

**IMPROVING THE TEACHING AND LEARNING OF ESL IN UNDER PERFORMING
SCHOOLS OF THE
NORTH-WEST PROVINCE**

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This study is dedicated to the poor who yearn for a free and quality public education.

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SUMMARY

The purpose of this study was to:

- determine what makes ESL teaching and learning effective.
- identify the problems experienced in English Second Language (ESL) teaching and learning in the under-performing schools.
- develop a framework for the improvement of the teaching and learning of ESL in under-performing schools.

This study followed a three-pronged approach, viewing the effective ESL teacher as possessing certain knowledge, skills and personal qualities. The effective ESL teacher was regarded as possessing personal qualities that enabled him/her to develop genuine relationships with his/her learners, parents/community, his/her colleagues as well as democratic classrooms. It was indicated that it was critical for the ESL teacher to have knowledge of both the subject matter and human development. The study also indicated that teachers needed certain didactic skills to execute teaching and learning effectively in an ESL classroom. The principal and his/her Senior Management Team play an important supporting role in the effective teaching and learning of ESL.

Empirical data were collected in order to identify typical problems experienced by ESL teachers in under-performing schools. Data were collected through interviews with learners, teachers, the subject heads of the languages department (HODs), principals and an Education Department official. The analyses of the data indicated that there was a need for an in-service course in order to improve teaching and learning in under-performing schools.

This study then proposes a growth and development programme framework for the improvement of the teaching and learning of ESL in under-performing schools. The growth and development programme framework provides a detailed in-service training programme as well as general recommendations for the improvement of ESL teaching and learning in these schools of the North West province. Suggestions are made on how to implement and monitor the growth and development programme framework.

OPSOMMING

Die doel van die studie is om:

- te bepaal wat Engels Tweedetaalonderrig (ETT) effektief maak;
- probleme te identifiseer wat ervaar word in ETT onderrig en leer in onderpresterende skole;
- 'n raamwerk te ontwikkel vir die verbetering van ETT onderrig en leer in onderpresterende skole.

Hierdie studie het 'n driebenige benadering gevolg en gaan van die veronderstelling uit dat die effektiewe ETT onderwyser oor bepaalde kennis, vaardighede en persoonlike eienskappe beskik. Die effektiewe ETT onderwyser word gesien as iemand met persoonlike eienskappe wat hom/haar in staat stel om 'n opregte verhouding met sy/haar leerders, die ouers/gemeenskap, en sy/haar kollegas te ontwikkel, sowel as om 'n demokratiese klaskamer te ontwikkel. Dit word aangedui dat dit krities belangrik is dat die ETT onderwyser kennis het van beide die vakinhoud en menslike ontwikkeling. Die studie dui verder aan dat ETT onderwysers sekere didaktiese vaardighede benodig om onderrig en leer effektief uit te voer binne die ETT klaskamer. Die hoof en sy/haar Senior Bestuursspan speel 'n belangrike ondersteuningsrol in die effektiewe onderrig en leer van ETT.

Empiriese inligting is ingesamel ten einde tipiese probleme wat ETT onderwysers in onderpresterende skole ervaar, te identifiseer. Data is ingesamel deur middel van onderhoude met leerders, onderwysers, die vakhoofde van taaldepartemente, skoolhoofde en 'n amptenaar van die Onderwysdepartement. Die analise van die data het aangedui dat daar 'n behoefte bestaan vir 'n in-diens opleidingskursus om onderrig en leer in onderpresterende skole te verbeter.

Hierdie studie ontwikkel derhalwe 'n raamwerk vir 'n groei- en ontwikkelingsplan vir die onderrig en leer van ETT in onderpresterende skole. Die raamwerk vir die groei- en ontwikkelingsplan bied 'n gedetailleerde in-diens opleidingsprogram sowel as algemene aanbevelings vir die verbetering van ETT onderrig en leer in hierdie skole in die Noord-

Wes Provinsie. Voorstelle word gemaak vir die implementering en monitering van die raamwerk vir die groei- en ontwikkelingsplan.

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CASS: Continuous Assessment
 CLT: Communicative Language Teaching
 DSG: Development Support Group
 ELRC: Education Labour Relations Council
 ELT: English Language Teaching
 ESDT: Extended Self-Determination Theory
 ESL: English Second Language
 FET: Further Education and Training
 H.O.D.: Subject Head of Department
 ILM: Integrative Listening Model
 IQMS: Integrated Quality Management System
 L2: Second Language
 LAC: Language Across the Curriculum
 LAIP: Learner Attainment Improvement Strategy
 LoLT: Language of Learning and Teaching
 LTSM: Learning and Teaching Support Material
 MOI: Medium of Instruction
 NCS: National Curriculum Statements
 NEPA: National Education Policy Act
 NGO: Non-Governmental Organization
 OBE: Outcomes Based Education
 SAHRC: South African Human Rights Commission
 SASA: South African Schools Act
 SDT: Self-Determination Theory
 SDT: Staff Development Team
 SES: Socio-Economic Status
 SESI: School Effectiveness and School Improvement
 SGB: School Governing Body
 SLA: Second Language Acquisition
 SMT: School Management Team
 TBLT: Task-Based Language Teaching

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Problem Statement

Professor Kader Asmal, the then Minister of Education in South Africa, observed in 1999 that large parts of the South African education system were dysfunctional (Asmal, 2001: 3). As a result, the national Department of Education set itself the task of “decreasing the number of under-performing schools through a focused improvement and intervention strategy” (Asmal, 2001: 3). At the time 472 schools had been identified nationally as under-performing (cf. Asmal, 2001). Asmal set a target to reduce the number of under-performing schools to 400 within a year. But there remain a large number of under-performing schools in our school system. This gloomy picture is painted by a gradual drop of South Africa’s overall matric pass rate to date (cf. Govender, Nombembe, George, Chauke & Mahlangu, 2007).

The MEC for Education in the North West province, Johannes Tselapedi, expressed concern over the slight increase of under-performing schools that achieved a pass rate of fewer than 60% in his province from 142 to 146 (cf. Govender et al., 2007). The Department of Education in the North West has labelled under-performing schools as ‘trapped’ schools (Department of Education, 2001a). A school in the North West province is regarded as under-performing or ‘trapped’ if it obtains a pass rate of below 60 percent in the previous year’s matriculation examinations. Since 2001 there have been more than 80 under-performing schools in this province.

The North West Department of Education has been implementing an intervention strategy to improve the results of the so-called trapped schools through the Directorate: Professional Development and Subject Advisory Service since 1998 (cf. Department of Education, 2001a). Even so, an analysis of the matriculation results of these schools over the past five years reveals some disturbing aspects: a number of under-performing schools have been in the ‘trapped’ zone for three or more consecutive years without making any significant progress, and, while some schools exit the ‘trapped’ zone, they return after a year or two; some schools have shown a sharp decrease in pass

percentages from one year to the next; and some schools that obtained excellent results 3 or 4 years ago have for no apparent reason landed in the 'trapped' zone.

These results indicate that under-performing schools do not necessarily benefit from the departmental intervention strategies, and that every school is unique, with its distinct problems. The education department therefore has to revisit its intervention strategies to enable it to assist under-performing schools (cf. Department of Education, 2001a). According to the Department of Education (2001a: 8), "a *proper* (my italics) investigation and analysis of results will probably be necessary to accommodate those schools who {sic} did not benefit from the general programme of intervention."

It is an undisputed fact that the language of learning and teaching plays a significant role in the performance of any school. Therefore, an investigation of the effectiveness of the teaching and learning of English, which is the language of learning and teaching in the under-performing schools, is critical.

Reinhard (1996: 73) argues that "the language that is used as the medium of instruction in different educational institutions has major effects and consequences on the performance of pupils in various examinations." In the under-performing schools, which are mostly African schools, learners are not taught in their mother tongue. Instruction is in their second language and this is one of the reasons for the poor examination results in Grade 12 (cf. Reinhard, 1996; Barkhuizen & Gough, 1996; Bosman & Van der Merwe, 2000; Moyo, 2001). The relationship between language and performance in Mathematics, Science, History and other content subjects is a critical one (cf. Bosman & Van der Merwe, 2000; Reinhard, 1996; MacKay & De Klerk, 1996; Lemmer, 1995). "Language is a crucial means of gaining access to important knowledge and skills" (Lemmer, 1995: 83). According to Lemmer (1995: 83), language can either promote or impede scholastic success because it is the key to cognitive development (cf. also NEPI, 1992).

Watkins, Biggs and Regmi (1991: 338) point out that, if learners study in a language in which they may not be confident, their approach to learning is affected, since they are more likely "to rely on rote learning without trying to understand what they are learning" (cf. also Lemmer, 1995; Bosman & Van der Merwe, 2000). Some writers point out that

the problem is aggravated by the fact that, although English is regarded as the medium of instruction in Grade 12, learners and teachers often use code-switching and either use a mixture of English and the African language or only the African language in the classroom (cf. Reinhard, 1996; Meyer, 1995; Meyer, 1997; Meyer, 1998; MacKay & De Klerk, 1996; Barkhuizen & Gough, 1996).

The role played by the English Second Language (ESL) teacher in under-performing schools cannot be underestimated. It seems as if new initiatives have to be taken to influence the teaching of English in order to improve the results of these schools. Teachers of English need to give consideration to ways in which they can better fulfil their pedagogical task (Von Gruenewaldt, 1999: 20). They must equip learners with the proficiency required for academic advancement (cf. Von Gruenewaldt, 1999). However, South Africa faces the problem of a lack of highly qualified English language teachers (cf. Moyo, 2001). Moreover, the English competence of most ESL teachers in the African schools is low (cf. MacKay & De Klerk, 1996; Lemmer, 1995; Mafisa, 2001; Mafisa & Van der Walt, 2002). If the quality of English teaching does not improve, it will be difficult to improve the results of the under-performing schools (cf. MacKay & De Klerk, 1996).

There is no exact definition of an effective teacher. Instead, the teacher can be regarded as effective according to teaching practices that relate to positive outcomes in learners (Borich, 2000: 1). The effective teacher is therefore associated with successful learner performance (cf. Arends, 1998). The opposite statement is also true: for the learner to display successful performance, the teacher has to be effective. Various studies have provided patterns of effective teaching that "produced desirable student outcomes in the form of higher test scores, increased problem-solving skills, and improved learning skills" (Borich, 2000: 7).

Borich (2000: 8) identifies five key behaviours and five helping behaviours for effective teaching. The five key behaviours are lesson clarity, instructional variety, teacher task orientation, engagement in the learning process, and student success rate. Lesson clarity refers to "how clear a presentation is to the class", instructional variety to the "variability or flexibility of delivery during the presentation of a lesson" (cf. also Martin, 2002; McGroarty, 1991), teacher talk orientation to "how much classroom time the teacher devotes to the task of teaching an academic subject", engagement in the

learning process to “the amount of time students devote to learning an academic subject”, while student success rate refers to “the rate at which students understand and correctly complete exercises” (Borich, 2000: 8-14). For the teacher to display these key behaviours of effective teaching, he/she should be academically able, have command of his/her subject and should care about the children and youth he/she teaches (Arends, 1998: 12).

The role of the learner in the improvement of their performance cannot be overlooked. Studies of the profile of the good language learner indicate that there is an overall behavioural pattern displayed by such learners (Ellis, 1994: 546). This pattern can be grouped according to five major aspects, viz. a concern for language form, a concern for communication, an active task approach, an awareness of the learning process, and a flexible use of strategies according to the requirements of a task (Ellis, 1994: 546). A wide range of research on the good language learner has been conducted, for example, profiling the successful language learner (e.g. De Kadt, 1999), and learning styles and strategies (e.g. Dreyer, 1998; Dreyer, 2000; Dreyer & Van der Walt, 1992).

The teacher’s effectiveness is inter-dependent on the effectiveness of the school. The teacher does not operate in isolation. Features of effective schools can be divided into two categories, viz. those based on the social organisation of the school (clear academic and social behaviour goals, order and discipline, high expectations, teacher efficacy, pervasive caring, public rewards and incentives, administrative leadership, and community support) and those based on the school’s instructional and curriculum patterns (high academic learning time, frequent and monitored homework, frequent monitoring of learner progress, coherently organised curriculum, variety of teaching strategies and opportunities for student responsibility) (Arends, 1998: 455).

Based on the above discussion, this research seeks to address the following questions:

- What makes ESL teaching and learning effective?
- What are the problems experienced in ESL teaching and learning in under-performing schools?
- How can the teaching and learning of ESL be improved in these schools?

1.2 Purpose of this Study

The purpose of this study is to:

- determine what makes ESL teaching and learning effective.
- identify the problems experienced in the teaching and learning of ESL in the under-performing schools.
- develop an in-service training framework for the improvement of the teaching and learning of ESL in under-performing schools.

1.3 Central Theoretical Statement

Effective teaching and learning of English as subject in schools where English is a second language (ESL) and a language of learning and teaching (LoLT) is instrumental in improving the performance of learners.

1.4 Method of Research

The literature on the following topics was surveyed: the problems in South Africa regarding the dysfunctional schools, the role of the medium of instruction on the performance of learners, effective language teaching, the effective ESL teacher, the good language learner and teacher development. The following computer searches were conducted: MLA, RSAT, NEXUS, ERIC, PU for CHE library catalogue, and the Academic Search Premier (EBSCO).

A qualitative and quantitative study was conducted in this study. The subjects involved were Grade 12 ESL teachers and learners, as well as the management of the four dysfunctional schools of the Potchefstroom District in the North-West province, and an official from the North-West Education Department in charge of the dysfunctional ('trapped') schools. The data were analysed qualitatively and quantitatively and contributed to the development of a framework for in-service training.

1.5 Chapter Division

Chapter 2 discusses problems experienced in ESL learning and teaching in South Africa.

Chapter 3 focuses on effective teaching and learning, with particular attention to English Second Language classrooms.

Managerial issues are discussed in Chapter 4.

Chapter 5 discusses the methodology used in this study while Chapter 6 presents the data collected and discusses the results.

Chapter 7 presents a synthesis of the literature review and the empirical data of this study.

Chapter 8 presents a growth and development programme framework for effective ESL teaching and learning that can be used in under-performing schools.

Chapter 9 concludes the study and makes recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2

FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE ESL LEARNING AND TEACHING IN UNDER-PERFORMING SCHOOLS

2.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses factors that influence ESL learning and teaching in under-performing schools. As indicated in Chapter 1, under-performing schools are faced with many problems. These problems are related to learners, educators, parents/family, the teaching, learning and assessment process, resources, policy implementation, discipline, and management in general (cf. Van der Westhuizen, Mentz, Mosoge, Nieuwoudt, Steyn, Legotlo, Maaga & Sebego, 1999:315).

This chapter focuses on problems related to the ESL learner, teacher and resources - the most important variables within the ESL classroom. The role that the ESL learner's socio-economic background plays in under-performing schools is discussed. This is followed by a discussion of the problems related to the teacher in the under-performing schools and finally, the problems regarding resources in the under-performing schools are briefly explored.

2.2 The ESL Learner

2.2.1 Socio-economic Background

The learners' socio-economic background has a significant effect on their achievement and performance at school. Research indicates that there is a correlation between economic circumstances and academic achievement (cf. Okpala, Okpala & Smit, 2001; Israel, Beaulieu & Hartless, 2001; Caldas & Bankston, 1997; Griffith, 1996; Crane, 1996; Van der Westhuizen, Legotlo, Maaga, Legotlo, Mosoge, Nieuwoudt & Steyn, 2002; Smith & Liebenberg, 2003).

According to Van der Westhuizen et al. (2002:113), research has shown that “dropout and repetition rates appear to be most common among students from low socio-economic backgrounds” (cf. also Alexander et al., 2001:770). Although the causes of poor performance are complex, they include poverty, malnutrition, and absenteeism (Van der Westhuizen et al., 2002:113). The majority of learners in South Africa come from a low socio-economic background and most of their parents have a low level of school education (cf. Van der Westhuizen et al., 2002; SAHRC, 2006).

In the research they conducted, Alexander et al. (2001) found that sixty percent of lower SES (socio-economic status) youth drop out of school as opposed to fifteen percent of upper SES youth. “An accumulating literature traces the developmental roots of dropout to children’s formative experiences at home and school” (Alexander et al., 2001:801). Smit and Liebenberg (2003:1) indicate that negative parental behaviour, abuse, participation in crime and incarceration are amongst the conditions that prevail in sub-economic communities. *The environment of these communities is characterised by impoverished unstable interpersonal relationships* (Le Roux & Geldenhuys, 1994:30-31). These conditions result in children from these backgrounds leaving schools prematurely (Smit & Liebenberg, 2003:1).

