were rural students.) Coursebooks were designed to ensure that the eight lecturers who teach the modules mainly by means of workshops, to teach more or less the same content to their groups. They also consist of exercises and tasks, the answers to which can be written in the coursebook.

ENGL131 teaches dictionary work, note-taking and note-making, grammar and academic reading techniques. ENGL132 teaches academic writing (process writing). The emphasis of this one year course is on academic reading and writing because our students need these skills to cope with their studies.

Evaluation criteria to judge the ENGL131/ 132 coursebooks have been extracted from the relevant literature in the field of language teaching and learning, as well as from data collected from the users of these materials – that is, students and lecturers.

Please rate the importance of the criteria (in your view, from your experience) by means of the following rating:

This criterion is

1. *unimportant*
2. *optional*
3. *reasonably important*
4. *crucial*

PLEASE INDICATE YOUR ANSWER WITH AN –X-.

The coursebooks for the above-mentioned target audience should:

1.	be cheap (R60 or less)	1.	2.	3.	4.
2.	be reasonably durable with enough space to fill in answers.	1.	2.	3.	4.
3.	provide a basic framework for students and educators across all lectures and workshop groups.	1.	2.	3.	4.
4.	support the content of the lectures and guide the student through the module content.	1.	2.	3.	4.
5.	clearly indicate the desired learning outcomes for each unit	1.	2.	3.	4.
6.	engage students by providing activities covering topics of interest to students in the range of 17 to 24 years of age.	1.	2.	3.	4.

7.	engage students by providing some activities that are familiar and relevant to their cultures.	1. 2. 3. 4.
8.	include content involving students' cultural knowledge to help them acquire and increase their linguistic knowledge.	1. 2. 3. 4.
9.	include activities which teach interculturality (learning to value one's own and others' culture).	1. 2. 3. 4.
10.	include many activities where students need to make and negotiate meaning and understanding.	1. 2. 3. 4.
11.	have activities to practise and apply language structures and conventions in context.	1. 2. 3. 4.
12.	contain activities that engage students in *using* English in practical exercises and tasks, rather than just learning *about* English.	1. 2. 3. 4.
13.	contain activities that have as primary goal, fluency and appropriate, comprehensible language.	1. 2. 3. 4.
14.	teach accuracy not in the abstract but in *context.*	1. 2. 3. 4.
15.	provide activities to practise and achieve comprehensible pronunciation.	1. 2. 3. 4.
16.	provide exercises which promote vocabulary building.	1. 2. 3. 4.
17.	contain a unit on dictionary work.	1. 2. 3. 4.
18.	do collocation exercises to promote vocabulary building and learning idiomatic English.	1. 2. 3. 4.
19.	focus mainly on two of the four language skills, namely reading and writing.	1. 2. 3. 4.
20.	contain sufficient reading passages to practise skimming, scanning, speed reading and close reading.	1. 2. 3. 4.
21.	provide activities to practise summary writing.	1. 2. 3. 4.
22.	contain writing activities should allow practice in creating, composing, exploring, conceptualizing, drafting, and revising.	1. 2. 3. 4.
23.	let students interact with texts and write on topics which require critical thinking and a questioning approach to texts.	1. 2. 3. 4.
24.	provide ample opportunities to write in different academic genres.	1. 2. 3. 4.
25.	contain a section devoted to the analysis of instructions and essay topics.	1. 2. 3. 4.
26.	raise awareness in writing tasks of coherence, cohesion, transition words, and logical presentation of arguments.	1. 2. 3. 4.
27.	contain activities to develop the cognitive skills of selecting,	

	reasoning, analyzing, classifying, sequencing and evaluating.	1. 2. 3. 4.
28.	because the classes are large (50 - 90 students per group), contain a variety of activities to accommodate different learning styles, and abilities, as well as prevent students from losing concentration.	1. 2. 3. 4.
29.	in terms of the large classes, encourage 'individualisation', *i.e. provide the opportunity to do individual work by working* on one's own at one's own pace.	1. 2. 3. 4.
30.	allow for 'personalization' despite the large classes, by giving the opportunity for personal input to prevent an atmosphere of impersonality and bureaucracy – a danger in large classes.	1. 2. 3. 4.
31.	for large classes, include questions and requests (e.g why? Explain how to?) that result in lively participation.	1. 2. 3. 4.
32.	ensure that there are numerous activities that encourage interaction and communication in English.	1. 2. 3. 4.
33.	raise awareness of correct grammar.	1. 2. 3. 4.
34.	contain tasks (as defined in task-based teaching and learning) which involve problem-solving.	1. 2. 3. 4.
35.	contain authentic tasks which are simplified where necessary.	1. 2. 3. 4.
36.	'scaffold' (have support built into the task to assist the learner) activities or tasks to support a learner until a skill has been mastered.	1. 2. 3. 4.
37.	have activities and tasks that are mainly learner-centred.	1. 2. 3. 4.
38.	contain activities that encourage autonomy in language learning, i.e. develops independent learners.	1. 2. 3. 4.
39.	encourage collaboration in pairs or groups of not more than 3, for students to learn to participate, negotiate meaning, compromise and take risks.	1. 2. 3. 4.
40.	sequence the activities in order of complexity to promote a feeling of achievement.	1. 2. 3. 4.
41.	'recycle' language items taught, because a language item cannot be mastered fully the first it is encountered, but must be reintroduced over time in different contexts.	1. 2. 3. 4.
42.	have activities that encourage reflection, i.e. reflecting about how and why they do the tasks.	1. 2. 3. 4.
43.	contain activities that engage students with a variety of linguistic structures.	1. 2. 3. 4.

44. should provide feedback.

1.	2.	3.	4.

Your time and effort are greatly appreciated. Thank you very much.
Rose-marie McCabe

Please add any additional comments below, about anything pertaining to language materials you feel strongly about or which you have found to be lacking in English teaching materials.

APPENDIX E: STUDENT INTERVIEW QUESTIONS:

(The unit topics of each coursebook were written on the board as a prompt)

ENGL131 coursebook

1. If you think of the units covered in the ENGL131 coursebook: Is there a content topic which you think is unnecessary or not useful?
2. which of those content topics have you found most useful
    i) for improving your English?
    ii) for helping you cope with your other subjects?

ENGL132 coursebook

3. If you think of the units covered in the ENGL132 coursebook: Is there a content topic which you think is unnecessary or not useful?
4. which of those content topics have you found most useful
    i) for improving your English?
    ii) for helping you cope with your other subjects?

Any other comments about the coursebooks and what you would see your English language needs to be?

APPENDIX F: STUDENTS' SUGGESTIONS FOR ADDITIONS TO COURSEBOOKS

Some of the students suggested the following additions:

Reading skills
Writing comprehension in each and every coursebook (This is in contrast to some respondents who remarked in question 26 that there should be fewer or no reading passages.)
Coming to class with dictionary
More examples in 132 coursebooks

Debates and speeches. Students should be given topics on which they will debate on and get marks (This and the next four respondents wish to have more opportunities for oral communication skills.)
Challenging exercises that will cause other people to speak their mind, eg. Arguments
Yes! To introduce a class discation on a topic
Yes, I think dialogues should be included
Yes, the ways in which you can use to communication with others

Some students indicated a preference for certain subject content – different language genres:
Yes, I think something like reading and writing tests on ***novels*** *and* ***short stories***
Highlights of writing a ***novel****, what is needed and what is not needed. Reading skills and giving marks for that*
Yes, added ***short story***
Passages for me as BSc student
Issues *that affect the* ***students*** *on campus*
The issue of ***HIV AIDS*** *in order to remind us*
Must at least encourage the ***indigenous system***

Several students expressed the wish for more comprehension exercises and writing of essays:
Bring more essays and comprehension passages
More reading and essay writing
It must contain more essays in order to improve our English
Students should be given 2 or more essays in order to improve their writing skills
Newspaper articles and more grammar exercises and essays
CV, more essay readings
More than 5 essays in a coursebook so we can think
More essay type questions (Respondents clearly want more essays topics to write about. They do not like writing a number of drafts of the same essay – this suggests an inability to assess and change their own writing.)

An opinion was expressed about the use of pictures:
more pictures because they speak louder than words (This respondent in contrast to the two who responded to question 26 to remove the pictures, would like more exercises using pictures.)

Some respondents enjoyed doing puzzles:
the pazels and there should be a lots of general questions (about our life)
Yes, puzzles for letting the mind expand and keeping it active.
Exercises which influence critical and creative thinking
Puzzle words
More challenging exercises
Just adding more challenging tasks
This indicates a need for problem-solving tasks

Marks are the ultimate incentive:
More marks should be added (This and the next respondent want to receive more marks for what they do in the coursebooks.)

More marks should be given (This is interpreted as the desire for the work done in the coursebooks to be rewarded by the allocation of marks.)

A little more space for answering questions (This is a valid comment on the formatting – space has been sacrificed because of attention to cost per page.)
Designed in a way so it can't be easily broken (The coursebooks are stapled to save costs.)

APPENDIX G

INTERVIEW PROMPTS – INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEWS WITH LANGUAGE METHODOLOGY TEACHING STAFF

1. How many years of teaching experience do you have?_____
2. How many of these years did you teach at schools?_____
3. Do you think coursebooks are important? _____

Why?

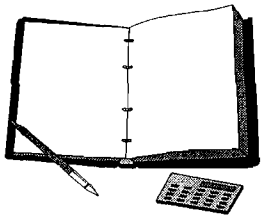
4. What are your main criteria for choosing a coursebook?
5. When, why and how do you supplement the coursebook?

APPENDIX H: ENGL131 COURSEBOOK

UNIT 1 – NOTE-TAKING/MAKING

YOUR LECTURER WILL READ A PASSAGE TO YOU FROM WHICH YOU MUST TAKE NOTES

NOW evaluate your present Note-Taking System



Ask yourself:

Did I shorten the sentences?

Did I use any form at all? Are my notes clear or confusing?

Did I capture main points and all sub-points?

Did I streamline using abbreviations and shortcuts?

If you answered NO to any of these questions, you may need to develop some new note-taking skills!

FIVE IMPORTANT REASONS TO TAKE NOTES

- It helps you to remember information.
- It helps you to concentrate in class.
- It helps you to prepare for tests.
- Your notes are often a source of valuable clues for what information the Instructor/ lecturer thinks is most important (i.e., what will show up on the next test).
- Your notes often contain information that cannot be found elsewhere (i.e., in your textbook).

GUIDELINES FOR NOTE-TAKING

- Concentrate on the lecture or on the reading material.
- Take notes consistently.
- Take notes selectively. Do NOT try to write down every word. Remember that the average lecturer speaks approximately 125-140 words per minute, and the average note-taker writes at a rate of about 25 words per minute.
- Put ideas into your own words. (PRACTICE THIS SKILL together with learning new vocabulary – it will help you to answer questions better in the exams.)
- Organize notes into some sort of logical form.
- Be brief. Write down only the major points and important information. Don't stop to recover a missed point – you will miss more.
- Write legibly. Notes are useless if you cannot read them later!
- Don't be concerned with spelling and grammar. You FIRST need the content. (Check spelling and grammar in the evening when reviewing your notes.)

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TIPS FOR FINDING MAJOR POINTS IN LECTURES

The speaker is usually **making an important point** if he or she:

- Pauses before or after an idea
- Uses repetition to emphasize a point.
- Uses introductory phrases to precede an important idea.
- Writes an idea on the board.

Activity 1: Write down the meanings of:

pause

repetition

precede

FORMS OF NOTE-TAKING

Outlining

I. Main idea (also called the Topic sentence)
A. Major points providing information about the topic
   1. Sub-point that describes the major point
   a. Supporting detail for the sub-point

Patterning: flowcharts, diagrams, mapping

Activity 2: Find an example or a definition of a flowchart and draw it below. Write the definition to the right of your drawing.

Listing, margin notes, highlighting :

Ways to reduce and streamline notes:

- Leave out small connecting words such as: *is, are, was, were, a, an, the, would, this, of.*
- Leave out pronouns such as: *they, these, his, that, them.* However, be careful NOT to leave out these three words: *and, in, on*.
- Use symbols to abbreviate, such as:

+, & for and, plus
= for equals
- for minus
for number

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x for times
> for greater than, more, larger
< for less than, smaller, fewer than
w/ for with
w/o for without
w/in for within
----> for leads to, produces, results in
<---- for comes from
/ for per

For example:
"The diameter of the Earth is four times greater than the diameter of the Moon."
Becomes in your notes:
"Earth = 4x > diameter of Moon."

Substitute numerals with symbols, for instance:

Substitute "one" with 1
Substitute "third" with 3rd

Abbreviate:

Drop the last several letters of a word. For example, substitute "appropriate" with "approp."
Drop some of the internal vowels of a word. For example, substitute "large" with "lrg."

BUT REMEMBER TO REWRITE NOTES IN THE EVENING IN FULL WORDS AND SENTENCES – don't use abbreviations in the exams.

Activity 3: Read the following passage.

Memory

There are two types of memory short-term memory and long-term memory. Nothing stays in your short-term memory for more than a few minutes. Anything you can remember for longer than that is in your long-term memory. Things can stay in the long-term memory for hours, weeks, months, years or for the rest of your life.

Long-term memory
Your long-term memory stores everything you know. By the time you are eight years old, it holds more information than a million encyclopedias! Some of the things are:

- all the vocabulary you know
  —at the age of 4 you probably knew 5 000 words
  —at the age of 8 you probably knew 25 000 words
  —by the time you finish school you will probably know about 100 000 words (in several different languages)
- the names of all your school friends and colleagues
- how to read, write and do mathematics
- the words and music of your favourite songs
- how to tie your shoelaces
- how to find your way to and from school
- what foods you like and dislike

This is just a small part of what is in your long-term memory. Amazingly it will never become full, because it has a limitless capacity it could go on storing new in formation even if you were to live

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until you were over a hundred.

Short-term memory
Short-term memory, however, can only store a maximum of nine things at one time. Most people cannot manage more than seven.

You can test this yourself. Ask your lecturer/tutor to read out a list of numbers. When your lecturer has finished, try to write down as many of them as you can, in the right order. Most of you will only manage between five and seven.

After a few minutes, facts in your short-term memory are displaced by new ones. The old facts either just fade away or are transferred to your long-term memory.

Remembering
There are some things you never forget, such as your name and age. Other facts and events, such as your worst day at school or the best day in your life, you can remember whenever you want. But other things can be harder to recall. Remembering can be made easier if you use clues. You can also help yourself by the way you first learn information.

It's easier to remember a fact or event if you are in the place where you first stored it. Just thinking about the place where you learned something can help too.

e.g. Can you remember the name of everyone in your class in Grade 10? Try thinking about where they used to sit in the classroom and see if you can remember better.

Large amounts of information can be very difficult to recall. The way you first learn it can make remembering easier. Organise the information into groups and give each one a heading. When you have to recall the fact, just remembering the headings will make the information easier to recall.

Your memory is full of all sorts of information that, most of the time, you don't even know you have stored. You only become aware of it if you are given a strong enough reminder that brings it back to you. Remembering can be painful. There may be some things that you would prefer to forget.

Activity 4: Comprehension
Answer these questions:
1. What are the main differences between the two types of memory?

_____

2. How much can you learn before your long-term memory will be full?

_____

3. What is the average number of items we can store in the short-term memory?

_____

4. How long does information stay in the short-term memory?

_____

5. What can help you remember information?

_____

6. How can you improve your memory of large amounts of information?

_____

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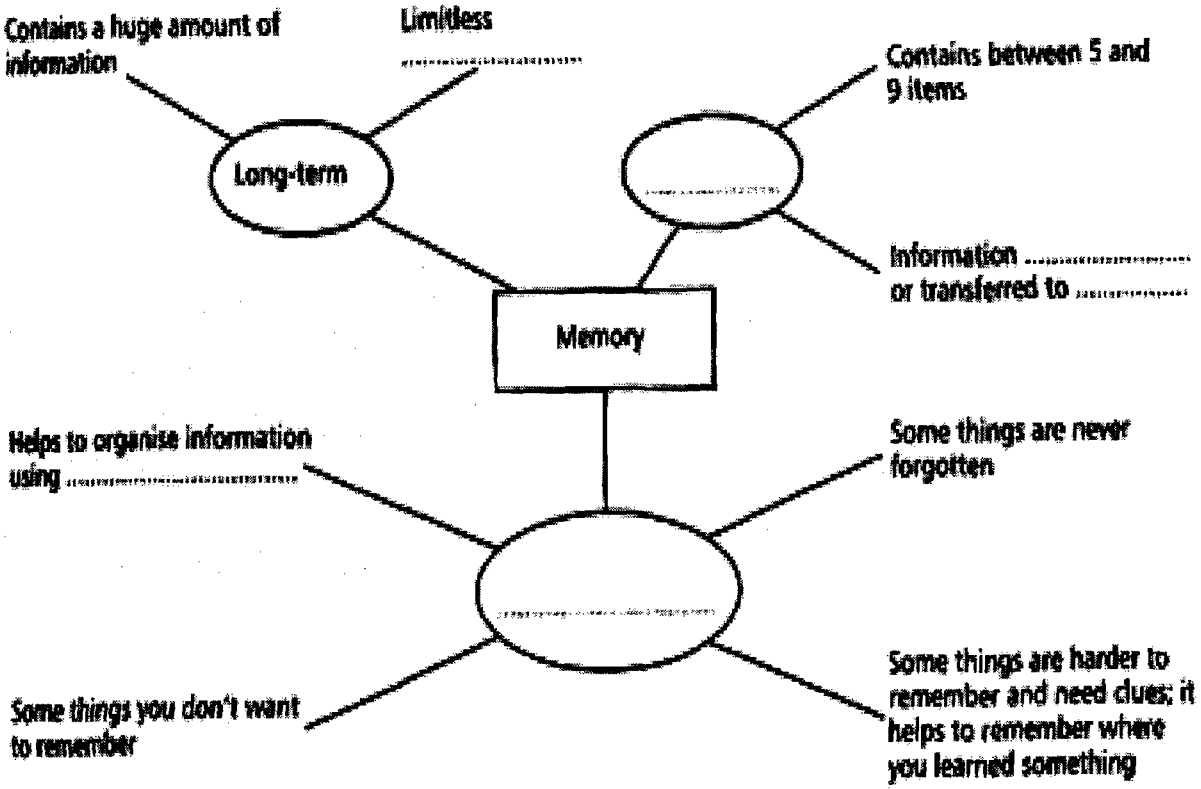
BELOW ARE **TWO** POSSIBLE METHODS OF NOTE-TAKING/MAKING: i) Mapping and ii) the Cornell method of taking down notes or making them.

Activity 5: MAPPING

Complete the mind map below using the information provided by the passage on *Memory*.



NOTE TAKING: THE CORNELL SYSTEM

(Record, Reduce, Recite, Reflect, Recall)

The Cornell system for taking notes is designed to save time but yet be highly efficient. There is no rewriting or retyping of your notes. It is a "DO IT RIGHT IN THE FIRST PLACE" system.

STEP 1 - PREPARATION

- Use a large, loose-leaf notebook. Use only one side of the paper.
- Draw a vertical line 6cm on the left side of your paper. This is the RECALL column (To recall means to remember what was said or done in class). Notes will be taken to the right of this margin. (LATER key words or phrases can be written in the recall column.

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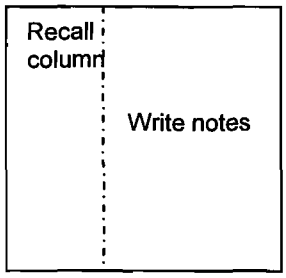

2. Second Step - DURING THE LECTURE
   Record (write down) notes in paragraph form.
   Capture general ideas.
   Skip lines to show end of ideas or thoughts.
   Using abbreviations will save time.
   Write legibly.

3. Third Step - AFTER THE LECTURE
Read through your notes and make it more legible if necessary. Now use the small column on the left. Jot down *ideas* or *key words* which give you the idea of the lecture (REDUCE). You will have to reread the lecturer's ideas, REFLECT (think about) and write down the main points in your own words. Cover up the right-hand side of your notes and RECITE the general ideas and concepts of the lecture. Cover your notes showing only the recall columns and you can review and recall the lecture or the chapter from the key words .

Activity 6: Using the reading passage *Memory* write notes according to the above method.

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Activity 7: Word study
Work in pairs. Match the words to their meanings. Write the number of the word next to the correct definition.

1. limitless capacity	a remember
2. displaced	b knowing about something
3. transferred	c some things that help you find the answer
4. clues	g something that makes someone remember
5. recall	d an ability to retain any amount of material or information
6. aware of	e forced out and its place taken
7. reminder	f moved from one place to another

(The above has been adapted from *New Horizons in English* by Nick Coates; Macmillan Boleswa)

Activity 8.
Read the passage, *The Camel.*
(This is a simpler passage than you will find in your textbooks; but first try a simpler exercise to understand how note-taking is done.)

The Camel

The two-humped camels, known as Bactrian camels, are larger, more hairy, and slightly darker in colour than the Arabian one-humped camel. The one-humped camel, called the Dromedary (which means 'running camel'), is used for riding. It can gallop for up to eighteen hours at a time, covering a distance of about 160 km a day.

Camels are used to haul heavy loads across the desert. They can carry up to 270 kg on their backs and cover as much as 48 km in one day. They also pull ploughs, turn water wheels to irrigate fields and carry loads of grain to market. When walking, they move the front and back legs of one side forward at the same time. This causes a swaying motion, which makes some people who ride on camels feel seasick. Camels are sometimes called 'ships of the desert' because of this - and also because they carry baggage and people across long stretches of sand

Because it can last for a long time without anything to eat and drink, the camel's body is perfect for life in the desert. It may have to live for months without water, but it can still survive because it gets moisture from dew and rain. When offered water, a thirsty camel can drink 135 litres in ten minutes. People believe that the camel's hump was built as a water storage tank but it actually stores fat, not, water. This is used for extra energy when food is scarce. Luckily the camel does not care what it eats or drinks. If fresh water isn't available, it will drink sea water. And it will eat almost anything if it gets hungry enough, even baskets, straw matting or tents

Camels seem to dislike everything and everybody — including other camels. They bite people or other animals for no reason, and will kick out suddenly and viciously with their hind legs. An angry camel may even spit a mouthful of slimy cud at someone passing by.

At birth, the camel calf is like a small copy of its mother, with legs almost as long as its mother's. However, it doesn't have any humps until it is two years old. By the end of one month it will start grazing (eating desert plants). It continues to drink its mother's milk for about a year

Camel owners weave the soft woolly fur of their animals into warm clothes and blankets. The camel's tough skin provides leather for shoes, water bags, and saddles. When dried, camel bones can be carved for jewellery or utensils.
(From: *Zoo Books: The Camel,* Ginn & Company Ltd. as used by Ellis & Mbhele in *Let's Use*

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English, Learners' Book Grade 9, Sandton: Heinemann.)
Activity 9: Draw a MIND MAP with the main points of the above passage.

Activity 10: Write brief notes from the passage – *The Camel.*

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NB. BRING YOUR DICTIONARY FOR UNIT 2

UNIT 2

Using A Dictionary

Dictionaries differ and so for this unit if you cannot find the answer to a question in your own dictionary, ask a friend who has a different dictionary. GET TO KNOW YOUR DICTIONARY.

READING PASSAGE

The Labour Relations Act (LRA), Act 66 of 1995 with the subsequent amendments sets out the rights of employers and employees and their organisations more clearly than before. This should provide the parties with more certainty with regard to the exercise of these rights.

The Act also favours conciliation and negotiation as a way of settling labour disputes. It expects parties to make a genuine attempt to settle disputes through conciliation before going on to the next step, which could be arbitration, adjudication or industrial action. By providing for a more simplified dispute resolution process, the Act aims to achieve a quick, effective and inexpensive resolution of disputes. It thereby aims to reduce the level of industrial unrest, and to minimize the need for costly legal advice. The Commission for Conciliation, Mediation and Arbitration (CCMA) plays a critical role in actively conciliating and arbitrating disputes, and also provides advice on a range of issues to the parties concerned.

(*A* guide to the Labour Relations Act, 1995 (as amended); Published by the Department of Labour)

Activity 1: Comprehension – read through the passage and answer the questions that follow.

a) When was this Labour Relations Act passed? _____

b) What does the Labour Relations Act do for citizens of SA?

It _____

c) What does 'labour relations' mean? (Explain in your own words.)

_____

_____

d) In line 3 the word *parties* is used. Who are these *parties*?

_____

Activity 2: INCREASE YOUR VOCABULARY. Use your DICTIONARY: look up the meaning of the following words. (Fill in the answers on this page) NB Choose the meaning which applies to the word IN CONTEXT. Write the verb form of the word just above it in brackets. (Only if it has a verb form)

amendments

negotiation

disputes

arbitration

adjudication

resolution

Activity 3: <u>Without using the dictionary can you work out what the following 3 words mean by reading the passage (CONTEXT) in which they occur:</u>

costly: _____

reduce: _____

It is important that you learn to work out (GUESS) the meaning of words from their CONTEXT because you will not always have a dictionary with you. **PRACTICE THE SKILL OF GUESSING OR INFERENCING.**

Activity 4: In the **<u>CONTEXT of DICTIONARY WORK – make sure that you know what the following terms (words) mean:</u>**

entry _____

headword _____

guide word _____

part of speech _____

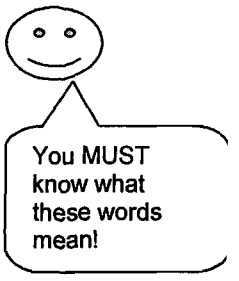
pronunciation _____

phonetic symbols _____

stress _____

syllable _____

idiomatic language _____



If you wish to cope with your studies, you must increase your *vocabulary:* USE YOUR DICTIONARY

Activity 5: <u>Alphabetical order</u>

The words in a dictionary are organized in alphabetical order. Try and put the following in alphabetical order in only ONE MINUTE. (Time yourself or get your neighbour to time you).

a) wheat, rye, barley, millet, oats, maize, corn, rice

b) pipette, pitch, piquant, pipeline, pith, pipe organ, pit stop, pistachio

a.	b.
1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.
4.	4.
5.	5.
6.	6.
7.	7.
8.	8.

You must be able to recognize which words follow which. If the first letter or letters of the words are the same, the alphabetical order is taken from the letters towards the end of the word. For example: **hero** and after that
heroi **/cs** (heroics)
heroi **/ne** (heroine)
heroi **/sm** (heroism)

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Activity 6: FINDING THE RIGHT PART OF SPEECH.
a) Look at these ENTRIES and write down what parts of speech these words can be

bridge _____

green _____

extra _____

fool _____

prior _____

so _____

b) **In which part of the entry (in other words, under which part of speech) would you look to find the meanings of the words in bold in these sentences?**

1 It has been an exceptionally **dry** summer. _____*adjective*_____

2 It takes several hours for the paint to **dry**. _____

3 The countryside around is very **flat**. _____

4 They are moving into a new **flat**. _____

Activity 7: Answer these questions by looking at the **IDM section** of the entries for the words in **bold**.

1 At the entry **bare,** how many idioms can you find for the adjective? _____

2 How many idioms can you find for the verb **bare**? _____

3 In which entry can you find the idiom **not at any price**? _____

4 Is it correct to say this will *fill the bill*? or *fit the bill*? _____

Activity 8: Test yourself on the **headword** information in the entries:

1 What is another way of spelling **dispatch**? _____

2 What part of speech is **disparage?** _____

3 Is it a formal or informal word? _____

4 What is the chemical symbol for **strontium**? _____

5 What is the difference between the British and the American pronunciation of **park**?

6 **Inverted commas** is another way of saying what? _____

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Activity 9: Check that you know what the abbreviations stand for by filling in the words in full in this crossword. Then rearrange the letters in the circles to find the word that is abbreviated to **prep**.

Activity 10: **Read through the extract from a dictionary below and answer the questions which follow.**
(This is the kind of question you may get in the examination)

a-bove[1] /ə'bʌv/ *v/ prep* **1** higher than; over: *We flew above the clouds. There's nothing in this shop (at/for) above £5. Raise your arms above your head. 1500 feet above sea level* | *The town's birthrate was well above the national average* —opposite below; see USAGE. **2** to a greater degree than: *The company values hard work above good ideas. [respected above all others] to be praised for a dedication* **above and beyond** *the call of duty (=* much greater than usual or expected). **3** higher in rank or power than: *A general is above a major.* — opposite below. **4** too good, proud, or honest for: *Her behaviour was above suspicion. [They're not above a bit of bribery if it will get them what they want].* **5** above all (else) most important of all: *And above all, remember to send us your comments.* **6 get above oneself** to have too much trust in one's own cleverness —see also **over and above** (over[1])

• USAGE The prepositions **above** and **over** can often be used in the same way: *Let's hang the painting* over/ above *the fireplace.* If there is an idea of movement **over** is used: *The bird flew* **over** *the lake.* I *The sheep jumped* **over** the wall. Over is also used if there is an idea of covering: *He pulled the blanket* **over** *his head and fell asleep.* I *They built a roof* **over** *the courtyard.*

above[2] *adv* **1** in or to a higher place; higher: *I heard some noises coming from the room above. A shout from above warned me of the danger.* **2** more; higher: *the numbers 20 and above I children of six or above (* =six or older), *a military meeting for captains and above* (=of higher rank) **3** on an earlier page or higher on the same page: *the facts mentioned above* —opposite below.

above[3] *adj* [A; after *n] fml* mentioned on an earlier page or higher on the same page: *For an explanation, see the above section/ the section above.* (also *n,* the-+-C, *pl.* **above]** *The above* is *the profit before tax / All the above are asked to attend tomorrow's meeting.*

a-bove-board /ə,bʌ vˈbɔ:d/ *adj [* F] without any attempt to deceive: *Don't worry; it's all* open and **aboveboard.**

a-bove-men-tioned /ˈ,ˈ··◀/*adj* [A] *fml* ABOVE[3]: *the above-mentioned facts* [also *n, the + Pl;* always before the *n*] ... *Williams, Brown, and Jones. The above-mentioned will attend the course.* — compare **UNDERMENTIONED**

QUESTIONS: CIRCLE THE CORRECT ANSWER

1. How many syllables are there in the word above-mentioned?
   a) one
   b) two
   c) three
   d) four

2. In which of the following sentences is the word above NOT used as a preposition?

   a) Many people rate Kaiser Chiefs above all other soccer clubs.
   b) Hang this painting above that one.
   c) He mustn't get ideas which are above himself.
   d) Please refer to the diagram on page fifteen above.

3. Which two of the headwords in the extract above would you expect to find in the context of **formal** use?

   a) above[1] and above[3]
   b) above[2] and aboveboard
   c) above-mentioned and above[3]
   d) aboveboard and above[1]

4. The dictionary gives three different entries for the word above, (above', above[2] and above[3]) because

   a) the word above has three different meanings
   b) the word above can be used as three different parts of speech
   c) the word above can be pronounced in three different ways

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d) the word above has three different idiomatic uses

5. Which of the following sentences is associated with the idea of honesty?

   a) Sipho has got above himself.
   b) A general is above a major.
   c) The deal was definitely aboveboard.
   d) He acted over and above the call of duty.

6. The headword above-mentioned is an example of:

   a) a compound word
   b) an idiomatic phrase
   c) a phrasal verb
   d) Both b) and c)

7. The word above can be used as

   a) a preposition, an adverb, and an adjective
   b) a preposition, an article, and an adjective
   c) an adjective, a conjunction, and a preposition
   d) a pronoun, an adverb, and a preposition

8. According to the dictionary, which of the following words or phrases only appears BEFORE the noun?

   a) above and beyond
   b) above[1]
   c) aboveboard
   d) above-mentioned

9. According to the dictionary, which of the following words or phrases only appears AFTER the noun?

   a) above and beyond
   b) above[3]
   c) aboveboard
   d) above-mentioned

10. Which of the definitions of *above,* when it is used as a preposition, is the one used in the following sentence?

    "According to Feminism, men should not consider themselves to be above women.

    a) 1
    b) 2
    c) 3
    d) 4

TESTS: NB. Remember your semester mark counts 60% and the examination 40% of your FINAL MARK for this module.
ATTEND LECTURES AND WORKSHOPS SO THAT YOU KNOW WHEN TESTS WILL BE WRITTEN AND WHEN YOU HAVE TO HAND IN YOUR WORKSHOP TASK FOR ASSESSMENT (MARKS).
NB If you receive 45% or less for your semester mark you will fail Engl131.

UNIT 3

The Sentence

Activity 1. Read carefully:

What is a sentence anyway?

There are really two answers to this question — a 'common sense' one and a grammatical one. As a language student you need to know both.

The common sense view states that any group of words which make sense on their own is a sentence, and that the visual markers (something that enables us to see where a sentence begins and where it ends) of a sentence are a capital letter at the beginning and a full stop at the end.

In spoken language we easily recognise a meaningful utterance. Thus an exclamation Like 'Out!' or the reply 'Dad' to the question 'Who told you?' (instead of the whole answer 'You go out' or 'Dad told me'), makes sense to English speakers. It is CONTEXT which enables us to supply the missing elements. In this case, these elements are the understood subject of the verb 'you' — and the verb which relates to 'Dad' — 'told'. But, these utterances (spoken words) do not conform to the grammatical definition of a sentence. This is because **the rules for speech and for standard written language are simply not the same.**

Even in written language the rules are not totally inflexible. Poets, novelists, headline writers and advertisers use what are known as MINOR SENTENCES (or sentence fragments) all the time. Minor sentences are useful in creating an atmosphere or image quickly. Inessentials are omitted and we are left with a minor sentence which lacks either the verb or the subject.

In grammatical terms, a complete sentence must have two things:

I A SUBJECT — the person or thing that the sentence is about, be it Jemima, a tragedy or a triumph

II A PREDICATE — what the subject is or is doing. In some sentences the predicate will consist of a verb only, for example 'Rebone speaks.' In others, there will be an additional element, such as an adverb (called the COMPLEMENT – it completes the meaning of the sentence) — 'Rebone speaks wisely' — or an OBJECT (which can be a noun phrase) — ' Rebone speaks wise words.'

Activity 2. Comprehension:

a) How many answers are there to the question "What is a sentence?" in this passage?

_____

b) What is common sense? (look it up in your dictionary)

_____

_____

c) How do you recognize a sentence? (What is a sentence?)

_____

_____

Activity 3: Look up the meaning of the UNDERLINED words (in the passage) in your dictionary. i) Write down the words and their meanings below AND then write a sentence with each word.

_____

_____

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Actitivity 4: Which of the sentences below are NOT sentences, but are **only** sentence fragments?

a) Put an **X** next to the minor sentences or sentence fragments.

i) The sun shining today
ii) Because the wind blew.
iii) There is a big coconut tree.
iv) The sand hot.
v) The two people who are walking on the beach.
vi) You can see the ships in the harbour.
vii) Shade from the sun umbrellas provide.

b) Rewrite the ones that you indicated as 'not sentences' so that they form sentences.

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REQUIREMENTS FOR A WRITTEN SENTENCE

- A capital letter at the beginning;
- A full stop, a question mark, or an exclamation mark at the end;
- A subject
- A complete verb/ verb phrase;
- Standard word order (English: SVO - Subject Verb Object or SVC – Subject Verb Complement) Sometimes the verb is followed by an object and sometimes by a complement (a word or group of words that tell you more about the Subject or the verb.
- An independent core idea that can stand alone and has meaning.

WORD ORDER

All sentences have the following in common: they have a SUBJECT (Who or what is doing something) and a Main Verb (Word order = SV).

FOR EXAMPLE:

i) Babies cry.

This sentence is about *babies*. Babies is therefore the SUBJECT. (The subject is always a noun or a noun phrase i.e. a group of words in which the noun is the main word). *Cries* is the verb and tells us more about what the subject *babies* is doing.

ii) Our neighbour's babies cry a lot.

Some sentences also have an OBJECT (receiver of the action) or even two objects.

5. Write your own complete sentences using the following verbs or verb phrases:

participate: _____

have seen: _____

enjoy: _____

like: _____

persuade: _____

am going to: _____

There are 4 different types of sentences in English:

1. Statements- supply information
   e.g. The earth is round.
   Students use the library to study in peace and quiet.
   I am hungry.

2. Questions – ask for information
   Where is the cafeteria?
   When are you writing exams?

3. Exclamations – express emotions such as surprise, alarm, fear, or anger
   You gave me a fright!
   That's a ghost!

4. Commands (Imperatives) – to give orders or instructions
   Take off your shoes.
   Go home.

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LOOK AT THE FORM AND THE POSITION OF THE VERB IN THE ABOVE EXAMPLES.

Activity 6: What type of sentence is each of the following? (Take note of the position of the verb in the type of sentence:

i) Who's that at the door? _____

ii) My sister is studying in Pretoria. _____

iii) The cattle are grazing far from the house. _____

iv) Help your baby sister. _____

v) That's terrible. _____

vi) How do you make Hungarian goulash? _____

vii) I'm fed-up. _____

viii) The university has closed for the Easter recess. _____

ix) Could you please direct me to the principal's office? _____

x) Try to fix it. _____

TO SUM UP: THERE ARE 3 MAIN RULES FOR WRITING COMPLETE SENTENCES.

1. A sentence must have a subject.
2. A sentence must have a verb or verb phrase.
3. A sentence must express a complete idea. (If the sentence begins with a signpost word e.g. who, that, because, when and others, it must contain all the pieces of the idea – e.g *After the dog growled at me* - NOT a sentence.
   After the dog growled at me, I ran away – A COMPLETE SENTENCE)

Activity 7:

Read the following groups of words. Mark those that are complete sentences with a tick (✓) and for those that are not write the number of the rule they are breaking.

1. Sepathi and her friends to movies every Friday. _____
2. Used his father's car without permission. _____
3. If you have finished your homework. _____
4. Was ready to go to the rock concert. _____
5. Into the rubbish bin went his unfinished dinner. _____
6. Whenever it rains we stay indoors and watch TV. _____
7. Because I'm a good student. _____
8. Two types of vegetables in my mother's garden. _____

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Activity 8:

Look at the following groups of 'strings' of words A, B, C,. Tick the only complete sentence. For the others write down the number of the rule they break. Some break more than one rule.

A
1. the child's sweet song _____
2. the sweetly singing child _____
3. sang sweetly _____
4. the child is singing sweetly _____
5. although the child is singing sweetly _____
6. because of the child's sweet singing _____

B
1. the bomb exploded suddenly _____
2. the sudden explosion _____
3. the suddenly exploding bomb_____
4. when the bomb exploded suddenly_____
5. suddenly exploded_____
6. during the sudden explosion of the bomb _____

Activity 9: Using the word groups of **A** complete the sentence fragments to form proper sentences.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Activity 10: REVISION
Write a short paragraph describing a car accident you saw. Get a friend to check whether you have written complete sentences and used the visual markers for a sentence.

A car accident

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

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EMPOWER YOURSELF

- THE MORE EFFORT YOU PUT INTO IMPROVING YOUR ENGLISH LANGUAGE SKILLS THE BETTER YOUR MARKS WILL BE IN YOUR CONTENT SUBJECTS (e.g. Psychology, Accounting, Jurisprudence etc.)

- YOUR JOB MAY REQUIRE A GREAT DEAL OF WRITING IN ENGLISH. MAKE THE EFFORT TO BECOME COMPETENT IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE USAGE **NOW**.

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UNIT 4
PUNCTUATION

REMEMBER THE IMPORTANCE OF PUNCTUATION WHEN YOU ARE WRITING PARAGRAPHS AND ESSAYS. LECTURERS CANNOT UNDERSTAND WHAT YOU ARE TRYING TO SAY IF YOU WRITE LONG SENTENCES WITH LITTLE OR NO PUNCTUATION.

STUDY THE NOTES IN YOUR ADVANCED LEARNER'S DICTIONARY OR THE PRESRIBED GRAMMAR BOOK.

Activity 1: Read the passage below:

a man in jakarta indonesia sold dozens of pencils to students telling them that the pencils would automatically write the correct answers in university entrance exams police arrested him after students complained that they had failed the exams even though they had used the pencils they had paid £220 a pencil.

Activity 2: **Rewrite the above passage with the correct punctuation.**

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Activity 3: Comprehension

i) In which country did this story take place? _____

ii) What had the man told the students about the pencils?

That_____

iii) Give the passage a short title/ heading. _____

iv) Did you understand the passage without punctuation immediately with the first reading?

Activity 4: Rewrite the sentences below punctuating them correctly:

We drove to Tsegos house in his new car. Jamess car was already there. "Whos that waiting in front of your house?" asked Tebogo. "Its James', replied Tsego.

_____

_____

_____

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Activity 5: **Rewrite the sentences below, correcting the use of capitals:**

i) You were asked to end the letter with "Yours Faithfully" and not "Yours Sincerely".

_____

ii) Mr Mamabolo works for the Polokwane city council.

_____

iii) The injured people were rushed to the Groote Schuur hospital.

_____

iv) After the accident, Thabo spent three months in Hospital.

_____

v) This matter will be referred to the minister of Transport.

_____

vi) This is an issue that the Head of the relevant Department should deal with.

_____

vii) She promised to ask her Aunt about overnight accommodation.

_____

viii) I asked uncle Tebogo to lend me ten rand.

_____

ix) The 2003 Summit was attended by Young, Old, Black, White, Asian, African, European and American delegates.

_____

_____

x) There are crocodiles in the Zambezi river.

_____

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Activity 6: Rewrite the following sentences and insert hyphens and/dashes where appropriate:

i) These are the colours of the national flag green, black, red, and white.

ii) My brother in law walks with a walking stick be cause he broke his leg in an accident.

iii) Sepumla, the thirty five year old dancer, is an ex champion in modern dance.

iv) The team member the one who was injured was taken to hospital.

Activity 7: Punctuate the following sentences containing DIALOGUE (insert commas, inverted commas and full stops, question marks or exclamation marks if necessary) :

When at last we reached home I was in a state of shock Mickey what's the matter you're as pale as a ghost my mother exclaimed didn't you see the big dog I asked.

Activity 8: Rewrite the lines below with the appropriate punctuation:

i) peter ran out of the house shouting at the top of his voice john john help me there is a snake in my bed well said john read it a story and it may fall asleep

ii) there are many kinds of dogs terriers hounds sheepdogs and others

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iii) stop it peter you are annoying me

iv) Yesterday we the first netball team played a match against ace high school beating them by a phenomenal sixteen goals however the victory was marred by the injury of josephine mafokeng one of our key players she tripped over one of her shoelaces in the closing stages went tumbling to the ground hitting her head against the goal post and knocking herself unconscious the ambulance was called the paramedics administered first aid put her onto a stretcher and took her to hospital where she was kept for observation

****

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UNIT 5

Parts of speech[1]

Activity 1. Read the passage below and answer the questions that follow.

The History of Money

Today, our currency is a mixture of coins and paper money. But it wasn't always that way. Before metal coins and paper notes existed, people used a lot of unusual things to buy what they needed. In one part of the world, for example, people used sharks' teeth for money. In some places, brightly coloured feathers and rare seashells were money. People in one area even used the bristles from elephants' tails for money.

No one knows for sure when people started using metal coins for money. **Archeologists** have found coins dating from 600 B.C., so we know they have been around for a long time. At first, people used precious metals, such as gold and silver, to make coins. They stamped the figure of a person or animal on each coin to **indicate** its value.

In the 1200s, people in China used iron coins for their currency. These coins weren't worth very much, so people had to use a lot of them to make their purchases. Because it was inconvenient to carry around a large number of heavy iron coins, the government started printing paper **receipts**. People took these receipts to banks and **traded** them in for coins. This is the first example we have of paper money.

Activity 2. **COMPREHENSION**

a) Give another word/s (synonym)for currency and indicate. _____

b) Give an example of an unusual currency.

_____

c) Write down 5 verbs that are used in the passage.

_____ _____

d) Have metals coins been used for a long time? _____

Explain your answer.

_____

Activity 3. **NOUNS**

DEFINITION: NOUNS name persons, places, things, groups, qualities, ideas.

a) Write down 2 nouns from the passage that are *singular*

_____ _____ and 2 that are *plural*.

_____

[1] MAKE SURE YOU KNOW WHAT IS MEANT BY **PARTS OF SPEECH** – YOU NEED TO KNOW WHAT YOUR ENGLISH LECTURERS ARE REFERRING TO WHEN THEY INDICATE ERRORS IN YOUR WRITTEN WORK.

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b) Read the passage again. Write 5 *other* (different ones from a. above) plural nouns in the grid below and write their singular forms in the column next to them:

Plural	Singular

c) Give the plural form of the following nouns:

house _____ dish _____

holiday _____ country _____

calf _____ tomato _____

radio _____ zoo _____

plateau_____ syllabus _____

sheep_____ advice _____

From doing these you should be able to work out the RULES for changing singular to plural AND some of the words that are exceptions. Check with your tutor what these rules are.

d) **Underline the NOUNS in the following passage:**

Maintenance of health during the course of pregnancy obviously requires an adequate supply of calories and protein, as well as sufficient amounts of specific vitamins and minerals. Precise requirements for each of these nutrients have not been established, but recommendations for daily intake have been devised on the basis of available evidence.

e) PRONOUNS:
DEFINITION: A PRONOUN is a word that can be used to replace a noun in a sentence. (Its position in a sentence is therefore similar to that of nouns).

Underline the correct form of the pronoun given in brackets.

a) (We, Us, Our) listened to (she, her, hers) as she sang.

b) The president received (they, their, them) in his office.

c) Look at (I, my, me) when (I, my, me) am speaking to (you, your, yours).

d) If (you, you're, your) want the books, take (it, its, they, them).

e) The books are (I, my, me, mine).

Activity 4. **VERBS** (more exercises with verbs will be done in the next two units)
DEFINITION: VERB is the name given to a word that represents:

i) the **action** performed by a noun – e.g. Babies cry.

ii) the state of 'being' (the verb 'to be') of a noun (or pronoun) – e.g. She is unhappy.

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Underline the verbs in the following passage:
(NB. Remember that a verb can often consist of the main verb AND a helping/ auxiliary verb= a verb phrase)

A LETTER ASKING FOR ADVICE:

Dear Thandi

Please help. My best friend and I are constantly fighting. Last month she broke up with her boyfriend and soon after it happened, he asked me out. I asked her if she still cared about him and she said she didn't, so I went out with him. We have been seeing each other ever since, but decided not to tell my friend about it in case she was upset. She found out from someone else and has been fighting with me ever since. What should I do? I really like this guy, but my friend is important to me too.

Pumza

Activity 5. ADJECTIVES

DEFINITION: **Adjectives give us more information about nouns or pronouns**. (They describe or qualify nouns)

a) **Underline the adjectives in the following sentences**:

i) The motivated student studies diligently. Mary, however is lazy. She hands in incomplete and untidy work. Many students do this; but cannot understand why they receive poor marks.

ii) The Cape Town beaches are clean. The European tourists like visiting the beautiful, clean beaches of S.A.

iii) This book is expensive. My books are not so expensive because they are local books.

b) **Give the correct degree of comparison of the adjectives in brackets**:

The winter of 2003 in South Africa has been very (cold) _____. Now the weather is becoming (warm) _____ and (sunny) _____ than it was a few weeks ago. Sepati, the (pretty) _____ of the principal's three daughters is wearing a hat for the sun. Her hat is (attractive) _____ than the hat of her sister, Christine. Thoko's sunglasses are the (expensive) _____. She thinks it is (good) _____ to wear sunglasses than a hat.

Activity 6. ADVERBS

DEFINITION: Adverbs give us more information about verbs, adjectives or other adverbs.

a) Complete these sentences with an adverb using the word given in brackets:

i) He ran _____. (fast)

ii) The lecturer spoke _____. (loud)

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iii) He drank his tea _____. (thirsty)

iv) She answered the phone _____. (immediate)

v) He writes to his parents _____. (occasion)

b) **Fill in the correct degree of comparison in brackets**:

i) Thabo, Jack, and Tebogo want to go to the movies. They have little money. Thabo has the (little) _____ money and Jack has (little) _____ than Tebogo.

ii) Mary speaks (good) _____ Sesotho than Anna. However, Anna speaks German very (good) _____.

Activity 7. PREPOSITIONS

DEFINITION: Prepositions are a group of linking words which show the relationship between two nouns.

Fill in the appropriate prepositions in the following sentences:

i) Speak _____, I cannot hear you.

ii) _____ spite _____ many difficulties the show went very well.

iii) Don't be _____ such hurry; I can't keep _____ with you.

iv) You can rely _____ me to stand _____ you if you are in trouble.

v) I know I can depend _____ you.

vi) She was accompanied _____ her mother.

vii) I am accustomed _____ the heat.

viii) She was encouraged _____ her teacher's praise.

ix) I don't know how to get _____ touch _____ Mrs Mabitsela.

x) I have nothing _____ common _____ him, so we have put an end _____ our friendship once and _____ all.

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UNIT 6
Verbs

Activity 1. <u>Read the passage below</u>:

Not too long ago, life in the small rural village of Makotse in the Northern Province was uneventful. Francina Kanyane, a resident of Makotse, remembers the past. "After work I would come home and find my friends bored and depressed." But in 1995, Mello and Malema decided that since their country was in the process of transformation, they should try to transform their own village. Their first idea was to start a community garden. After holding community meetings with traditional leaders, 33 women started the Bakone Garden Project, each contributing R20 towards the purchase of seeds and renting a tractor.

Activity 2. <u>Comprehension</u>
Answer the questions below:

a) Which ADJECTIVES (describing words) show that life was uneventful for women in Makotse?

The women were _____

b) With what did two of the residents decide to transform their village?

_____

_____

c) What did the Bakone Garden Project buy with the members' first contributions?

_____

Activity 3. <u>Using verbs</u>

Write YOUR OWN complete sentences with the following verbs:

i) transform

_____

ii) decide

_____

iii) purchase

_____

iv) contribute

_____

v) start _____

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Activity 4. **THE CORRECT FORMS OF IRREGULAR VERBS: complete the table below:**

Base form of verb (Present tense form)	**Past**	**Past participle** (used together with has/have/had and with passive voice)
break		
	bit	
		left
drink		
feel		
	froze	
	knew	
		torn
pay		
	took	

Activity 5. **Replace the underlined verbs in the sentences below. Use each of the verbs provided in the block only once.**

trudged	dashed	predicted	exclaimed	obtained
ordered	mumbled	argued	whispered	continued

i) "Come here" the teacher said. _____

ii) The man said that that would happen. _____

iii) "I'm sorry", I said, very embarrassed. _____

iv) I got my degree last year. _____

v) He walked along the road. He was tired from the long walk. _____

vi) Mary didn't want anyone to hear her so she said her name. _____

vii) "No, I do not believe that smoking has any advantages, "Tebogo said.

_____

viii) "What a surprise!" Mrs Kekana said. _____

ix) When it started raining Norman ran into the house. _____

x) I stayed overnight at the motel and went on my journey the next day. _____

Some **CONCORD** rules:
i) Either George OR you have done it. (The verb agrees with the subject nearest the verb)
ii) Sentences beginning with 'it' or 'what" are followed by a verb in the singular e.g. What troubles me is the many students missing classes.

Activity 6. CONCORD

Underline the correct form of the words given in brackets.

i) Neither Vusi nor you (was/ were) in the classroom; nor (was/were you).
ii) All of this (is/ are) mine.
iii) All of these (is / are) mine.
iv) Ten percent of the farm (is / are) grazing land.
v) Two thirds of the voters (is/ are) women.
vi) There (is/ are) no errors.
vii) Our team (has / have) won three matches.
viii) Our team (has / have) been arguing about the rules.
ix) Eggs, butter, and cheese (is/ are) very nourishing foods.

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x) Eggs and bacon (is /are) my favourite meal for breakfast.
xi) Either Tsebo or his brother (is / are) usually in class.
xii) Neither the coach nor the players (has/ have) seen today's newspapers.
xiii) Neither of us (was/ were) at the match.
xiv) Everybody (has/ have) left.

Activity 7. **Use your dictionary to match the words in Column A with their correct meanings in Column B:** ⚠ **Ask if you do not understand how to do this exercise!!**

Verb	Meaning	Answer
1.modify	**a. go before**	**1.**
2.browse	**b. make up, lie,**	**2.**
3. fabricate	**c. make suitable**	**3.**
4. precede	**d. look at casually**	**4.**
5. adapt	**e. make changes**	**5.**

Activity 8. **Use the following suffixes (or prefixes) in the block to form VERBS from the words provided:**

⚠ Look up the *suffixes* and *prefixes* in your dictionary.

-fy -ate -ed -en -em -ise en/ em- e-

i) to make **pure** _____
ii) to help or give **power** _____
iii) to **award** (in the past) _____
iv) to make **solid** _____
v) to make **able** _____
vi) to have a **fantasy** _____
vii) to make **longer** _____
viii) to make **terminal** _____
ix) to make very angry (**rage**) _____
x) to find fault (**critic**) _____

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Activity 9. <u>Rewrite the passage below and change all the verbs to the present tense:</u>

I was busy preparing the evening meal in the yard in front of the hut. Camara was playing safely nearby and I had no time to keep an eye on him. When I looked up I saw him pushing a reed down the throat of a big, fat snake. I was so horrified that for a moment I was fixed to the spot, not knowing what to do. I shouted 'Camara, stop. Leave it. Leave it.' My heart was thumping as I flew across the yard, grabbed my little boy and hugged him to my breast. The snake slid off round the hut.

Activity 10 <u>REWRITE the paragraph below changing the pronoun *I* to *She* and *We* to *They* and the verbs to the PAST tense.</u>

I am 17 years old. I have a boyfriend. We seem to be made for each other. We like doing the same things — dancing, listening to music, going to the cinema — and we see each other every day. We think that one day we will get married. However, my parents disagree. My father says I need to get a qualification.

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UNIT for Self study
Prepositions and Phrasal Verbs

Activity 1. Define the following grammatical terms and give examples:

preposition: _____

Examples: _____

adverb: _____

Examples: _____

Activity 2. Prepositions associated with TIME:

Fill in the blanks with a suitable preposition *at, **for, in*** or ***on.***

1. My brother, Kgomotso, is arriving in Johannesburg _____ Saturday, _____ 15h00. Usually _____ a Saturday we spend the day quietly at home, but this time we will drive to the airport. _____ the holidays we will show Kgomotso how everything has changed in town since he left. _____ Easter my sister Thembi is arriving. _____ Christmas they will both be back in Germany where they work.
2. When is Kgomotso arriving? _____ Saturday.
3. What time will he arrive? _____ 15h00.
4. Will he be here for Christmas? No, _____ Christmas both he and Thembi will be in Germany again.
5. You will be met _____Monday _____ 2:30.
6. We came to South Africa _____ 1976.
7. We came to South Africa _____ June 3rd, 1976.
8. William Shakespeare died _____his birthday.
9. _____ March, we went to Cape Town _____ two weeks.
10. I hope my friends will come _____Tuesday.
11. America was discovered _____1492.
12. It often gets cool_____ the evening.

Activity 3. Prepositions of Place: LOCATION
Fill in the blanks with a suitable preposition: *above, against, at, in, near, on* or *under.*

1. The milk was put _____ top of the fridge.
2. Heathrow Airport is _____ London.
3. We live _____the football stadium.
4. Don't lean_____ the wall, you'll get dirt_____ your coat.
5. This morning it was raining. We waited for the bus _____ the shelter so that we wouldn't get wet.

6. The people who live _____ us were making a lot of noise last night. We went upstairs and asked them to be quiet.
7. A new bank is being built_____ the one I usually use. It seems really silly to build two banks so close to each other.
8. When I was _____ Pretoria I stayed_____ a hotel.
9. After the stamps were stuck _____the envelopes, the letters were put____ the postbox.
10. The museum is _____the new stadium.