Because they fail to understand the economic background of learners, most teachers respond in a way that increases alienation and stress for children (Smith & Liebenberg, 2003:2). Furthermore, some teachers tend to make references to the parents of these children in a way that damages their self-respect and pride (Smit & Liebenberg, 2003:2).

Strauss (1995:63-64) indicates that there is a breakdown of families in the low socio-economic communities. This is manifested in rising rates of divorce, separation, single parenthood and teenage pregnancy. Families in low socio-economic conditions experience overcrowding, poverty and instability. “Economic hardships and the large number of people dependent on each wage earner, has forced parents to choose between employment for survival or attending to their children’s emotional and intellectual needs” (Strauss, 1995:64). Children are thus left in the care of their grandparents or older siblings. The net effect is that parents end up not being aware of “youngsters’ activities and in turn young people feel that their parents are not supportive”

(Strauss, 1995:64). At a very young age, many children from low socio-economic backgrounds are initiated into a life of violence and crime that offer an acceptable alternative to overcrowded and poor homes "where alcoholism and drug abuse is all too often a very real part of daily existence" (Strauss, 1995:64). According to Strauss (1995:66), a constant battle against poverty saps the ability of learners from low socio-economic families to succeed at school. Because of the cycle of poverty in the country, many parents are either illiterate or have a low level of schooling, resulting in households "run by unskilled adults who are ill-equipped to provide a stimulating environment for learning" (Strauss, 1995:66).

In many African homes "children accept domestic responsibilities at a very early age because both parents are forced to go out to work. Often because of financial constraints parents are unable to make adequate arrangements for the care of small children and elderly members of the family. On top of caring for these members of the family school-going children are often required to carry out household tasks. These chores often interfere not only with homework requirements but also [with] regular attendance at school" (Strauss, 1995:66). Furthermore, children from impoverished families have no access to proper study areas, noise levels in the neighbourhood are high and in more wretched circumstances learners are often both cold and hungry (Strauss, 1995:66).

The next section discusses the role of parents in their children's education.

2.2.1.1 Parental Involvement in the Learner's Education

The critical factor that is displayed by parents from low-income background is a lack of involvement in their children's schooling (cf. Van der Westhuizen et al., 2002; Griffith, 1996). Lack of parental involvement poses a serious problem in South African schools, especially under-performing schools.

Ma (1999:4) defines parental involvement as "the dedication of resources by the parent to the child within a given domain". Economic circumstances affect academic achievement because of the lack of an academically supportive home environment in an average low-income home, while high-income children are likely to have academically

supportive home environments (cf. Okpala et al., 2001; Crane, 1996). Nevertheless, studies indicate that “when children from low-income backgrounds are exposed to an emotionally supportive home environment in which academic success is affirmed, their academic achievement scores improve tremendously” (Okpala et al., 2001:8)

Parents should be actively involved in their children’s education inasmuch as “children appear at school daily with issues and problems that stem from their home and community environment” (Smit & Liebenberg, 2003:2; cf. Van der Westhuizen et al., 2002; Griffith, 1996; Okpala et al., 2001; Crane, 1996).

Parental involvement sends positive messages to both children and teachers, resulting in their motivation (cf. Ma, 1999; Desimone, 1999; Okpala et al., 2001). “Children’s cognitive skills that make them more likely to succeed in academic work” (Ma, 1999:3-4) are improved by parental involvement.

In a study conducted by Smit and Liebenberg (2003:2) on the involvement of parents from poor communities in their children’s schooling, the following problems were revealed:

- Parents from poor communities are not involved in their children’s schooling.
- Schools place unprecedented demands, such as paying school fees and buying resources such as stationary, on parents living in sub-economic conditions because some teachers are out of touch with the realities faced by these parents. This creates a lot of stress for these parents and strains parent-child relationships, reducing their active involvement in their children’s schooling (cf. also Chinkanda, 1994).

In her study, Desimone (1999:23) reveals that, although more information is needed about what types of parental involvement effectively promote student achievement in diverse family and community contexts for children placed at risk of educational failure, “effectiveness of particular parent-involvement practices differ according to race-ethnicity and family income”. Okpala et al. (2001:9) indicate that “the effectiveness of parental involvement depends on the type of involvement, ethnicity, family income, and home environment.”

Parental involvement can be divided into three categories:

- Parents' behavioural involvement (visiting school and participating in educational affairs),
- Parents' personal involvement (taking care of the child's affective experiences in and out of school), and
- Parents' intellectual involvement (exposing the child to cognitively stimulating activities) (Ma, 1999:4).

All of the above types of parental involvement affect the child's school performance positively (Ma, 1999:4; cf. also Parcel & Dufur, 2001). Israel et al. (2001:13) sum up this argument by asserting that "when youths are provided with a nurturing environment and with guidance on behaviours that are deemed appropriate and inappropriate, the effects on their educational progress are powerful and positive" (cf. also Chinkanda, 1994).

Parental involvement can be enhanced by encouraging parents to participate in school events and activities, help in the classroom and school programmes, and participate in parent groups (Griffith, 1996:2). To strengthen parental involvement further, Griffith (1996:11) proposes that transportation be co-ordinated by the School Governing Body and that day-care services should be provided during school events.

Ma (1999:3) identifies three dimensions of parental involvement in their children's schooling:

- Home discussions (rich verbal interaction, delivering verbal cues, directions, guidance and encouragement).
- School communication.
- Home supervision (structuring children's time for homework, modelling learning, encouraging children to read, limiting the time for watching television).

Both school-to-home communication and home-to-school communication are regarded as important in learner achievement. For parents to participate meaningfully in their

children's schooling, they must "actively get involved at all levels of their children's school life, from providing general support for schools' educational goals, to participating in social and academic activities, to offering suggestions to school planning and management" (Ma, 1999:3; cf. also Parcel & Dufur, 2001).

One of the ways of involving parents in their children's schooling is making them knowledgeable about the school and its operations. Parents may then be able to act in a congruent fashion and contribute to the ultimate success of children (Smit & Liebenberg, 2003:1). Most parents, in fact, "experience the educational system as inaccessible and intimidating and are therefore unable to make the necessary connections" with the school (Smit & Liebenberg, 2003:9).

The study conducted by Smit and Liebenberg (2003) reveals areas in which the school can support parents from poor economic conditions with a view to promoting involvement in their children's schooling:

- "Teachers should take into consideration and even provide for the fundamental needs of learners.
- Teachers should accept responsibility for learners when they are in school.
- Teachers should be better in touch with the realities of the communities in which they work.
- Parents and their children should be treated with empathy and respect as well as offered the opportunity for empowerment.
- Parents need to be assisted on an emotional level."

(Smit & Liebenberg, 2003:2).

It becomes clear, then, that an essential factor in promoting learners' educational achievement is enhancing families' capacity by empowering parents with tools that promote high-quality parent-child interactions that build children's self-confidence, raise their educational aspirations, and curb behaviours that prevent academic progress. The goal of these parent capacity building programmes, according to Israel et al. (2001:14), should be "to create a home environment where parent-child relationships are strong, and where parents place a high value on education" (cf. also Chinkanda, 1994).

2.2.1.2 Differences among Learners

Learners' various socio-economic backgrounds as well as cognitive abilities result in differences among them. Learner differences, also referred to as individual characteristics of language learners (cf. Scarcella & Oxford, 1992), include factors such as learning strategies, cognitive/learning styles, risk-taking, attitudes, motivation, anxiety, self-esteem, learning aptitude, gender, culture, and tolerance of ambiguity (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992:51; Ehrman, Leaver & Oxford, 2003:313; Ellis, 1994:471). These individual learner differences play a critical role in successful second language learning. The implication is that, if ESL learners are unsuccessful, then the individual characteristics they bring to the classroom might not have been taken into consideration (cf. Scarcella & Oxford, 1992; Ellis, 1994; Ehrman et al., 2003; Ehrman & Leaver, 2003; Griffiths, 2003).

This section will confine itself to the discussion of learning strategies and motivation, because they are regarded as the most important variables in ESL learning, although areas of individual learner differences are intertwined and even influence each other (cf. Ehrman et al., 2003; Gardner, Masgoret, Tennant and Mihic, 2004). The majority of researchers in the field of individual learner differences in ESL learning consider these areas of second language learning crucial to successful ESL teaching and learning (cf. Scarcella & Oxford, 1992; Ellis, 1994; Ehrman et al., 2003; Ehrman & Leaver, 2003; Griffiths, 2003; Robinson, 2001; Wilhelm, 1997; LoCastro, 2001a; Horwitz, 1999; Gardner et al., 2004; Macintyre, 1995; Takeuchi, 2003; Chamot, 2001).

Learning Strategies

As indicated, most learners in South Africa come from low socio-economic backgrounds (cf. 2.2.1.). Research indicates that these learners do not use effective strategies when they learn ESL (cf. Bangeni, 2003:179).

Language learning strategies are "specific actions, behaviours, steps, or techniques ... used by students to enhance their own learning" (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992:63). Learning strategies are conscious, active, self-directed movement toward a language

goal, essential for developing communicative ability (Ehrman et al., 2003:316; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992:63). Griffiths (2003:369) defines learning strategies as “specific actions consciously employed by the learner for the purpose of language learning.” A ‘strategy chain’ is “a set of interlocking, related, and mutually supportive strategies” (Ehrman et al., 2003:316). Scarcella and Oxford (1992:63) posit that “skilled learners tend to select strategies that work well together in a highly orchestrated way, tailored to the requirements of the language task” (cf. also Griffiths, 2003). Therefore, a skilled language learner uses an effective ‘strategy chain’. This means that a less successful language learner “might use similar strategies with similar frequency, but without the careful orchestration and without appropriate targeting of the strategies to the task” (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992:63; Ehrman et al., 2003:316). Nevertheless, researchers need to heed the warning by Griffiths (2003:369) that most language learning strategies can only be inferred from language learning behaviour, while only a few be observed directly.

O’Malley and Chamot (1990:197–199) classify learning strategies into three types:

- Metacognitive strategies (e.g. planning, self-monitoring, self-evaluation, planning and preparation).
- Cognitive strategies (e.g. note taking, summarising, deduction, inferencing).
- Social/Affective strategies (e.g. questioning for clarification, co-operation, self-talk).

A more comprehensive classification of learning strategies is proposed by Oxford (1990) and used by Ehrman et al. (2003:316–317):

- *Cognitive strategies* (reasoning, analysis, note-taking, synthesising, and so on).
- *Metacognitive strategies* (planning, monitoring and evaluating task success, and so on).
- *Memory-related strategies* (e.g. using imagery, rhyming, acronyms, and key words).
- *Compensatory strategies* (compensating for limited knowledge as in guessing

meaning from the context, using synonyms and gestures, circumlocution, and so on).

- *Affective strategies* (e.g. anxiety reduction, self-encouragement and rewarding oneself).
- *Social strategies* (e.g. seeking clarity, asking for help, being culturally aware, questioning).

(cf. also Scarcella & Oxford, 1992:63).

Scarcella and Oxford (1992:64) emphasise the fact that learners “are not always aware of the power of consciously using language learning strategies for making learning quicker, easier, more effective, and even more fun” (cf. also Scarcella & Oxford, 1992; Ehrman et al., 2003).

Ehrman et al. (2003:318) stress that “appropriate learning strategies make such a difference to learning success that many have attempted to design and execute strategy training programs” (cf. Griffiths, 2003:381). According to Ehrman et al. (2003:318), some researchers and teachers have made provision for instruction that helped students learn how to use more relevant and more powerful learning strategies in order to increase L2 proficiency. In the teaching of learning strategies, the teacher demonstrates “when a given strategy might be useful, as well as how to use it, how to evaluate its usefulness, and how to transfer it to other related tasks and situations” (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992:64; cf. also Ehrman et al., 2003:318). Scarcella and Oxford (1992:64) assert that in strategy teaching, learners “develop academic techniques that help them learn the language or any other subject”. Nevertheless, according to research, the most beneficial strategy instruction is woven into regular, everyday second language teaching (Ehrman et al., 2003:318).

As learners from poor socio-economic backgrounds in South Africa do not use effective language learning strategies, training them in using these strategies is therefore necessary.

A Model for Language Learning Strategy Training

Chen (2007:20) defines strategy training as “the explicit teaching of how, when, and why students should employ FL learning strategies to enhance their efforts at reaching language programme goals. The three major objectives of strategy training are to develop the learner’s individual language learning strategy system, to promote learner autonomy, self direction and self evaluation, and “to encourage the learner to take more responsibility for his/her language learning” (Chen, 2007:21; cf. also Harmer, 2004).

Oxford (1990) proposes an eight-step model for strategy training. “This model focuses on the teaching of learning strategies themselves, rather than on the broader aspects of language learning” (Oxford, 1990:203). According to Oxford (1990:203), the first five steps of the proposed model involve planning and preparation while the last three have to do with conducting, evaluating, and revising the training. The model for strategy training follows.

Step 1: Determine the Learners’ Needs and the Time Available

In this step the trainer considers the needs of learners and the time available to conduct strategy training. The trainer should first consider who the learners are and what strategies they need. The trainer should consider next whether there will be any time constraints during strategy training, and when the training might be done (cf. Oxford, 1990).

Step 2: Select Strategies Well

In the second step the trainer selects strategies that are related to the needs and the characteristics of his/her learners. It is important at this stage to decide the approach that will be used for training. Oxford (1990:205-206) indicates that the trainer may choose from three approaches. These are a broad focus, a narrow focus and a combination approach. A broad focus integrates groups of strategies while a narrow focus centers training on just one or two strategies instead of on an integrated set of many strategies (Oxford, 1990:205). A combination approach uses both broad and narrow foci for training.

The trainer may present groups of strategies (broad focus) from which learners subjectively rate the use of different strategies. Based on the ratings by learners, the trainer selects specific strategies for training (narrow focus) (Oxford, 1990:206).

Step 3: Consider Integration of Strategy Training

Oxford (1990:206) indicates that it is more effective to integrate the tasks, objectives and materials used in regular learning and teaching with strategy training. This provides learners with the opportunity to immediately understand and practise the learning strategies that are under study (Oxford, 1990:204).

Step 4: Consider Motivational Issues

According to Oxford (1990:206), the trainer should consider the kind of motivation that will be infused into the training programme by deciding whether to give grades to learners or whether to assume that learners will be motivated to learn strategies in order to become more effective. This serves to heighten the learners' interest and to keep them more interested in participating in strategy training (Oxford, 1990:207).

Step 5: Prepare Materials and Activities

This stage requires teachers to prepare materials and activities on language learning strategies that are listed on pages 14 to 15.

Oxford (1990:207) is of the opinion that the trainer should use the materials that are used for language learning and teaching in order to increase the effectiveness of strategy training (cf. also Step 3). It will be useful to develop a handbook on when and how to use the strategies under focus. Oxford (1990:207) posits that it will be better to let learners develop the handbook themselves to create ownership and to keep learners motivated.

Step 6: Conduct “Completely Informed Training”

“Research shows that strategy training which fully informs the learner (by indicating why the strategy is useful, how it can be transferred to different tasks, and how learners can evaluate the success of the strategy) is more successful than training that does not” (Oxford, 1990:207). The trainer is therefore advised to make a special point to keep learners completely informed as he/she conducts strategy training (Oxford, 1990:207).

Step 7: Evaluate the Strategy Training

The learners’ comments and the trainer’s observations during and after the training provide useful data on the evaluation of the strategy training (Oxford, 1990:208). Task improvement, general skill improvement, maintenance of the new strategy over time, transfer of the strategy to other relevant tasks and improvement in learner attitudes serve as possible criteria for evaluating strategy training (Oxford, 1990:208).

Step 8: Revise the Strategy Training

Based on step 7, possible revision of the strategy training programme may follow. This may lead to step 1 although some of the steps may pass much more quickly after the first cycle (Oxford, 1990:208).

In conclusion, unless learners take responsibility for their own learning, “there will be no learning in spite of the efforts of the excellent teacher” (Hess, 2001:159). One of the ways to enable learners to take responsibility for their own learning and to learn better is to encourage learners to develop learning strategies. This can be done through strategy training as discussed above (cf. Harmer, 2004).