Activity 4. Prepositions of Place: MOVEMENT

Fill in the blanks with a suitable preposition: ***across, down, from, into, off, on, onto, over, past, through, to, towards*** or ***up.***

1. The bottle rolled _____the table and fell _____the floor.
2. David dived_____the swimming pool and swam _____one end _____the other.
3. As I was walking_____the stairs, I met my friend coming _____.
4. The cat was helped _____ the rooftop by the fireman.
5. When I saw Mr. Smith coming_____ me, I went_____ a shop because I didn't want to talk to him.
6. It is easy to get_____the museum on the other side of the river. Just go_____ the cinema and walk _____the bridge.
7. Planes flying_____ our house make a lot of noise.
8. The papers were taken _____ the drawer and put _____ the table.
9. He came_____ South Africa _____Russia.
10. The dog jumped _____the hoop.
11. A lot of books were brought_____his old home in London _____ his new home in Polokwane.
12. The toothpaste cap rolled_____the basin and _____ the drain.
13. Way _____in the sky, a plane could be seen making its way right_____ the middle of the clouds.
14. Mary couldn't see anything as she walked_____the darkened room. Suddenly, the lights were turned on, and everyone shouted, "Surprise!"
15. The diver jumped_____ the diving board and plunged gracefully _____the swimming pool.

Activity 5. Expressions with Prepositions

Fill in the blanks with a suitable expression chosen from the list below.

at a moment's notice	by accident	in a hurry	on duty
at first sight	by far	in common	on purpose
at least	by hand	in half	on the house
at once	by heart	in the end	on the phone
	by surprise	in the way	on the whole
		in touch	

(Use your dictionary to look up those you do not know)

1. There has been an accident. Call an ambulance_____.
2. The restaurant owner gave us all drinks for free. He said, "The drinks are _____
3. Donald and Jane cut the sandwich_____ and then shared it.
4. Of all Shakespeare's plays, *Henry V* is _____ my favourite.
5. When David met Anna, it was love _____.
6. She tripped me _____. I'm certain that she didn't do it intentionally.
7. Don't talk _____too long; I'm expecting an important phone call.
8. I hadn't known David was in town. Meeting him on Jaffa Road quite took me _____.
9. One would never guess that Adam and Max are brothers, since they have very little _____
10. True friends are prepared to help each other _____
11. I can't stop now, I'm _____.
12. Your car is _____; I can't get out of my parking space.
13. When I was young, we had to learn poetry _____and then recite it out loud in front of the whole class.
14. When we leave school, let's keep _____with each other.
15. Dick won't be home from the army this weekend; he's_____.
16. That wasn't an accident; you did that _____.

PHRASAL VERBS?

Kgotse turned down the chance to work in Kwa-Zulu Natal.
The war broke out in 1939.
The lecturer will not put up with bad behaviour.

Turned down, broke out, and **put up** are examples of phrasal verbs.
Phrasal verbs are verbs that consist of 2, or sometimes, 3 words. The first word is a verb followed by an adverb (turn *down*) or a preposition (broke *out*) or both (put *up with*). You can work out the meaning of some phrasal verbs, such as **sit down**; but others have idiomatic meanings that you need to learn. The separate meanings of **put**, **up**, and **with**, do not add up to the meaning of **put up with** (=tolerate).

Activity 6. Using your DICTIONARY find the phrasal verbs formed with the verbs: take, break, find, sell
Write a sentence using each example in a sentence (e.g *make up:* I made up a story.)

_____

_____

_____

_____

REVISION EXERCISES

1. Complete the table below by converting the provided words to their other parts of speech. (Some will not be able to be converted to all the parts of speech – insert a dash in that case, e.g.:

NOUNS	VERBS	ADJECTIVES	ADVERBS
purpose	**-**	**purposeful**	**purposefully**
encouragement	**encourage**	**encouraging (advice)**	**encouragingly**

TEST YOURSELF AND AWARD YOURSELF MARKS AS INDICATED BELOW EACH EXERCISE

USE YOUR DICTIONARY

NOUNS	VERBS	ADJECTIVES	ADVERBS
	satisfy		
		beautiful	
			slavishly
	know		
		sick/ sickly	
survival/ survivor			
	endanger		

(20x1/2 = 10)

2. Fill in the correct form of the word in brackets in the sentences below:

i) The father carried his _____(sleep) baby to bed.

ii) The concerned mother watched _____ (anxious) over her sick child.

iii) Giving women the vote has _____(power) them.

iv) The way to hell is paved with good _____ (intend).

v) A few hours of sleep will _____ (energy) you.

(5x1=5)

3. **Look at the following passage. Underline the form of the word in brackets which you think is appropriate in the sentence.**

(Combat/ combating/ combatted) poverty will require (create/ creation/ creativity), spontaneity and flexibility. But for these characteristics (flourish/ flourishing/ flourished/ to flourish), the kind of environment will have to be created in which all three characteristics are (nurture/ nurturing/nurtured) and (encourage/ encouraging/ encouraged). In that way, companies will (success/ succeed/ successful), said Clem Sunter, (a/ an/ the) chairman of corporate affairs at Anglo-American.

4. **Rewrite the following sentences using the word/s given in brackets. You may change or leave out some words but keep the sentence as close to its original meaning as possible.**

a) I was the person most surprised by his success as an actor. (more)

_____

b) We couldn't go on our trip because of the rain. (prevented)

_____

c) I like to have a cup of coffee after my dinner. (enjoy)

_____

d) I haven't any time to stand and talk now. (no)

_____

e) There's no milk in the carton. (isn't)

_____

f) I was very surprised that she played the piano so well. (how well)

_____

g) "Stand still, everyone," said the policeman. (ordered)

_____

h) It's useless to expect Billy to tidy his room. (no use)

_____

i) Our teacher sometimes lets us talk during lessons. (allows)

_____

j) The hijacker forced the pilot to fly to Damascus. (made)

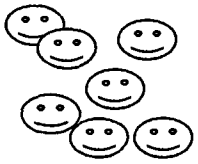
_____

k) You should not have gone to the beach without a hat. (when)

_____

l) I'm sorry to tell you that you failed the exam. (didn't)

_____



UNIT 7
Tenses

Activity 1. Reading

Getting down to Business

Kwaito kingpin Mandoza could have become a gangster. Instead he's overcome the problems of his youth to carve out a successful music career, writes ***DIANE COETZER*** (taken from and adapted from *Sunday Times Magazine April 16, 2000)*

Kwaito king, ex-convict, now role model, and long-time resident of Zola South, Soweto: this is Mandoza, strolling around the seaside town of Fish Hoek's quiet streets, thinking of the right words for a chorus. This is where he is laying the foundations of his new CD with Gabi 'Ibomvu' Le Roux of Groove City Studios. 22-year-old Mandoza is now a main figure on the Kwaito scene and a role model to his thousands of fans. But this is something that *almost* didn't happen.

Life was not easy in the Tshabalala household where Mandoza lived with his two sisters, mother and grandparents. "There was lots of love, really. But my father drank too much. I mean we could be starving to death in the house but he would find cash for himself somewhere. We gave him plenty of chances but he kept messing up."

Growing up in Zola was hard, with the gangster life looming large over all youngsters in the township. The gangster life was made even more attractive by Zola's high unemployment rate. Mandoza ended up in jail for stealing a car.

"I was just a teenager when it happened, just sixteen. And, you know, it was hard to resist the older guys in Zola, who were gang members and who were always pressuring the younger kids into taking part in crime. So I landed up in Sun City (Diepkloof jail) with the old timers for one-and-a-half years. It was hard. Even basic things — like in jail you eat twice a day only and I wasn't used to that. Also staying in one place for the whole day and seeing the same people every day drove me mad. But in Sun City I dreamt about becoming a real musician and singer so this really is a dream come true."

Mandoza came out and, instead of finding his way back onto the streets, was determined to be an artist of note. Mandoza says much of his strength at ditching a life of crime is because of his mother. "My mother always believed in me," he says. "She knew that there was something different about me because I liked music, big time. My family are churchgoers so gospel music was always around. And then I used to listen to the Toyota Top 20 on radio and loved the R&B sounds coming out of it." Together with music-mad childhood friends, S'bu, Siphiwe and Sizwe, Mandoza formed Chiskop. The group was not an overnight success.

"We had been together for eight years and we were almost ready to give up when we got our recording deal," recalls Siphiwe. But after the release of their debut album, *Klaimer,* and the success of the recent *Ghetto 2000,* Chiskop are at Kwaito's forefront.

Activity 2. Comprehension

Answer the following questions. Answer in complete sentences where necessary.

i) What made gangster life attractive?

_____

ii) What is a role model?

_____

iii) Was Mandoza's band immediately successful? Substantiate your answer.

_____

iv) What is a 'debut album'? _____

Activity 3. Tenses

Rewrite paragraph 1 in the past tense.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

**Learn the time words associated with each of the tenses e.g. everyday, yesterday, already etc.*
**Look up the unfamiliar words in your dictionary.*
**Go to the library and look up the negative form of verbs in a grammar book.*

Activity 4. Give the correct form of the words in brackets:

Among the ultra-marathons of the world the Comrades of South Africa 1. (stand) supreme. There 2. (be) standard marathon races with longer histories, but among 'the long ones' there 3. (be) not one that can compare with this gruelling 90 km test of human courage 4. (devise) by Vic Clapham so that the comrades of the First World War 5. (can) honour the memory of those soldiers who 6. (not return) from the battlefields.

People 7. (laugh) at Vic Clapham when he 8. (decide) to organize a race between Pietermaritzburg and Durban. This 8. (be) just after the First World War. Clapham applied to the ex-soldiers' association, the Comrades of the Great War, to stage the race. When Clapham first 10. (apply) in 1918 the permit 11. (refuse). He again applied in 1919 and 1920 without success, but in 1921 it was granted.

The first race 12. (hold) on 24 May 1921 and thirty-four runners 13. (face) the starter that morning. With this, Vic Clapham 14.(realize) his dream. The first Comrades, run from Pietermaritzburg to the coast, 15. (win) by William Rowan, who, before the start predicted that he 16. (finish) in nine hours. His winning time was 8 hours and 59 minutes.

Despite some minor setbacks in the early years, the Comrades 17.(grow) steadily over the years, with thousands of runners 18. (attempt) the murderous route with its formidable climbs.

The Comrades 19. (have) an atmosphere that no other race can equal. Maybe it is in the throng that 20. (fill) the street at the start, or the marvelous rest at the finish – but the Comrades has that special aura that 21.(make) it a race such as one 22. (not find) anywhere else in the world.

1._____
2._____
3._____
4._____
5._____
6._____
7._____
8._____
9._____
10._____
11._____
12._____
13._____
14._____
15._____
16._____
17._____
18._____
19._____
20._____
21._____
22._____

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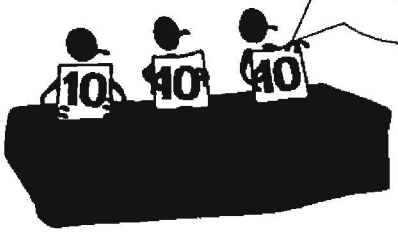
To finish the Comrades is an achievement in itself, and this race is rich, not only in tradition, but in heroes. Most often the heroic deeds 23. (not come) from the stars, but from the slower runners. In the record books their names 24. (be hide) among the thousands who 25. (complete) the race but that 26. (not make) make their achievements any less commendable.

23. _____
24. _____
25. _____
26. _____

As you read the above passage, revise previous units by taking note of the punctuation, new vocabulary, and the use of different verb forms.

Verb-form of Tenses (For these you **must** know your verbs and their different forms)
Learn the 3 main forms:

Look up the list of verb forms in your **dictionary.**



IRREGULAR VERBS

Base/root/ simple present tense form	Past tense	Past Participle
write	wrote	written
sleep	slept	slept
run	ran	run

The list is much longer. (A short list is in the previous uni.t)
Learn them off by heart.

When do we use them?
The base/ root or simple form is used in the *Simple Present Tense* e.g. I write a letter; She writes a letter.
It is used together with the auxiliary verbs *do, shall, will, can, may, might* (all except *has* and *have)* and the negative *not* e.g. *I do not like sweets. She likes vegetables. She does not like chocolate. He can drive a car; Tebogo did not find his brother.*
The past tense form is as its name says used in the past tense.
The third column - the past participle is used with the auxiliary verbs to form the perfect tenses e.g. Mary has eaten her sandwich; I have forgotten to bring my book; After he had mown the lawn, he washed the car. It is also used with the verb *be* (is, am, are, was, were) in the passive voice, e.g. *My dog was bitten by the cat.*
The report was sent to the principal.

For more information go to your teacher or consult a grammar textbook.

Your dictionary (the Advanced Learner's Dictionary can also be used as a grammar book.

RULE 1.: In the Present Simple Tense the Third Person Subject (he, she, it, or anybody you are talking about) has an -s at the end of the present tense form of the verb . For example:
Salome takes the bus to work.
The student studies until late every night.
The earth revolves on its axis.

RULE 2- Remember that verbs in the past tense can be regular (*jumped, cooked, baked interpreted, expressed*) or irregular (*wrote, ate, found*) and as seen from the examples this affects their FORM in the past tense.

For example:
Sheba, our dog, jumped over the fence.
The burglar ran for his life when Sheba, our dog, chased him.

RULE 3: *Shall* and *will* + the simple verb (root/ base) form are used for the Simple future tense (*shall leave*); *shall / will* + be +-ing for the Continuous Future and *shall/will* + past participle for the Future Perfect.

For example:
The students will not attend class next week.
Sello will leave for Botswana this evening.
Nathi will be singing in the choir competition next week. (Future Continuous)
I shall have finished all my marking by the time the students return. (Future Perfect)

TO GET YOUR TENSES RIGHT YOU MUST, ONCE AGAIN, READ AND READ AND READ, AND THEN WRITE REGULARLY AND DO EXERCISES.

Activity 5

a) Fill in the correct form of the verb given in brackets.

Once a week my father 1._____ (go) to the supermarket. He always 2. _____ (spend) a lot of money because he 3._____ (buy) a lot of food. I often 4. _____ (go) too and 5. _____ (help) him choose. Sometimes we don't 6. _____ (carry) our purchases ourselves, because they 7. _____ (be) too heavy; so we 8. _____ (get) the supermarket to deliver the goods. When everything 9. _____ (arrive), I 10. _____(put) it away.

b) Underline the TIME WORDS in the above sentences.

Activity 6 Fill in the Simple Present Tense in the questions below.

a) _____(you/brush) your teeth every morning?

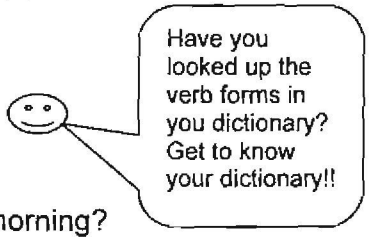
b) _____(do/Mr Smith) live near you?

c) Where _____(Mrs Khoza/ teach)?

d) I _____(not/ like) watching TV all evening.

e) At what time _____(you/ leave) for school in the morning?

f) You _____(seem) to work all day and night; when _____(you/sleep)?



Activity 7. Fill in the Present Simple or Present Continuous (Progressive) Tenses.

1.) I usually _____ (drive) to work, but today I _____(walk).

2.) "Hi, Pat. How _____ (you/be) today? We _____ (just/ go) for a short walk. _____(you /feel) like coming with us?" No, not really, thanks. There _____ (be) a good programme on TV and _____ (want) to see it."

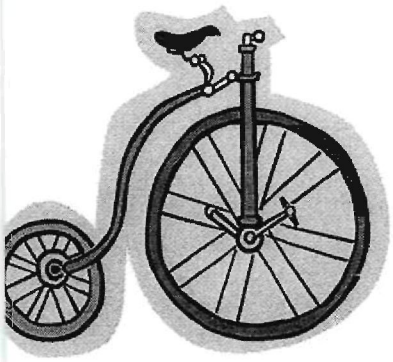
3.) "_____(you/do) anything tonight?"
"I _____ (not know) yet, but I _____ (not want) to stay in."

4.) What an awful party this _____(be)! All the girls and boys _____(sit) on separate sides of the room, and no one _____ (dance) or even _____ (talk) to each other.

Activity 8 Fill in the Present Simple or Present Continuous (Progressive) Tenses.

The picture below 1. _____ (come) from an old book about bicycles. We 2._____(call) this bicycle a penny-farthing. It 3. _____ (get) its name from two old English coins: the penny, which was big, and the farthing which was small. In the picture we 4. _____(see) a village scene. A man 5. _____(cycle) along the village street. Some bystanders 6. _____ (watch) the cyclist, a chicken and a goose 7. _____ (scamper) out of the way, a dog 8. _____ (chase) the bicycle, and a policeman 9. _____ (run after) the cyclist. A lot of school children 10. _____ (stand) behind the school fence. They 11. _____ (wave) at the cyclist and 12. _____ (cheer).

Of course, the two wheels of a modern bicycle 13. _____ (be) the same size, and the cyclist 14. _____ (not sit) above the front wheel, he 15. _____ (sit) above the back one. The modern bicycle has come a long way since the days of the penny-farthing.



Activity 9 Now fill in the Past Tenses:

3.1 Fill in the correct form of the verb in the Simple Past or Past Continuous Tense.

a) I _____(not hear) you when you _____ (knock) on the door, because I _____ (play) the piano.

b) The children _____ (play) while their mother _____ (cook) the dinner.

c) When we _____ (arrive) at his home, he _____ (listen) to the news on the radio. Apparently he _____ (find) it very interesting, because he _____ (ignored) us completely.

d) _____ (you see) the Eiffel Tower when you _____(go) to Paris?

e) The baby _____ (crawl) across the room when he _____ (bump) his head on a chair.

f) Why _____ (you forget) to buy bananas when you _____ (go) shopping?

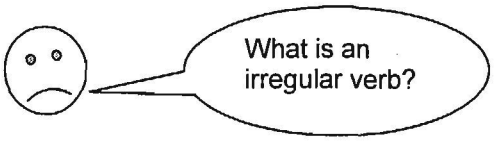
g) Sagaila _____ (trip) over a stone while he _____ (run). He _____(fall) and _____(break) his arm.

h) The police _____ (enter) the bank and _____ (catch) the robbers while they _____ (still/ try) to break open the safe.

i) Rose _____ (drop) the plates while she _____ (put) them away.

j) "I _____ (ring) you about nine o' clock last night but no one _____ (answer) the phone."

" Well, I _____ (watch) a film on television and probably _____ (not hear) the phone."



Activity 10. Complete the list of irregular verbs below.

N.B. You must know all the irregular verbs AND how to spell them. You will lose one whole mark in a paragraph or an essay if you write/ use the wrong form.

	BASE/ROOT/PRESENT	PAST SIMPLE	PAST PARTICIPLE
1.	dream	dreamt, dreamed	dreamt, *dreamed*
2.	_____	_____	drunk
3.	drive	_____	_____
4.	_____	ate	_____
5.	_____	_____	fallen
6.	_____	felt	_____
7.	_____	_____	fought
8.	find	_____	_____
9.	fling	_____	_____
10.	_____	flew	_____
11.	forget	_____	_____
12.	freeze	_____	_____
13.	_____	_____	got (BrE), gotten *(AmE)*
14.	_____	gave	_____
15.	go	_____	_____

What does the abbreviation *AmE* stand for?

Activity 11. Rewrite the following passage in different tenses:

A Lazy Man's Reward

Everyday Ananse sends his wife to trade in the market and his sons to work on his farm, and he remains at home with his five-year-old daughter. However, at noon Ananse always becomes hungry and he says to his daughter, "Go to the back of the house and dig some yams. Prepare them and put them on the fire. Also make a groundnut stew and then take the yams and mash them." Confidently Ananse goes to his hammock to rest, and there he waits expectantly for the dinner that his daughter tries to prepare in vain.

a) Rewrite the entire passage changing *Every day* to *Tomorrow.* Begin *Tomorrow Ananse will send....* Omit the word *always* and remember to change the tense of verbs to the future wherever it is necessary.

b) Rewrite the entire passage changing *Every day* to *Yesterday.* Begin *Yesterday Ananse sent....* Omit the word *always* and remember to change the tense of the verbs to their past tense form wherever it is necessary.

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c) Rewrite the entire passage changing *Every day* to *By 9 o'clock yesterday.* Begin *By 9 o'clock yesterday Ananse had sent.* ... Omit the word *always* and remember to change the tense of verbs to the past perfect wherever it is necessary.

Activity 12. <u>A student wrote the following paragraph. Correct it.</u>

In a election day people we gather in the voting station standing in a long lines carrying Id books, they were first checked if they registered to vote before the voting date. Especially does we voting for the first time.

WRITING TEST: At the end of April) you will write at least <u>2 short paragraphs</u> – each on a different topic in a different TENSE. Your lecturer will tell you on which day and during which class.

Make sure that you know the rules of sentence structure, punctuation and tenses, as well as the grammar you have done in the other units.

UNIT 8

Active and Passive Voice

Activity 1. Read the passage below closely.

Soccer roots

Association football, commonly known as soccer, is an ancient game which has changed and developed over the centuries. Today it is played and watched by more people than any other sport in the world. From its earliest days until the 19th century, football was a brutal and reckless pursuit. At the time of the Roman invasion of Britain, a football game was almost a battle between whole villages, using the distance between them as a pitch. The goals were sometimes six kilometres apart. People were often injured and sometimes killed. In fact, there is a tale that the first ball was the head of a dead Danish bandit.

Activity 2. Comprehension

Are the following statements TRUE or FALSE? (Write T or F). Quote (write down the exact words) the phrase from the passage that supports your answer.

i) Soccer is also called association football. _____

_____

ii) The game of soccer has always stayed the same. _____

_____

iii) No other sport, today, is as popular as soccer. _____

_____

iv) Football has always been a violent sport._____

_____

Activity 3. Look up the meaning of the following words in your dictionary and write down the APPROPRIATE MEANING FOR THIS CONTEXT.

ancient _____

brutal _____

reckless _____

pursuit _____

pitch _____

bandit _____

Activity 4. Underline the passive voice verb phrases in the newspaper report below:

Secondary schools are searched.

Dagga and knives were discovered when the police hit on two secondary schools in Seshego yesterday morning in the search for drugs, guns and other weapons.

Learners of Mohlakaneng Secondary School in Seshego's Zone 1 were taken by surprise when a contingent of officials attached to the Crime Prevention Unit in Seshego and the Polokwane Dog Unit converged on the school early yesterday morning, acting on tip-offs on alleged drug-trafficking and gun-smuggling on school premises. Shortly after arriving at the school a large knife was discovered discarded on the school premises. Learners were requested to leave their school bags in their respective classrooms...

Adapted from *Northern Review*, 20-21 March, 2003

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NB. Take note of the punctuation used in the above report: commas, full stops, capital letters, hyphens, etc.

IF YOU INTEND WORKING FOR A NEWSPAPER, YOU WILL HAVE TO LEARN TO USE THE PASSIVE VOICE AND KNOW YOUR PUNCTUATION.

NOTES: Active and Passive Voice

In sentences written in ACTIVE VOICE, the subject performs the action expressed in the verb; the subject acts.
E.g. The dog bites the boy. The subject 'the dog' is acting ('doing' the action) – It bites

ACTIVE VOICE

The dog bites the boy (Subject: **The dog**; Verb/ action: **bites**; Object: **the boy**)

To change this sentence into the PASSIVE VOICE, write the object in the front of the sentence – *The boy*. Now you must CHANGE the verb (you cannot say *The boy bites the dog* – it does not mean the same as *The dog bites the boy*. The verb is changed to *is bitten*. Then you add the word (preposition) ***by.***

Passive voice
The boy is bitten by the dog.

- Sometimes the use of passive voice can create awkward sentences E.G A *beautiful dress has been bought for me by my mother.*
- Also, overuse of passive voice throughout an essay can cause your prose (the paragraph you have written) to seem flat and uninteresting.

REMEMBER: THE **MEANING** OF THE SENTENCE MUST STAY THE SAME WHEN YOU CHANGE IT INTO THE ACTIVE OR THE PASSIVE VOICE.

When to use the PASSIVE VOICE

In scientific writing, however, the passive voice is more readily accepted. Using it allows one to write without using personal pronouns or the names of particular researchers as the subjects of sentences, e.g the active sentence: *Scientists have conducted research to find a cure for Aids* is shorter and clearer when changed to the passive voice: *Research has been conducted to find a cure for Aids.* The passive is also used in newspapers where they may not mention the names of people who committed crimes. E.g. A newspaper will write: *A man was murdered at the bus stop* rather than *Mr Smith murdered a man at the bus stop.* Names may not be mentioned until it has been proved who committed the murder.

You can recognise passive voice sentences because

i) the verb phrase will always include a form of *be*: *is, am, are, was, were* or *been*;
ii) the sentence may include the phrase "by the..." after the verb;
iii) the agent or 'doer' of the action, if named, is the object of the preposition 'by' – e.g. *The cake was eaten (verb) by* ***the children****(object).*

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Activity 5. Complete the table below by putting the verbs in the correct active or passive voice form:

ACTIVE VOICE	PASSIVE VOICE
She eats the apple.	
She ate the apple.	
	The apple has been eaten.
Thabo is washing the car now.	
	The car was being washed then.
The secretary types the minutes.	
The secretary has typed the minutes.	
The secretaries typed the minutes.	
The manager wrote a report.	
	A report is written after each meeting.

Activity 6. Rewrite the following sentences. A word or the word order may change or you may need to add a word; BUT don't change the general MEANING of the sentences. Use the words provided

i) My little dog was bitten by a poisonous snake.

A poisonous snake _____

ii) The old man has deposited the cheque.

The cheque _____

iii) Mrs Meyer will call the doctor immediately.

The doctor _____

iv) My grandmother has knitted me a beautiful jersey.

I _____

Activity 7. Change the following sentences into the passive voice. (Some, however, cannot be changed into the passive. Why not? Write 'no passive' next to those sentences).

i) Most office workers use computers today.

_____

ii) John left at 3 o' clock.

_____

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iii) In Libya people speak Arabic.

_____

iv) She will type the minutes of the meeting in time.

_____

v) Mr Moseya has received the agenda

_____

Activity 8. <u>You are the manager of a car factory. You are talking about the stages in the manufacture of cars to the president of Ford Cars. Rewrite this description in a more formal style (avoid the use of we or I), using the passive where POSSIBLE.</u>

"Well, in our factory we build the chassis first, then the car body. Next we hang the doors in the body and then we treat it with protective agents and paint it. After that we fit the windows. We then have to put all the mechanical bits in: the engine, gear box, suspension and brakes. Then we finish off the inside and fit the lights and other electrical parts. Finally we try out each car on our test track to make sure everything works correctly."

TASK FOR MARKS:

You will write a comprehension test for marks. Look out for notices informing you of the date.

UNIT 9

Reading Skills

(Bring your dictionary)

Don't just read the words one-by-one, but PREDICT what a piece of writing is going to 'give' you – a story, a lesson about life, facts or information.

Activity 1. Look at the six books below. Can you tell from the titles what kinds of books they are?

a) *Micro-Macro Dilemmas in Political Science* by Heinz Eulau
b) *Modern South African Poets* edited by Mongane Wally Serote
c) *Mamlambo and Other Stories* by Bheki Maseko
d) *Five Plays by Oscar Wilde* by Oscar Wilde
e) *Afrika My Music: an autobiography 1957 – 1983* by Es'kia Mphahlele
f) *Things Fall Apart* by Chinua Achebe

Choose a good description from the list for each book.
Write it in the space below (there are some extra descriptions)
The first **one** has been done for you.

a poetry anthology ***a drama anthology***
an autobiography ***a novel***
a book of short stories ***an atlas***
a dictionary ***a comic book*** ***a textbook***

a)
b)
c)
d)
e)
f)

Activity 2. WHAT IS THE BOOK ABOUT? LOOK IN THE TABLE OF CONTENTS.
FOR EXAMPLE: Look at the book's table of contents provided below and then answer the following questions:.

a). For which subject or course could this textbook be prescribed? _____

b). In which chapter and on which page/s would you read up on:

i) things that would prevent good communication? _____
ii) what it means to communicate effectively and accurately? _____
iii) if you want to learn more about note-taking? _____
iv) communication using mainly gestures and signs? _____
v) why it is important to be aware of communication between cultures? _____

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THE COMMUNICATION HANDBOOK

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Activity 3. This is the index of an economics textbook. Scan through it to find the answers to the questions that follow it:

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i) Which page or pages would you turn to if you had to write about:
   a) The Classical School of Economics _____
   b) Aggregate demand applied to the South African Economy _____
   c) Balance of payments _____
   d) Concentration of markets _____

ii) If you had to write about 'banks' which sub-headings could you include in your answer?