“As with any type of instruction, strategy instruction is more effective when adjusted for students’ learning styles” (Ehrman et al., 2003:318). Learner motivation is the subject of the next discussion.

Learner Motivation

Gardner et al. (2004:1) assert that "language learning is a dynamic process in which affective variables influence language achievement". One of these affective variables is motivation (cf. Gardner et al., 2004). As indicated above, the learner's socio-economic background is likely to influence his/her motivation to learn.

Researchers agree that learner motivation is one of the individual learner differences that are regarded as crucial in producing the desired outcome in ESL learning. Noels, Clement and Pelletier (1999:23) argue that "in view of the difficulties of learning a second language (L2), sustaining student motivation is a key ingredient for teaching a L2 successfully" (cf. Ehrman et al., 2003; Dörnyei, 2001; Ehrman, 1996; Ellis, 1994; Larsen-Freeman, 2001; Gardner et al., 2004).

Some theories on motivation draw a distinction between integrative and instrumental motivation (Strauss, 2008:24). Learners have integrative motivation when they learn a language in order to communicate with others, while instrumental motivation refers to the fact that learners learn a language because it will enable them to achieve a certain goal such as to participate meaningfully in the economy of the country (cf. Strauss, 2008:25). Research indicates that attitudes toward the learning situation, integrative orientation and instrumental orientation are positively related to achievement in second language learning (cf. Gardner et al., 2004:30; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003:205).

"Many different teacher communication style variables have been linked to motivation and other learning outcomes in the general classroom setting" (Noels et al., 1999:23; cf. Wu, 2003; Dörnyei, 2001; Breen, 2001). The processes within the classroom have been found to have a direct and/or indirect bearing on learner motivation and consequently, success in ESL learning (cf. Wu, 2003; Dörnyei, 2003; Dörnyei, 2001; Oxford, 2001; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Gardner et al., 2004).

Learner motivation has been found to affect learner performance in South African schools (cf. De Villiers, 1997; Bangeni, 2003). According to De Villiers (1997:223), "an important factor that seems to influence attitudes is the inability of many MOI [English Medium of Instruction] pupils to understand classes in English" (cf. also SAHRC, 2006).

This influences learner motivation, resulting in their poor performance (cf. De Villiers, 1997; Bangeni, 2003).

Learner motivation is discussed further in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.5.2.2).

2.3 The ESL Teacher

The teacher is regarded as the education system's "principal resource" (Wayne & Youngs, 2003:89). Wise (2001:18) also asserts that the single most important school-based determinant of student learning is the teacher. This is clearly indicated by the fact that the salaries of teachers occupy the largest share of the education budget (cf. Wayne & Youngs, 2003; Wise, 2001). Some of the problems regarding the ESL teacher that contribute to poor learner performance in South African schools, especially in under-performing schools, include teacher qualifications, negative attitudes to their jobs, poor grasp of their subjects, and resources available to them (cf. Ferreira, 1994; De Villiers, 1997; Taylor & Vinjevold, 1999; Van Rooyen & Hartell, 2000; Crouch & Mabogoane, 2001; Van der Westhuizen et al., 2002; Wayne & Youngs, 2003; Mafisa & Van der Walt, 2002; Themane & Mabasa, 2002).

For teaching to be effective, teachers have to be competently and properly trained in subject knowledge, professional knowledge that include didactic skills, and life skills (Ferreira, 1994:17). Teacher qualification indicates the level of training that the teacher has undergone. The training of the teacher in under-performing schools is critical in that these teachers are faced with challenges that are unique to these schools (cf. Strauss, 1995). Ferreira (1994:17) argues that "the success of any education system is dependent on the quality of teaching and the availability of competent teachers." To indicate the importance of qualifications in teaching, Wayne and Youngs (2003:102) reveal that "mathematics students whose teachers had master's degrees in mathematics had higher achievement gains than those whose teachers had either no advanced degrees or advanced degrees in nonmathematics subjects." Moreover, according to Wayne and Youngs (2003:102), "students whose teachers had bachelor's degrees in mathematics learned more than students whose teachers had bachelor's degrees in nonmathematics subjects." It, then, goes without saying that the qualifications of

teachers in the subjects they teach play an important role in learners' achievement (cf. Crouch & Mabogoane, 2001).

However, South Africa, like other developing countries, faces the challenge of badly trained or under-qualified teachers (cf. Van der Westhuizen et al., 2002:115; De Villiers, 1997; Strauss, 1995, Ferreira, 1994; Van Rooyen & Hartell, 2000). Van der Westhuizen et al. (2002:115) conclude that "inadequate teacher preparation and general limited academic background to some extent contribute to poor teaching and learning in some schools."

Society at large has certain expectations of the teachers of its children. Amongst others, it expects teachers to be competent in and knowledgeable of the subject that they teach. In English Second Language, this means that the teacher must be proficient in the language and have a good (even expert) command of its grammatical system.

Stevens (1977:74) argues that learners' achievements will be impaired if the teacher's command of the language is inadequate. The teacher whose language competence is inadequate becomes "a constraint upon learning" as well as a "great discouragement" for the learner (Stevens, 1977:74). Stevens (1987:16) argues that one of the minimum requirements of a language teacher is to have an "adequate command of the language being taught". The teacher's grasp of the language is inadequate if he makes errors or is inconsistent in his control of grammar, meaning or usage, and thus "becomes an impediment to the learning of his pupils" (Stevens, 1977:31). This makes the teacher's competence "a make-or-break requirement" for successful language learning and teaching (Stevens, 1977:74). Stevens' views reflect popular and professional opinion, and are typical of the expectations of society (parents and employers, in particular) of teachers of English.

The teacher of English serves as a model to his/her learners. There is ample evidence of the 'transfer of training' in the second language acquisition literature (cf. Ellis, 1994:351). The English teacher also plays an important role in providing feedback to learners, especially on its grammatical system, in the correction of learner output, and he or she acts as a resource, a source of information, in the classroom. The English teacher is

therefore also regarded as a 'gatekeeper', ensuring that standards of correctness are maintained.

The problem, however, is that the competence of many ESL teachers "leaves much to be desired" (Van der Walt, 1989:194-195). This statement is typical of what is often said about teachers of English Second Language. In announcing the 2001 matriculation results, the Minister of Education stated on public television that he thought English was very poorly taught in our schools. These concerns have also been raised with regard to the implementation of a communicative approach, which requires high levels of proficiency from English teachers (cf. Van der Walt, 1989).

A study conducted by Mafisa and Van der Walt (2002) confirms that most teachers, especially in under-performing schools, are not always competent in standard English grammar.

One of the most recent findings of research conducted in South African schools indicates that "there are still unqualified and underqualified teachers teaching in schools across South Africa" (SAHRC, 2006:42).

2.4 Resources

Teachers should not only be trained in techniques and skills for successful teaching, but in the selection and use of educational resources as well (Ferreira, 1994:17).

Van Rooyen and Hartell (2000:293) indicate that one of the factors that determine quality education in the classroom is enhancing the learning environment (cf. Crouch & Mabogoane, 2001). Resources "assist learners to make maximum use of teaching and learning time" (Themane & Mabasa, 2002:275). However, regarding the availability of resources, Van Rooyen and Hartell (2000:293) explain that many schools in South Africa exist only in name.

All the respondents in a study conducted by Van der Westhuizen et al. (2002:115) rated a lack of resources as the major cause of poor performance in Grade 12. Van der

Westhuizen et al. (2002:115) indicate that the shortage of physical resources in South African schools is a major problem in that very few high schools they visited in their study “were well equipped with electricity, laboratories, water or toilets” while “in some schools learners attended in classrooms without chairs, chalkboards, doors or windows.” In some schools 60 learners are crammed into one classroom because of a shortage of classrooms (Van der Westhuizen, et al., 2002:115; cf. Van Rooyen & Hartell, 2000).

Van der Westhuizen et al. (2002:115) found that relevant resources were inadequate in the schools they visited, with a class of 40 required to share five copies in some cases (cf. van Rooyen & Hartell, 2000). “In worse situations, learners depended on writing notes provided by the teacher” (Van der Westhuizen et al., 2002:115). This situation is unfortunate because most teachers rely heavily on textbooks in their teaching (Themane & Mabasa, 2002:275). Research indicates that “unavailability of textbooks has a negative impact on student achievement in developing countries” (Van der Westhuizen et al., 2002:115). In most of the under-performing schools aids such as posters, charts and audiotapes are also not available (Van der Westhuizen et al., 2002:115).

Recent findings of research conducted by the SAHRC (2006:42) indicate that “there are still some schools that lack basic infrastructure such as water, electricity, toilets, fences, and sufficient classrooms,” especially in under-performing schools.

2.5 Conclusion

It is clear from the above discussion that the family background of the learner can either impede or facilitate the learner's achievement in ESL. Parents from poor socio-economic backgrounds have been found to be less involved in their children's schooling.

Differences among learners in under-performing schools are influenced by their socio-economic background. Unfortunately, this seems to be another much neglected area in the under-performing schools. A wealth of research in this area attests to the fact that if learning and teaching does not consider individual learner characteristics, it is bound to fail dismally. Hence the nascent individualised approaches to learning and teaching.

However, by virtue of the fact that South Africa is a developing country, such new approaches are difficult to implement.

The discussion in this chapter has also indicated that South Africa is facing challenges relating to the language competence and qualifications of ESL teachers. This is an area of much concern because the teacher is a major resource within the classroom.

The chapter that follows discusses factors that make second language teaching effective.

CHAPTER 3

EFFECTIVE TEACHING AND LEARNING AND THE ESL CLASSROOM

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the characteristics of effective ESL teaching and learning, the personal qualities of the effective teacher as well as the professional knowledge required from him/her. It is necessary to establish what effective teaching and learning entails in order to establish a benchmark against which under-performing schools can be measured.

3.2 A Model of Effective ESL Teaching and Learning

In spite of the complexities of effective ESL teaching and learning, there seems to be a general understanding that, for the ESL teacher to be effective, he/she should have the ability to match his/her teaching approaches to the context of his/her classroom and to the type of learning outcomes he/she is trying to achieve with his/her learners (cf. Henning, 2000; Anderson, 1989; Borich, 2000; Capel, Leask & Turner, 1995; Bourdillon & Storey, 2002; Barnes, 1999; Scheidecker & Freeman, 1999; Arends, Winitzky & Tannenbaum, 1998; Arends, 1998; Cooper & McIntyre, 1996).

Generally, good ESL teachers have three broad areas that determine their effectiveness. These are their personal qualities, knowledge and practice (skills) (cf. Barkhuizen, 1995; Prodromou, 1994). These are the areas that are addressed in this chapter. Nevertheless, it must be understood that these areas are merely separated for purposes of discussion. In essence, they are interwoven (cf. also Berry, 1990; Van der Walt, 1992). Figure 1 illustrates this model (cf. also Arends et al., 1998; Arends, 1998).

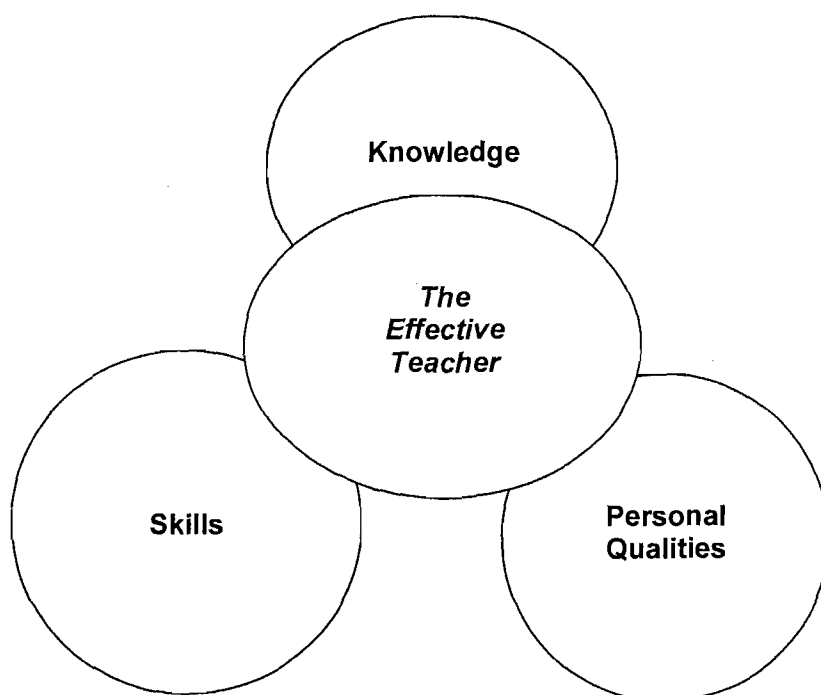


Figure 1: A Model of the Qualities of the Effective Teacher (adapted from Covey, 1989; 2004)

3.3 Personal Qualities of the Effective Teacher

The personal qualities of the effective ESL teacher should enable him/her to develop genuine relationships with his/her learners, the parents/community and his colleagues (Arends et al., 1998:51). The effective ESL teacher has qualities that enable him/her to create democratic classrooms for his/her learners (Arends et al., 1998:51).

Research indicates that the dispositions of the teacher that contribute to effective teaching are caring and expectations (Arends et al., 1998:41). "People believe caring, credibility and trust, and encouragement and support are important dispositions for teachers to have" (Arends et al., 1998:41). The most studied disposition is teacher expectations of learners. Arends et al. (1998:42) explain that "teachers' ... expectations towards children profoundly influence their learning opportunities and, ultimately, their academic and social achievement." Figure 2 illustrates the importance of teacher expectations.

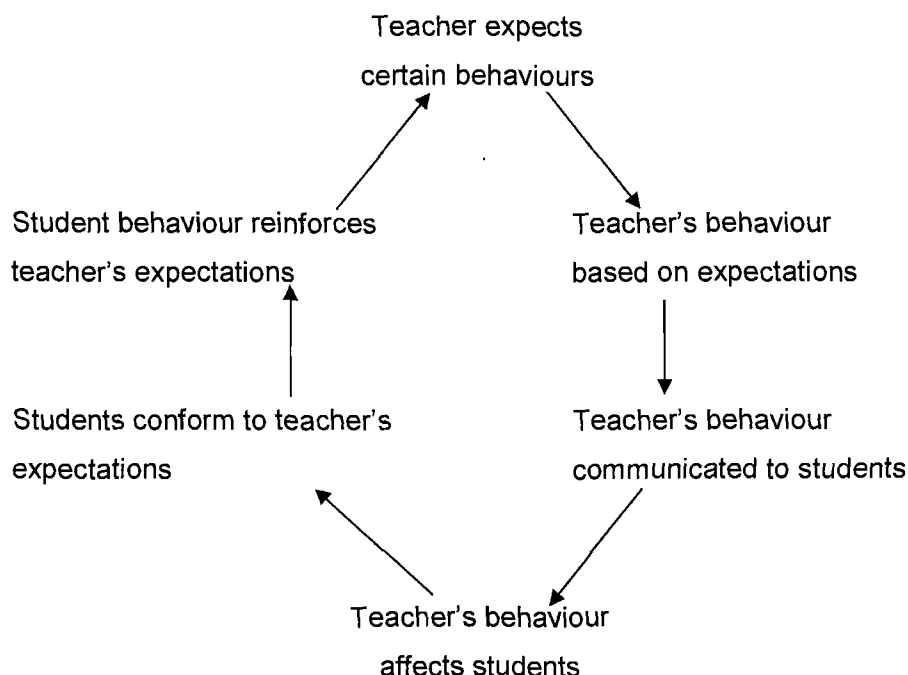


Figure 2: The Importance of Teacher Expectations (Arends et al., 1998:42)

In summing up teacher behaviour in the classroom, Anderson (1989:19) argues that an ESL teacher's behaviours should be part of his/her teaching repertoire.

3.4 The Professional Knowledge of the Effective Teacher

Arends et al. (1998:51) argue that the effective teacher should have a positive disposition toward knowledge. According to Cooper and McIntyre (1996:90), the effective teacher should have a good command of the subject matter, human development and learning, and teaching practices.

3.4.1 The Subject Matter

As mentioned in 2.3, it is an indisputable fact that the ESL teacher's knowledge of the subject matter plays a critical role in effective ESL teaching and learning (cf. Borg, 2001; Moats, 1994; Van der Walt, 1992; Wright & Bolitho, 1993; Barkhuizen, 1995; Macpherson, 2003).

Borg (2001:28) indicates that “the way teachers’ [sic] perceive their knowledge about all aspects of language ... will impact on how they view and approach classroom activities which focus the student’s attention on language systems.” According to Moats (1994:95), “the teachers’ content knowledge is critical to successful instruction because they can then chose [sic] what to teach, when, how and to whom.” Prodromou (1994:34) adds that the teachers’ knowledge of the subject helps him or her to know what he or she is doing and why, and it allows the teacher to generate new ideas, and new techniques based on principles. The subject knowledge that the effective teacher should have includes knowledge of the morpho-syntactic system, phonemic system, various accents, and cohesive devices such as linking words (e.g. however, firstly, secondly, nevertheless, finally) and reference words (e.g. pronouns and conjunctions) (cf. also Lado, 1964:8-10).

Some of the advantages of having a good knowledge of the subject matter are that teachers will be able to interpret and respond to learners’ errors, pick the best examples for teaching, organize and sequence information for teaching and learning, and integrate the components of language learning and teaching (cf. Borg, 2001:95-96). Wright and Bolitho (1993:294) indicate that the teacher’s knowledge of the subject matter is important in that the “teacher will be in a strong and secure position to accomplish various tasks - preparing lessons; evaluating, adapting, and writing materials; understanding, interpreting, and ultimately designing a syllabus or curriculum; testing and assessing learners’ performance; and contributing to English language work across the curriculum.”

3.4.2 Human Development and Learning

An effective ESL teacher realises that human development is a lifelong process that begins with conception. In the same way learning is a lifelong process; it is in the nature of human beings to explore the environment. The human being uses language to explore the environment from infancy to old age and therefore, “at one time the native language will suffice in the exploration of surroundings, but as humans develop they are bound to wander into new contexts that may require new languages to carry out new explorations” (Mushi, 2002:355). It is important, then, for the ESL teacher to have knowledge of human development and learning in order for him to respond to the needs

of his/her learners. The ESL teacher needs to be familiar with Second Language Acquisition in particular (cf. Lightbown 2000 for a survey of SLA findings and their application to teaching).

3.5 The Didactic Skills of the Effective Teacher

Research on the effective teacher has identified certain key teaching practices and principles (cf. Blair, 1988; Arends et al., 1998; Department of Education, 2001b; Anderson, 1989). The Communicative Approach to language teaching is discussed below as one of such practices.

3.5.1 Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

The personal experience of the researcher as English Subject Advisor is that, although the Communicative Approach to language teaching has become the new orthodoxy in language teaching and learning, many teachers still use the Audiolingual Method (cf. also Malindi, 1996). Communicative Language Teaching is not a tightly structured method of language teaching but an approach derived from a broad combination of practices that are regarded as good by teachers (Mitchell, 1994:33; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:12). It enables teachers to "employ a mix of traditional classroom activities: presentation and explanation of new points, exercises and activities to provide focused practice in these points, plus feedback to the learners ... to guide them as they practiced" (Mitchell, 1994:37).

Richards and Rodgers (2002:156-157; cf. also Hiep, 2007:194-196; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:13-22) mention the following main features of Communicative Language Teaching:

- Meaning is important.
- Dialogues are based on communicative functions such as apologising, greeting, persuading, praising, commanding, suggesting, inviting, advising and requesting (cf. Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983; Wilkins, 1976; Jones, 1981).
- The basic premise is contextualisation.
- Language learning is based on learning to communicate.

- There is a peripheral emphasis on drilling.
- Understandable pronunciation is sought.
- The approach is learner-centred.
- The learner may be encouraged to communicate from the very beginning.
- Where possible, judicious use of the learner's mother tongue is accepted.
- Translation may be used to benefit and meet the needs of the learner.
- If desired, reading and writing can start from the learner's first day.
- Language variation is important in materials and methodology.
- The principle of sequencing is applied by considering content, function, or meaning that will keep the interest of the learner.
- The language serves as the intrinsic motivation for the learners.
- Interaction amongst learners is encouraged.
- The learner creates the language.

Task-based language teaching (TBLT) is one of the nascent communicative approaches that are considered to be effective in ESL teaching (cf. De Villiers, 1997; Richards & Rodgers, 2002; Nunan, 2003). According to Nunan (2003:7), the communicative approach to language teaching has been realised methodologically by task-based language teaching. In TBLT, "language lessons are based on learning experiences that have non-linguistic outcomes, and in which there is a clear connection between the things learners do in class and the things they will ultimately need to do outside of classroom" (Nunan, 2003:7; cf. also Richards & Rodgers, 2002:223).

Richards and Rodgers (2002:223; cf. Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:13-16) explain that task-based language teaching methodology draws on the principles of the communicative language teaching movement such as:

- Activities involve real communication.
- Activities that are used in language teaching are such that learners are able to carry out meaningful tasks.
- Language that is perceived as meaningful to the learner is used to support the learning process.

According to Richards and Rodgers (2002:223), tasks are vehicles that can be used in applying the principles of the communicative language teaching approach. A task is defined as “an activity or goal that is carried out using language, such as finding a solution to a puzzle, reading a map and giving directions, making a telephone call, writing a letter, or reading a set of instructions and assembling a toy” (Richards & Rodgers, 2002:224). Learners are immersed in tasks that enable them to “negotiate meaning and engage in naturalistic and meaningful communication”, so that:

- the focus lies on the process rather than the product.
- communication and meaning are emphasised through purposeful activities and tasks.
- language is learned through interactive communication and purposeful engagement in activities and tasks.
- activities and tasks are of two categories: those that learners may be required to achieve in real life and those that serve a specific pedagogical purpose in the classroom.
- sequencing of activities and tasks is on the basis of the level of difficulty for the learners.
- the level of difficulty of the task and activity is dependent upon a number of factors such as the learner’s previous experience, how complex the activity and task are, the language the learners have to use to engage in the task, and the support available to the learner

(Richards & Rodgers, 2002:224).

Although the task-based language teaching methodology can be regarded as an effective model that can be used to achieve outcomes in ESL learning and teaching (cf. de Villiers, 1997), in practice many teachers use an eclectic approach by combining Communicative Language Teaching, Task-based Language Teaching and the Audiolingual Method.

3.5.1.1 Communicative Activities/Techniques

A general framework for communicative activities is that learners gather and exchange information, and work together in order to produce information in English (cf. Edge, 1993; Hiep, 2007; Gower & Walters, 1983).

The following are examples of communicative activities typically found in Communicative Language Teaching (cf. Harmer, 2004; Edge, 1993; Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Griffith, 2005; Gower & Walters, 1983). Although these activities are divided according to listening and speaking, and reading and writing, the four language skills are usually integrated in practice.

Listening and Speaking Activities

Reaching a consensus: These are activities learners have to complete by agreeing with each other after a certain amount of discussion (cf. Harmer, 2004; Griffith, 2005; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997).

Discussion: In this type of activity learners are divided in groups to discuss a controversial topic (cf. Harmer, 2004; Edge, 1993; Gower & Walters, 1983; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997).

Relaying instructions: Learners are involved in activities that enable them to give each other instructions. The activity depends on learners giving each other the right instruction that are well understood (Harmer, 2004; Griffith, 2005; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997).

Communication games: The principle of the information gap forms the basis of communication games where learners are put into a situation in which they complete a task (cf. Harmer, 2004; Edge, 1993; Griffith, 2005; Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Gower & Walters, 1983; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997).

Problem-solving: Learners are encouraged to get involved in a discussion in order to find a solution to a set of problems (cf. Harmer, 2004; Griffith, 2005; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997; Prabhu, 1987).

Talking about yourself: Learners themselves talk about their lives and feelings for a number of interpersonal exchanges (cf. Harmer, 2004; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997).

Simulation and role play: These are often used in communicative language teaching. The pretence of a real-life situation is created within a classroom through a simulation. This becomes a role play when learners pretend to be someone that they are not (cf. Harmer, 2004; Griffith, 2005; Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Edge, 1993; Gower & Walters, 1983; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997).

Reading and Writing Activities

This section focuses primarily on writing activities. Intensive and extensive reading are discussed later (cf. 3.5.1.5 & 3.5.1.6).

Written communicative activities can broadly be divided into five categories. These are relaying instructions, writing reports and advertisements, co-operative writing, exchanging letters and writing journals (cf. Harmer, 2004).

Relaying instructions: One group of learners has information for the performance of an activity and gives another group written instructions to perform the same activity (cf. Harmer, 2004; Griffith, 2005; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997).

Writing reports and advertisements: This activity involves learners in writing news reports, broadcasting them and designing their own advertisements (cf. Harmer, 2004; Griffith, 2005; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997).

Co-operative writing: Learners are required to write things together in such a way that the process of co-operation becomes as important as writing itself (cf. Harmer, 2004; Griffith, 2005; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997).

Exchanging letters: This type of communicative activity involves learners in more realistic tasks of exchanging letters so that they can practise more real reading and written communication (cf. Harmer, 2004; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997).

Writing journals: In this type of writing learners are encouraged to write about anything that interests them in their journals. This could include comments about their class experiences, personal lives or any other current issues (cf. Harmer, 2004; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997).

The above discussion attempted to provide a general framework within which communicative activities can be conducted. The discussion that follows provides examples of lessons based on the Communicative Approach.

3.5.1.2 The Teaching of Listening Comprehension

Thompson, Leintz, Nevers and Witkowsky (2004:229-230) regard listening as “the dynamic, interactive process of integrating appropriate listening attitudes, knowledge, and behaviors [sic] to achieve the selected goal(s) of a listening event.” According to Thompson et al. (2004), teachers should keep the components of this definition in mind when designing listening comprehension activities for their learners.

When choosing appropriate materials for listening comprehension, teachers are advised to consider the level and needs of the learners themselves (Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:141). The level refers to the grade in which learners are while the needs of learners include their interests and real-life situations in which they are going to use English (Ur, 1984:22). Teachers are advised to use spoken rather than written materials to teach listening comprehension (cf. Porter & Roberts, 1987:179).

Thompson et al. (2004) recommend the Integrative Listening Model (ILM) for the teaching and learning of listening. The ILM includes four stages: preparing for listening, applying the listening process model, assessing listening effectiveness, and establishing goals for future listening (cf. Thompson et al., 2004:230).

Stage 1: Prepare to Listen

Preparing learners for a listening activity is critical to achieving the desired outcomes (Thompson et al., 2004:230). Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997:143) advise teachers to prepare learners by telling them that they are going to listen to a text. In order to focus learners' attention, the teacher may set a few general questions that learners should answer before listening to the text and present a visual or tactile stimulus based on the text that they are about to listen to (cf. Cramer, 2004:144; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:143; Edge, 1993:110). Another way of preparing learners to listen effectively is to address listening filters or those factors that influence listening (Thompson et al., 2004:232). An example of such filters is vocabulary items in the listening text. Harmer (2004:203) advises teachers to pre-teach vocabulary in order to remove some of the barriers learners are likely to encounter.

Stage 2: Apply the Listening Process Model

This stage involves learners in the listening process itself. It is in this stage that the learner receives, comprehend, interpret, evaluate and respond to the listening text (cf. Thompson et al., 2004:233). The teacher is advised to present the listening material by either reading it, or playing a tape recording, video cassette or DVD (cf. Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997; Cramer, 2004). He/she may also instruct learners to listen to the text in its entirety, then present it again bit by bit and allow learners to write down answers according to the first two questions and so on, and to repeat the text if more information is needed, for example, if learners are required to transfer information and complete forms, diagrams, grids, or maps (cf. Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997; Cramer, 2004).

Stage 3: Assess Effectiveness of Listening Performance

Thompson et al. (2004:234) indicate that the ability of the listener to reflect on his/her performance to determine what he/she is doing and whether or not his/her behaviours are effective, is significant to the ongoing development of effective listening. The teacher can assist learners by providing them with more opportunities to discuss, read or conduct writing activities on the text (cf. Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997). The teacher may

also provide learners with follow-up activities that deal with vocabulary, comprehension, oral language and word recognition (Cramer, 2004:144).

Stage 4: Establish New Goal(s)

Learners establish a new listening purpose or goal by using feedback from the teacher and their peers, as well as self-assessment (Thompson et al., 2004:235). This is important because listening is complex and dynamic and requires ongoing development (cf. Thompson et al., 2004).

To conclude, the teacher should keep in mind that the effectiveness of the listening comprehension lesson depends on the shortness of the listening activities (Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:145; Edge, 1993:107; cf. also Ur, 1984; Field, 1983). That is why a *listening comprehension lesson can be easily integrated with other skills*. In this way, “a listening comprehension activity could precede a discussion on a book students are reading or a prescribed poem; it could follow a reading comprehension exercise or serve as a stimulus for creative writing” (Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:142).

3.5.1.3 The Teaching of Speaking

Oral proficiency lessons can best be conducted through group and pair work (cf. Harmer, 2004; Cramer, 2004; Kellough & Kellough, 2003; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997; Edge, 1993). This type of arrangement tends to lower learners’ level of anxiety in *comparison with learners having to perform in front of the whole class* (Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:111). Although pair work provides the opportunity for individual practice, “group work promotes fluency because a group is a natural social unit” (Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:111). A discussion of group and pair work follows.

Group and pair work

Learners should be trained for group work because some of them may be unfamiliar with this technique (Hess, 2001; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997; Kellough & Kellough, 2003). Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997:110) indicate that group and pair work can be too noisy if learners are not guided before being divided in groups or pairs (cf. Hess, 2001; Hayes,

1997). Principles of social behaviour should be established in order to make group work effective (cf. Hess, 2001; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997). These include:

- Each learner should be able to speak without others shouting her/him down.
- The principle of turn-taking should be applied.
- Respect for group members should be maintained.
- Learners should understand what is expected of them within their groups. This means that the teacher should give learners clear instructions before each activity.
- The teacher should plan thoroughly for activities, making sure that learners are not given too much time as this might make them restless and noisy.

To facilitate the effectiveness of group work, teachers are advised to give learners roles. There are five typical roles learners can assume in a group. These are group facilitator (to keep the group on task), materials manager (to obtain, maintain, and return materials needed by the group), recorder (to record group activities and processes), reporter (to report group processes and achievements as required) and the thinking monitor (to identify and record the sequence and processes of the thinking of the group) (Kellough & Kellough, 2003:265; cf. Edge, 1993:117). It is important that learners are trained to play these roles so that they can understand and perform their roles as expected (Kellough & Kellough, 2003:265).

In order for the teacher to conduct group or pair work successfully, the teacher has to believe that learners are capable of taking responsibility for their learning. This they can do by learning with and from each other (Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:111; cf. Kellough & Kellough, 2003:265). Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997:111) indicate that, as a general principle, groups should not be selected by the teacher, not be permanent and not always the same size.

According to Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997:111), five to eight learners make the most effective group size (cf. Kellough & Kellough, 2003:264). This group size enables more possibilities for a natural interaction than the whole-class group (Kellough & Kellough, 2003:264; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:111). In the case of large classes, learners can work together as neighbours or turn around to face each other so that they can work as

groups of four (cf. Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:111). According to Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997:112), through a peer-teaching system, each group could consist of one weak, one strong and two average learners (cf. Kellough & Kellough, 2003:265).

The success of group work depends on the supportive environment the teacher builds in the classroom, the experience of both the teacher and learners with group work, how the teacher explains the reasons why group work is important, and the teacher's advance planning and management (Kellough & Kellough, 2003:266; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:112). Once learners have gained confidence to work in groups, the teacher should only interfere when there is a need to do so, but as a principle, he/she should resist the temptation of interfering with groups, especially those that work well (Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:112).

As indicated, there are a number of speaking activities teachers can use to encourage learners to participate in a speaking lesson (cf. 3.5.1.1). Harmer (2004) provides a comprehensive discussion of some of the most widely-used. These include acting from a script which involves learners in acting out dialogues (controlled, guided or free conversation), communication games, discussions (for example, 'buzz groups' and 'balloon debates'), prepared talks such as public speaking, questionnaires used for interviews and simulation and role-play (cf. also Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill & Pincas, 1978; Cramer, 2004; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997).

When assessing speaking or orals, the teacher should keep in mind that the purpose of oral assessment is to test the learner's ability to interact successfully by understanding and producing oral conversation (cf. Carrol & Hall, 1985:49; Hughes, 1993:101). There are three general formats that oral assessment can take. These are interviews, interaction with peers and response to tape recordings (Hughes, 1993:104-105).