_____

_____

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Activity 4. Scan the classified advertisements above to do the following exercises:

i) You are a very busy Human Resources Manager. You want to go on holiday with your husband and 2 young children. You like the KwaZulu-Natal south coast. You do not want to do the cooking while on holiday. You want to be pampered and spoilt; but also do not want to pay more than R265 per person. Find a suitable place to stay for your holiday. Write down the name and e-mail address.

---

ii) You need to book a holiday flat/ apartment for your boss. He wants to go to Durban with his wife and he wants to go 'out of season' and not more than R250 per day. He wants the place to be serviced because he doesn't want his wife to do what she always does – clean the house. There must be a television and undercover parking. Find a suitable flat for him. Write down the name, contact number and fax number.

---

iii) You have worked very hard over the festive season and want to have a relaxing break in your favourite province – Limpopo Province. You do not want to be responsible for cleaning but want to spend the days next to the swimming pool or in the spa. Give the name and telephone number of a suitable place.

(Exercises 1 – 4 should all be done in the first workshop. The next workshop will be devoted to speed reading. Skimming will be practiced in ENG132 together with summarizing skills).

CHECK ALL THE DIFFICULT OR UNFAMILIAR WORDS IN THE PASSAGES USED IN THE ABOVE EXERCISES. CONSCIENTIOUS STUDENTS WILL ALSO PRACTICE THESE SCANNING SKILLS WITH THEIR OWN TEXTBOOKS. GET TO KNOW YOUR TEXTBOOKS IN ALL YOUR SUBJECTS!!!

Activity 5. Reading speed.

The next few passages are for you to practise your reading speed. This is vital for studying. You should be reading a few pages from at least one of your textbooks everyday.

CALCULATE YOUR READING SPEED IN WORDS PER MINUTE. THIS IS THE FORMULA:

$$\frac{\text{NUMBER OF WORDS IN PASSAGE (E.G 400)}}{\text{divided by the time you took in seconds}}$$

e.g 3 mins 30sec = 210 seconds

Therefore $\frac{400 \text{ words} \times 60}{210} = 123{,}8 \text{ wpm}$

As a university student you must aim at a reading speed of 200 wpm.

READING PASSAGES TO PRACTICE READING SPEED:

READING PASSAGE 1

ATTENTION SHOPPERS!

Important news about Shopping Bags

The government has passed a legislation on shopping bags that will directly affect the way you shop. From Friday 9th May 2003, all retailers have to offer the new 30 micron government-regulated shopping bag for sale. We are not allowed to provide free plastic bags to our shoppers anymore.

The reason for the legislation is to help protect our environment in order to make South Africa a better and cleaner place for ourselves and our children. The new 30 micron bag is thicker and will be easier to recycle and to reuse than the current plastic bag.

IT'S STILL YOUR CHOICE! You do not have to buy the new bag.
Here are your options at Pick 'n Pay:

- **You may bring your own bags or boxes or suitable containers with you when you shop at Pick 'n Pay.**
- You may load your purchases into the trolley and take them straight to your car or carry them on your person avoiding the use of bags altogether.
- You may buy the above-mentioned government-regulated bag which comes in 3 sizes (12, 16 and 24 litres) for a maximum price of 46c each, VAT included. This price also includes an environmental levy of 2c which will be used to clean up South Africa and educate the public about environmental issues. These bags are kept in dispensers at the till points and are paid for the same way your normal purchases are. Please remember to bring these bags with you the next time you shop!
- The Green Bag is a Pick 'n Pay initiative and is exclusive to the company. This large bag, only available at Pick 'n Pay, is environmentally friendly and sturdy and will last a long time. The price is R5 each, VAT included. So don't see red, go green and help Pick 'n Pay preserve our natural environment with the Green Bag!
- We regret any possible inconvenience to you, our valued customers, but the plastic bag legislation is aimed at making our country a better place. We will be selling these bags at cost and will not make any profit on them. Pick 'n Pay is committed to cleaning up our country and to preserving our natural heritage. We urge our customers to support our initiative aimed at making the world a better place for ourselves and our children.
  (400 words)

Questions:
After you have noted the time it took you to read the passage answer these questions without referring to the passage again.

a) *The writer of this notice is:*
   A the government
   B Pick & Pay
   C the legislation
   D shoppers

b) *The reason for the legislation is:*
   A the new bag is thicker
   B plastic shopping bags are too expensive
   C to help protect our environment
   D to make a profit

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c) Will you <u>have to</u> buy the new shopping bag?
   A yes
   B no
   C sometimes

d) What are your (the shopper's) options at Pick & Pay?
   A carry your purchases yourself
   B bring your own bag
   C buy a government-regulation bag
   D A, B, and C

e) <u>Retailers</u> are:
   A shops that sell directly to the public
   B shops that sell in large quantities for resale
   C shop security that watches out for shoplifting
   D people who shop with their own shopping bags

f) The Green Bag is
   A a bag prescribed by legislation
   B a bag for green vegetables
   C a government-regulated bag in 3 sizes
   D a Pick & Pay initiative

g) In which size do the government-regulated bags come?
   A 12 litres
   B 16 litres
   C 24 litres
   D all of the above

h) The price of the government-regulated bag is
   A 46c plus a 2c environmental levy
   B 46c plus VAT
   C 2c
   D 46c, including VAT and an environmental levy of 2c

i) What does ' recycle' mean?
   A to change waste material to reusable material
   B to return to a place where you were before
   C riding a cycle
   D to do something differently

j) What does the notice apologise for?
   A for preserving our natural heritage
   B for the legislation
   C for not making a profit
   D for the inconvenience

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READING PASSAGE 2

WAYS TO IMPROVE YOUR READING SPEED

In this passage, we shall consider ways in which you can work systematically to improve your reading speed.

1. Improve your vocabulary
We have mentioned several times that difficult words slow you down. You should therefore make it an ongoing project to improve your vocabulary. When you are reading to improve your speed, do not stop for unknown words unless it is absolutely necessary. At all other times, however, make it your business to find out what words mean. Guess meanings from the context; learn how to make *full* use of your dictionary; keep a word-list.

2. Read every day
Most people can find at least fifteen minutes every day to do some light reading:
waiting for the bus; in your lunch hour; before you go to sleep. Make sure that you always have something at hand to read which interests you and which is easy to read. (Do not read a subject text-book during this time!)

3. Make an effort to speed up
Whenever you read something which does not need close study, try to read as quickly as possible. You will find that if you keep making the **effort** to read more quickly, your reading speed will improve. Try to move away from habits which slow you down; try to read a phrase at a time. Use visual aid techniques, if they help you. In other words, move a finger, a pencil or a card across or down the page to encourage your eyes to move at a steady pace.

4. Check your progress
Check your reading speed every three to four days. You can do this by asking a friend to time you for one, five or ten minutes. You could also use an alarm clock or an egg timer. Estimate the average number of words per page for the book you are reading. Then divide the number of words you have read by the number of minutes you have taken. Always use the same kind of easy, general-interest book. Keep a record of your speed; you should soon notice it increasing. Remember, that it is only your own record you are trying to beat; you are not competing with anyone else.

5. **Check your comprehension**
There is little point in increasing your w.p.m. if you do not understand what you are reading. When you are reading to improve your speed, stop every few pages and ask yourself a few questions about what you have read. If you are losing track of the story, go back and re-read the section. Remember that if you understand less than 60% of what you have read, you are definitely reading too fast.

6. High speed exercise
Every now and again, take a few pages from the book you are reading, and read them as fast as you possibly can. Do not worry about comprehension. You will find that after an exercise like this your general speed will be faster - like a car which has been travelling at 180 k.p.h. and finds it difficult to slow down to 60!

(500 words)

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COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS:

A. Select the answer which is most accurate according to what you have read in the passage. Circle the appropriate letter.

1. Vocabulary

A. Whenever you practise faster reading, you should make a note of difficult words.
B. In order to read faster, you need to build up your vocabulary.
C. You should look up every unknown word in your dictionary and write it in a word-list.

2. **Daily reading**

A. You should spend 15 minutes a day reading a challenging academic text.
B. You should spend 15 minutes a day reading something enjoyable and easy-to-read.
C. You should read during your lunch-hour every day.

3. Making an effort

A. If you make an effort to read faster, your speed will improve.
B. Visual aid techniques should always be used to build up speed.
C. You should make an effort to read faster when you are involved in close study.

4. Checking your progress

A. To check your reading speed and comprehension progress, you need the help of a friend.
B. It is not difficult to check your own reading speed and comprehension regularly.
C. Competition with others will motivate you to improve your reading speed and comprehension.

5. High speed practice

A. High speed practice will train you for very fast reading.
B. High speed practice gives your regular reading speed a push forward.
C. All reading speed practice should be high speed practice.

B. Decide whether the following statements are TRUE or FALSE, according to the passage. Circle T or F.

1. Reading faster will improve your vocabulary.	T	F
2. Light reading should only be done when all your study reading has been completed.	T	F
3. Effort is required to improve your reading speed.	T	F
4. You should compare your reading progress with that of your fellow-students.	T	F
5. If you only understand *50%* of what you are reading, you are reading too fast.	T	F

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Vocabulary

Find the following words in the passage and select the meaning you think is most suitable from the choices given.

1. **systematically** (line 1)
   A. hard
   B. in a regular, disciplined way
   C. together with other people
   D. with a special method

2. **ongoing project** (line 4)
   A. something standing out
   B. future plan
   C. continuing plan of action
   D. outward expression

3. **visual aid** (line 16)
   A. first aid
   B. obvious support
   C. imagined assistance
   D. visible object which helps

4. **technique** (line 16)
   A. technician
   B. machine
   C. method of doing something
   D. trick

5. **estimate** (line 21)
   A. calculate roughly
   B. work out carefully
   C. guess
   D. count up

6. **record** (line 23)
   A. plate with music on it
   B. written statement of facts
   C. best speed
   D. report

Sometime in the semester you will be required to do a comprehension test within a <u>limited time</u> (for 45 marks) for marks. This will be your last task for marks before your exam. The more you practise your reading speed, practise concentrating on and understanding the passage at home, the better you will manage the comprehension test.

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UNIT 10

Comprehension test skills

Improve your comprehension test skills by doing the comprehension tests in this unit:
COMPREHENSION TEST 1

You only have 20 minutes to do this comprehension.
Choose and write OR encircle the appropriate answer to the questions below.

Read the TWO passages below (which have been written by two different people) and answer the questions which follow.

First account

Every night down the long, lonely highways drive the solitary "truckers" - long-distance lorry drivers whose great growling vehicles carry much of the material that keeps industry and commerce flourishing. The trucker's day starts at dusk when he sets out in the dwindling daylight up the great main road. As night falls, he comes into his own; he and his mates become the masters of the dark highways. Somewhere on the route a cheerful "truck-inn" provides a half-way house where the trucker can relax over a hot meal and a large mug of strong, hot tea before he sets off on the final stretch of his long journey.

Second account

For long-distance lorry drivers there is nothing but the dreary prospect of never-ending night labour. They have no one to talk to and nothing to look at. Night after night, week after week, year after year - more often than not driving in rain and in bitter cold - they drive up and down the same monotonous roads. Indeed, their one and only relaxation can come at the dingy roadside cafes where they can obtain greasy food and lukewarm stale tea, unappetizingly served up on cracked plates or in ugly tin mugs. It is little comfort for them to be told at such time that their work is industrially and commercially important, true though that may be.

QUESTIONS:

1. Both passages could have a similar title. What title would you give the two passages together?

   _____

2. What does the first writer think of the job of a lorry driver? (Answer in a complete sentence)

   _____

   _____

3. Select from the passage and write down FIVE separate words, not phrases, that support your answer.

   _____ _____ _____ _____ _____

4. What does the second writer feel about his job? (Answer in a complete sentence)

   _____

   _____

5. Prove or support your answer with FIVE words (not phrases) from the second passage.

   _____ _____ _____

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_____ _____

6. The words that reflect (portray, show) the writer's feelings are mainly
   A nouns
   B verbs
   C adjectives
   D prepositions

7. Complete the following sentences which describe the work of truck drivers. Do not use words that express feelings.
   Truck drivers travel mainly _____

   _____ (when?)

   They travel for _____

   They stop _____

   Their work is important to _____

8.1 What do you call someone who has the tendency to be hopeful and to see rather the good part of a situation than the bad part?

An _____

8.2 What do you call the person who is the opposite of the above?

A _____

9. What does the first writer suggest by his use of the phrases "comes into his own" and "masters of the dark highway" ?
   He suggests that _____

   _____

10. There is a literary device that is effectively used in the first writer's description, namely, "great growling vehicles" and "dwindling daylight". What is it called? (Circle the symbol only)
    A. simile
    B. alliteration
    C. irony
    D. metonymy

11. What time of day is meant by "dwindling daylight"?

_____

12. Find a phrase in the first account that means that means a place between the place of departure and one's destination where one can stop for a rest and a meal.

_____

COMPREHENSION 2.

(Spend about **40 minutes** on this comprehension

Read the passage and answer the questions which follow.

A tornado called Flo

Seoul, September 29th
The 200-metre-final

1 The woman wears the number 569. A hundred minutes earlier, in the semi-final, she slashed the world record time of 21,715 seconds to 21,56 seconds.

2 This time she doesn't smile, as her huge legs carry her down the track faster than ever before. The clock stops at 21,34 seconds. The woman falls to her knees and buries her head in her hands as the stadium erupts in a roar.

3 Florence Griffith-Joyner came second in the Los Angeles Olympics four years ago over 200 metres and second again at the World Championships in Rome last year.

4 This black 'chick', who was born in South Central, a black slum in Los Angeles, sports fourteen weird bodysuits - one leg covered the other bare. She wanted to be a childbook-author, a dressmaker and a bank clerk - all at the same time. And she was fast. "Round about eleven seconds" she could always run, she said. She found out that second best in America means you tried hard and you lost.

5 Then she joined the "World Class Athlete Club". Which brings us to a former athlete called Bob Kersee (34), founder of the super-club in the early '80s. Kersee, a lay-preacher, has managed to single-handedly destroy the East German dominance in the female sprints within six months.

6 Kersee married Jackie Joyner (26), who won gold in Seoul in the long jump and the heptathlon. Wife Jackie has a brother named Al, who won the triple-jump in Los Angeles. Al Joyner married Florence Griffith a year ago.

7 Ask them about their relationships and you get some funny answers. Says Bob Kersee: "On the track I'm the coach. At home I'm the husband. It's simple. I don't invite the coach to my house, and he doesn't allow me on the track." Says Jackie: "I hardly ever fight with my husband, but I do with my coach."

8 When Flo joined the super-club, she had to say goodbye to the restaurants and hello to the gym. Cellulite and fat turned to pure muscle and raw power. Bob ordered her to listen to taped voices that urged her to believe that:" You are the best. You can start as fast as Ben Johnson. You run as relaxed as Carl Lewis." Kersee video-taped all her races and played them back to her. He fine-tuned her running style until it was as smooth as that of a tigress.

9 In the end all his hard work paid off. On a hot Saturday afternoon at the Indiana University Stadium a human tornado nicknamed "Flo" burst down the 100-metre-track and crossed the finish line after 10,49 seconds.

10 It was unbelievable. "I thought the clock was malfunctioning," gasped her husband Al, who had just missed his own Olympic qualification in the triple jump.

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11 "Flying Florence" became famous overnight, but all Kersee-Joyner-Griffith clan members stressed that "we are still a family, nothing has changed". Of course. Except a few world records and a few bank accounts.

(*SA Sports Illustrated*: From an article by Gary Day)

Difficult words:
slash – cut, reduce money or time by a large amount
slum – an area of a city where living conditions are very bad and where all the houses are overcrowded and need to be repaired.
cellulite – fat in the human body, especially in the upper legs, which cannot be removed simply by eating less food.

QUESTIONS:

Questions which test the understanding of the passage as a whole:

1. What does the title of the passage suggest about Flo?

_____ (2)

2. What do you think is a clan (in this context)?

_____ (2)

3. Write down the names of the Kersee-Joyner-Griffith clan.

_____ _____

_____ _____ (2)

Reading for detail:

4. CHOOSE THE CORRECT ANSWER

4.1 "The woman falls to the ground and buries her head in her hands" (paragraph 2) because

A she stumbled and tripped over the last few metres.
B she is completely exhausted.
C she is overwhelmed with joy and gratitude.
D she is trying to hide her emotions. (2)

4.2 The Los Angeles Olympic Games were held in
A 1983.
B 1984.
C 1985.
D 1986. (2)

4.3 The writer describes Flo's bodysuits as" weird"(paragraph 4) because they are
A all different.
B strange and bizarre.
C very conspicuous.
D highly individualistic. (2)

4.4 His hard work "paid off" (paragraph 9) means his efforts
A enabled him to settle his debts.
B gave him financial compensation.
C proved to be a success.
D resulted in the spending of a lot of money. (2)

4.5 Kersee is Flo's

A husband.
B brother.
C brother-in-law.
D cousin. (2)

4.6 "Of course" (paragraph 11) expresses the writer's
A complete agreement.
B irritation with the deliberate lie.
C doubts about the sincerity of the remark.
D amusement at the naivety of the remark. (2)

5. Is the following statement TRUE or FALSE? Give a reason for your answer.
Flo's only interest was running.

_____ (2)

6. How do you know that athletics is never discussed at the home of Jackie and Bob and that they do not discuss domestic problems on the track?

Begin your answer: Bob said that

_____

_____ (4)

7. Report what Flo heard on the tapes. Begin your answer:

The voices told her _____

_____ (3)

8. Say in your own words what Al Joyner's first thoughts were after Flo's incredible performance on 16 July.

_____

_____ (2)

9. Is the following statement TRUE or FALSE? Give a reason for your answer.
Jackie and Bob very seldom have differences.

_____ (2)

10. How do you know that Flo smiled while running the semi-final?

_____ (2)

11. Explain what is meant by "the stadium erupts in a roar" (paragraph 2).

_____

_____ (2)

12. What is meant by "Flo had to say goodbye to the restaurants and hello to the gym" (paragraph 8)?

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_____ (2)

13. For each of the phrases or words given below, find one word with the same meaning in the passage:

i) reduce money or time by a large amount _____(2)

ii) an area of a city where houses are overcrowded and need to be repaired _____ (1)

iii) a man involved in the Christian church but not a member of the clergy _____ (2)

Total: 40

Comprehension 3:

Do this comprehension in 40 minutes. You may use your dictionary, BUT remember your time is limited.

Breakthrough

Sound out at last

"There were these mysterious whistles all night — they'd start at dusk and stop at dawn — and they were unlike the call of any animal I'd ever heard." This was two years ago, and biologist Roger Safford was spending a few days on Anjouan Island, in the Comoros group, sandwiched between the African coast and Madagascar. "I kept hearing these strange noises and not knowing what on Earth they could be." He had been to most of the islands around there, and to Madagascar, and so he was confident it wasn't something common.

On that particular trip, the creature was to remain a mystery, and it was two years before Safford was able to return to the island.
"The whole experience was much like the previous trip. It was pouring with rain, the cloud was low, and every night there were the same mysterious whistles." This time, though, Safford had come prepared with recording equipment, and though he still had no idea what sort of creature was making the whistles, he was at least able to take a recording back to his home-base at Mauritius. At that stage, his best guess was that the source of the call was some previously unheard-of seabird — "because seabirds do nest on ocean islands, and often have whistling or echoing calls." And so he sent the tape off to a seabird expert, who confirmed that it sounded like nothing he'd ever heard, either. Safford also played the tape to various experts in Madagascar wildlife, none of whom recognized it.

At that stage, Dr Safford got in touch with the International Council for Bird Preservation (ICBP), in Cambridge, England, which is involved in bird conservation on the Comoros Islands, and which funded his most recent trip to Anjouan, in June. "This time I was finally able to spend time on the search. I spoke to villagers, and described the noise, and they told me the creature making it was called 'badanga' and referred me to their wildlife expert, a 77-year-old gentleman. I just whistled the call, and he said, 'Oh, that's a badanga bird. It's nocturnal, and very rare, and it lives in the forests'." The man's description wasn't enough to indicate to Safford what sort of bird it was, and there were some frustrating wild-goose chases before a villager led him, several days later, to a hollow tree high in the forest.

"And lo and behold, it was an owl." An *Anjouan scops* owl — *Otus capnodes,* in fact. Having been measured and photographed, it was released, and promptly flew straight back to its hole. Safford knew there was a lost owl on Anjouan — it had been described in 1886 —but there had been no sightings since, and so everyone assumed it must be long since extinct. Its rediscovery is all the more remarkable because of the degree to which wildlife has been pushed out of the whole of Anjouan by the human population.

a Roger Safford is a biologist who studies birds. ☐

b He thought he knew the source of the strange noises he heard. ☐

c He first visited Anjouan Island a few months ago. ☐

d The purpose of his return trip was to investigate a mystery. ☐

e Safford is based in Madagascar with other experts. ☐

f The noises Safford heard were made by seabirds. ☐

g The experts in Madagascar identified the bird from the recording. ☐

h The villagers did not have a name for the bird. ☐

i One of the villagers eventually led Safford to the bird. ☐

j Some people believed that the bird had completely disappeared. ☐

(10)

Vocabulary:

Can you match the words in the left-hand column with their definitions (meanings) in the right-hand column?

Use the third column to fill in your answers.

Word	Definition	Answer
1. dusk	a. stated or showed that something was true or correct	1.
2. source	b. not seen very often	2.
3. confirmed	c. unusual or surprising in a way that makes people notice	3.
4. sightings	d. the time of day when the light is almost gone but not dark yet	4.
5. remarkable	e. provided money for	5.
6. nocturnal	f. to fit into a space between two things	6.
7. frustrating	g. see something for only a short time	7.
8. sandwiched	h. the place where something comes from	8.
9. rare	i. causing you to feel impatient because you cannot find or do what	9.

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	you want to	
10. funded	j. active at night	10.

(10)
TOTAL:20

COMPREHENSION 4.
Read passages A and B and answer the questions which follow.
Passage A:

Our own Crocodile Dundees by Ella Janson

1 Chasing criminals in dark alleys, combating riots and patrolling in unrest areas can be regarded as some of the most challenging if not the ultimate experiences that any policeman or woman has to endure in the line of duty as officers of the law. Or so Constables Bosveld Pretorius and Pat Bekker thought until recently. What seemed to be just another routine job i.e. patrolling the border on the banks of the Limpopo river in the Messina region, turned out to be a call upon them to risk their lives in crocodile-infested waters to save a fellow-man's life.

2 Constables Pretorius and Bekker were on their usual routine patrolling the river banks, when they heard screams for help from a 25-year old Zimbabwian refugee, Alfred Ndou, who had already been trapped on an Island in the Limpopo River for four days, because of the recent heavy rainfall in the Botswana region.

3 The river was overflowing its banks, making it not just difficult, but almost impossible to save him. Members of the SAAF had already made several attempts to save him with their chopper, but due to the deluge of water, there was no place to land. To make matters worse the blades of their chopper got caught in telephone lines and they were forced to stop the rescue attempt.

4 Constables Pretorius and Bekker realised that there was nobody else to save the man, who at that stage was in a critical condition. Without any rescue equipment they unhesitatingly jumped into the fierce and raging river (trying not to think of the dozens of crocodiles lurking in the dark depths) and heroically saved Alfred's life.

5 After a few days of hospitalisation, a relieved Alfred was deported back to Zimbabwe, but only after he had thanked the two heroic Crocodile Dundees who had saved his life.

(From: Servamus, July, 1995.)

Passage B:

1 Just out of the egg, a crocodile doesn't look very threatening. But a baby crocodile will grow up to be a master predator that will hunt animals many times bigger than itself. Crocodiles, one of nature's most fearsome reptiles, are also one of the earth's most successful animals – they've been around since dinosaur times. The skin and skeletons of crocodilians (crocodiles, alligators, and caimans) reflect their watery life. Their skin is tough and waterproof. Crocodiles and alligators have all kinds of unique underwater gear. They can see through a special, transparent, third eyelid when under water, and they have a muscular flap that keeps their mouth separate from their windpipe. That way they don't gulp too much water when they are catching prey. Crocs can also close their ears so that water doesn't get in them.

2 Their eye sockets and nostrils are set way up on their heads so that they can float with their nose and eyes above the water. Their legs are short so they don't move very fast on land. They are set up perfectly for swimming though, powering through the water with S-shaped sweeps of

the tail.

Gulp!

3 Indigestible objects, such as stones, pieces of turtle shell, porcupine quills, and bracelets, have been found in the stomachs of crocodiles. Some of these things are parts of the prey that the crocodile has eaten (e.g. the quills and turtle shells), but some (such as the bracelets) may have been snatched up by mistake.

Common Food

4 Zebras and wildebeests are common meals for African crocodiles, who attack these herbivores when they come to drink.

Gentle Jaws?

5 Crocodiles exercise great control over their powerful jaws. They can clamp down on prey with bone-crushing pressure or gently crack an egg to help a hatchling out. And when Mom wants to carry baby crocs to safety, she just opens her mouth and they crawl right in.
(adapted from Microsoft: *Dangerous Creatures*)

QUESTIONS:

Questions which test the understanding of the passage as a whole:

1. In ONE sentence say what Passage A is about.

   Passage A is about _____ (2)

2. What kind of work does a policeman or woman usually regard as the most challenging? (Encircle the letter of the correct answer)
   A the routine jobs
   B chasing criminals in dark, narrow streets
   C patrolling in unrest areas
   D saving people from crocodiles
   E B and C (2)

3. How did Alfred Ndou get off the island? (Circle the correct answer – only the letter.)
   A He swam across the raging river
   B He was picked up by a helicopter
   C Two policemen swam across to fetch him and bring him to safety
   D The SAAF rescued him although they did not have rescue equipment
   (2)

4. Where does the incident described in Passage A take place? (Circle the symbol only)
   A the Messina region
   B Zimbabwe
   C the Botswana region
   D Dundee
   (2)

5. Give an appropriate title to passage B which describes what kind of creature it is. (Not more than 6 words.)

   _____
   (2)

6. **Briefly** list FOUR ways in which crocodiles are adapted to living in the water.

_____

_____

(4)

7. Why are the words 'Crocodile Dundees' (Passage A paragraph5 and the title) written in capital letters?
   A the men come from Dundee
   B the crocodiles are from Dundee
   C it is the name of a film character
   D it is the nickname of one of the constables
   E this incident took place near Dundee

(2)

8. Which 2 or 3 words in Passage A indicate that the river in the story contained very many crocodiles?

(3)

9. *Zebras and wildebeests are carnivores.*
   Is the above statement TRUE or FALSE?
   Quote a sentence or phrase from Passage B to prove your answer.

(2)

10.1 Does the writer of Passage B believe that crocodiles eat people?
   Substantiate your answer from the passage.

(2)

10.2 How does the writer of Passage A view crocodiles?
   Quote two separate phrases to support your answer.

(3)

11. Quote the words from passage B that show that crocodiles have been on earth for many centuries.

(2)

12. Which TWO reasons prevented the SAAF using their helicopter to rescue the refugee. (Draw a circle around the letter only of **two** answers.)

A the helicopter could not land
B the river was overflowing its banks
C they had no rescue equipment in the helicopters
D there were crocodiles lurking in the dark
E the blades of the helicopter got caught in the telephone lines
F the blades of the axes were blunt

(2)

13. Do crocodiles have gentle jaws? Give TWO reasons from the passage to support your answers.

_____

_____

(2)

14. For each of the words or phrases given below find a one word with a similar meaning in the two passages:

a) withstand (passage A – paragraph 1)_____
b) inspecting (passage A – paragraph 2)_____
c) downpour (passage A – paragraph 3)_____
d) expelled from a given place passage A – paragraph 5)
_____
e) a wild animal that kills and eats other animals (passage B – paragraph 1)
_____
f) moving fast and with strength passage B – paragraph 2)
_____
g) food that is unable to be broken down and absorbed (passage B – paragraph 3)
_____

Total 40

Read the guidelines below to ensure that you are prepared for the examination.