Carrol and Hall (1985:50) suggest that oral assessment should be divided into three phases that include *warm-up* to establish rapport between the assessor and the learner, *main task* to present a suitable oral assessment task, and *round-up* to tie up the loose ends by allowing the learner to express his/her views about the assessment task and the nature of his/her assessment.

Hughes (1993:110) indicates that scoring oral assessment can either be holistic, analytical or both. Scoring is based on criterial levels, for example, accent (e.g. intelligibility of pronunciation), grammar (e.g. grammatical accuracy), vocabulary (e.g. adequacy of vocabulary), fluency (e.g. flow of speech) and comprehension (e.g. the learner's understanding of the type of conversation) (Hughes, 1993:111-112). Rubrics that include specified criteria can be designed to ensure reliability and validity of oral assessment (cf. Hughes, 1993; Luoma, 2005).

In conclusion, integration can be naturally achieved in a speaking lesson as learners listen in order to speak, and also read and write in order to do so (cf. Cramer, 2004; Harmer, 2004, Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997).

3.5.1.4 The Teaching of Reading Comprehension

The discussion that follows is based on the belief that reading comprehension does not occur automatically as a person looks at words on a page: it is a deliberate act of making meaning that can be taught and practised (L'Allier & Elish-Piper, 2007:352).

The overall aim of a reading comprehension lesson at secondary school level is to enable learners to make sense of written texts as communication in specific situations (Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:161; cf. also Carrell & Eisterhold, 1987:218). Learners should engage in the communicative function of texts such as letters, essays, instructions on packaging, timetables, telephone directories, menus, posters and recipes (Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:161).

Generally speaking, effective teachers focus on five types of reading during reading lessons (cf. Harmer, 2004:202; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:163; Barchers, 1998:192-193). These are:

- Skimming: reading quickly to obtain a global understanding or the gist of the text.
- Scanning: reading quickly for specific details of the text.
- Reading for detailed information in order to understand everything in detail.
- Reading for comprehensive understanding of subject materials at school.

- Critical reading of any material where a point of view, attitudes, and values are involved so that the reader can see beyond the literal meaning of words in a passage.

3.5.1.5 The Teaching of Intensive Reading

According to Harmer (2004:210), intensive reading is a process that is often, but not exclusively, “teacher chosen and directed, and is designed to enable students to develop specific receptive skills.” Dymock (2007:161) points out that “teachers play a critical role in helping pupils develop comprehension strategies.”

When choosing materials for an intensive reading lesson the teacher should use a variety of texts that are authentic, semantically complete, necessary and available in the community, and of interest to the learners (Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:170; cf. Ambe, 2007). This is because “new information, new concepts, new ideas can have meaning only when they can be related to something the individual already knows” (Carrell & Eisterhold, 1987:218). Examples of such texts include narrative, descriptive, explanatory, argumentative and persuasive texts, summaries, reports, timetables, advertisements, brochures, menus, cartoons and instruction leaflets (cf. Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997; Dymock, 2007). Although a reading lesson can be integrated with other skills, it is advisable to focus on the reading process when setting exercises and not on other language skills (cf. Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997).

Routman (2003:118) indicates learners may find the following strategies useful in reading comprehension:

- making connections: within the text, to another text, from known information to new information, to the reader's life, to the world.
- determining main ideas from details.
- asking questions.
- making inferences: predicting, wondering and assessing what's going on.

- synthesising: applying new knowledge to what is known and generating new ideas

(cf. Tankersley, 2005; Block & Pressley, 2003; Dymock, 2007; Ambe, 2007; L'Allier & Elish-Piper, 2007).

The following procedure of a reading lesson, based on skimming as the main objective of the lesson, can be adapted according to the learning objectives and the type of text used, because most reading lessons involve more than one reading skill (cf. Harmer, 2004:215; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:171; Barchers, 1998:199).

Pre-reading activities

The teacher should:

- motivate and stimulate the interests of learners.
- stimulate the learners' background knowledge.
- make learners aware of the semantic and cultural context of the text.
- explain the rhetorical organization of the text under study.
- arouse the learners' expectations by stimulating their anticipation and setting questions learners will answer from the reading text.

(cf. L'Allier & Elish-Piper, 2007).

Reading and focused re-reading of the text

Learners should:

- read the text silently by skimming for a global overview and then reading the complete text.
- write down personal responses and questions in a reading journal.
- share their responses and interpretations in pairs or groups.
- practise a critical analysis of language.
- study vocabulary according to the context of the text under study

(cf. Dymock, 2007; Ambe, 2007; L'Allier & Elish-Piper, 2007; Bromley, 2007).

Davies and Widdowson (1979) indicate that there are four types of reading comprehension questions. These are direct reference, inference, supposition and evaluation questions. Direct reference questions require learners to recover information directly from the text, inference questions require learners to discover "the relationship between sentences and the manner in which they combine in communication", supposition questions require the learner to say what he/she supposes is implied by certain language items while evaluation questions require "the reader to assess the value of the reading passage and the effectiveness of the way the information in it has been organized and expressed" (Davies & Widdowson, 1979:168-175; cf. also 3.5.1.11).

Post-reading activities

Learners should:

- review the text by sharing their interpretations through interactive and creative activities

(cf. also Carrell & Eisterhold, 1987:227-229).

Although the lesson procedure outlined above is based on skimming as a reading strategy, the teacher should also conduct lessons on other strategies such as detailed comprehension of the text, the acquisition of vocabulary, note taking, using cohesion and coherence devices, recognition of the rhetorical organisation of a text as well as discourse patterns of the text (cf. Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997; Dymock, 2007; Ambe, 2007; L'Allier & Elish-Piper, 2007; Bromley, 2007).

Integrating vocabulary teaching in a reading comprehension lesson is critical. According to Bromely (2007:529), "the words and concepts students absorb and use as they listen and talk are the foundation for what they will read and write".

Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997:190) recommend the following procedure for integrating the four skills in a reading lesson:

- Photocopy newspaper articles in their formats and allow learners to be involved in discussions, make summaries, write letters and reports or take notes.
- Use a list of hints found in magazines, packages or advertisements and let learners discuss them, add to them, compose a dialogue or rewrite them as continuous prose.
- Materials from subject textbooks can be used as reading extracts to facilitate comprehensive understanding of concepts used in subjects that all learners take.

Although reading can be integrated successfully with other skills, Barchers (1998:194) indicates that developing listening comprehension is critical in developing reading comprehension inasmuch as listening “encourages skills such as following sequence, distinguishing between fact and fancy, making inferences, visualizing settings and characters, predicting outcomes, and recognizing cause and effect.”

3.5.1.6 The Teaching of Extensive Reading

Teachers should encourage learners to choose for themselves what they read for pleasure and general language improvement to encourage extensive reading (Harmer, 2004:210; Day & Bamford, 1998:6). Because extensive reading is a fluency-based, self-paced activity, teachers should encourage learners to read at least a book fortnightly (cf. Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997). Where possible, teachers are encouraged to build class and school libraries (cf. Harmer, 2004; Cramer, 2004; Barchers, 1998; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997; Day & Bamford, 1998).

Harmer (2004:212) indicates that teachers should use various ways to encourage learners to report back on their reading. The following procedure may be followed by teachers to provide feedback to learners so as to encourage them to read extensively:

- Learners should be divided in groups of three.
- Learners are given five minutes each to tell the other two about his/her book.
- Five minutes is given to the other two learners to ask questions about the book.

- The other learners repeat the activity with their books, following the same procedure.
- All the learners should discuss their books within thirty minutes and the teacher ensures this by indicating when the five minutes have elapsed.
- Should the teacher opt for a written report, he/she is advised to design a book report form that includes the name of the learner, date, the title and the author of the book, the setting, time, place, main character(s), other characters and the most interesting episode of the book.

(cf. Harmer, 2004:212; Kilfoil and Van der Walt, 1997:194; Day & Bamford, 1998:148-150).

To conclude, the teacher should keep in mind that the reading lesson aims to teach learners skills and strategies that will enable them to "interact communicatively with a variety of reading texts" (Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:197) and that "reading is purposeful and meaningful, with comprehension and appreciation serving as goals" (Barchers, 1998:213). However, Routman (2003:118) cautions that "teaching skills and strategies are important but only as they provide necessary supports for creating, understanding, and enjoying worthwhile text."

3.5.1.7 The Teaching of Writing

Writing is seen as a process in the communicative approach to language teaching. According to Harmer (2004:257), "by spending time with learners on Pre-writing phases, editing, redrafting, and finally 'publishing' their work, a process approach aims to get to the heart of the various skills that should be employed when writing" (cf. also Seely, 2005; White & Arandt, 1991; Edge, 1993; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997). The lesson on writing, therefore, takes into account this process (cf. White & Arandt, 1991; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997; Edge, 1993). Paulston and Bruder (1976:205) indicate that learners should be taught to correct the *language form of sentences, their punctuation and the rudimentary principles of organisation* at the beginning level, while at intermediate and advanced levels organisation and development of ideas without ignoring sentence level skills should be emphasized. The teacher is encouraged to plan his/her lessons on writing in such a way that other activities such as discussions, listening and reading are integrated with writing (cf. Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:253; cf. Edge, 1993:121).

The writing lesson can be divided into the five stages of process writing (cf. White & Arndt, 1991). According to White and Arndt (1991), these stages are generating ideas, focusing, structuring, drafting, and evaluating and re-viewing (cf. Cramer, 2004; Harmer, 2004; Browne, 2001). Cramer (2004:269) cautions the teacher that these stages outline "the theory of writing process, but in practice, writing does not fit the theory so neatly" because not every writing activity goes through them. A brief discussion of each stage follows.

- **Generating ideas:** there are different ways that can be used in an ESL classroom by both the teacher and learners to collect or generate ideas. Amongst them are brainstorming, using questions, making notes, using visuals such as pictures, and using role play and simulation (cf. White & Arndt, 1991; Harmer, 2004; Cramer, 2004).
- **Focusing:** the writer decides on the focal idea he/she wishes to put across to the reader. The teacher guides learners to discover main ideas and the purpose of writing, to focus on what the reader needs to know, and to consider the form that his/her text is going to take (cf. White and Arndt, 1991; Harmer, 2004).
- **Structuring:** this stage requires the learner to select and arrange the information that he/she is going to write about. The learner does this by ordering information, experimenting with arrangements and by relating the structure to the focal idea (cf. White & Arndt, 1991; Harmer, 2004).

In order to address the three stages stated above, the following procedure is recommended (cf. Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997).

The teacher introduces the topic to learners. He/she may integrate the writing lesson with reading, listening or oral activities to activate the learners' interests.

Through group or pair work, panel discussions, debates or questions learners are provided with the opportunity to discuss the topic.

Without creating the impression that learners are provided with a model to be followed, the teacher gives learners an example of what type of writing is expected of them.

The teacher then guides learners to create a basic framework for their writing. The framework can take various written forms that include listing, clustering, free-writing, diary writing or drawing a framework.

(cf. also Zamel, 1987:274; White, 1987:262)

- **Drafting:** this involves “putting initial ideas on paper with the understanding that a draft requires substantive changes” (Cramer, 2004:268; cf. Harmer, 2004; White & Arndt, 1991; Browne, 2001).

The following procedure can be followed (cf. Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997):

Learners are divided in groups or pairs so that they can study the information gathered in the planning stage.

Groups or pairs use a specific colour to underline similar ideas or by giving similar ideas the same number.

Learners are then guided to arrange these ideas logically.

The first draft is then evaluated in groups or by the teacher without allocating marks. The purpose of this activity is to allow learners to exchange their efforts with their peers.

Learners then write a more complete draft by incorporating comments made through peer or teacher evaluation.

The teacher can integrate oral work by requesting learners to use their first draft to present an impromptu speech.

- **Evaluating and re-viewing:** learners are taught to assess their texts in order to make a judgement on whether it achieves its intended purpose (cf. White & Arndt, 1991; Browne, 2001; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997; Zamel, 1987).

The following procedure can be followed to teach learners to evaluate and re-view their texts (cf. Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997).

Learners individually study the final draft. This activity can also be done in either pairs or groups, especially when the activity was done through group or pair work from the start.

Learners exchange drafts so that peers can make comments.

Through group work, learners effect global revision by checking paragraphing, meaning, the introduction and conclusion.

Next, local revision is done by checking spelling errors, followed by correction of punctuation and eventually grammatical errors.

According to Weigle (2005:108), marking procedures are "critical because the score is ultimately what will be used in making decisions and inferences about writers." Holistic and analytic rating scales can be used to mark essays and functional writing (cf. Hughes, 1993; Weigle, 2005). Hughes (1993:86) explains that holistic rating scales involve allocating a single mark to a written script based on an overall impression of it. Analytic rating scales have a separate score for a number of aspects of an assessment task (Hughes, 1993:91). For example, an analytic rating scale for a writing piece may include criteria such as grammar (e.g. word order and errors of grammar), vocabulary (use of vocabulary and idioms), mechanics (e.g. punctuation and spelling); fluency (e.g. appropriate choice of structure and vocabulary) and form (organization) (cf. Hughes, 1993:91-93; Weigle, 2005:114).

As indicated, writing can be integrated with other classroom activities such as reading, cued responses like pictorial media or real objects, oral activities such as group discussions as discussed above and listening activities where cloze procedures and

note-taking are used, especially at the initial stages of writing (cf. Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997; Edge, 1993).

3.5.1.8 The Teaching of Grammar

The ESL teacher may need to focus on teaching grammar (cf. also Ellis, 1994). Research "suggests that there is a good case for a role for grammar-focused teaching" (Thornbury, 2003:28). Ellis (1994:659) also points out that specific instruction in grammar may result in increased accuracy and acceleration of development in grammatical sequences. The following discussion presents a general framework (proposed by Ur, 1988:7-8) within which an integrated grammar lesson may be presented.

Presentation

Learners are presented with a reading or a listening comprehension text in which the grammatical structure appears. The purpose of the presentation is to enable the learners to perceive the form and meaning of the grammatical structure (Ur, 1988:7).

Isolation and explanation

This stage focuses on providing learners with communicative activities that enable them to use the grammatical structure under study within a specific situation. Examples of such activities include conversational exchanges, role play, fill-in and cloze procedures, games, linking of sentences and construction of paragraphs as well as scenarios (cf. Harmer, 2004; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997). Teachers may also use repetition and meaningful drills to enable learners to use grammatical structures taught (cf. Paulston & Bruder, 1976). Repetition drills are useful in developing learners' auditory memory so that they can recognise and recall long utterances of language (Paulston & Bruder, 1976:12). Teachers can provide learners with explanations that are coupled with drill work that is more meaningful rather than mechanical (cf. Paulston & Bruder, 1976:7). Although the teacher may not always explain the rules that govern such a grammatical structure, the purpose is to provide learners with the opportunity to understand the various aspects of the structure (Ur, 1988:7; cf. also Thornbury, 2003).

Practice

In this stage learners are provided with class work and/or homework in order to practise the grammatical items under study. Thornbury (2003:91) indicates that “as with any skill, simply knowing what to do is no guarantee that you will be able to do it, or you will be able to do it well.” The purpose of this stage is to enable learners to be accurate, fluent and to integrate new knowledge into old (restructuring) (Thornbury, 2003:91-92).

According to Thornbury (2003:92-94), a practice activity that is good for improving accuracy should enable learners to pay attention to form, be familiar with the language that they are trying to get right, give learners sufficient time to think and reflect and give learners unambiguous feedback. Therefore, learners may be provided with an activity such as essay writing.

To aid learners to integrate new knowledge with the old, a practice activity should have the following characteristics: problematising (“having to deal with a problem often seems to trigger restructuring”), push (the activity should push learners to produce or understand more complex language) and scaffolding (the activity should provide learners with sufficient security to take risks with the language) (Thornbury, 2003:94).

Hughes (1993:142) is of the opinion that whenever the teaching of grammar is thought necessary, it should be tested. Although multiple-choice items can be included in a grammar test, paraphrase, completion and modified cloze seem to be sufficient for most grammar testing purposes (Hughes, 1993:143; cf. also 3.5.1.11).

To conclude, the teacher should keep in mind that “grammar or structure should be taught in relation to meaning or within a specific context, and that the role of that structure in everyday communication should be explained” (Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:77).

3.5.1.9 The Teaching of Literature

The teaching of literature is a much-discussed topic (cf. Carter & Long, 1991; Parkinson & Thomas, 2000). However, Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997) seem to provide a good synthesis of the teaching of literature in Grades 10, 11 and 12 in South African schools, and the discussion below is based on their proposals.

Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997) provide general guidelines for teaching literature. These refer to the teacher as decision-maker, the reader-response approach and an activity-based approach. These are discussed below.

The teacher as decision-maker

According to Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997:212), the role of the teacher in a literature classroom is an extension of that in a communicative classroom. The teacher's role as a decision-maker is to select texts by evaluating them according to their merits, level of difficulty, quality, knowledge required based on the level of the learners, and aspects such as situation, character, dialogue and relationships (Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:212).

Ambe (2007:634) indicates that the teacher should select teaching strategies and materials that address some of the factors that may account for the learners' reluctance in reading, such as lack of motivation, prior knowledge, and adequate knowledge of vocabulary.

The teacher sets the goals of the lesson, identifies the level at which learners are experiencing difficulties with a text and decides how much teaching is required (Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:212; cf. also Carter & Long, 1991:24).

Reader-response approach

While the teacher's role in making decisions in literature teaching is critical, the reader-response approach stresses the importance of the learner's role in learning literature (cf. Cramer, 2004:231; Barchers, 1998:45). "In this approach, how students respond to the

text is more important than their determining exactly what it means" (Barchers, 1998:46). The learner is allowed more exploration of the literary text by developing his/her own responses and sensitivities (Carter & Long, 1991:24-25; Barchers, 1998:45).

According to Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997:213), the learner should be actively involved in speculation, reassessment and questioning the text. The approach is learner-centred as the focus is on the learner's response to the text and his/her dynamic interaction in group and pair work (Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:213; cf. Carter & Long, 1991:25).

In order to facilitate meaningful discussions in groups, learners are encouraged to keep a reading journal to provide them with a place to record their responses as they occur (Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:213; Ambe, 2007:634). L'Allier and Elish-Piper (2007:345) argue that "because reading and writing are complementary processes, comprehension typically increases when they are used together."

A reading journal is one of the strategies teachers can encourage learners to use to integrate reading and writing (L'Allier & Elish-Piper, 2007:345). Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997:219) suggest the following questions to serve as a checklist to guide learners to note specific issues in their journal:

- What puzzles you?
- What appeals to you?
- What are your predictions and expectations as the reading progresses?
- Are there words that you think are important that you do not understand?
- What connections do you make within the text, with your own life, and with other literature?
- What are your mental images about places or people in the text?
- How do you perceive what the writer is trying to do, such as manipulating the reader, imposing or constructing a viewpoint, forcing the reader to question motives, and so on?
- What difficulties do you have in reading this text?
- What was the effect on you when your expectations were not fulfilled as you read?

- Is there anything else you want to record in relation to your reading of a particular text?

On the basis of the checklist, the teacher will be able to identify the problems and the strengths of each learner and these may form the basis for discussion and more formal writing in class (Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:219).

An activity-based approach

Although there is a fine distinction between the reader-response and the activity-based approaches to literature teaching and learning, the reader-response approach uses learners' reading journals to strengthen the learning and teaching of literature while the activity-based approach includes listening comprehension, oral reading, problem-solving, dramatization, discussion, role play, simulation, debates and writing in the teaching and learning of literature (Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:215; cf. also Carter & Long, 1991).

Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997:217) indicate that specific language structures should be pre-taught or only clarified once they have been encountered in the text. Emphasis should be placed on the underlying function of the utterances and on the writer's reasons for using language in a specific way (Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:217; cf. Carter & Long, 1991).

Teachers should keep in mind that "vocabulary is a principal contributor to comprehension, fluency, and achievement" (Bromley, 2007:528). Key words and phrases that are central to the text should be taught before learners engage with the text. Although a thesaurus or an ordinary dictionary can be used for this purpose, the learning of vocabulary should be contextualized and teachers should avoid the overuse of dictionary hunting, definition writing, or teacher explanations that can turn learners off learning new words and comprehension (cf. Harmer, 2004:214; Bromley, 2007:536; Ambe, 2007:635; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:217). Teachers should also provide learners with guided, literary and creative writing activities in order to develop the learners' cognitive academic language proficiency (Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:218).

Teachers are advised to use the question-and-answer method but should avoid questions that reduce literary texts to mere comprehension exercises (cf. Carter & Long, 1991:52-53; Kilfoil and Van der Walt, 1997:217; Ambe, 2007:636; L'Allier & Elish-Piper, 2007:339).

There are literary conventions or aspects that are appropriate for drama, poetry and prose that should be taught directly or indirectly to learners in the secondary school. The list that follows can serve as a checklist because learners should be familiar with all these literary aspects or conventions by the end of their secondary school career (cf. Van der Walt, 2003; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997; Carter & Long, 1991; Dymock, 2007).

Poetry

- Sound patterns: alliteration, assonance, onomatopoeia, rhyme, rhythm and metre.
- Choice of words (function): word class, register, repetition, contrast, etc.; sentence/stanza connectives (cohesion).
- Sentence structure (their function): word order, sentence pattern variations/deviations (e.g. active/passive/questions/negatives); cohesion.
- Figurative language: metaphor, simile, personification.
- Poetic structure (aspects that contribute to the poem as a whole/unity): formal organization – poetry type (e.g. lyric, narrative, sonnet, ballad), content organization – content, field, cultural knowledge, themes, ideas, speech acts, rhetorical features (contrast, irony, understatement, overstatement).
- Critical appreciation: coherent literary, artistic structure of the poem as a whole for extended critical appreciation.
- Intertextuality (comparison): any of the above aspects viewed parallel to any other text (literary/non-literary or two given printed poems compared).

(Van der Walt, 2003:2)

Prose (Short Story; The Novel)

- Choice of words (function): word class, register, repetition, contrast, etc.; sentence/paragraph connectives (cohesion).
- Sentence structure (their function): word order, sentence pattern variations/deviations (e.g. active/passive/questions/negatives); cohesion.
- Figurative language: metaphor, simile, personification.
- Narrative structure (aspects that contribute to the novel/short story as a whole/unity): formal organization – type of the novel/short story; content organisation – content, field, cultural knowledge, setting, themes, ideas, speech acts, character, growth, plot structure, point of view.
- Critical appreciation: coherent literary, artistic structure of the novel/short story as a whole for extended critical appreciation.
- Intertextuality (comparison): any of the above aspects viewed parallel to any other text (literary/non-literary).

(Van der Walt, 2003:4)

Drama and Short Play

- Choice of words (function): word class, register, repetition, contrast, etc.; sentence connectives (cohesion).
- Sentence structure (their function): word order, sentence pattern variations/deviations (e.g. active/passive/questions/negatives); cohesion.
- Figurative language: metaphor, simile, personification.
- Dramatic structure (aspects that contribute to the drama/short play as a whole/unity/coherence): formal organisation – type of drama/short play, formal features/cohesion (acts, scenes), drama conventions, content organisation – content, field, cultural knowledge, themes, ideas, speech acts, setting, character, development, action, dramatic plot and structure, point of view.
- Critical appreciation: coherent literary, artistic structure of drama as a whole for extended critical appreciation.
- Intertextuality (comparison): any of the above aspects viewed parallel to any other text (literary/non-literary).

(Van der Walt, 2003:6)

The structure of the lesson on literature is based on pre-reading, reading and post-reading phases and are similar to a reading lesson (cf. Harmer, 2004:215-226; L'Allier & Elish-Piper, 2007:339; Kilfoil and Van der Walt, 1997:218).

Pre-reading activities are essential in that they promote meaningful interaction between the learner and the text, stimulate the learner's prior experience and arouse the learner's expectations about what is to follow in the text (Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:218; L'Allier & Elish-Piper, 2007:339; Ambe, 2007:635).

The reading and focused re-reading stage of the lesson consists of activities that are designed to explore the text. "During the reading process, readers use their prior knowledge and previous experiences to understand and interpret the text" (L'Allier & Elish-Piper, 2007:341). According to Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997:218), learners should read longer texts at home while important or difficult sections can be read aloud in class by the teacher (cf. Harmer, 2004:216).

Teachers should provide learners with post-reading activities once reading has been completed. The purpose of post-reading activities is to ensure that the overall meaning of the text is understood (cf. Harmer, 2004; Ambe, 2007; L'Allier & Elish-Piper, 2007; Dymock, 2007; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997).

In conclusion, Carter (1996:2) advises the teacher to integrate literary texts with more familiar language teaching materials (cf. Donat, 2006). As the teacher seeks to lead the learner towards literary competence, he/she should keep in mind that this is "part of an ongoing process of helping language learners become better, more aware readers of any kind of text" (McRae, 1996:16).

3.5.1.10 Language Across the Curriculum

Chapter 1 has indicated that English plays a central role in the performance of learners in under-performing schools because it is the Language of Learning and Teaching (cf. page 2). Therefore, in order to make the learning of English effective, authentic and in

line with the principles of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), the effective ESL teacher applies the concept of language across the curriculum (cf. Widdowson, 1992; Corson, 1990; Sirota, 2006). Widdowson (1992:81) is of the opinion that if reading passages during the teaching of English are derived from other subjects "there is a chance that the learner's interest might be engaged and he might be led to recognize the relevance of foreign language study to his other school activities." The basic tenets of language across the curriculum are that language develops through its purposeful use, learning involves and occurs through talking, writing, shaping and moving, language use contributes to the cognitive development of the learner (Corson, 1990:74).

In conclusion, the effective teacher applies the concept of language across the curriculum inasmuch as he/she is aware that the areas of language use that are "immediately accessible to the language teacher and familiar to the language learner are those of other school subjects which, of their nature, must provide a systematic presentation of those conventions needed to convey the basic concepts and procedures of the subjects concerned" (Widdowson, 1992:54). One way of making writing a meaningful activity "might be to relate the teaching of writing closely with the teaching of other subjects on the school curriculum. Learning geography, history, general science and so on are normal school activities and school activities are very much part of the normal lives of children" (Davies & Widdowson, 1979:180). Teachers can therefore use other subjects in an English class.

3.5.1.11 Assessment in the Communicative Approach to Language Teaching

This section discusses assessment in more detail although it was dealt with under the teaching of speaking (cf. page 38) and writing (cf. page 47).

Tests or examinations are an assessment tool that forms an integral part of the instructional programme designed to measure a sample of learners' behaviour (cf. Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:283; Bachman, 1990:20; Bachman & Palmer, 1996:8; Brindley, 2003:210; Genesee & Upshur, 1996: 141). According to Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997:283), a test or examination focuses on the needs, context, activities, competence and topics that are relevant to a specific group of learners.

There are different types of tests, based on their function (cf. Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997). Examples include proficiency, achievement, diagnostic and placement tests (cf. Harrison, 1991; Davidson & Lynch, 2002; Hughes, 1993). Proficiency tests measure learners' language ability, achievement tests establish whether learners or courses achieve objectives, diagnostic tests identify the strengths and weaknesses of learners while placement tests seek to measure learners' language ability with the purpose of placing them at a certain level of the teaching-learning programme (Hughes, 1993:9-14).

Harmer (2004:322) argues that, whatever purpose a test or exam has, good tests have basic qualities (cf. also Davidson & Lynch, 2002; Brown & Hudson, 2002; Harrison, 1991). The most important are validity - assessment tools should assess what they say they do, and reliability - the tool should produce the same results consistently if administered on successive occasions either to the same or different learners (Harmer, 2004:322; Brindley, 2003:310; Weir, 1990:22 & 31; Anderson, Clapham & Wall, 1995:170; Davies, 1990:9; Genesee & Upshur, 1996:57-58 & 62).

According to Harmer (2004:322), the types of items a test contains determine its success or failure as a good measuring instrument. However, a good teacher draws a distinction between direct and indirect test items, as well as discrete-point and integrative testing (Harmer, 2004:322-323). Direct test items require learners to perform the communicative skill that is being tested while indirect test items measure a learner's "knowledge and ability by getting at what lies beneath their receptive and productive skills" (Harmer, 2004:322). Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997:287) indicate that discrete-point tests have items that assess "knowledge or command of specific points of grammar or language usage separately, one point at a time." These tests are not effective to assess learners in the Communicative Approach to language teaching (cf. Bachman, 1990; Weir, 1990; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997). Integrative tests are holistic tests that assess the learner's control of language in actual contexts (Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:287).

Indirect test items include multiple choice questions, cloze procedures, C-tests, dictation, transformation and paraphrase, as well as sentence re-ordering (cf. Harmer, 2004:323-325; Hughes, 1993:59-72). Direct test items seek to test language skills such as

listening, oral, reading and writing directly. Examples of direct listening test items are completing charts with facts and figures from a listening text or following directions on a map and identifying the correct place (cf. Harmer, 2004:327). Test items where learners are asked to write compositions, stories or transactional letters are examples of direct test items for measuring writing (cf. Harmer, 2004:326). Multiple choice questions that test comprehension of a text are one example of test items that can be used to test reading (cf. Harmer, 2004:326; Hughes, 1993:120; Widdowson, 1992:95).

The effective teacher follows specific stages to construct tests in order to increase their validity and reliability (cf. Hughes, 1993). The two important stages in test construction are *Statement of the problem* and *Providing a solution to the problem* (Hughes, 1993:48). The effective teacher provides answers to questions such as *What kind of a test is it to be and what is its exact purpose? What abilities should be tested? How detailed and accurate must the results be? How important is the backwash and what are the constraints set by the unavailability of expertise, facilities and time?* The clarity of answers to these questions enables the teacher to progress to the second stage of test construction by writing specifications for the test (cf. Hughes, 1993:48). Specifications for the test provide information on the content, format and timing, criterial levels of performance, and scoring procedures (Hughes, 1993:49).

Once the teacher has completed the stages of test construction, he/she then starts the process of designing a test. In order to write a valid and reliable test, Harmer (2004:327-328) advises the teacher to assess the test situation by clarifying the context in which the test takes place, listing the skills that should be included in the test, balancing the test items, weighting the scores according to the importance of test items and trying the items or the whole test on colleagues and a group of learners that is as similar as possible for which it is intended (cf. also Hughes, 1993:51-52; Genesee & Upshur, 1996).

Bachman's (1990:81) influential model of communicative language ability may be used when teachers set tests or examination papers. Communicative testing requires learners to use a variety of language functions, use all four language skills and process and interpret paralinguistic or non-verbal elements inherent in the context. These should be embedded within a real-life or simulated communicative context, using a number of

different subtests, which enable learners to use learnt linguistic and sociocultural rules to process discourse in a meaningful way (Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:290-292; cf. also Weir, 1990).

In order to ensure the reliability of marking tests or examinations, teachers should draft comprehensive memoranda that include possible and alternative answers to discrete-point items, a grid for marking subjective tests, and criteria for assessing literature questions (Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:315-316; cf. Harmer, 2004:329-331; Heaton, 1991).

Other concepts that should be considered in assessment are practicality, norm-referencing, criterion-referencing, and learning-teaching value. Practicality means that assessment should be possible regarding time and costs (Genesee & Upshur, 1996:56; Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:286). Norm-referencing refers to the fact that the test should clearly discriminate between weak and strong learners (Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:286; Brindley, 2003:317). The concept of criterion-referencing means that marks should be interpreted according to a particular criterion or standard (Brindley, 2003:317), while the learning-teaching value means that regular testing should be part of the learning process so that the teacher can be in a position to use it to reinforce learning, check progress or motivate learners (Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:284-289).

In conclusion, "assessing learners' knowledge and competence, whether with tests, examinations or continuous evaluation, should be an integral part of the instructional programme. As the Communicative Approach is in vogue in teaching, its principles should be the starting point in assessment as well" (cf. Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:324).

3.5.2 Other Didactic Skills of the Effective Teacher

Research in education has revealed basic principles that "when applied appropriately, enhance student learning and growth" (Blair, 1988:8). Blair (1988:8) stresses that "teaching is a decision-making process, and the judgements teachers make are the real keys to the success or failure of their program [sic]."

This section focuses on the following key principles that have been proven to be effective in enhancing not only the quality of life in the classroom, but also the academic achievement of learners (cf. Blair, 1988):

- Cultivating learner feelings and emotions.
- Maintaining effective classroom control.
- Using a variety of materials to teach what learners need to know.
- Disposition toward reflection and problem-solving.