June Exam: The Friday, before the start of the official exam at 8.30 am

ENGL 131 - WHAT TO DO ON THE EXAM DAY

1. When you leave your room make sure you have:
(i) Your student card (ii) 2 pens, both full of ink!
(iii) Tippex (iv) A dictionary (v) Anything else you might need - tissues, pencils, water etc.
YOU MAY NOT BORROW ANYTHING FROM ANYONE DURING THE EXAMINATION.

2. At university, look for the announcements which will tell you which **venue** to attend - look on the notice boards near the student centre, at the library in admin etc. You may also be informed in your Engl 131 class.

3. Go to your venue.

4. Outside the venues will be lists which will tell you what your seat number is.
First, make sure it is YOUR venue, then look for your name or your student number and next to it will be your seat number.

5. Wait until you are told to enter the venue. As your go into the venue, show the invigilator your student card.

6. Leave all your books, except your dictionary, at the front of the room

7. Find your SEAT.

8. TURN OFF YOUR CELL PHONE.

9. Fill in your details on the GREEN card. (The subject code for your paper is ENGL131).

10. Remember to write your student number and name on your script (answer sheet/ book)

10. Listen for the invigilator's instructions.

11. When you exit the venue LEAVE your answer sheet/script ON THE DESK WHERE YOU WERE SITTING.

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APPENDIX I: ENGL132 COURSEBOOK

UNIT 1
SUMMARY WRITING

ACTIVITY 1: READ i, ii, AND iii CAREFULLY.

i). WHAT IS A SUMMARY?

- It is a **shortened** (condensed, abridged) form of a long article. This may be a report, a speech, or a letter. (The summary is usually one third of the length of the original passage or document)
- It consists of the **main points only**. (It is written in complete sentences.)
- It may be written in a paragraph or in point form.
- You may use a **topic sentence** from the original passage if it is to the point. However, try and simplify by using your **own words**.
- The question will indicate what information should be given by your summary. Leave out all that is **irrelevant** to the question. Leave out adjectives and examples.

ii). HOW TO REDUCE A PASSAGE:

- **Reduce phrases and sentences by using fewer words:**
  e.g *First and foremost ...* - use *first* OR *foremost.* (First we must simplify the sentences)
  Basic elements/Fundamental principles ... - use *basics* OR *fundamentals.* (The basics of the plan are....)
  The reason why ... - use *why* OR *the reason.* (The reason I am hungry is that I did not eat breakfast.)
- **Use one word instead of a group of words or a phrase:**
  e.g *fit to be chosen or elected* = eligible
  something not able to be seen = invisible
  lasting for a year = annual
- **Leave out unnecessary descriptive words:**
  e.g Instead of: *I sincerely hope that we can come to an agreement* WRITE I hope that we can agree. (6 words instead of 10 – a reduction of 40%)
  Instead of: *The Managing Director made his decision after giving due consideration to the matter before him WRITE* The Managing Director made his decision after careful thought.
- **Write short sentences and omit (leave out) conjunctions**
  The girl with the red hair is my daughter can be reduced to The red-haired girl is my daughter.
- **Leave out exclamations, quotations, examples, figures of speech.**

Do not count the words of the title as part of the required number of words.

iii) PROCEDURE:

- **Read the instructions carefully.**
  .Note: You will often not be required summarise the whole passage *but* will be asked to give *factors* or *reasons* or *principles* or *advantages* or *disadvantages.*
- **Read through the original** as often as it is necessary to understand what the passage is about.
- **Choose a heading**. This will help you focus on the relevant points only
- Look for the **Topic sentence** that is the main idea or controlling idea.
- Note all the important points (supporting sentences), which relate to the topic (the question asked).
- Underline the main points.
- Write a **rough draft**. This may still be too long, but it will be reduced when you start editing it.
- **Simplify** and **condense** your rough draft as suggested above.
- Check whether **you have answered the question**.
- Read through it carefully. Are the sentences complete? Does it make sense ?
- Count the **number of words** you have used. Write down the number in brackets.

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ACTIVITY 2: Short summary

Read the passage below carefully and then follow the instructions below:

Teenager Attacked on the Way Home from Disc.

A 14-year-old boy was attacked and robbed on his way home from a disco last Saturday night. He was taken to a nearby hospital, but was released soon afterwards with minor cuts and bruises.

Paul Janson spent the evening at a local disco, a short walk from his home. He left before his friends because he had promised not to be home late. As he was walking through Smith Park, a deserted dark and badly-lit area, he was attacked by a man who he later described as dark-haired, of medium height, and in his early twenties. The man took his wallet, containing R20, and his watch. Luckily, a car was just turning into Smith Street as the attack occurred. The driver saw what was happening, and rushed to Paul's ASSISTANCE. The attacker then ran off in the direction of the main road.

Police have warned local inhabitants to be on their guard and not to walk alone through the park after dark. "Paul had a lucky escape;' a police spokesperson said, "The next victim may not be quite so fortunate".

- adapted from 'Practise Writing' by Mary Stephens

Instructions: In the spaces below, write a sentence describing what each paragraph is about

Paragraph 1: _____

_____

Paragraph 2:_____

_____

Paragraph 3: _____

_____

What is the whole report about? Summarise in no more than 4 or 5 sentences what it is about.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

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Here are three more summary exercises for you to do:

- Give each summary a title.
- Write in paragraph. WRITE IN COMPLETE SENTENCES
- Count and write down the number of words you have used in the brackets provided..

ACTIVITY 3: (summarise in not more than 100 words)

A library is a room or building which has a collection of books for people to use. Some schools have a library where teachers and pupils can look at the books. Some towns have a library which can be used by any member of the general public.

The books in a library are usually divided into three main sections. In most city or town libraries, the biggest section is called 'fiction'. These books are stories, or tales, of many different kinds and from all over the world. A book which consists of one long story is called a novel. One also finds books of short stories. These books are all read for enjoyment.

The second section is called 'non-fiction' and contains books which give information on many different subjects. You would recognise some of them as textbooks which are used in schools. Others could be poetry (sometimes called verse), drama (plays to perform on stage), biography (the study of someone's life), autobiography (someone's life story written by the person himself/herself) and books on such subjects as history, geography, farming, education, music, art, buildings, gardens and lots more. These books are used mostly for study and for finding out factual information.

The third section is called the 'reference' section. It contains books such as dictionaries, sets of encyclopedias (books which give facts on-hundreds of subjects), atlases (books of maps) and many other books on individual subjects.

Fiction and non-fiction books may be borrowed and taken home by any member of the library, but reference books must always remain in the library so that anyone can use them whenever they want.

Sometimes people use a library to read quietly or study. This is why most libraries have a rule of silence - you are not allowed to talk or make a noise, because it disturbs others. Another rule says that you must handle books carefully and not damage them in any way, and you must never write in a book which is not your own.

Everything which is printed in a book shows the name of the person who wrote it. A person who writes novels is called a novelist; poems are written by a poet; plays are written by a dramatist or playwright; and other kinds of writing are usually written by an author.

When a number of poems plays or short stories by different writers are put together in book, we call this an anthology. The name of each writer and the name of the editor who chooses and arranges the material is shown. The editor often works for a publishing company, that is, a company which prepares, produces, and distributes books.

Write your final summary below:

Title/ Heading: _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

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ACTIVITY 4. In *50-60 words* summarize the points which the author says you must consider before you commit yourself to marriage:

It doesn't matter whether you intend to marry according to your "traditional" style, or whether you choose a Western-type marriage in a church or registry office. You still hope, presumably, that your marriage will last a lifetime. So there are certain considerations which you must take into account before becoming seriously involved. To have a similar cultural and possibly religious background, is almost vital for a successful marriage. This is a great benefit not only within the home, but as far as relatives are concerned too. Status, or one's professional and social position in life, is usually important too. Problems inevitably arise if there is a big gap here. For example, a bus driver (and there's nothing wrong with driving buses) marrying a female doctor, might not be an ideal situation! Closely connected to the last point is that of intelligence. To have approximately the same intellectual ability is desirable, though not crucial. In fact some men prefer to feel a little superior to their spouses in this respect! Any marriage has a good start if both the husband and wife have some interests in common so that they can share their leisure hours. This includes enjoying the company of each other's friends and giving them a warm welcome in their home. A minor point, but one that is becoming increasingly significant in this day and age, is that couples should agree on their ideas about the size of family they wish to have. Lastly - and almost too obvious to mention -is that a strong physical attraction must be there, and likely to stay. We must like what we see: thin or fat, tall or short, it doesn't matter as long as the magnetism is there. Put all these points together and you have the essential ingredients for success - but it still can't be guaranteed!

(Passage taken from *Nov 1988 Dept. of Education and Training Std 10 Exam paper, English Second Language Paper I*)

Write your final summary below:

HEADING:

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ACTIVITY 5.

INSTRUCTIONS!

a) Read the passage below and in 60 to 65 words summarise the **reasons why infectious diseases are once again becoming a serious health problem to the whole world.**
b) Look for different points. Write the points in full sentences.
b) Do not exceed the number of words stated above. Indicate the number of words you have used in the space provided at the bottom of the grid.
c) Give your summary a suitable heading. Do not use more than 6 words. Do *not* include the number of words used in the title when counting the number of words in the summary.

PASSAGE:

Until quite recently there was a widespread feeling that the struggle against infectious diseases was almost won. The means of controlling most of them seemed either available or discoverable without due difficulty. Spectacular progress has indeed been made: smallpox has been eradicated and six other diseases will be eradicated or eliminated soon. But tragically, with optimism came a false sense of security, which has helped many diseases to spread with alarming rapidity. Major diseases such as malaria and tuberculosis are making a deadly comeback in many parts of the world. At the same time, diseases such as diphtheria, yellow fever and cholera have reappeared as public health threats in many countries, after many years of decline.

In addition, previously unknown infectious diseases are emerging at an unprecedented rate. In the last 20 years, more than 30 new and highly infectious diseases have been identified. They include the virulent Ebola-type hemorrhagic fever, HIV/AIDS and hepatitis C. For many of these diseases there is no treatment, cure, or vaccine. Antibiotic resistance is another important treatment to human health which has emerged during the last 20 years. Drugs which once could be counted upon for protection against many infectious diseases are becoming less and less useful as resistance to hem spreads. There are many reasons for the appearance of new diseases and the resurgence .of communicable diseases once thought to be well under control. These include the rapid increase in international air travel and the growth of megacities with high population densities and inadequate safe water and sanitation. Meanwhile in rich and poor countries alike, resources for public health are being reduced as limited funds are spent on other priorities.

For these urgent reasons, the theme "Emerging Infectious Diseases - Global alert, Global response" was chosen for World Health Day 1997.' Countries will be

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able to take a realistic look at these problems and concentrate on rebuilding the foundations of disease surveillance and disease control.

We have to face the fact that infectious diseases are a common threat which, demands urgent attention, especially at a
time when people all over the world are being brought closer together by international travel and trade. We must work together globally, to control them.

(Adapted from *MASIPHILE*: Dept of Health, June 1997:22)

SUMMARY

Heading: _____

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UNIT 2
ANALYSING ESSAY TOPICS

YOU NEED YOUR DICTIONARY FOR THIS UNIT

When you are given an essay or assignment to write you must **understand** the question, and **give** the lecturer or examiner **what** he/ she has **asked for**:
Therefore, read the question several times and look for 2 things:

- **Task words** (instructions/ direction/strategy words because they instruct or direct you what to do)

  e.g. define/ explain/ mention
  compare / contrast/ compare and contrast/ distinguish between
  analyse
  discuss/ critically discuss

  IMPORTANT: Task words can have slightly different meanings in different CONTEXTS

- **Topic words** (or content/ key words – what you must write about)

Activity 1: Look up the following task words in your dictionary:
(Note: they are all *verbs* – do not write down the meanings of nouns)

DEFINE _____

LIST _____

MENTION _____

OUTLINE _____

DISCUSS _____

DESCRIBE _____

ANALYSE _____

SUGGEST _____

IDENTIFY _____

EVALUATE _____

Activity 2:
i) Underline the TASK words in the following questions:

a) *Compare the role of women in traditional African society and that of women today.*
b) *Discuss the similarities and differences between Public and Private Administration.*
c) *In one year in South Africa, over 600,000 learners of all ages dropped out of school. This was out of a total of 5 million learners throughout the country. Discuss the reasons for the high drop-out rate. Suggest ways in which it could be reduced.*
d) *Discuss the nature versus nurture controversy. Support your arguments by means of examples.*
e) *Evaluate the role of political parties and pressure groups in a political system.*

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f) *In Botswana there are two Acts which specifically concern welfare organizations and social workers. State the titles of these Acts, and briefly explain the function of each.*

ii) Write down the <u>Topic words</u> in the above questions:

a) _____

b) _____

c) _____

d) _____

e) _____

f) _____

iii) - What does the word "impact" in question a) mean? _____

- Does the word "define" mean the same in questions a) and b) _____

*a) Define the terms **lingua franca** and **vernacular**. Describe the impact which the introduction of English as a lingua franca has had on speakers of vernacular languages in Africa.*

b) Define the problems which languages encounter when their functions are encroached upon by a powerful international language such as English.

<u>Comments</u>? _____

iv) Does the word "analyse" mean the same approach in both the questions below?

a) *Analyse the factors which need to be considered with regard to the choice of a national language…..*
b) *Analyse the poem "Taken for a Ride" by Stanley Motjuwadi in terms of its imagery, rhythm, and sound structure.*

Activity 3: Simplify the following questions by rewriting them in your own words: (use your dictionary)

a) Examine the factors which have led to the spread of English in Africa. Discuss what consequences this might have for indigenous African languages.

_____

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b) *Discuss the measures you would take as a clinic nurse to ensure the effective immunization of the children in your village.*

c) *"Language, any language, has a dual character: it is both a means of communication and a carrier of culture (Ngugi 1986)." With reference to this quotation , evaluate whether English is an appropriate national language and language of learning for an African country.*

How does the quotation in the above question affect the way the question should be answered?

HOMEWORK

THINK ABOUT the following essay topic. **PLAN** your essay by means of a linear plan or a mind map. Read the material provided to guide you in the writing of your essay.

Your essay will be about *lobola*. Remember the introduction, rough draft and final essay will, together, be 40 marks, almost half of your semester mark. Make an effort to plan your essay, keep to the topic and then to write logically. Use the readings provided to assist you. You may use other sources as long as you acknowledge them at the end of your final essay.

Define the *lobola* custom. Is it still appropriate in modern times? Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of lobola as you see them. Write an essay of at least one A4 page, but not more than 1 ½ pages.

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UNIT 3
WRITING ESSAY INTRODUCTIONS

What is the function of the introductory paragraph of an essay?

- An introduction is an important signpost which tells the reader what the essay is going to be about. In other words, the introduction to an essay leads the reader into the essay. He/she will be able to more or less predict what the content of the essay will be.

- There are no fixed rules about the length and content of the introduction. Everything depends on the purpose of the introduction and length of the whole essay.

- Various ways of writing an introduction may be suggested, BUT keep in mind the topic, and what YOU want to argue in the essay.

THUS: *The introductory paragraph establishes the FOCUS of the entire essay. Its main FUNCTION is to create the perimeters or boundaries for the argument and to define the specific TOPIC/ IDEA / OPINION/ THESIS that will be developed throughout the essay.*

A well-organized essay needs a strong introductory paragraph, effective concluding paragraph, and a good title.

A well-written **introductory paragraph** performs several important roles:

1. It attracts the reader's interest, encouraging him or her to continue reading the essay.

2 It supplies any background information that may be needed to understand the essay.

3 It presents a thesis statement. This clear, direct statement of the main idea of the essay or paper usually appears near the end of the introductory paragraph. (In other words, the thesis statement presents the purpose of your essay).

4 It indicates a plan of development. In this "preview," the major supporting points for the thesis are listed in the order in which they will be presented. In some cases, the thesis and plan of development appear in the same sentence. *However*, writers sometimes choose not to describe the plan of development.

Common Methods of Introduction

Here are some common methods of introduction. Use anyone method, or a combination of methods, to introduce your subject in an interesting way to the reader.

1 *Begin with a broad, general statement of your topic and narrow it down to your thesis statement.* Broad, general statements help the reader into your thesis statement by first introducing the topic. In the example below, the writer talks generally about diets and then narrows down to comments on a specific diet.

Bookstore shelves today are crammed with dozens of different diet books. The public seems willing to try any sort of diet, especially the ones that promise instant, miraculous results. And authors are more than willing to invent new fad diets to cash in

on this craze. Unfortunately, some of these fad diets are ineffective or even unsafe. One of the worst fad diets is the "Palm Beach" plan. It is impractical, doesn't achieve the results it claims, and is a sure route to poor nutrition.

2 *Start with an idea or situation that is the opposite of the one you will develop.* This approach works because your readers will be surprised, and then intrigued, by the contrast between the opening idea and the thesis that follows it.

When I decided to return to university at age thirty-five, I wasn't at all worried about my ability to do the work. After all, I was a grown woman who had raised a family, not a confused teenager fresh out of high school. But when I started classes, I realized that those "confused teenagers" sitting around me were in much better shape for university than I was. They still had all their classroom skills in bright, shiny condition, while mine had grown rusty from disuse. I had to learn how to locate information in a library, how to write a report, and even how to speak up in class discussions.

3 *Explain the importance of your topic to the reader.* If you can convince your readers that the subject in some way applies to them, or is something they should know more about, they will want to keep reading.

Diseases like scarlet fever and whooping cough used to kill more young children than any other cause. Today, however, child mortality due to disease has been almost completely eliminated by medical science. Instead, car accidents are the number one killer of our children. And most of the children fatally injured in car accidents were not protected by car seats, belts, or restraints of any kind. Several steps must be taken to reduce the serious dangers car accidents pose to our children.

4 Use an incident or brief story. Stories are naturally interesting. They appeal to a reader's curiosity. In your introduction, an anecdote will grab the reader's attention right away. The story should be brief and should be related to your main idea. The incident in the story can be something that happened to you, something you have heard about, or something you have read about in a newspaper or magazine.

Early Sunday morning the young mother dressed her little girl warmly and gave her a candy bar, a picture book, and a well-worn stuffed rabbit. Together, they drove downtown to a Methodist church. There the mother told the little girl to wait on the stone steps until children began arriving for Sunday school. Then the young mother drove off, abandoning her five-year-old because she couldn't cope with being a parent anymore. This incident is one of thousands of cases of child neglect and abuse that occur annually. Perhaps the automatic right to become a parent should no longer exist. Would-be parents should be forced to apply for parental licenses for which they would have to meet three important conditions.

5 *Ask one or more questions.* You may simply want the reader to think about possible answers, or you may plan to answer the questions yourself later in the paper.

What is love? How do we know that we are really in love? When we meet that special person, how can we tell that our feelings are genuine and not merely infatuation? And, if they are genuine, will these feelings last? Love, as we all know, is difficult to define. But most people agree that true and lasting love involves far more than mere physical attraction. Love involves mutual respect, the desire to give rather than take, and the feeling

of being wholly at ease.

6 Use a quotation. A quotation can be something you have read in a book or article. It can also be something that you have heard: a popular saying or pro\'erb ("Never give advice to a friend"), a current or recent advertising slogan ("Reach out and touch someone"), or a favourite expression used by friends or family ("My father always says. . ."). Using a quotation in your introductory paragraph lets you add someone else's voice to your own.

"Fish and visitors," wrote Benjamin Franklin, "begin to smell after three days." Last summer, when my sister and her family came to spend their two-week vacation with us, I became convinced that Franklin was right. After only three days of my family's visit, I was thoroughly sick of my brother-in-law's corny jokes, my sister's endless complaints about her boss, and their children's constant invasions of our privacy.

Activity 1:

The box below summarizes the SIX KINDS OF INTRODUCTION. Read the introductions that follow it and, in the space provided, write the letter of the kind of introduction used in each case.

A. General to narrow
B. Starting with an opposite
C. Stating importance of topic
D. Incident or story
E. Questions
F. Quotation

1. The ad, in full color on a glossy magazine page, shows a beautiful kitchen with gleaming counters. In the foreground, on one of the counters, stands a shiny new food processor. Usually, a feminine hand is touching it lovingly. Around main picture are other, smaller shots. They show mounds of perfectly sliced onion rings, thin rounds of juicy tomatoes, heaps of matchstick-sized potatoes, and piles of golden, evenly grated cheese.
The ad copy tells you how wonderful, how easy, food preparation will be with a processor. Don't believe it. My processor turned out to be expensive, difficult to operate, and very limited in its use.

_____

2. My father stubbornly says, "You *can* often tell a book by its cover," and when it comes to certain paperbacks, he's right. When you're browsing in a pharmacy or supermarket and you see a paperback featuring an attractive young woman in a low-cut dress fleeing from a handsome dark figure in a shadowy castle, you know exactly what you're getting. Every romance novel has the same elements: an innocent heroine, an exotic setting, and a cruel but fascinating hero.

_____

3 . We Americans are incredibly lazy. Instead of cooking a simple, nourishing meal, we pop a frozen dinner into the oven. Instead of studying a daily newspaper, we are contented with the capsule summaries on the network news. Worst of all, instead of walking even a few blocks to the local convenience store, we jump into our cars. This dependence on the

automobile, even for short trips, has robbed us of a valuable experience - walking. If we drove less and walked more, we would save money, become healthier, and discover fascinating things about our surroundings.

_____

4. Over the last couple of years, the Greenhouse Effect has become one of the world's hottest topics. Scientists are coming together to discuss this issue which impacts on all countries, industrialized and developing. Action is being taken internationally.

_____

The following are also SUGGESTIONS FOR AN INTRODUCTORY PARAGRAPH. They are only suggestions. Eventually you must be led or guided by your topic.

- State briefly the ideas you want to develop further on in the essay;
- If the essay topic is very broad, specify more narrowly how you will discuss it;
- Explain what the current situation is with regard to the problem;
- Explain or describe the history or background of the topic or the problem or its causes;
- Raise a question that you intend to answer in the rest of your essay.
- Make predictions of possible effects or results.

ACTIVITY 2: Which one of the following 2 introductions to an essay titled *Literature teaches about Life* is the best one? Write down why you have chosen 1 or 2.

1. Works of literature teach us about life. *Macbeth* portrays the tragic results of unprincipled ambition, while *The Great Gatsby* shows the hollowness of the Great American Dream. *Things Fall Apart* gives us an opportunity to look at the effects of colonialism. These will be discussed in further detail below.

2. Works of literature teach us about life. Life is often tragic. It can also be quite ridiculous at times. Some people cope with life and find it exciting, while others crumble under its stresses.

_____

_____

_____

_____

ACTIVITY 3: Read the following examples of the same introduction closely. Look at the logical order in which the sentences are written:

A.

1. General introductory sentence.

2a) 2 or 3 supporting sentences that give the focus of the essay

2b)

3. Main topic/ idea/ thesis of essay – what the essay will be about.
IT IS UNDERLINED FOR YOUR ATTENTION.

OR

B.

1. Main topic/ idea/ thesis of essay – what the essay will be about.
IT IS UNDERLINED FOR YOUR ATTENTION.

2a. 2 or 3 supporting sentences that give the focus to the essay

2b.

2. a sentence that anticipates the conclusion

Two different versions of a well-ordered introductory paragraph

VIGILANTE JUSTICE

1. The issue of vigilante justice is one that is currently being debated at every level of our society. 2a. Those who support the concept of vigilante justice insist that it is a natural reaction to a system of law and order that has broken down completely. 2b.Those who criticize the idea of vigilante justice are equally adamant that it would eventually destroy our civilization. 3. Although both views are understandable, society would be better served by strengthening its existing laws than by sanctioning vigilante justice.

VIGILANTE JUSTICE

1. Society would be better served by strengthening its existing laws than by sanctioning vigilante justice. 2a. Nonetheless, those who support the concept of vigilante justice insist that our current laws are ineffective and unenforceable. 2b. Conversely, those who criticize the idea of vigilante justice are equally convinced that it would eventually destroy civilization as we know it. 3. Advocates and critics both agree, however, that the debate itself will influence legislative and judicial decisions for years to come.

ACTIVITY 4. Rearrange the sentences, which are in a jumbled sequence, in the following paragraph to form to well-ordered introduction.

Before the end of the century, however, many sociologists are predicting that we may see this trend reversed – and that Americans may out of the cities and back into the small towns again. For almost fifty years, the American people gradually moved out of the small towns and into the large cities. If the movement out of the large cities and

back into the small towns does materialize, it will have a dramatic impact on every facet of American life. In part, this was due to the fact that employment was more easily found in the large urban areas. In part sociologists attribute this trend to the growing dissatisfaction with the problems of city life.

Activity 4. There are readings at the end of this workbook on *Lobola*. Read them several times in order to have information on your essay topic. BUT FIRST read them so that you can write an appropriate INTRODUCTION for the following essay.

Write the **INTRODUCTION ONLY** (for 10 marks) to the following essay:

Define the* lobola *custom. Is it still appropriate in modern times? Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of lobola as you see them. Write an essay of at least one A4 page, but not more than 1 ½ pages

NB. This is what the essay is about – BUT for this task (for 10 marks) write the introduction only for your essay; NOT the whole essay. (If you do not follow this instruction you will receive O/10.)

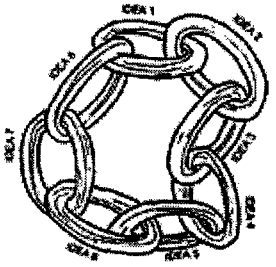
UNIT 4
TOPIC SENTENCES

You need to know what *topic sentences* are so that you can write *logical* , well-constructed paragraphs.

Activity 1: READ the following information about paragraphs

A well-constructed paragraph communicates and develops a *complete thought* through a sentence or a group of sentences.(The topic sentence tells you what the paragraph is about.)

A good paragraph has *unity*, *coherence*, and (logical) *development*[1].
(Look at the diagram and think about it whenever you write a paragraph or an essay made up of several paragraphs)



A paragraph must contain a **topic sentence** (main idea) and *supporting sentences*. Adding an *example* helps make the content clear.

e.g. ***There are many different kinds of musical instruments****. They are divided into 3 main classes according to the way they are played. For example, some are played by blowing air into them. These are called wind instruments. In some of these the air is made to vibrate inside a wooden tube, and these are said to be of the woodwind family. Examples of woodwind instruments are the flute, the clarinet, and the bassoon. Other instruments are made of brass: the trumpet and the horn, for example. There are also various other wind instruments such as the mouth-organ and the bagpipes.*

- The topic sentence tells us about a **general topic**. E.g. *There are many kinds of musical instruments.*
- The supporting sentences give you more **specific details** about the topic sentence. E.g. *They are divided into 3 main classes.*
- The topic sentence is NOT a heading, a sentence fragment, or a question.
- The supporting sentence must tell you more about what is in the topic sentence.
- A topic sentence is a declarative sentence (what someone/ something *is* or *does.)* E.g. *My grandmother, although already in her eighties,* ***is*** *still very active. Many students do not study correctly.*
- Supporting sentences can include **examples**.

[1] LOOK UP THE MEANING OF THESE WORDS IN YOUR DICTIONARY.

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ACTIVITY 2: The following are NOT topic sentences.

Can you change them into topic sentences?
E.g. *Is man progressing?* **x**
Topic sentence: **Man is progressing technologically.**✓

i) Sport

Topic sentence:_____

ii) The increase in crime

Topic sentence: _____

iii) The fuel crisis

Topic sentence: _____

ACTIVITY 3. Change the following questions/ sentence fragments/ headings into declarative sentences (i.e. topic sentences).
(You may need to add words or change the order of the words, but the TOPIC **must** stay the same)

i) Do newspapers tell the truth?

_____

ii) Finding fun in hobbies.

_____

iii) Is it easy to find love?

_____

ACTIVITY 4. A topic sentence can be too wide or general for a paragraph. E.g. *The world is going from bad to worse.* A better topic sentence may be to write about a **specific** problem such as *People in rural areas are finding it increasingly difficult to find jobs.*

Try to make the following sentences more specific:

i) My mother is wonderful. _____

ii) Rural life is good. _____

iii) South Africa is a wonderful country. _____

_____

Activity 5: Choosing a Topic Sentence

Choose the best topic sentence for each of the following paragraphs and write it on the line provided.