These four key principles of teaching emphasise processes of teaching in which the teacher gathers information while observing and teaching in the classroom (cf. Blair, 1988). It is important for the ESL teacher to have a thorough knowledge of these principles because they assist the ESL teacher to develop effective ESL skills. A discussion of each of these principles follows.

3.5.2.1 Cultivating Learner Development

Learner feelings and emotions are critical in ESL learning in that learning and feelings are interdependent. "Success in teaching would be hollow without a pervasive awareness and concern for student affect in the learning process" (Blair, 1988:9). Effective teachers are concerned not only with the cognitive growth of their learners but also with how learners feel about themselves and their abilities to be successful (cf. Barkhuizen, 1995; Prodromou, 1994; Blair, 1988; Harmer, 2004).

3.5.2.2 Motivating Learners to Learn

As indicated in Chapter 2, motivation is one of the major problems in the under-performing schools. The effective teacher is aware that good teaching and motivation go hand in hand (cf. Graham & Walsh, 1996). Motivation rarely occurs in isolation but is part of instruction (cf. Blair, 1988; Harmer, 2004). According to Blair (1988:20), "effective teachers at all grade levels, recognizing this close relationship, interweave motivation with instructional strategies throughout their day to meet student needs." Figure 3 below outlines this basic approach. It is an approach the ESL teacher should adopt and will assist him/her in being effective in the classroom.

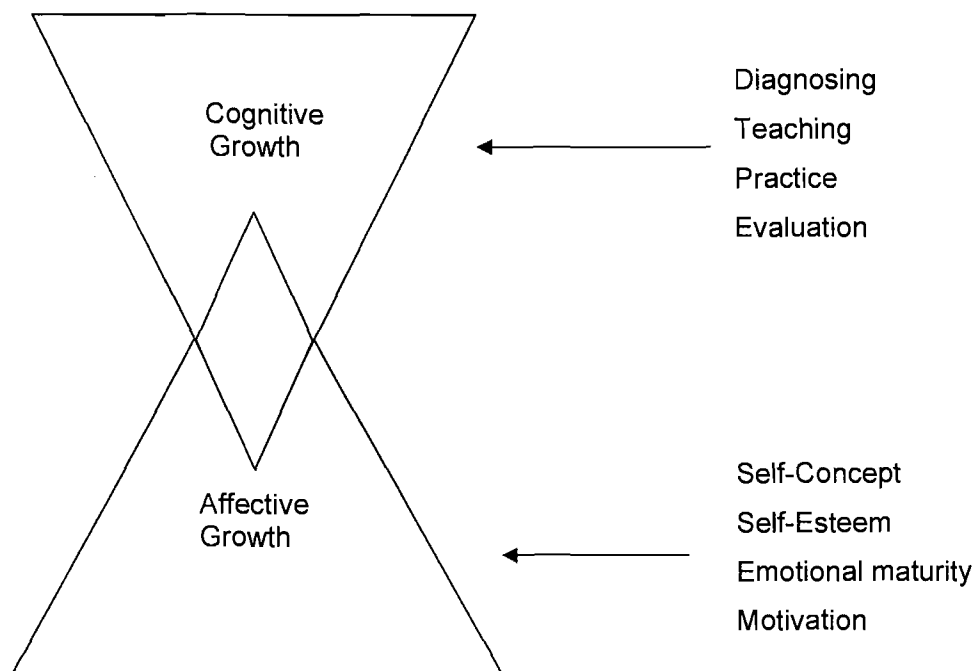


Figure 3: Teaching-Learning Process (Blair, 1988:20)

Diagnosing learner strengths and weaknesses, selecting appropriate learning goals, and actual teaching that includes motivation, presentation, practice, and assessment form the essential elements in the process of ESL teaching (cf. Blair, 1988:20). Self-perception, emotional maturity, and motivation form the fundamental aspects of learner feelings (Blair, 1988:20). As depicted in the diagram, the effective ESL teacher merges the cognitive growth of learners and their affective growth, as symbolised in the merging of the two triangles (Blair, 1988:20). If we perceive the importance of a given task and if conditions are such that we can be successful, our motivation to learn becomes high (cf. Blair, 1988; Harmer, 2004; Gardner et al., 2004; Wu, 2003; Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei, 2003).

The effective ESL teacher commands a repertoire of teaching practices known to stimulate student motivation, enhance student achievement of basic skills, develop higher-level thinking, produce self-regulated learners and to set tasks at which learners can succeed (cf. Blair, 1988; Wu, 2003; Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei, 2003; Gardner et al., 2004; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Noels et al., 1999; Harmer, 2004).

Effective teachers employ a pervasive approach when motivating learners. This becomes important in that one motivation strategy may be effective for one learner but not for another. In the pervasive approach “effective teachers implement different methods to motivate their students, monitor student reactions, and adjust future instruction accordingly” (Blair, 1988:21). This means that the effective teacher uses strategies to engage their learners in learning depending upon the learners themselves, what is being taught, and the environment of the classroom (Blair, 1988:21).

Blair (1988:21) indicates that what the teacher does in the classroom directly affects how learners feel, regardless of where teaching is taking place and the previous problems of certain learners. Blair (1988:21) recommends four basic techniques that can serve as guideposts in motivating learners:

- Change the task at hand.
- Change how learners perceive the learning task.
- Vary the learner-teacher relationship.
- Change the reward structure used in the classroom.

The effective teacher applies the following approach with each technique:

Changing the task at hand:

- The needs of learners are matched to teaching goals.
- The lesson presentation is at the cognitive level of learners.
- The learners' interests, background, experience, and cultures are considered when selecting teaching materials.
- Teaching materials, lesson presentations, forms of feedback, pace of lessons, seatwork assignments, the time learners spend on activities, record-keeping, types of groups of learners, and the arrangement of the room are varied so that learning can be more fun for learners.
- Learners are given the responsibility to choose learning materials in engaging in certain learning activities.
- Lessons are structured in such a way that learners are actively involved in learning.

Changing how learners perceive the learning task:

- The effective teacher shows enthusiasm and his/her emotional responses in presenting a lesson.
- Learners are made aware of the relevance of learning a particular skill.
- The effective teacher shows learners their improvement through graphic illustrations.
- He/she constantly reminds learners why they are doing what they are doing during the lesson.
- The effective teacher expands the opportunities of learners to succeed.
- He/she gives learners the opportunity to assess themselves so as to make them experience that their opinion is valued.

Varying the learner-teacher relationship:

- The effective teacher is familiar with the interests of learners.
- Where possible, he/she communicates with learners on a personal level.
- He/she involves parents so as to learn more about learners.
- The effective teacher allows learners to interact with him/her about what they regard as an important learning experience to them.
- He/she encourages learners to keep on trying.
- Learners are involved in planning learning activities.

Changing the reward structure used in the classroom:

- All learners are ensured that they have a chance to achieve the learning goals.
- In addition to a performance mark, learners are allocated a mark for effort as well.
- The effective teacher raises the learners' chances of success and the way they perceive the importance of success through cooperative learning groups.

(Blair, 1988:22-23; cf. also Wu, 2003; Noels et al., 1999; Harmer, 2004; Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei, 2003; Gardner et al., 2004; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003)

The discussion above indicates the knowledge and skills that facilitate the effectiveness of the English teacher. These may assist teachers in motivating learners, especially those from poor socio-economic backgrounds in the under-performing schools.

3.5.3 Creating Effective Classroom Control

For the ESL teacher to be effective, he or she should be able to create, manage, and maintain an environment that promotes learning (Lunt, 1993:49; Blair, 1988:31). Blair (1988:32) argues that the teacher has to be an expert in both classroom management and teaching abilities in order to be successful in the classroom. Classroom management is critical in facing the challenge brought about in dealing appropriately with the wide range of learner abilities and needs in the ESL classroom (cf. Boomer, 1989:137; Blair, 1988:32). Effective ESL teachers use a combination of classroom management approaches because they have adopted a problem-solving attitude toward management (cf. Solórzano & Solórzano, 1999; Blair, 1988). The key to effective ESL classroom management lies in the teacher's ability to find ways to keep learners actively engaged in learning activities (cf. Boomer, 1989). To this end, four broad areas of effective ESL classroom management can be identified.

- planning of learning activities,
- managing of group teaching,
- monitoring of learner progress,
- stopping misbehaviour.

3.5.3.1 Planning of Learning Activities

The Department of Education (2005) requires teachers to plan at three levels (cf. also Woodward, 2001:182). This process of planning is usually called the development of the Learning Programme (cf. Department of Education, 2005). The levels of development

are Subject Framework, Work Schedule and Lesson Plan (cf. Department of Education, 2005).

Subject Framework

Harmer (2004) indicates that, before teachers plan lessons, they need to know the time, length and frequency at which classes take place at their schools, the physical conditions of their schools, the syllabus (i.e. the National Curriculum Statements), what type of exams learners are expected to take and when, and the restrictions imposed by the school upon their teaching (cf. Department of Education, 2005). Teachers plan a three-year Subject Framework for Grades 10, 11 and 12 by indicating Learning Outcomes, Assessment Standards, Progression, Content, Time, Resources and Assessment (cf. Department of Education, 2005).

Work Schedule

Based on the Subject Framework, teachers plan the Work Schedule for each grade for a year. Teachers plan for integration, sequencing and pacing of the Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards (cf. Department of Education, 2005). According to Woodward (2001:182), teachers who share the same class need to plan a course outline together. "No to do so would be like playing a double tennis match with a blindfold on" (Woodward, 2001:182).

Lesson Plan

Woodward (2001) posits that there are three types of lesson planning. These are instant preparation (the type the teacher does when he/she is engaged in the process of teaching), constant preparation (the type that happens all the time) and advance preparation (when the teacher plans in advance what he/she is going to teach). Lesson plans are an example of advance planning (Woodward, 2001:184).

It is at this stage of planning that the teacher plans as an individual (cf. Woodward, 2001). The teacher is advised to follow two overriding principles for good lesson planning – *variety* and *flexibility* (cf. Harmer, 2004). The principle of variety is applied

when the teacher selects a wide variety of materials and involves learners in a number of different types of activities (cf. Harmer, 2004). Flexibility is applied when the teacher implements the lesson in the classroom. A flexible teacher has the ability to change the plan when, for any number of reasons, what he/she has planned for that class on that particular day is not appropriate or does not succeed (cf. Harmer, 2004).

Blair (1988:33) posits that the effective teacher spends time before the school year begins to collect and organise materials and plan activities that will be used with the learners throughout the year. The better the preparation of materials and activities prior to actual teaching, the more confidence the ESL teacher will have in his/her daily interactions with the learners and the more the teacher can concentrate on the actual teaching (Blair, 1988:33). Blair (1988) subscribes to the school of thought that argues that "the key to effective classroom management is prevention".

Blair (1988:34) proposes the following for the teacher to consider in preparing before the school year begins:

- Collect as many diagnostic data on learners as possible.
- Decide on 'must' classroom behaviour rules and procedures.
- Decide ahead of time how you intend to explain classroom behaviour standards and expectations concerning assignments and classroom procedures.
- Organize and arrange teaching and learning materials for easy access and distribution.
- Plan the seating arrangements to make sure that there is smooth transition of movement from one activity to another.
- In addition to listing rules and procedures on the board, communicate to learners the consequences of improper behaviour.
- Check the class timetable to determine if any special education learner will be mainstreamed in your classroom.
- Prepare an introductory letter to parents explaining classroom policies.

Effective ESL classroom managers plan their lessons well enough in advance. Blair (1988:34) is of the opinion that this lesson plan should be detailed in the teacher's mind if not written down. "Teachers need to review how the lesson will begin, what type of

procedure will be followed, when and how materials will be distributed, what interaction patterns will be used with students, how students will complete seatwork assignments, how corrective feedback will be given, and how an activity will end and the next begin without chaos erupting” (Blair, 1988:34).

The following managerial suggestions should be used when the ESL teacher prepares to teach a lesson (Blair, 1988:35):

- Have all materials run off and ready to use well in advance of the actual lesson.
- Decide on how and when materials will be used.
- Know when you will distribute materials to learners and be careful not to distribute materials at the wrong time.
- Plan more than one way to explain a particular concept to your learners. Expect that some learners will not understand after the first round of explaining.
- Think through your lesson to highlight times when learners will be moving around the room. Plan ahead for a smooth transition.
- Plan how you will handle seatwork assignments.
- Plan how you intend to monitor the learners’ attention to the assignment.

3.5.3.2 Designing Lesson Plans for ESL

The effective ESL teacher uses the following steps in designing a lesson plan (cf. Department of Education, 2005:43-44):

- Indicate the content, context and the outcomes of the lesson.
- Develop activities and select teaching methods: the teacher should develop activities and determine the most suitable teaching method(s) for the activities.
- Consider diversity: the teacher should “explore the various options available within each activity that will allow expanded opportunities to those learners that require individual support” (Department of Education, 2005:43).
- Design assessment tasks: the teacher should consider the learning outcome, the task, the audience, the procedure, and criteria that are used for assessing learners.

- Review assessment and resources: for each activity the teacher should detail the assessment strategy and the resources that will be used.
- Allocate time: the teacher indicates the time that will be used for each activity.

Below, Tables 2 and 3 provide an example of a template and a checklist for a lesson plan respectively.

Activities	Period	Learning outcomes(s)	PROCESS			ASSESSMENT			PRODUCT
			Learning Activities	Resources/Texts used	Teaching Strategies	Assessment tasks	Tools	Assessment methods/Who assesses?	What is produced?
Expanded opportunities:									

Table 1: Example of a Lesson Plan Form for ESL (cf. Department of Education, 2005:45)

HAVE I....		
1	planned and prepared appropriate resources for each learning activity?	
2	sequenced the plan logically?	
3	allowed time for extended opportunities and scaffolding for learners experiencing barriers?	
4	referred to what learners already know (prior knowledge) and built on that?	
5	developed suitable learner centred activities ?	
6	ensured that the activities supply appropriate evidence ?	
7	considered the type of assessment (formative -, summative -, baseline – diagnostic assessment) chosen the most suitable assessment instrument (assignment, aural test, case study, examination, demonstrations, role play) developed tools for assessing learner performance (rubrics, control lists and rating scales) to assess evidence?	
8	used a variety of assessment methods , including self, peer and group assessment?	
9	ensured that all assessment leads to a demonstration of Learning Outcomes in the form of evidence ?	
10	balanced group and individual work ?	
11	ensured that all learners read, speak, listen, write and improve their language?	
12	referred to the real world in choice of contexts?	
13	catered in some way for different learning styles ?	
14	structured homework, projects and other assessments meaningfully?	

Table 2: Checklist for a Detailed ESL Lesson Plan (Department of Education, 2005:52)

3.5.3.3 Teaching Large Classes

Researchers define "large classes" and "small classes" differently (cf. Yuanshan & Mau, 2003). For purposes of this study, 20 to 25 is regarded as the upper limit of small classes while 30 to 35 is regarded as the lower limit of large classes (cf. Yuanshan & Mau, 2003:15). Teachers' concerns over large classes suggest that these concerns can be divided into five areas: *discomfort*, *control*, *individual attention*, *evaluation* and *learning effectiveness* (Hayes, 1997:108). *Discomfort* refers to the fact that teachers feel physically constrained when they teach large classes, and that teaching large classes is physically exhausting (Hayes, 1997:108-107). *Control* means that teachers feel that they cannot control large classes and these classes are noisy (Hayes, 1997:109). Teachers feel that they are neglecting the needs of their learners as individuals and, therefore, cannot give their learners the much-needed *individual attention*. Regarding *Evaluation*, teachers feel that they are responsible for checking all of their learners' work and they cannot do this in large classes. *Learning effectiveness* refers to the fact that teachers doubt if learning is effective in large classes (Hayes, 1997). The following section discusses these problem areas.

Discomfort

As indicated, *discomfort* refers to the fact that teachers feel physically constrained when they teach large classes, and that teaching large classes is physically exhausting. Hayes (1997:111) encourages teachers to draw up a plan for their classrooms and indicate how desks will be arranged. Usually the best arrangement is when desks are organized in groups to allow for group work, and positioned at an angle to the board to allow proper vision of the board. Hess (2001:112) indicates that the group is a natural framework for the way ideas are worked within the real world (cf. 3.5.1.3). "It seems only natural that the language classroom, which really is a laboratory in communication, should do a great deal of its work in groups" (Hess, 2001:112). It can also be worthwhile for teachers to train learners to arrange desks for lessons in which the primary focus is group or pair work in cases where teachers go to the class instead of learners attending periods at a subject classroom (Hayes, 1997:112).