LOOK AT THE EXAMPLE:

a. The city needs the money.
b. The city needs money to fix the buses.
c. The state has lots of money.

Many of the buses need repair work. City officials say there is not enough money to fix them. They will borrow money from the state.
ANSWER: The city needs money to fix the buses

Now try the following:

A. a. Taxes should be raised.
b. Many teachers are not paid.
c. Tax money is used to build new roads.

The city needs more money and will have serious problems if it is not raised soon. We need money to pay for new roads and the repair of old roads. We also need money to pay teachers' salaries and to pay for services such as trash collection. In addition, more tax money is needed for financial aid to the poor.

B. a. Shopping is difficult.
b. The stores are crowded at Christmas.
c. It is better to do your Christmas shopping early.

It will be more difficult for you if you wait until just before Christmas. Many stores run out of the more popular items, so it will be harder for you to find what you want. The stores are also more crowded, and the lines are much longer.

ACTIVITY 6: Writing a Topic Sentence

Decide what each of the following paragraphs is about. Then write a topic sentence in the space provided. Make sure your topic sentence is general enough.

EXAMPLE:

Cape Town is a nice place to have a holiday.
It is always sunny and warm. The beaches are gorgeous with soft, white sand and beautiful, blue water. There are many fine restaurants in the Cape town area, and most of the big hotels offer terrific entertainment nightly.

Now try to do these

i) _____

He has collected stamps and coins ever since he was a child. He is very proud of his valuable collections. He also enjoys painting and drawing. Recently he has become interested in gardening. Out of all his hobbies, Paul's favourite one is reading. He tries to read at least one book every week.

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ii) _____

First of all, the plumbing doesn't work properly and the landlord refuses to fix it. I also have noisy neighbours who keep me up every night. Furthermore, there are so many bugs in my apartment that I could start an insect collection.

Activity 7. Below are paragraphs which form a short article about some of the great achievements of Ancient Egypt.

The topic sentence for each paragraph is missing. **Choose one** from the three given below each paragraph and write it in the space provided.

What Egypt Gave the World

Egypt has an important place in world history. Many early discoveries were made in Egypt and were later passed on to other countries. (This is the introductory paragraph)

(a) _____. Writing in Egypt started because of farming and trade. Farmers needed to write down how much corn they had and traders needed to write accounts of the goods they sold. So gradually the Egyptians worked out a system of writing.

Topic Sentences:

(i) Trading and farming took place in Egypt before writing was developed.
(ii) Writing is important in our modern society.
(iii) Writing was one of the most important developments in Egypt.

(b)_____. They had great knowledge of healing. They could sew up wounds and set broken bones and they had many kinds of medicines that cured many different diseases. There were also Egyptian dentists, doctors and animal doctors.

Topic Sentences:

(i) The science of medicine has changed a great deal since the time of Ancient Egypt.
(ii) Egyptian doctors were more advanced than doctors in many parts of the ancient world.
(iii) Egyptian dentists were very good.

(c) _____.They built all these buildings of stone. Egypt had lots of stone and rock so it was easy for the Egyptians to get stones to build their buildings. The Egyptians used many of their buildings for tombs. They believed that people's souls would live in these buildings forever. So they built large, strong buildings that have lasted for hundreds of years and are still standing today.

Topic Sentences:

(i) There were many different kinds of stone in Egypt which the Egyptians used to build many buildings.
(ii) People all over the world now use stone to build buildings just like the Egyptians did.
(iii) The Egyptians built many strong and beautiful buildings such as temples, palaces and pyramids.

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Activity 8: Fill in topic sentences.

The following paragraphs form an essay about *insect pests* that may be in your garden and how to get rid of them.

- The first paragraph is complete.
- The other paragraphs need a topic sentence.
- Think of an appropriate topic sentence and write it on the line left for you. **(NB. A topic sentence is a complete sentence).**

Protect Plants Against Pests

There may be many insect pests in your garden. They eat the vegetables and the fruit you plant. They eat the vegetables and the fruit you plant. You may think you can't get rid of them. But there are ways to keep pests away from your plants. In the paragraphs below we list some of the pests you might find in your garden and some of the ways you can get rid of them.

(a) _____

Although they are very small, these insects can cause damage to plants in gardens, orchards and on farms. The aphids have plump soft bodies that can be green, brown or black. Their mouths are shaped like tubes that pierce the leaves and stems of the plants and suck out the sap. Ants drink the sweet liquid produced by aphids and so they look after these pests. The ants carry the aphids from plant to plant and can infest many plants in the garden this way.

(b)

_____

Some of the different kinds are the cutworm, the green cabbage looper caterpillar and the army worm or caterpillar. All of them are big eaters that can damage plants. They eat leaves, flowers, seed pods and fruit. If there are many caterpillars in a garden they can strip the leaves off the plants in a short time.

(c) _____

As you can tell from its name this insect attacks mealies. When it is young the mealie-stalk borer looks like a small caterpillar. That is when it eats the most. It gets into the stems and cobs of the mealie plants and eats them. It makes the silky hair on the cob wilt.

(d) _____

This is one of the most effective ways of keeping insect pests away from your plants so try to make your soil as rich as possible. Compost helps to make the soil rich and rich soil makes strong plants. Insect pests don't usually eat strong plants. Earthworms also help to make the soil rich so don't kill them.

(e) _____

Examples of these helpful insects are ladybird beetles, praying mantises and lacewing flies. Don't kill them. Let them eat up the pests that attack your plants.

(from *Write Well* (p110-113)by Cretchley & Stacey for the Sached Trust)

NB. ALWAYS USE YOUR DICTIONARY FOR DIFFICULT WORDS!

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UNIT 5
CONNECTING – COHERENCE, RELEVANCE

When you write a story, an academic essay, describe an experiment or a process, the correct order of the facts or stages are very important. Stories, essays, and descriptions of experiments or processes that are not written in a LOGICAL ORDER make no sense.

In this unit you should learn to

* write your information in the correct order and to remove irrelevant sentences;
* using linking (transitional) words and phrases to improve the readability of the passage (cohesion and coherence);

ACTIVITY 1:

a) Put these steps in the right order.

- Then make a fist with one hand and grasp the fist with your other hand. Put your hands just below his rib cage.
- The Heimlich maneuver is a method that anyone can use to help someone who is choking on a piece of food.
- Finally, press your fist into the victim's abdomen with a quick upward movement.
- The first thing you should do is stand behind the choking person and put your arms around his waist.
- If the person is still choking, you may need to repeat the manoeuvre.

b) Now use the sentences to write a logical paragraph.

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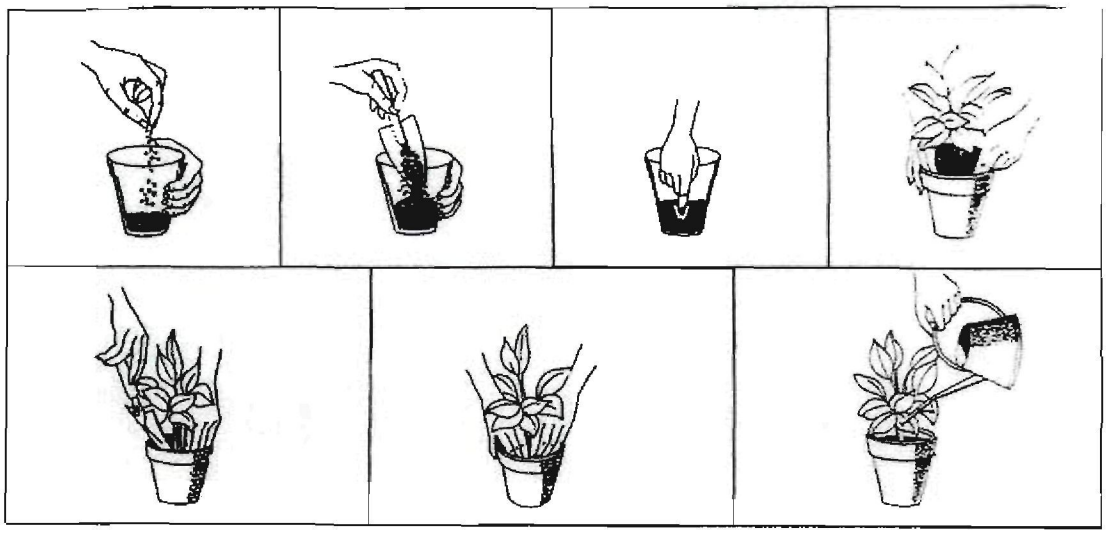

Activity 2. a) Study the above series of pictures. They show the steps involved in re-potting a plant. Then use the pictures to label the steps below in the correct time order.

____make a hole in center of soil

____press soil down with thumbs

____ cover bottom of pot with small stones

____ drop plant into soil

____ put five centimetres of soil on top of stones

____water plant

____add more soil until it almost reaches top of pot

b) Now write a process paragraph based on the pictures. The first two sentences are given here. (Use words such as first/firstly/then/ after that, etc.)

When a plant grows too large for its original pot, it needs to be repotted. This can be done quickly and easily if you follow the right procedure.

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Activity 3. Below is an essay about Hannibal, a great African general who fought against the Romans. This essay was not carefully planned. The paragraphs are all mixed-up.
Read the essay. RENUMBER the paragraphs so that they are in the correct order.

One of History's Greatest Generals

1. When he was only nine years old, his father made him promise that he would always be an enemy of Rome. Later Hannibal told an ally about it. "My father took me by my right hand and made me swear that I would never be friends with Rome".

2. But Hannibal had a big problem. How could he hope to cross the Mediterranean Sea with an army big enough to conquer Rome? Hannibal thought of a plan which even today seems difficult to believe. He collected soldiers in Spain and France. Then his huge army walked all the way from Spain to Italy. Elephants carried the soldiers and their weapons of war over the high snowy mountains between France and Italy, called the Alps.

3. When Hannibal grew up he became a soldier. Later he was chosen to be the army's general and he decided to attack Rome.

4. After many years had passed, the Romans said they would attack Carthage again unless Hannibal was handed over to them. To escape falling into the hands of his lifelong enemies, Hannibal swallowed poison and died.

5. As soon as the men reached Italy they fought and won many battles against the powerful Roman armies. They could then move closer to the enemy city of Rome.

6. But when he crossed the Alps Hannibal lost nearly half his army. After a while he was forced to retreat. His army was defeated in many battles in Southern Italy and North Africa before Hannibal got back to Carthage.

7. Just outside Tunis in North Africa once stood the powerful trading city of Carthage. It was there that one of history's most famous generals was born. His name was Hannibal.

Activity 4.: Read the following three paragraphs about Martin **Luther King**. One of the paragraphs is unnecessary. It has nothing to do with the main idea - *the life of Martin Luther King*.
Cross out the UNNECESSARY paragraph.

1. Martin Luther King was a great American leader in the 1950s and 1960s. He was a leader of the Civil Rights movement. He led many peaceful marches in protest against injustice. Many people supported the movement. In 1964 he was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize.
2. The story of Nobel is interesting. Nobel was a Swedish inventor who discovered dynamite by accident. He became a very rich man when his discovery was used to make dangerous weapons. Later he was deeply troubled about the way his discovery had been used. He left all his money for large prizes to be given to brilliant people every year. There were five prizes for scientists, writers and workers for peace.
3. Americans of all colours respected Martin Luther King. He was wounded by a bullet on 4 April 1968. He died soon afterwards. But his death brought sympathy and support for what he believed in.

Unnecessary information can sometimes be very interesting. But it has nothing to do with the main idea of what you are writing about and you must leave it out.

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Activity 5: Now read the next passage.

- Look at the three headings at the end of the passage. You must decide which is the best one. You must decide which heading tells you what the passage is about. Write the heading above the passage.
- One paragraph in this story is unnecessary (irrelevant). It has nothing to do withthe main idea. Find the unnecessary paragraph and cross it out.

Heading _____

1 Miriam Tlali was born in Doornfontein, Johannesburg, and educated at St Cyprian's Anglican School in Western Native Township.

2 Western Native Township, together with Sophiatown, no longer exists because of the massive removals of Africans from Johannesburg in the 1950s.

3 Ms Tlali studied at the University of the Witwatersrand shortly before it was closed to black students. Continuing her studies at Roma, in Lesotho, she was finally forced, through financial problems, to leave university.

4 After returning to Johannesburg and learning typing and bookkeeping Ms Tlali worked as a clerk and typist in the city. She wrote a book Muriel at Metropolitan about her experiences as a clerk in a furniture shop.

5 After the success of her book she continued writing from her home in Soweto, where she lives with her husband and two children.

Headings to choose from:

* *University education*
* *Miriam Tlali - her life*
* *The Modern Mother*

Activity 6. Read the next passage and answer the following questions

(I) Which is the best heading? Read the headings at the end of the passage. You must decide which the best one is. You must decide which heading tells you what this passage is about. Write it in next to the word heading at the top of the passage.

(ii) Which paragraphs are unnecessary? Find the unnecessary paragraphs. There are two this time. Cross them out.

Heading

1. In our history, we have had many rulers and warriors. We know of Chaka, Dingaan, Moshesh, Makana and others. All of them were men, but our history is also of strong women.

2. MaNtatisi is one of these women. Her husband Mokotjo died in 1813 and their son, Sekonyela, was too young to become chief, so his mother became chief of the Batlokwa tribe.

3. The other people united under their great chief Moshoeshoe. They went to live on the top of a large mountain, Thaba Bosigo, where it was very difficult for others to attack them. Moshoeshoe's kingdom was the start of the Basuto nation that lives in present-day Lesotho.

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4. The wars of the Difaqane were fought at this time, and times were difficult. But MaNtatisi was a great fighter who inspired her people and was greatly feared by her enemies. People living between the Vaal River and Orange River were called Mantatees, which means: Followers of MaNtatisi.
5. Many tribes wanted to defeat MaNtatisi, including the strong Hlubi tribe in the Orange Free State. MaNtatisi decided to move away from the Hlubis, so she led her people further south. Even here she spread death and fear among the scattered tribes.
6. A new kind of weapon was used at this time. Short spears, about four feet long took the place of the long throwing spears which, once thrown, left the warrior unarmed.
7. At last, MaNtatisi and her people came to live at a place called Yoalaboholo. This was a mountain near Caledon River and is the place where the great MaNtatisi died. After her death her son, Sekonyela, was old enough to become chief.

HEADINGS TO CHOOSE FROM:

* MaNtatisi - the Fighting Woman
* Tribes of Southern Africa
* Warfare in the 19th Century

ACTIVITY 7. Now find sentences that are unnecessary in a paragraph.

Remember from Unit 4 – topic sentences

* Every paragraph has one main idea. Sometimes one of the sentences in a paragraph tells you what the main idea of the whole paragraph is.
* All the other sentences in the paragraph should be about the main idea. They should give necessary information about the main idea.

a) Here is a paragraph about a South African poet, *Oswald Mbuyiseni Mtshali.*
All the sentences, except one, tell us more about the life and work of this man.
Cross out the unnecessary sentence.

Oswald Mtshali is one of South Africa's best-known poets. He was born in Vryheid in Natal in 1040. He went to Johannesburg to work as a messenger. Johannesburg is the biggest city in South Africa. Mtshali writes about everyday life in the African townships. He became famous when his collection of poems "Sounds of a Cowhide Drum" was published in 1971. His work has appeared in newspapers and books in South Africa, Britain and the United States. He later worked as a journalist for the Rand Daily Mail.

b) Read the paragraph below.

(i) Decide what it is about. Choose the best heading from those given below the paragraph. Write the heading in the space given above the paragraph.
(ii) Decide which sentences are not about the main idea of the paragraph. This time there are two. Cross out the unnecessary sentences.

Heading _____

The city of Dakar is the capital of Senegal and one of the biggest cities in Africa. It is situated on the coast of Senegal and is the main port of the country. Senegal

became independent in 1960. Most of the industries in Senegal are in Dakar, which is also an important commercial centre. The main part of the city is very modern. The people of Senegal speak a language called Wolof and learn French at school. Many people leave the country areas to look for work in Dakar. There are many shanty towns around the city of Dakar where these people live.

Headings to choose from:

* The City of Dakar
* The Country of Senegal
* People in Dakar

Remember! When you write paragraphs - keep to the main idea.

ACTIVITY 8. The sentences below are in the wrong order.

Which sentences give necessary information? These sentences must have something to do with the topic sentence.

- Look for the sentences that give unnecessary information and cross them out.
- Write **TS (Topic Sentence) next to the sentence you think contains the main thought/ idea.**
- **Write the numbers in the order they should be: (e.g. 8, 6, 4, 2, 1, 3, 7, 5, etc)**

A great Athlete

1. He became very fit and very good at running long distances because he practised running long distances at high altitudes in the mountainous countryside of Ethiopia.
2. Ethiopia was ruled by an emperor called Haile Selassie in those days.
3. In 1960 he ran in the 41 kilometre marathon race in the Olympic Games in Rome when he had only run a marathon twice before.
4. Sadly he was paralysed from the waist down in a car accident in 1969 and died in 1973 aged 41.
5. Abebe Bikila was born in a small village in Ethiopia in 1932 and drew up to become one of the world's greatest long-distance runners.
6. The marathon is a race named after a town in Greece where the first marathon was run.
7. He ran barefoot in the Olympic marathon which surprised people because all the other runners wore special running shoes.
8. Abebe Bikila won the marathon easily and set a new Olympic record.
9. At every Olympic Games new records are set by athletes.
10. In 1964 Abebe Bikila again ran the marathon in the Olympic Games in Tokyo and became the first man to win the event twice and break his own record.

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ACTIVITY 9. Now arrange ideas in paragraphs:

When you write a book, an essay, a report or an assignment you first collect all the facts you need. Then you draw up an outline (such as a mind map) of the essay, article, chapter or section. In each section you decide on the main points. Then you group your facts or ideas under each main point to form paragraphs.

In this lesson you will practise grouping ideas together.

A writer is writing a short article about smoking. He decides that he wants 3 paragraphs with the following topic sentences:

Paragraph 1: In the last 10 years, medical research has proved that smoking is bad for your health

Paragraph 2: It seems that governments are making some efforts to discourage smoking.

Paragraph 3: However, the tobacco industry is so profitable that governments don't Really want to stop people smoking.

Here are the facts about smoking that the writer found. It is difficult to understand what the writer is saying because the facts are all mixed up. First read them through, and then you must decide which facts go into which paragraph. Write 1 next to every sentence that should go into paragraph 1. Write 2 next to each sentence that should go into paragraph 2 and so on. Some of them have already been done for you. Discuss your answers with a partner while you work.

(A) Cigarette advertising is a good source of income for magazines radio and TV

(B) In Britain cigarette packets and advertisements have to carry a health warning (Paragraph 2)

(C) Smoking also increases the risk of other kinds of cancer e.g. of the lips and throat.

(D) Smoking increases the risk of certain kinds of heart disease by 10%.

(E) Smoking is being banned or limited in public places such as cinemas and buses.

(F) Smokers can expect to live 5 years less than non-smokers. (Paragraph 1)

(G) In countries where tobacco is grown, farmers and exporters put pressure on governments to protect their industry. (Paragraph 3)

(H) Governments make a lot of money out of heavy tobacco taxes and they don't want to see sales drop.

(I) It is the main cause of the chest complaints of bronchitis and emphysema.

(J) High taxes on cigarettes may make people cut down on smoking.

(K) There is a strong link between smoking and lung cancer - 90% of cancer that starts in the lungs is found in smokers.

(L) In some countries cigarette advertising is banned.

(M) In industrial countries cigarette companies make vast profits and don't want to lose business.

(N) A pregnant woman who smokes can harm her unborn child.

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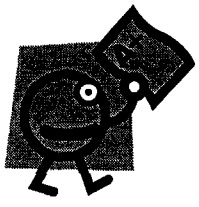
(O) In some government schools overseas anti-smoking campaigns are part of health education.

On the lines provided, write out the paragraphs in the order given before the above sentences. Write the topic sentence of paragraph 1, then all the sentences that belong to paragraph 1 and so on. (WRITE the paragraphs on the lines provided and then read them – that is how you get the feeling of correct, logical, readable writing.) Add your own Introduction and conclusion.

Now read through the paragraphs you have written. Do you see how much easier they are to understand?



Remember to apply what you have done in this unit, to your essay.

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BE SERIOUS ABOUT WRITING GOOD ESSAYS !

UNIT 6

ORGANISATION AND PRESENTATION OF ARGUMENTS

After you have analysed the essay topic you form your point of view on the topic based on what you have read, your own thoughts and experience. Then you decide how to present the information to your reader. Your information or arguments[1] have to be SEQUENCED in an order which gives the strongest support to your viewpoint.

> A good writer helps and guides the reader to follow the development of his (the writer's) argument. He does this by organizing his information in a certain sequence and using signal/ signpost words.

The ways in which your information or argument can be presented may be any of the following:

- definition
- example
- classification
- description
- a narrative
- comparison and contrast
- cause and effect
- discussion for and against a certain issue
- evaluation
- drawing a conclusion

The information or arguments in your essay can be organized in different ways, but the 4 basic types of ORGANISATION are:

1. TIME-ORDER: information is organized in a chronological or time-order sequence
2. COMPARISON AND CONTRAST: information is organized to show similarities and differences or advantages and disadvantages.
3. LISTING: information is organized by a simple listing of facts or ideas relating to the same topic.
4. CAUSE AND EFFECT: information is organized by showing causes of an event, or effects of an event, or both.

N.B. There are certain SIGNAL WORDS (SIGNPOST WORDS/ LINKING WORDS/ TRANSITIONAL WORDS) that are used together with each of the different types of organization. *Get to know them*!! (See the notes at the end of this workbook)

ACTIVITY 1. Identify the type of organization in the following 4 paragraphs AND underline the sign- post words:

a) Sir Isaac Newton worked on many scientific problems. First, there was his development of the laws of motion. He also made important discoveries about optics and the nature of colour. His other work included ideas about astronomy, chemistry, and logic. And finally, he produced the Principia, a book which explained his ideas about universal gravitation.

Type of organization:_____

b) Isaac Newton was born in England in 1642. He went to Trinity College, Cambridge University in 1661 at the age of 18. In 1665, the plague swept through England, and Newton left school and returned to his family home in Woolsthorpe. It was there that he

[1] A reason or set of reasons that somebody uses to show that something is true or correct.

began most of his best work. He published the Principia in 1682, and in 1699 he was made Director of the English Mint. He died in 1727 and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

Type of organization:_____

c) Although the two men were both geniuses, Isaac Newton and Albert Einstein have very little else in common. True, they both did their most important and famous work before the age of 26; but there are great differences between them. Proper behaviour was most important to Newton, while Einstein liked to be different. Newton spent his later years working for the government, while Einstein spent his entire life doing science.

Type of organization:_____

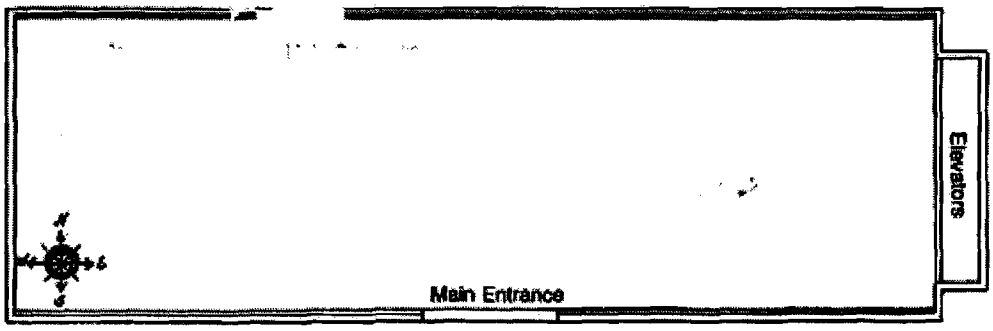
d) Newton did most of his best work in Woolsthorpe from 1665 to 1668. Many writers have tried to find out what caused him to produce all those great ideas in such a short time. Was it the peace and quiet of the small town that caused his creative powers to increase? The causes may never be known, but the effects of Newton's genius are still felt today.

Type of organization:_____

ACTIVITY 2. Organising ideas by SPACE

Fill in the floorplan of HYPERAMA by reading the information provided in the paragraph below:

HYPERAMA is a large department store that sells clothing for the whole family. As you enter the store through the main entrance, the jewelry department is directly in front of you, in the middle of the store. On your left is the coat department, and the scarf department is behind the coats. To the right of the jewelry department is the cosmetics department. The elevators are on the east wall. In the northwest corner, you will find the women's shoe department. Next to it, on the north wall, are hats and gloves. To the right of the hat and glove department are the handbags and belts. The children's clothes are between the handbag and belt department and the elevators.



ACTIVITY 3: Organizing ideas by COMPARING and CONTRASTING

NOTES:

Notes to read: The language of **comparison**: look at the following examples.

Affirmative sentences:

i) With BE

Golden is a student. Oscar is a student.

a) Golden is a student and Oscar is too. b) Golden is a student and so is Oscar.

ii) With other verbs

Japan exports cars. Germany exports cars.

a) Japan exports cars and Germany does too. b) Japan exports cars and so does Germany.

Negative sentences:

a) Golden is not a student and Oscar is not either.
b) Golden is not a student and neither is Oscar.

Other examples:

Tebogo speaks the same language as Kgomotso.
Sam is as tall as his father.
Sephati drives as carefully as Thabo.
This book is the same price as that one.
Both Tebogo and Kgomotso speak Tswana.
The women's magazine Femina is similar to Fair Lady.
Anna is very happy at UNIN and so is Lydia.
Anna is very happy at UNIN and Lydia is too.
Seitlamo looks like his father. He is also as tall as his father

The language of **contrast**: look at the following examples

a) Elizabeth is busier than Jane. b) Jane is more creative than Elizabeth.
c) This is the most important chapter is the book. d) 'Otsile is the tallest man in the group.

(UNDERLINE THE WORDS THAT SHOW COMPARISON AND CONTRAST)

ACTIVITY 3: **Read** the following letter from Richard who lives in Botswana to his cousin Thandi who lives in Letsitele. They and their friends want to visit one of the two big game reserves in Botswana. The letter contains information about both.

P O Box 22871
Bontleng Post Office
GABORONE
26 June 2003

Dear Thandi

Well, six weeks from now you and your friends will be here with us. I must say we are all looking forward to your visit very much.
I think it is a good idea to go to one of the game reserves. But, I agree with you, it is difficult to know which one. Anyway, I've found out some interesting information about both of them so I can offer you some advice.

There are two main wildlife areas in Botswana. On the one hand, there is the Okavango area, a region of islands, trees and rivers. On the other hand, there is the Chobe game reserve. Both places are very beautiful, yet quite different in many ways.

The Okavango is a water paradise. You can travel by mokorro (this is a type of canoe) along the many waterways where you can see hippo and crocodiles. Large animals live in the area but they are quite difficult to see because of the dense vegetation.

In Chobe, however, you stand a much better chance of seeing big game. This is because the vegetation is completely different to the Okavango, it is mostly grassland and small trees. You are

likely to see large herds of elephant, numerous prides of lions and plenty of zebra, kudu, wildebeest and buffalo in Chobe.
Both areas have their attractions. If you want water, fishing and birdlife, then Okavango is the place for you. If you want to view big game, then Chobe must be your choice.

On the question of transport, you travel mostly by aeroplane on some tours, with short land trips. Other tours take you by bus, Landrover or boat. Transport in the Okavango will be mainly by boat whereas in Chobe it is usually in tough off-road vehicles such as Landrovers. Both forms of transport will be slow, but then a nature reserve is not a place you want to speed through.
Talking of speed, let me post this to you quickly so that you can hurry up and decide which place you want to visit. I'm looking forward to your reply.

With love
Richard

A. Complete the table below. It summarises the differences and similarities between the Okavango and Chobe game reserves.

Situation (where it is)	**OKAVANGO** 1)	**CHOBE** northern Botswana
Types of vegetation	dense vegetation lots of trees	2)
Types of animals	3)	elephants, lions, zebra kudu, buffalo, wildebeest
Transport (how you will travel in the reserve)	mokorro (dug-out canoe)	4)

B. Go back to Richard's letter. Scan it to find 3 **links** which tell you that two things are being **contrasted**. Write them down.

C. In your own words, write three or four sentences which contain the most important similarities and differences between Chobe and Okavango. Use some of the linking words from the passage.

ACTIVITY 4: Organising ideas in TIME ORDER or CHRONOLOGICALLY
Read the passage below and then underline all the SIGNAL WORDS that connect the events by TIME LINKS.

(We are expected to present events in a logical and clear way like this in essays for subjects like History and English. Notice that dates and time links, like when, after and while, help us to see clearly the order in which things happened.)

MBEKI RETURNS

Read the following passage which describes some of the main events in Govan Mbeki's life(President Thabo Mbeki's father).

Mbeki was born on 8 July 1910 at Mpukane location in the Nqamakwe district of Transkei. At the age of eight, he saw his family together with many black people in Transkei, robbed of their land.
The next important event in his life was his contact with the African National Congress. This happened at the age of fourteen while he was in standard 4. A parish priest Rev. Mhlongo of the Independent Methodist Church, held fund-raising concerts for the ANC which were attended by local children. During these concerts, Mhlongo used to explain the aims of the ANC.
After this came Mbeki's first experience of trade unionism. In the late 1920s, he acted as interpreter - from English to Xhosa - for his cousin Robert Mbeki, a prominent figure in the Industrial and Commercial Workers' Union.
At about the same time, Mbeki's political career got off the ground. With other students, he formed the Transkei Students' Association. After Mbeki matriculated in 1933, he went to Fort Hare University to study for a B.A. degree. There he became politically aware and rose to a key position in the ANC Youth League. Here he was also introduced to socialist ideas.
Once he graduated from Fort Hare in 1937, he worked as a school teacher for several years. He was eventually dismissed by the education authorities for his political views.
When Mbeki moved to Port Elizabeth in 1955, everything gave way to politics. He was one of the central planners of the Congress of the People in 1955, where the Freedom Charter was adopted. The following year, he became national chairperson of the ANC.
After this, he came into direct conflict with the state. He was charged under the Explosives Act in 1962 for supposedly being in possession of ammunition, but was found innocent. After this he joined the ANC's newly formed military wing, Umkonto we Sizwe. It was not long before he became part of the National High Command of Umkhonto we Siswe.
This led to the arrest in 1963, together with the other Rivonia trialists, when he was charged with 200 counts of sabotage. He was found guilty in 1964 and sentenced to life imprisonment.
After spending 23 years on Robben Island, Mbeki stated at a press conference at the time of his release. 'I wouldn't say that my release is a step towards a solution; a solution is not found with one man'.

Remember to underline all the SIGNAL WORDS/ TRANSITION WORDS that connect the events by TIME LINKS.

ACTIVITY 5. Organising ideas according to CAUSE and EFFECT

IT'S RAINING VINEGAR

Most of South Africa has very dry winter days and cold winter nights. During the months of winter, we long for the sight of a cloud on the horizon or the sound of raindrops falling on the roof. But the spring rains do not necessarily bring the relief we hope for.
Each year our rain becomes more and more like vinegar. This is because of the acid that gets into our rain from the dirty air around our cities. The article below describes what causes rain to become acidic.
This lesson is about causes and effects. Most events or actions have at least one cause and at least one effect, e.g. If you don't read English, your English won't improve. The effect is the lack of improvement in your English; the cause is not reading English books, magazines or newspapers.
It is important to be able to understand causes and effects when you read information. You should also be able to explain the causes and effects of things clearly in your own writing.

Read the passage below and find out what acid rain is. Notice how causes and effects are explained and developed in the passage.

ACID RAIN

Factories and power stations in Gauteng, Mpumalanga, Limpopo and KwaZulu-Natal, burn coal and oil. As a result, these industries pour many thousands of tons of gases into the air. Once in the air, these gases react with oxygen and moisture to form very strong acids. These acids are then washed back to earth as rain that is often as acidic as vinegar. This rain is called acid rain.

For many years, acid rain was a problem in North America and some parts of Europe and Asia only. But, in recent years, South African rain has become more and more acidic. For instance, the pollution that causes acid rain in Johannesburg comes from factories and electricity stations in the Mpumalanga, eastern Limpopo and Gauteng provinces. The tiny bits of sulphur which cause acid rain travel on air currents and can fall as acid rain a long distance away from the factories.

Sometimes these gases travel thousands of kilometres before they fall down as rain. Acid rain caused by air pollution from factory chimneys in Germany and England has been known to kill fish in the lakes of Sweden, a country that is hundreds of kilometres away. Forests in Germany are dying off from acid rain because soil becomes less fertile when there is too much acid in it. In South Africa, acid rain is eating away the country's world-famous San paintings and rock engravings. Buildings and city motorways are also being affected. In is destroying crops, especially peas and beans, which are the highest protein-yielding crops.

How can these industries be allowed to do so much damage to the environment? Many of these industries make a great deal of money on which they are taxed. They also employ a lot of people. For these reasons, the government is not keen to pass laws to restrict the way they operate. But if they don't, the effects on our world will be disastrous.

Do this exercise to check how well you understand what you have just read. Answer each question in your own words. Then decide whether your answer describes a cause or an effect.
You don't have to answer in full sentences.

1. How do the many thousands of tons of gases get into the air in our country?

   _____

   Is your answer a cause or an effect? _____

2. Once in the air, these gases react with oxygen and moisture. What is the result of this reaction?

   _____

   _____

   Is your answer a cause or an effect? _____

3. What are the factories and electricity stations in Mpumalanga and Gauteng responsible for?

   _____

   Is your answer a cause or an effect? _____

4. Fish in the lakes of Sweden have died. Why?

   _____

   Is your answer a cause or an effect? _____

5. What does acid rain do to the soil? _____

   _____

   Is your answer a cause or an effect? _____

****** Notice that in the reading passage the writer sometimes tells us about the causes of acid rain in the first part of the sentence and about the effects in the last part. At other times, the effects are described first and then the causes. READ CAREFULLY AND **THINK.**

IMPORTANT

If you can identify causes or effects in whatever you read, your understanding will improve greatly. If you are a student, this will help you to understand all your textbooks much better.

You may have found it difficult to identify the causes and the effects in the last exercise. It is easy to get confused.

The table below gives you some important links which will help you to decide which is the cause and which is the effect. Some of these have been used in the reading passage.

CAUSE	**EFFECT**
because	.....causes.....
As	Therefore
for this reason	The effect of this is
is due to	consequently
since	.....leads to .....

Study Tips

- MAKE SURE YOU UNDERSTAND THE UNITS ABOUT **TOPIC SENTENCES** AND HOW TO ORGANISE YOUR INFORMATION IN AN ESSAY.
- LEARN TO RECOGNISE **SIGNAL** (SIGNPOST/ LINKING/ TRANSITIONAL) **WORDS**. (See the notes added at the end of this workbook)
- LEARN TO **THINK** CRITICALLY.
- READ **INSTRUCTIONS** CLOSELY.

UNIT 7
WRITING CONCLUSIONS

Before writing your conclusion, check the BODY of your essay.

1. Does the body of your essay contain two or more paragraphs with information/ facts/ opinions about the topic?
2. Does each paragraph have a *topic sentence* stating the main idea of that paragraph?
3. Does each paragraph have two or more sentences which *support* the main idea or thought. (This may contain examples.)
4. Have you used signpost words or linking words to help the reader/ lecturer follow your argument?

Now you can write your conclusion.

The conclusion

- The concluding paragraph summarises and completes the essay. (It 'rounds off' the essay).
- Conclusions frequently refer back to the essay question itself. This gives the essay a sense of unity and also reassures the reader that the essay question has been answered.
- The conclusion may include a restatement of the main argument of the essay; but do not repeat the whole introduction or argument in the conclusion. (Use different words than you used in the summary).
- The conclusion is usually the shortest paragraph in the essay.

For example, the conclusion below is the conclusion to the essay: Examine the factors which have led to the spread of English in Africa. Discuss what consequences this might have for the indigenous African languages.

> In conclusion, it would seem that the factors which caused the initial spread of English in Africa were rooted in British colonialism. The spread has continued because of the power of America and the consequent importance of English as a world language. The consequences for indigenous African languages are potentially damaging. However, there appear to be signs that Africans are reassessing the value of their languages, and it may be possible, therefore, to avoid these outcomes.

Conclusions can include one or more of the following type of statements which:

- point out the *limitations* of the argument;
- give the possible *applications* of the theories discussed;
- make *predictions* for future developments;
- explain *ongoing research* in the field;
- give suggestions and make recommendations.

Activity 1: Read the conclusions taken from various essays and say which of the above criteria are to be found in each conclusion.

a) No skills, no jobs, no security...What future SA youth?
"Concluding, Dr Ramphele stressed that negative forces needed to be changed into positive forces. When children were relieved from having to police the community, they would be free to play their part."

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b) Dreaming in the mealiefields – Ntataise's pre-schools
"Pre-school education is unlikely to be a priority for any new government", says Thelma Henderson, seasoned educationist and director of Grahamstown's Centre for Social Development. But meanwhile, Ntataise's nursery schools continue to bear the sort of fruit that South Africa so desperately needs, for the tiny hands that grasp those *paper-maché* cups may well be steering the country in 20 years' time."

---

c) Use Green Sense: Recycle
"A great deal of household waste can be recycled: most of the 64 different types of plastic, most paper and cardboard, glass bottles of all sizes and shapes, consist of several different materials. And if collected in large enough quantities, the items you once discarded without a second thought could make a little money as well.

---

d) Brittle Bones: scan or scam?
"Academic experts say there is little or no researched evidence to support the view that an electric blanket may enhance the chances of osteoporosis. However, don't disregard the idea entirely. The Johannesburg gynaecologist propounding the theory is one of the more experienced in the country. Perhaps he knows something that ought to be further tested and researched."

---

e) Building a healthy self-esteem
" Finally, let your child be a unique person. If your son prefers music to athletics and you had visions of his becoming a great sportsman, don't try to push him in your preferred direction. Let him follow his own dreams. That way he'll probably realize those dreams."

Activity 2:

In the space provided, indicate whether each concluding paragraph ends with a summary and final thought (write S in the space), ends with a prediction or recommendation (write P/R), OR ends with a question (write Q).

1. Disappointments are unwelcome, but regular visitors in everyone's life. We can feel depressed about them, or we can try to escape from them. The best thing, though, is to accept a disappointment and then try to use it somehow: step over the unwelcome visitor and then get on with life.

2. Holidays, it is clear, are often not the fulfilling experience they are supposed to be. They can, in fact, be very stressful. But would we rather have a holiday-free calendar?

3. Some people dream of starring roles, their names in lights, and their pictures on the cover of People or True Love magazine. I'm not one of them, though. A famous person gives up private life, feels pressured all the time, and is never completely safe. So let someone else have that cover story. I'd rather lead an ordinary, but calm, life than a stress-filled one.

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Activity 3: Read the short **essay** below. Pay attention to the **introduction** and to the **conclusion** and the organization of ideas from the beginning to the end.

Eating habits and history

Changes in man's eating habits over the centuries have had a remarkable impact on his way of life. Elaborate social rituals have been developed, roads and buildings constructed, sea-routes discovered, and church edicts passed - all as a result of man's changing dietary patterns.

An early example of this can be seen in the history of the Roman Empire. During its final decadent days when elaborate orgies had become popular among the nobility, it was custom to overeat, then stimulate vomiting, so that eating could begin again. Rooms called vomitoria were built onto houses, where guests, after tickling their throats with feathers, could relieve themselves and then return to banqueting.

Later, in the Middle Ages, overeating was also popular, and became a way of passing the time during the cold winters. Henry VIII's dinners started at five in the afternoon and lasted until three the next morning. At that time, overeating became such a problem among the wealthy that the church listed gluttony as one of the deadly sins, and issued an edict forbidding it.

Then, when gluttony was no longer such a problem, another dietary change took place. In the 16th century, the English government, desiring to provide work for sailors and fishermen, and to bring the price of meat down, insisted that fish be eaten twice a week. Because fish spoil easily, and smell when putrid, roads were improved and new ones were built to facilitate quick transport of fish to market towns.

Later in the 16th century, when well-constructed sailing ships permitted it, countries like Britain, Portugal, and the Netherlands searched for sea routes to the East, where they could procure spices. These could preserve meat and also improve its flavour.

The desired new routes were found, and hitherto unknown countries were "discovered". Spices were not the only commodities brought home. In addition, foods such as peanuts, sweet potatoes, bananas, potatoes and rice were introduced to Europe - foods which fundamentally changed the diets of many people. The potato, in particular, was received with wild enthusiasm, and eventually became the staple food of Ireland.

These examples show how profoundly history has been affected by man's desire for food, and his changing dietary habits.

(Adapted from *ThinkWrite* by Rodseth, V., Johanson, L., and Rodseth, W. 1992. Braamfontein: Hodder & Stoughton)

i) Complete the grid below by filling in the linking words (underlined in the passage) that show TIME ORDER or SEQUENCE and those that indicate ADDITIONAL INFORMATION.

TIME ORDER or SEQUENCE	ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

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ii) Draw a **mind map** of the above essay OR write short linear notes which you would use as a guide to write the essay itself.

(IF YOU HAVE FORGOTTEN WHAT A MINDMAP IS, LOOK IN YOUR ENGL131 WORKBOOK – UNIT 1.)

MIND MAP

- **<u>After</u> writing a ROUGH DRAFT, write the FINAL DRAFT of your essay which you must submit before the September holidays.**
- **Read the essay question again (several times) to ensure that you have given what has been asked for.**
- **Do you have a proper introduction and conclusion?**
- **Is each paragraph about one main idea?**
- **Edit for mistakes in grammar and style.**
- **Hand it in on time otherwise you will lose 30 marks (30% of your semester mark).**

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UNIT 8
PLAGIARISM AND ACKNOWLEDGING SOURCES

Plagiarism is the copying of someone else's words or ideas **without acknowledging** them. In academic work this is A CRIME. You will lose many marks, if not all marks, if you do this. Students copy large sections from a book and think a lecturer will not notice it; but they do so because they either know the original author's book or they see that it is not the student's usual writing style. SO, BEWARE.

Activity 1. Look up the following words in your dictionary and write down the meanings and give the part of speech which each word is.
(Choose the meaning that suits the CONTEXT)

SOURCE: _____

BIBLIOGRAPHY:_____

QUOTATION: _____

CITE: _____

REFER:_____

ACKNOWLEDGE:_____

REFERENCE:_____

PUBLICATION:_____

NOTES: Read
Of course, you may use someone else's ideas BUT you must acknowledge them.
HOW?

- The name/s of the author/s of the book you are quoting from must be written in the essay itself *and* in the list of references or sources at the end of your essay. The year that the book was written must also be given.

EXAMPLES
A. IN THE TEXT OR ESSAY ITSELF:

i) Furthermore, English seemed to be a wise choice since it is an international language (Mawasha 1982: 28-29; Sebogo and Monoto 1988: 22) which facilitates communication with the rest of the world, as well as within a particular country. Ndebele (1986: 3), however, questions whether newly independent African states had any real choice in the matter of language.

ii) According to Mawasha (1982: 27), "The language English and the concept 'enlightenment' – that is, being converted to Christianity and being schooled according to the western education model – became synonymous."

iii) A severe blow to the grammar-translation method of teaching came from methods of language teaching, such as the Natural Method, the Conversation Method and others, based on the philosophy that:

> Learning how to speak a new language ... is not a rational process which can be organized in a step-by-step manner following graded syllabuses of new points to learn, exercises and explanations. It is an intuitive process for which human beings have a natural capacity that can be awakened provided only that the proper conditions exist. Put simply, there are three such conditions: someone to talk to, something to talk about, and a desire to understand and make yourself understood (Howatt, 1994:192).

iv) Teenage pregnancy is defined as an underaged girl, that is younger than 16 years, who is pregnant (Seymour 1999:1).

B. IN THE REFERENCE SECTION:

i) **BOOKS**:

Howatt, A.P.R. 1984. A History of English Language Teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

ii) **JOURNALS**:

Rubin, J. 1981. Study of cognitive processes in second language learning. Applied Linguistics, 11:117-31.

iii) THE INTERNET:

Seymour, N. 1999. Teenage Pregnancy. http://wikipedia.com/teenage/html Date of access: 13 March 2007.

This method of acknowledging references is the HARVARD METHOD. Each faculty will probably have its own preferred method. Remember to ask your subject lecturers which method they want you to use for their assignments or extended essays.

ACTIVITY 2. When quoting someone else's words – look at the examples- what do you need to know about punctuation?

_____

_____

ACTIVITY 3. Correct the following sentences containing references as they would be acknowledged in an essay.

Use the Bibliography* given below the sentences to help you.

a) According to Guy Butler, eminent Africans feel that a country would not exist without a lingua franca.
b) According to the article by Njabulo Ndebele, it is emphasized that English is the language of the colonizer.
c) English kills off other languages. It is a cultural and social threat. (John Edwards).
d) English is essential for trade and scientific conferences. (Smith article 1983).
e) English is indispensable in a way that our African languages are not (Guy Butler, 1985).

*BIBLIOGRAPHY:

Butler, G. 1985. *The role of English in Africa.* Cape Town: Juta.
Edwards, J. 1989. *English as a cultural threat.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ndebele, N. 1990. Colonising Africa: the contribution of the English language. *TESOL Journal*, 12 (2), Spring: 164-170.
Smith, R. D. 1989. English, the language of trade and science. *English Language Teaching Journal*, 21 (1), September: 212-220.

Only the basic referencing has been dealt with in this unit – the library will have books containing more detail.

ACTIVITY 4. Write the following information about the books and/or journals in the way it should for the bibliography of a research article:

a) Non-governmental organizations and the Truth and Reconciliation Commission: an impact assessment. Anthony W. Marx. Politikon. 1999. Volume 26, pages 55-80

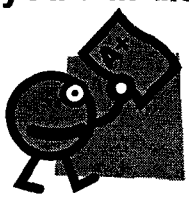
b) The Long Journey: South Africa's Quest for a Negotiated Settlement. Steven Friedman. 1993. Johannesburg. Ravan.

c) Other People's Children: Cultural Conflict in the Classroom. L. Delpit. 1995. The New Press. New York.

d) Generating capacity for academic transformation: a case study. Blunt, R.J.S. South African Journal For Higher Education. 12 102-110.

- **Whenever an essay is returned to you, READ the COMMENTS on your essay made by your tutor (whether this is in Psychology, Sociology, or Legal Communication). Looking at the lecturer's feedback will help you improve your essay writing skills, and thus obtain better marks for essays and assignments in your other subjects.**

Remember! When you improve your English writing skills, you will also improve your marks in your content subjects!



UNIT 9
EDITING THE FINAL DRAFT

You need to refer to the ENGL131 workbooks and the notes you took during ENGL131 lectures to help you with the editing in the following exercises.

ACTIVITY 1. *Read the following paragraph. It contains 7 mistakes. Find the mistakes and correct them. REWRITE THE CORRECTED PARAGRAPH BELOW.*

Erik enjoy many types of sports. He is liking team sport such as basketball, soccer, and baseball. He also plays traditionals, individual sports like racquetball and golf his favourite sports involve danger as well as exciting. He loves parasailing, extreme skiing, and skydiving.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

ACTIVITY 2. *Read this report about the history of the computer. All capital letters have been omitted (left out). Correct the paragraph by putting capital letters in the right places. You will need to add 18 capital letters. ENCIRCLE THE LETTER THAT NEEDS TO BE A CAPITAL.*

throughout history, man has found it necessary to do mathematical computations and keep accounts. in early times, we used groups of sticks or stones to help make calculations. then the abacus was developed in china. these simple methods represent the beginnings of data processing. as man's computational needs became more complicated, he developed more advanced technologies. one example is the first simple adding machine that mr. blaise pascal developed in 1642. another example is the first machine that would do calculations and print out results, which mr. charles babbage designed in 1830. in the middle of the twentieth century, researchers at the university of pennsylvania built the first electronic computer. today of course we have the computer to perform all kinds of advanced mathematical computations.

ACTIVITY 3. *Read the following letter. It has 8 errors. Find the errors and correct them. Then rewrite the corrected letter.*

Dear Editor

In my opinion, it is important for women with small childrens to work outside of the home. First of all, is difficult to be with little kids all day. Womens needs a break from there kids. Also, a woman who has a career can offer her children mores, because it is the quality of time that mothers spend with their children that are important.

Sincerely,
Lisa Harris

ACTIVITY 4. *Read the following memo from the chairman of Bayview Associates. The form is correct for a memo but there are 8 mistakes. Correct the mistakes and rewrite the memo correctly.*

MEMO

TO: All Employees
FROM: David Stanson, President
DATE: 3/09/03
RE: Punctuality

it has come recently to my attention that we are becoming increasingly lax about beginning our work day in 9 am. I understand that many of you are always on time and I thank you for your reliability, I also realize that sometimes lateness cannot be avoided. I feel, however, that habitual late has become a serious problem and that I must mention it before it gets worser. It is my opinion that we are a team and that we must all work together to build strongest company we can. Inattention to punctuality creates resentment among coworkers. I will appreciate it if you paying more attention to this important detail in the future.

ACTIVITY 5. *Look at the following essay question and its answer. Do the exercises below it.*

Question: Discuss the three stages of sending a spacecraft into orbit.

Answer:

There are three stages involved in sending a spacecraft into orbit. First, the Stage One Rocket is used for the blastoff, but it is only used for two and a half minutes. When the spacecraft reaches a speed of 6, 000 miles per hour and an altitude of forty miles, this rocket drops off into the sea. Then, the Stage Two Rocket is used, but only for about six minutes, because it drops off when the spacecraft reaches a speed of 14,000 miles per hour and an altitude of 110 miles. Finally, during the third stage, the spacecraft goes into orbit. The Stage Three Rocket is used for two minutes, or until the spacecraft reaches a speed of 17,500 miles per hour and an altitude of 120 miles.

NOTICE THAT THE TOPIC SENTENCE RESTATES THE QUESTION.

A. Circle the signal or transition words that helped you understand the answer.

B. Underline the specific information—the details, such as numbers and times.

ACTIVITY 6. *In an essay, discuss the history of computers from 1950 to the present. Use the following information.* Write your own introduction and conclusion.

First Generation of Computers	**Second Generation of Computers**	**Third Generation of Computers**
—1950—1960	—1960—1965	—1965—present
—electronic tube used as basis of technology	—transistor used as basis of technology	—printed circuit board used as basis of technology
—slow compared to today	—smaller	—smaller
—small data memory bank	—faster	—faster
	—more reliable	—more reliable
	—increased use for business purposes	—less expensive
		—growth in business use
		—growth in use of personal computers

REMEMBER

- Before writing a paragraph, you need to **brainstorm, mind-map, select and order** your ideas.
- Good writers draft and revise their work before producing their final draft.
- A good **paragraph** has **a main idea,** usually expressed in the first sentence.
- This sentence is known as the topic sentence.
- The topic sentence is not a heading, or a question, but **a full, declarative** sentence.
- Connected support sentences **develop fully the** main idea which is expressed in the topic sentence.
- The main idea in the topic sentence is often a generalization.
- The main idea should not, however, be too general, as a paragraph always deals with part of a larger theme.
- The support sentences give specific details illustrating the main idea.
- In good writing, every sentence **connects** with the previous sentence.

- A repeated word can make a connection between one sentence and the next.
- **Synonyms** and **pronouns** can connect sentences and help avoid unnecessary repetition.
- **Antonyms** can also hold passages together — especially if they are dealing **with comparisons** and contrasts.
- **Connective words expressing identity** signal **to** the **reader that a point** which says the same thing — **but more clearly or briefly** — is **being made.**
- **Connective words expressing opposition** signal to the reader that a contrasting or opposing point is being made.
- Certain connective words can be used to show a cause-effect relationship, others to present additional similar points, and yet others to show order, or time-sequence.

(Adapted from *ThinkWrite* by Rodseth, V., Johanson, L., and Rodseth, W. 1992. Braamfontein: Hodder & Stoughton)

UNIT 10
Visual Literacy

(The material for this unit was taken and adapted from:http://k-8visual.info/copyrt_Text.html)

What is visual literacy?

If you can read a map, draw a diagram or interpret symbols like

or then you are visually literate. Visual literacy is the reading and writing of visual texts.

What are visual texts?

A text is anything with which we make meaning. Books, websites, videos, even smiles and gestures can be thought of as texts.

A visual text makes its meanings with images, or with meaningful patterns and sequences. For example, a diagram uses images, while a flow chart arranges information in meaningful sequences.

Visual texts range from diagrams to documentaries.

Drawing information, as a diagram, map or table, helps children to see how facts are connected, whereas "making notes" often provides only a collection of isolated pieces of data.

Visual texts do some things better than verbal texts; verbal texts do some things better than visual texts.

Verbal texts (texts made of words and sentences) are ideal for recording details and examples. They capture nuances, subtleties and ambiguities. But they are poor at showing the sequence and structure of ideas, that is, how all the pieces fit together.

Visual texts tend to simplify and generalize a topic and may omit minor details. But they are best at capturing the connections between the key details and show the structure or organizing principle of a topic.

ACTIVITY 1.

Look up the meanings of the underlined words IN THIS CONTEXT and write them in the space below:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

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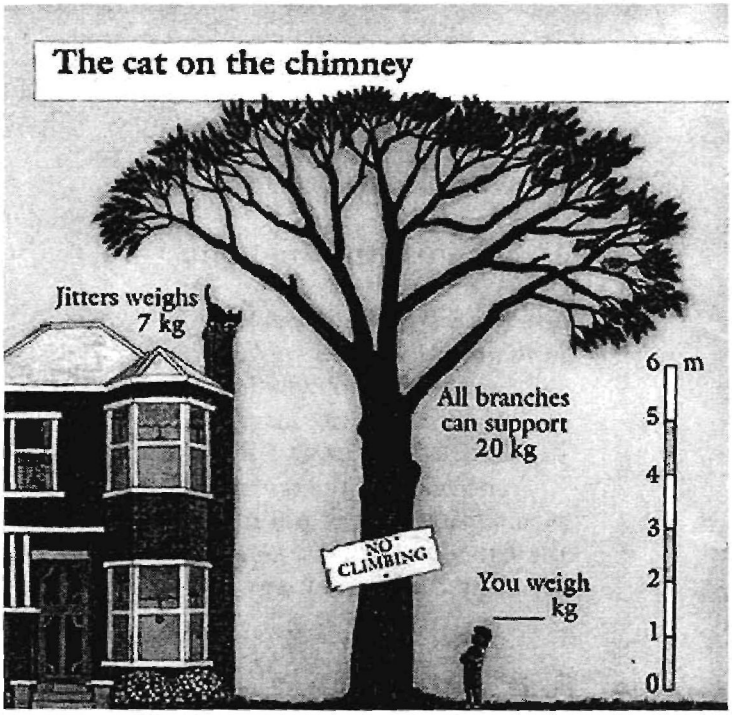
ACTIVITY 2

DRAW or PASTE an example of

1. an annotated diagram
2. a flow chart

Activity 3. Read and follow the instructions:

Your cat Jitters is on the chimney and is afraid to come down. How can you rescue him without causing harm or injury?



Brainstorm possible ways to bring the cat down from the chimney. Work in groups of three.

Use several items. One item is not enough.

Write YOUR solution as a set of instructions ("How to rescue the cat").

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Activity 4: WRITE OUT YOUR *INSTRUCTIONS*:

HOW TO RESCUE THE CAT

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Activity 5: Read everything about TABLES
(The examples provided are simple so that you can understand the concept and then apply it to your more complex study material.)

- The heading of the table sets the context for everything described in the table.
- Each 'box' in the table is called a cell.
- *Columns:* cells grouped *down* the table.
- *Rows:* cells grouped *across* the table.

Are All Planets The Same?		
	Mars	**Venus**
Sky and moons	• Pink sky with blue sunsets • 2 moons	• dark, cloudy sky, no suns • no moons
Landscape features	• extinct volcanoes • ice caps • sand dunes	• • •
Weather and Climate	• always cold, windy and dusty • fogs but no rain	• hot enough for lead to melt • acid rain

Table

A table is made of cells. Each cell belongs to two headings: its row heading and its column heading. You make meanings by joining a cell to its headings. For example "The **weather** on **Mars** is **always cold**."

Why use tables in the classroom?

- To compare similarities and differences.
- To compare alternatives and make a decision.
- To check missing facts when doing research. (For example, in the above table about Mars and Venus, the blank cell reminds you that you still need to research the "landscape features" of "Venus."
- To prepare an information report.

Other visual texts to compare with this one:

- **Calendar** (Has headings and columns like a table)
- **Map** (Uses a grid and coordinates like a table)

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ACTIVITY 6: Using some of the information provided in the table above, write a COMPARISON of the two planets. E.g *This study describes two planets, Mars and Venus.*

IMPORTANT

Your textbooks consist mainly of text, but to clarify certain sections there will be pictures, diagrams, tables, or graphs. These two units aim to familiarize you with reading and interpreting visual or graphic information so that you can write down your interpretations in comprehensible, grammatically correct sentences.

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UNIT 11
VISUAL LITERACY continued
Graphs

Graphs are a visual way to present information instead of using many words to give the same information. Being able to 'read' a graph' and then writing about it is a very important skill to learn. (You need to know the degrees of comparison of adverbs e.g high, higher, highest; many/much, more, most.)

Activity 1: DRAW examples of the following kinds of graphs, below:

i) a line graph
ii) a bar graph
iii) a pie chart

Activity 2: The elements of a graph are:

i) a horizontal axis
ii) a vertical axis
iii) the title or heading
iv) the legend or key

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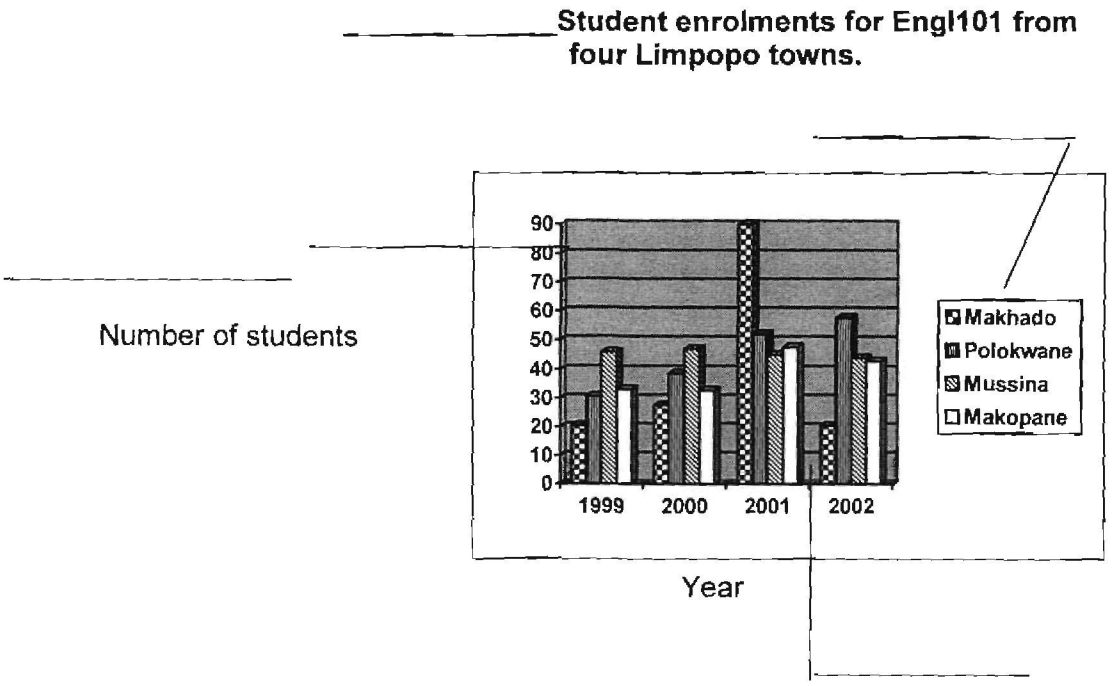
a) Show that you know what these elements are by labeling the graph below.
b) Explain what each element is for.



Activity 3: **Words you must look up and remember in the CONTEXT OF GRAPHS:**

statistical

rate

percentage

trend

Activity 4: Use the following words in complete sentences to describe the development of, for example, economic trends, prices, the incidence of HIV/AIDS, use of cellphones, etc.

decrease, *increase*, *remain constant*, *steady reduction*, *sharp*, *peaks*, and *drop*.

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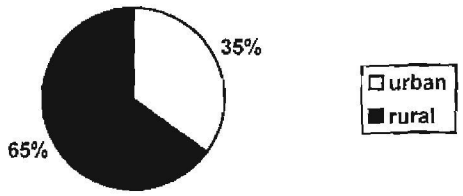
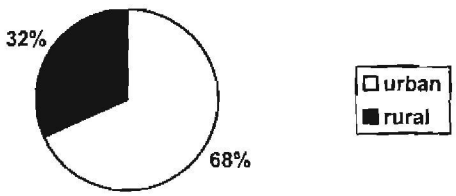
Activity 5: Look at the Pie Charts below. They show the strong TREND towards urbanization in the Limpopo Province.

Urbanisation of Limpopo Province



1940

Urbanisation of Limpopo Province



2001

Answer the following questions referring to the pie charts:

i) What percentage of people in Limpopo lived in rural areas in 1940? _____

ii) Did the percentage increase or decrease in 2001?

_____

iii) Compare the percentage of people in Limpopo who lived in urban areas in 2001 to 1940?

_____

_____

iv) Do you think the trend has changed between 2001 and now? Why?

_____

_____

Activity 6: Complete the following DEGREES OF COMPARISON:

	Positive	Comparative	Superlative
1.	tall	taller	tallest
2.	useful	more useful	most useful
3.	little	_____	_____
4.	bad	_____	_____

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5. old _____ _____

Activity 7: Read the following passage and underline the words that describe the incidence of teen deaths from motor accidents. Look for degrees of comparison.

TEEN ROAD DEATHS
CLIMBING EVERYWHERE

THE WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION, an agency of the United Nations, has just published the rather depressing results of a worldwide study on highway deaths. According to the 30-nation WHO study, there has been a dramatic increase in the number of deaths from auto accidents among people in the 15–24 year age group. The greatest increase was recorded in Mexico, where a 608% rise in the number of highway deaths was recorded. In the United States there was a 95% increase in the number of teen deaths resulting from auto accidents. The smallest increase was in West Germany, which had a 41% increase in road deaths.

Activity 8:
Between 1980 and 1990 an American organisation called Population Crisis Committee did a survey of the world's 100 largest cities. Among other things they discovered that, of the 100, Lagos is the worst city to live in, and that Tokyo and Osaka are the best. Below (p11) is a table of some of the things they discovered about the twelve largest cities.

a) Write down the names of the 12 cities and next to each name write down the country in which that city is found.

b) Choose one of the things discovered e.g. population, murders, telephones, etc. and draw a graph using that specific information to compare the cities.

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	Population (millions)	Murders per 100,000	%of income spent on food	Persons per room	%of houses with water and electricity	Tele-phones per 100 people
Tokyo	28.7	1.4	18	0.9	100	44
Mexico City	19.4	27.8	41	1.9	94	6
New York	17.4	12.8	16	0.5	99	56
Sao *Paulo*	17.2	26.0	50	0.8	100	16
Osaka	16.8	1.7	18	0.6	98	42
Seoul	15.8	1.2	34	2.0	100	22
Moscow	13.2	7.0	33	1.3	100	39
Bombay	12.9	3.2	57	4.2	85	5
Calcutta	12.8	1.1	60	3.0	57	2
Buenos Aires	12.4	7.6	40	1.3	86	14
Los Angeles	11.5	12.4	12	0.5	94	35
London	11.0	2.5	24	0.6	100	50

- Have you mastered the language of graphs? Can you interpret graphs and write your interpretation in the appropriate words and sentences?
- IS YOUR NAME ON THE WORKSHOP ATTENDANCE LIST?
- HAVE YOU READ THE TEST POLICY ON PAGES 3 AND 4?
- Read the examination procedures in your ENGL131 workbook before you write on **3 November.**

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ADDENDUM – SIGNAL WORDS/TRANSITION WORDS/ SIGNPOST WORDS

1. **Signal Words indicating 'Additional Information'**
   Let's say that you've stated your MAIN IDEA, and now you'd like to add some more information. Think of a small apple tree. How to make the tree stronger? Grow more branches! These words will lead your reader forward and imply the building of an idea or thought.

   Example: Do you have any apples? Why yes! In fact, I also have some oranges and cherries, as well as some sweet pineapples, and even this delicious melon. Plus I have lots more...

   + Additional Information -

also	moreover	
again	in addition	in addition to
and	and then	likewise
another	similarly	similar to
besides	too	
equally	important	what's more
further	furthermore	

2. **Signal Words indicating 'Enumeration'**
   Enumeration means 'counting', like 1,2,3...etc.
   It can also indicate a sequence of events, like getting up in the morning.

   Example: First I open my eyes. Secondly I put on my slippers and next walk to the bathroom. Then, I brush my teeth. After my shower, I finally get dressed.

   Words signalling Enumeration

First	Second	Third
Next	then	finally
Morning	afternoon	evening etc. (Time of day)
Monday	Tuesday,	June, July, etc.

3. **Signal Words indicating 'Contrast'**
   Being able to make a contrast implies that you have a difference between perceptions, ideas or items, such as:

   Pairs of Opposites:
   expensive, cheap; cold,hot; men,women; war, peace

   Transition words allow us to express the relationship between these pairs of opposites within the same sentence.

   Example:
   1. My wife's perfume is rather expensive, however our daughter's is very cheap as she is only six years old!

2. Drinking cold water is not healthy, while consuming hot tea can be a remedy for many ailments. Did you notice which words were linking the two contrasting / opposing sides of the sentence? Yes? These were the signal words. You will see more of them in the list below:

Words that signal CONTRAST:

although	on the other hand	but
on the contrary	conversely	unlike
however	whereas	in contrast
while	instead	yet
nevertheless		

Why would a writer use contrast words? He or she may be trying to indicate the advantage of one thing over another, or may merely be trying to present both sides of an issue. When you see one of these words in a sentence, you know that a change in thought to an opposing position will be taking place.

4. Signal Words showing Example/Illustration
Words indicating 'Example'/'Illustration'

Examples: If I tell you that there are many types of people in the world, you may know that I am referring to Asian, European, Japanese, Singaporeans, etc. But I could just as well be thinking of short, tall, fat, and thin people! A good writer will illustrate his point in order to make it perfectly clear by listing examples.

Words that signal example/illustration:

for example	in other words
for instance	such as

Transition words allow us to express the **relationship** between these pairs of opposites within the same sentence. For example:

1. There are many types of people in the world such as Asians, Europeans, Africans, and Americans.
2. The voltage increase is directly proportional to the current flow. For example, when the voltage increases from 10 to 15 vdc, the current increases from 500ma to 750ma.

5. Signal Words indicating 'Cause and Effect'

The cause is why something happens. · The effect is what happens; it's the result.

Example: The dominoes will remain standing forever until something causes them to fall. Suddenly, I notice that all of the dominoes are falling and creating a wonderful show. This is a great special effect!

But what caused it to happen? I did. It was easy! I simply knocked over the first domino with my finger.
1. The dominoes fell over because the first one was pushed.
2. Whenever the first domino is pushed, all of the others will fall.
(The cause: THE FIRST ONE WAS PUSHED, The effect: THE LAST ONE FELL)

6. Signal Words showing Summary Conclusion

Signal Words indicating 'Summary/Conclusion' The End

We all know that when it gets down to the final paragraph, all loose ends have to be tied up. To summarise means to capture the gist of something seen or heard by:

1. Identifying the main point (one more time!) and supporting details
2. Re-expressing the information in fewer words
3. Leaving a lasting impression

Once again, there are special signal words that are always used.

Examples of Signal Words in the final paragraph

briefly	in short
in a word	in brief
in summary	to summarise
Concluding	accordingly
for this reason	to conclude
as a result	hence
thus	as a consequence
in conclusion	Consequently
therefore	

Therefore, ladies and gentlemen, this concludes the section on Signal Words.

APPENDIX J

(See *Appendix G* for copies of the Coursebooks)

ENGL131 COURSEBOOK

NB. The numbers before the activities refer to the number of the activity in the coursebook.

UNIT	READING	WRITING	LISTENING AND SPEAKING	LANGUAGE FOCUS	ACADEMIC SKILLS
1. NOTE TAKING Actv. = Activity/ies	• Read guidelines for note-taking • Actv. 3. Read the comprehension test: Memory and then answer the questions that follow. • Actv 7. Read the passage on The Camel.	• Actv 2. Students must draw or describe a flow-chart. • Actv 6. Write notes using the passage on Memory. • Actv 10. Write brief notes on The Camel.	• A passage is read aloud for students to take notes. • Lecturer takes students through forms of note-taking.	• Actv 5. & 9. Fill in mind maps using words or phrases (not sentences).	• Evaluation of their notes is done. • Actv 1. *Vocabulary* – look up the meanings of words that appear in instructions. • Actv 5. Fill in a *mind map* after reading the comprehension passage - Memory. • Actv 7. *Vocabulary* work – match the meaning to the word. • Actv 9. Draw a *mind map* of the main facts in the passage The Camel.
2. USING A DICTIONARY	• Actv 1.Read the passage from the Labour Relation's Act and answer the questions following it.			• USING A DICTIONARY AS A GRAMMAR TEXTBOOK NOT ONLY FOR SPELLING AND MEANING. • Actv 5. *Alphabetical order*: arrange words in order as in a dictionary. • Actv 6. Use the dictionary to find which *part of speech* a word is. • Actv 7. Under which *part of speech* will you look up the words in bold given in the	• Look up the words in Activity 2. in the dictionary. • Actv 3. Guess the meaning of the words from the context. • Actv 4. Dictionary concepts: look them up in the dictionary. • Actv 8. Look up the *headword* information given in the dictionary entries. • Actv 10. Answer the questions based on the *dictionary entries*

				context of a sentence? • Actv 9. Look up what the *abbreviations* stand for in the crossword puzzle clues.	provided.
3. THE SENTENCE	• Actv 1. Read the passage on <u>The Sentence</u> and • Actv 2. answer the comprehension questions. • Read notes on the requirements of a sentence and word order. • Read the notes on sentence types. Note the position of the verb in each type. • Read the rules for writing *complete sentences.*	• Actv 5. Write *complete sentences* using the verbs provided. • Actv 8. Indicate the *complete sentences* in the list provided. Explain why the others are not complete sentences. • Actv 9. Complete the fragments to form proper *sentences.* • Actv 10 Write a short paragraph, describing <u>a car accident.</u>		• SENTENCE STRUCTURE • Actv 4. Distinguish *complete sentences* from sentence *fragments.* Then convert the fragments into complete sentences. • Actv 6. Indicate *the type of sentence* of each of the examples provided. • Actv 7. Indicate which of the *sentences* in the exercise are complete; and say *what is missing* from the sentence fragments to make complete sentences.	• Actv 3. *Vocabulary*: Look up the underlined words in the passage.
4. PUNCTUATION	• Actv 1. Read the passage on the man from Jakarta and give it an appropriate heading. • All activities require to be read in order to decide which kind of punctuation to use.	• Actv 1. Rewrite the short passage with correct *punctuation.* • Actv 4. Rewrite the sentences inserting the correct *punctuation.* • Actv 5. Rewrite the sentences inserting or removing *capital letters.* • Actv 6. Rewrite sentences and insert *hyphens* and or *dashes*	• Actv 3. The compre-*hension* questions are done <u>orally</u> in class.	• PUNCTUATION • Activities 1. through to 8 all focus on different kinds of punctuation.	

		where appropriate. • Actv 7. Punctuate dialogue appropriately.			
5. PARTS OF SPEECH	• Actv 1. Read the comprehension <u>The history of money</u> and • Actv 2. read it again to answer the comprehension questions. • Actv 3 d) <u>Health during pregnancy.</u>			• Introducing NOUNS, PRO-NOUNS, VERBS, ADJECTIVES, ADVERBS, PREPOSITIONS. • Actv 3.a) *Nouns* – students identify singular and plural nouns in the reading passage (Activity 1). • Actv 3.b) give the singular form of 5 plural nouns in the reading passage. • Actv 3.c) Give the plural forms of a list of nouns (Work out the spelling rules and the exceptions) • Actv 3. d) • Identify and Underline the nouns in a paragraph on <u>Health during pregnancy.</u> • Actv 3.e) Identify the correct form of the pronoun according to its position in a sentence. eg. We/us/ our. • Actv 4. *Verbs*: Underline the verbs in <u>A letter asking for advice.</u>	**Academic skills**: students should now be able to use parts of speech to *construct logical sentences* in English and understand the *function* of each part of speech within complete sentences.

				• Actv 5. *Adjectives*: a) Underline the adjectives in sentences. • Actv 5.b) Fill in the correct degree of comparison in sentences provided. • Actv 6. *Adverbs*: a) Complete sentences with adverbs. • Actv 6. b) Fill in the correct degree of comparison. • Actv 7. *Prepositions*: Fill in the appropriate prepositions in the sentences provided.	
6. VERBS AND CONCORD	• Actv 1. Read the short comprehension passage Makotse, and • Actv 2. Answer the comprehension questions.	• Actv 3. Write sentences with the verbs provided. • Actv 9. 10. Rewrite the paragraphs into the present tense and past tense, respectively.		• VERBS • Actv 4. Complete the table with the forms of irregular verbs. • Actv 5. Replace the verbs in the sentences with synonyms. • Actv 6. Select the correct concord to use in the sentences provided. • Actv 9. 10. Tenses – change the paragraphs into other tenses.	• Actv 7. Vocabulary & Dictionary work: Match the words to the meanings. • Actv 8. Dictionary work: change words into verbs by adding prefixes or suffixes.
7. TENSES	• Actv 1. Read comprehension passage on Kwaito king. • Read the notes and rules on verb forms and tenses.	• Actv 2. Write answers to Kwaito king in full sentences. • Actv 3. Rewrite paragraph 1 of the passage in the past	• Some of the activities are done in pairs in class, others are given for homework.	• Actv 4. Read the passage on the Comrades Marathon and fill in the correct tense of the *verb*. • Actv 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. Fill	

		tense. • Actv 11 a)b)c) Rewrite the passage A lazy man's reward in future tense, past tense and past perfect, respectively.		in the correct forms of the *verbs* in the sentences and paragraphs. • Actv 10. Complete the different forms of the listed *irregular verbs.* • Actv 12. Edit a student's paragraph.	
8. ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICE	• Actv 1. Read the paragraph Soccer roots and • Actv 2. State whether the statements below it are *True* or *False.* • Read the notes on *Active and Passive voice.*	• Rewrite the sentences in activity 6 by beginning with the word/s provided but without changing the meaning of the original sentence. • Actv 8. Rewrite the passage on the manufacturing of Ford cars, in the passive voice.		• Actv 4. Underline the *passive* verbs in the newspaper report Secondary schools are searched. • Actv 5. Fill in the *active and passive voice* sentences as indicated in the table. • Actv 7. Change the sentences in the activity into the passive voice.	• Actv 3. Vocabulary from the passage – look up the meanings.
9. READING SKILLS	• Actv 5. Test **reading speed** (formula given) and comprehension with passages 1, 2.				• Actv 1. Predict which kind of book the listed books are. • Actv 2. Look at the table of contents provided and indicate the pages where to find information concerning communication. • Actv 3. **Scan** the index of an economics textbook and answer the questions that follow. • Actv **Skim** and **Scan** the content of the

					three paragraphs for information.
10. COMPREHENSION TEST SKILLS	There are 4 **comprehension test passages** to read, followed by questions that require to be written or are multiple choice responses. Topics: 1. Truckers. 2. A tornado called Flo. 3.Breakthrough: mysterious birdcall 4. a) Our own Crocodile Dundees and b) Crocodiles.			• **Activities** involving the comprehension tests. • Compr. 1. to be answered in complete *sentences*; Find *adjectives*; *figures of speech*; *vocabulary* from the passage. • Compr. 2. to be answered complete sentences; • Describe some parts in your own words; find one word for many. • Compr. 3 – MCT and written answers required.	
SELF-STUDY UNIT		• Actv 6. Write sentences with the phrasal verbs.		• Actv 2. 3. 4. PREPOSITIONS associated with time, location, and movement. • Actv 5. Expressions with prepositions. • PHRASAL VERBS: • Actv 6. Find phrasal verbs formed with *take*, *break*, *find* and *sell.*	
REVISION EXERCISES				• Actv 1. Complete the table to show a word in its forms as different *parts of speech*. • Actv 2. Fill in the correct part of speech in the sentences provided.	

				• Actv 3. Select and underline the appropriate word to *complete the sentence.* • Actv 4. Rewrite the sentences provided selecting the correct word.	

COURSE ORGANISATION MODEL *adapted from* ROONEY, L.M. (1999:viii). *NEW PERCEPTIONS.* Cape Town: Maskew Miller Longman.

ENGL132 COURSEBOOK

NB. The numbers before the activities refer to the number of the activity in the coursebook.

UNIT	READING	WRITING	LISTENING AND SPEAKING	LANGUAGE FOCUS	ACADEMIC SKILLS
1. SUMMARY WRITING	• Actv 1. Read notes on how to summarise a passage. All passages to be summarised require reading.	• Actv 2. Summarise each paragraph of newspaper article: Teenager attacked. • Actv 3. Summarise short newspaper article: A narrow escape. • Actv 3., 4., 5., longer summaries to write (60 to 100 words).	Some summaries are done in pairs in class – interaction between peers and with lecturer.	LANGUAGE FOCUS is on adjectives, sentence structure, substituting one word for a phrase – that is, reducing the number of words	• Use the dictionary for difficult or unfamiliar words. • Actv 4. 5. 6. Also for practicing reading speed.
2. ANALYSING ESSAY TOPICS				FOCUS on Task and Topic words • Actv 3. Use *synonyms* to simplify examination/assign-ment questions.	Use dictionary to look up the meaning of task words e.g. discuss, analyse etc. • Actv 2. Recognise task words. • Actv 2. *Recognise* topic words
3. ESSAY INTRODUCTIONS	• Read notes on the function of the essay introduction.		• Work in pairs to identify the type of introduction used in	FOCUS on structure and linking words or	• Actv 1. *Analyse* examples of introductions and

	• Actv 1. Read examples of essay introductions • Read two versions of an introduction to an essay. • Read the readings provided for the essay given for assessment.		the examples.	transition words in an introduction.	recognise. • Actv 2. *Analyse* two introductions and select the better one. • Actv 3. *Select* logical order of argument in introductions.
4. TOPIC SENTENCES	• Actv 1. Read short notes on topic sentences.	• 2 Actv. 3. 4. 5 Improve the examples of topic sentences given in the activities. • Actv 6. Write appropriate topic sentences for given paragraphs. • Actv 8. Write appropriate topic sentences for paragraphs of essay: Garden pests		• Actv 2. 3. 4. Language focus is on the topic sentence (sentence structure).	• Actv 5. 6. *Selecting* the best topic sentence for a paragraph. • Actv 7. *Select* best topic sentence after reading paragraphs: What Egypt gave the world.
5. CONNECTING SENTENCES – COHERENCE, COHESION AND RELEVANCE	• All activities: Read *mixed order* sentences and read again once they have been written in a logical order.	• Actv 1b. & 2b. Write out the process in the correct order. • Actv 9. Write the essay using the information provided: Smoking.	• Actv 1. 2. & 3. Work in pairs to decide correct order of sentences.	FOCUS on *Linking* words, *transition words*	• *Select* the appropriate Heading for a passage. (Act. 5. 6. 7.) • *Recognise* the irrelevant sentences or paragraphs Act. 4. 5. 6.7. 8.) • Actv 9. *Arrange* ideas into paragraphs. • Actv 9. put sentences into correct *order.*
6. ORGANIZATION AND	• Read the notes on organization of information and	• Actv 3.A. Fill in the table with the relevant information	• Actv 1. 2. Work in pairs to work out the type of information	• Study the signal/ signpost words used with specific kinds of	• Actv 3B. *Identify* signpost words that show contrast.

PRESENTATION OF ARGUMENTS	presentation of argument. • Actv 3. Read the passage which compares and contrasts two game reserves in Botswana. • Actv 4. Read the passage on Govan Mbeki. • Actv 5. Read passage on 'It's raining vinegar.'	obtained from the passage. • Actv 3B Write 3 to 4 sentences showing similarities and differences between Chobe and Okavango. • Actv 5. Fill in the answers to the cause and effect questions.	organization.	organization of information. • Actv 3. Study examples which indicate language of comparison and contrast.	•Actv 4. *Identify* signal words that show *chronological time order.* • Actv 5. Understanding and writing *Cause and Effect* questions. • Actv *Recognise* and *use* signal words that indicate cause and effect arguments.
7. CONCLUSIONS	• Read notes on conclusions. • Read the conclusions provided. • Actv 2. Read the short essay on Eating habits and history.		• Work in pairs to decide on the type of conclusion each example in Activity 1 is.	• Actv 2. Identify the linking words/ transition words in the text that indicate a) chronological time order and b) additional information.	• Notes: The example – analyse the question and see how it is reflected in the conclusion. • Actv 2. Evaluate the introduction and conclusion of the short essay – Eating habits and history.
8. PLAGIARISM	• Examine the various examples of REFERENCING *in text* and *end of text (* in the reference section).	• Actv 2. Write a comment about what you notice about the punctuation when referencing.			• Focus on the *Harvard method* of referencing and plagiarism. • Actv 1. Use dictionary to look up vocabulary relating to referencing. • Actv 3. & 4. Correct the incorrect referencing.
9. EDITING THE FINAL DRAFT (To do this unit the		• Activities 1.2.3.4. Rewrite the paragraphs and correct the errors		FOCUS on grammar and sentence structure. • Actv 1. Correct *punctuation and*	

students need to go back to what they did in ENGL131.)		identified. • Actv 6. Write an essay on <u>The History of Computers from 1950 to the Present</u> using the information provided and write your own introduction and conclusion.		*grammar* editing. • Actv 2. Point out *punctuation* errors • Actv 3. Find 8 *grammar* errors. • Actv 4. Identify errors • Actv 5. Identify transition words and examine the logical structure.	
10. VISUAL LITERACY	• Notes explaining visual literacy. • Actv . 1. Vocabulary in context – looking up the meaning of words in a reading passage. • Actv 3. Read and Interpret information from 2 pictures picture – to rescue a cat from a tree. • Actv 5. Read about tables.	• Actv 4. Writing instruct-tions: how to rescue the cat on the roof. • Actv 5. Use degrees of comparison in written *sentences* to compare the planets in the table.	• Actv 3. Groupwork – Brainstorm to decide how to get the cat down unharmed.	• Actv 5. *Degrees of comparison* (to compare planests)	• Actv 2. Draw an annotated diagram and a flow chart. • Actv 3.& 5. *Interpret* graphics and tables
11. VISUAL LITERACY continued (Graphs)	• Read about graphs. • Actv 7. Read text on <u>teen road deaths</u>.	• Actv 4. Use words and phrases in *sentences* that could be represented by a graph. (To be written.) • Actv 5. Write answers to questions on pie graphs in *sentences*.		• Actv 6. Complete a table of *degrees of comparison*.	• Actv 2. Name the *elements* of a *line/bar graph.* • Actv 3. *Vocabulary* used with graphs. Look up their meaning. • Actv Draw examples of different types of graph. • Actv 5. *Interpret* pie charts. (Urbanisation) • Actv 8. Categorising data about <u>The world's largest cities</u>

					and selecting one type to draw a graph.
ADDENDA: Readings for essay List of Task words	Essay topics: 2003 -Euthanasia 2004 - *Corporal Punishment* 2005 -Kwaito and R&B 2006 – Lobola 2007 – 6 topics suitable for an academic essay				• Tips for a well-written essay (p60) • The essay must be well-constructed with a clear introduction and conclusion with a list of sources.

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