Control

According to Hayes (1997:112), the concern of teachers about control may be linked to teacher-centred perceptions about the classroom. It is worth noting that research on the effective teacher indicates that such teachers apply cooperative learning through group and pair work (cf. Blair, 1988; Arends, et al., 1998; Arends, 1998; Borich, 2000; Anderson, 1989; Scheidecker & Freeman, 1999; Barnes, 1999; Bourdillon & Storey, 2002; Capel et al., 1995).

Hayes (1997:112) argues that “the question of noise in pair or group activities is often cited as a reason for large classes being difficult to control.” In order to avoid the problem of noise in groups, Hess (2001:112-113) argues that learners should be taught how to work in group settings by recognizing the right of everyone to speak, avoiding taking monopoly over the whole group, encouraging the shy ones to speak and by carefully listening to others (cf. 3.5.1.3). Learners can also be made responsible for control in the classroom (Hayes, 1997:112). Teachers can do this by listing all the management activities in class and decide which of these could be done by learners (Hayes, 1997:112).

Other techniques found to be effective in ensuring productive teaching in large classes include:

- **With-it-ness:** be continuously aware of what is going on in the classroom and communicate this awareness to the learners.
- **Overlapping:** do more than one thing in the classroom without getting frustrated.
- **Smoothness of transition:** go from one activity to another or one part of a lesson to another without wasting time and without undue delay.
- **Momentum:** pace lessons at the right speed with few delays.
- **Group alerting:** keep the attention of the learners during the lesson.
- **Accountability:** know how well learners are learning.

(Blair, 1988:35-36)

The ESL teacher should have the following in mind:

- Have the attention of the learners before starting the lesson.
- Maintain sensitivity to the correct timing of your explanation – look for nonverbal cues from learners that indicate interest or lack thereof.
- Watching the eyes of the learners can assist in making out whether they are interested and understand the lesson.
- Avoid covering too much in one lesson.
- Don't dwell too long on a topic or a response and leave no question hanging.
- Vary questioning techniques based on your teaching outcome.
- Classroom rules should be fairly and consistently enforced.
- Minimize interruptions.
- Problems should be anticipated with misbehaviour handled quickly positively.
- Learners should be provided with feedback that is related to the task at hand.
- Constantly keep moving around the classroom.

(Blair, 1988:36)

Individual attention

Hess (2001:16) indicates that learning the names of learners is essential because good basic human relationships are promoted, the teacher can easily monitor the records of learners, respect is maintained, learners can be called to order and learners feel more comfortable in a class where they know the names of their classmates.

There are a number of activities the teacher can use to remember the names of learners. These activities also assist learners to remember the names of their classmates (cf. Hess, 2001). Examples of such activities include the following:

- **The story of my name:** the teacher encourages learners to create a story based on their names. The teacher may encourage this by writing questions that elicit name stories on the board. Examples of such questions could be: Does your name have a meaning? Why did your parents call you by your name? Do you think that your name is part of your identity? Learners then share these stories

with their classmates who in turn try to remember as many facts as possible about their classmates' names.

- **Names and adjectives:** learners do this activity by combining their classmates' name with an adjective that they then say to the whole class.
- **I am and I love:** learners say their names and the names of something or someone they love.
- **Desk placards:** learners write their names on placards and place them on their desks in front of them.

(cf. Hess, 2001:20-23)

Although learning the names of learners in a large class can be a daunting task, using their names could be one of the critical strategies teachers can use to show learners that they care about them as individuals (Hayes, 1991:11).

Evaluation

As indicated, teachers who teach large classes are worried that they cannot get to every learner so that they can evaluate them (cf. Hayes, 1997; LoCastro, 2001b). Hayes (1997:113) indicates that if the teacher cannot get to every learner's work, learners may copy or cheat and this might violate the Department of Education's policy on assessment (cf. Department of Education, 2001c; 2007).

Mau (2003) is of the opinion that the problem of evaluation in large classes can be solved with portfolio assessment. "Portfolios are purposeful collections of a student's effort, progress and achievement over time" (Mau, 2003:158). The purposes of portfolios are to showcase the best work of learners, document the learner's learning over a period of time and to have evidence of the learner's work so as to account to stakeholders such as parents and the Department of Education (Mau, 2003:159-160). Checklists, rating scales and rubrics are used to assess portfolios (cf. Mau, 2003). Teachers use a checklist to mark either "yes" or "no" to record what learners are expected to know (Mau, 2003:160). Rating scales are similar to checklists except that rating scales have three or more choices, such as "not yet", "is learning", and "proficient" (Mau, 2003:161; cf. also 3.5.1.11). Self- or group-reflection is another assessment tool that can be used to assess portfolios (cf. Mau, 2003:161). Mau (2003:162) argues that

reflections are valuable when teachers intend to capture the development of the learner's knowledge, skills and dispositions. Concept maps are assessment tools that learners can use to document their learning and to visualise how concepts and categories of learning relate (Mau, 2003:162). According to Mau (2003:162), "teachers of large classes can vary their assessment tools to match learning experiences and to meet different student modes of learning."

The benefits of using portfolios in large classes include the fact that they capture the quality of the learners' thinking and work, provides relevant information about learners' learning and facilitate communication between learners and their teachers, learners with their classmates and parents with teachers (Mau, 2003:164).

Mau (2003:165-166) suggests that, if teachers intend to use portfolios in large classes, they should identify goals and contexts within which portfolios are to be put together, plan how portfolios are to be collected and stored, encourage learners to document reasons for selecting items that are included in the portfolio and consider how portfolios will be organized and presented. In order to standardise portfolios in large classes, Mau (2003:166) proposes that consistency of portfolios should be maintained across learners. This can be done by using the same format that has a thesis statement, pieces of evidence, descriptions and analysis of that evidence, and a conclusion.

In conclusion, when portfolios are used to evaluate learners as part of continuous assessment (CASS) in large classes, learners may become more careful and evaluative of their work, and more responsible for their own learning (cf. Department of Education, 2001c; Department of Education, 2007b; Hayes, 1997; Jacobs & Inn, 2003; Mau, 2003).

Learning effectiveness

As indicated, teachers who teach large classes often feel that learning in such classes is not effective (cf. Hayes, 1997; LoCastro, 2001b; Sarwar, 2001; Holderness, 2003). However, Hayes (1997:114) indicates that there is no research evidence that proves a conclusive link between class size and learner achievement. In fact, Hess (2001:3) argues that cooperative learning works better in large classes because "cross-ability grouping allows the more able learners to improve their language skills by honing their

ability to explain, to state clearly, and to give effective examples, while it provides the less able with considerable support." Most studies show that "group activities organized in line with cooperative learning principles lead to gains on an impressive variety of key variables in education, starting with gains in achievement as measured by standardized tests and other instruments" (Jacobs & Inn, 2003:143).

To conclude, this section has attempted to provide some of the strategies that can be used by teachers who are faced with the challenges of teaching large classes. As Holderness (2003:4) argues, "since human and physical resources are limited in South Africa, the notion of creative large-class teaching at schools needs to be developed."

3.5.3.4 Dealing with Misbehaviour

Management problems occur even in well-managed ESL classrooms (cf. Porteus, Valley & Ruth, 2001; Blair, 1988). The teacher's intervention will always be required, in which case the key is for the teacher to keep cool, avoid extremely negative responses, respond as quickly as possible according to the demands of the situation, or ask for help from other professionals (cf. Blair, 1988:41).

The level of the intervention from the teacher can be sketched in the form of a continuum ranging from nonverbal response to a simple reprimand to removal of the learner from the classroom, as illustrated in Table 3.

LOW	MODERATE	HIGH
• Silence. • "Evil eye," icy stare. • Physical proximity - move toward the disruptive learner while continuing with the lesson. • Praise acceptable behaviour of other learners. • Remind learners of your expectation for them in the activity at hand. • Remove materials a learner is using for a short period of time.	• Change tone of voice. • Isolate learner from group for a short period of time. • Direct a task-related comment to the learner(s). • Remind learners of certain rules and procedures. • Walk over to the learner and quietly tell the learner that type of behaviour is unacceptable and that working on assigned material is what should be done. • Direct a question to the learner regarding the activity. • Take away the learner's privileges. • Discuss problem with the group. • Individually remind the learner that learning is the learner's responsibility not the teacher's. • Contact parents. • Write up a contract and have learner sign it.	• Firmly inform learner(s) of the consequences of the action. Give ten seconds for learner to stop. • Send for help if there is potential for physical violence. • Keep other learners away from disruptive learner(s). • Remove learners from class. • Review incident with class and remind learners of classroom rules and procedures.

Table 3: The Teacher's Intervention in a Disruptive Class (Blair, 1988:42)

Learners cannot learn if there is no discipline in the school, especially in the classroom. Porteus et al. (2001:60) provide the following guidelines that are based on democratic strategies of discipline to deal effectively with disciplinary problems:

- **The Event**

What is happening?

What is the learner doing that is causing a problem?

- **The Social Contract**

What are our agreements?

What are our commitments to each other, to the class, to the school?

- **The Moral Connection**

Why is what is happening wrong?

How has the standard dropped?

- **Next Steps**

What must be done to fix things up?

What natural consequences will be endured?

For grave infractions, what rational consequences must be endured?

- **Revisiting Commitments**

Looking ahead, what are our commitments to each other and to this community?

Teachers can design a template that includes these guidelines so that learners with disciplinary problems can be constantly reminded of their commitments.

3.5.4 Using a Variety of Teaching Materials

Effective teachers use a variety of teaching and learning materials as a vehicle to achieve the learning and teaching outcomes (cf. McGrath, 2002; Blair, 1988; Wajnryb, 1992; Anderson, 1989; Hutchinson & Torres, 1994). Although the teaching-learning activities, materials and outcomes cannot really be separated, the key to the selection of effective materials lies in meeting the needs of the learners (cf. McGrath, 2002; Hutchinson & Torres, 1994).

Blair (1988:116) outlines three broad categories of materials with their purposes and guiding questions for their selection:

- **Main Textbooks**

Purpose: primary tool to cover content.

Guiding Questions:

Is the readability level appropriate for learners?

Does the format facilitate learning?

Is the presentation appropriately sequenced?

Is the presentation clear?

Is the information sufficient enough to develop the learning

content?

- **Supplementary Materials**

Purpose: reinforce and extend previously taught skills and concepts.

- **Teacher-Made Materials**

Purpose: may be used as main materials but are often used as supplementary materials.

Guiding Questions:

Do the materials reflect the interests and learning styles of the learners?

Do the materials reflect various abilities of the learners?

Do materials directly link up with learning and teaching goals?

Are materials applicable to cooperative learning?

Are materials sequenced according to your teaching plan?

Do materials supply corrective feedback?

(cf. also McGrath, 2002:19-22; Wajnryb, 1992:127)

Table 4 below provides an example of a comprehensive checklist for the assessment of ESL teaching and learning materials (cf. McGrath, 2002:24). (Harmer 2004:301 also provides a similar list.)

Components/support for teacher

What do the materials consist of in addition to the learner's book?

- Teacher's book
- Tests
- Workbook
- Cassettes
- Video
- Pictorial materials
- CD-ROM
- Other

Date of publication

When were the materials published?

Are all the components available?

Cost

What does the learner's book cost?

What do the other items cost?

Target learners

What kinds of learners is the material intended for?

- Age
- Level
- Interests

Target teaching context

What kind of teaching situation is it intended for?

- Type of course (e.g. general English, exam-oriented)
- Total time available
- Lesson length
- Syllabus
- Self-study

Table 4: A Checklist for the Analysis of Teaching-Learning Materials (McGrath, 2002:24)

3.5.5 Disposition toward Reflection and Problem-Solving

The effective ESL teacher is disposed toward reflection and problem-solving (cf. Arends et al., 1998; Hyatt & Beigy, 1999; Henning, 2000; Thorne & Qiang, 1996; Ho, 1995). An effective teacher "should consider learning to teach a lifelong process in which they learn

to diagnose situations and then adapt their professional knowledge to fit those situations" (Arends et al. 1998:52). Anderson (1989:18) regards a reflective teacher as the one who has the spirit of inquiry and therefore seeks "to develop greater levels of understanding and to make changes when necessary, both within the classrooms and within themselves." Henning (2000:143) is of the opinion that for teacher education programmes to produce effective teachers, "the knowledge and the skills should not be the point of departure, but the real contextual problems should energise the formulation of [learning] outcomes.'

3.6 Conclusion

Effective ESL teaching is indeed a complex process (cf. Harmer, 2004; Prodromou, 1994). This is further complicated by the fact that ESL teaching is a human endeavour. Nevertheless, the preceding discussion attempted to shed some light on the topic by using a model that takes into consideration the knowledge, skills and qualities of the effective ESL teacher (cf. Covey, 1989; Covey, 2004; Gyatso, 2000).

The effective ESL teacher possesses a certain professional knowledge that enables him to facilitate learning within the teaching-learning environment. This knowledge also enables the teacher to plan effectively, taking into account the needs of the learners and the outcomes of learning. Furthermore, the knowledge of the effective ESL teacher enables him to apply his/her skills within the learning environment. He or she manages the learning environment effectively by applying appropriate teaching methodologies. Intertwined with his/her skills and knowledge, the attitude and the behaviour of the effective ESL teacher are such that learners are motivated and inspired to learn and take charge of their own learning. The problems of discipline are minimised and taken as opportunities for learning. Therefore, the effective ESL teacher considers himself/herself as a lifelong learner who constantly solves problems and reflects on his/her practice.

CHAPTER 4

EFFECTIVE ESL TEACHING AND LEARNING: MANAGERIAL ISSUES

4.1 Introduction

A major trend in international reform and restructuring in education is the decentralisation of decision-making to the level of the school, thereby making the role of the principal as the manager of the school more critical for effective learning and teaching (cf. Kruger, 2003; Masitsa, 2005; Masitsa, Van Staden, De Wet, Niemann, Heyns, Brazelle & Niemann, 2004).

The pressure on schools to improve and raise learner achievement is unlikely to abate as educational policy consistently focus on securing increased learner and school performance (cf. Harris, Busher & Wise, 2003; Riley & MacBeath, 1998; 2003; Kruger, 2003; Masitsa, 2005; Masitsa et al., 2004). This has resulted in school leadership becoming a policy issue in that it is seen as holding the key to resolving many problems facing schools (Riley & MacBeath, 1998; 2003:173; Department of Education, 2000a:8). In spite of the lack of a leadership and management model that applies to all schools, Riley and MacBeath (2003:174) argue that there are clearly some common ingredients that can assist principals to manage and lead their schools to effectiveness.

This chapter discusses the role played by the principal and the school management team (SMT) in effective ESL teaching and learning. This discussion recognises that managerial issues within the school are highly complex and cannot be exhausted in a single study. In this light, the following topics are dealt with: the effective school, the principal and effective teaching and learning, the role of the languages head of department, the School Governing Body, as well as the role of the Department of Education.

4.2 The Effective School

A study conducted by Mortimore and MacBeath (2003) indicates that effective schools are rarely an aggregation of effective teachers or effective departments. Effective schools, according to Mortimore and MacBeath (2003:237), “are led and managed and have whole-school policies, development plans and staff development sessions. There is synergy, and sometimes entropy, at school level, a whole that may either be greater or lesser than the sum of its parts.”

Riley and MacBeath (2003:176) indicate that what constitutes a good school is bound up in history, culture and local context. It is increasingly becoming clear that “local variability is the rule; uniformity is the exception” (Hopkins, Ainscow & West, 1994:17). Generally, the effectiveness of the school is determined by three major contexts: the community context (the social and the neighbourhood context), the policy context (national, provincial and district context), and the internal context (the leadership within the school, including policy developed by the school) (cf. Riley & MacBeath, 1998; 2003). It is worth noting that the concepts ‘good’ and ‘effective’ “are not neutral but contested” (Riley & MacBeath, 2003:176). Nevertheless, the literature on school effectiveness seems to agree that individual school effectiveness can be measured according to the difference the school makes in learner achievement (cf. Masitsa, 2005; Masitsa et al., 2004). These views “reinforce a deeply-entrenched view of effective schools as those most efficient at improving exam scores” (Riley & MacBeath, 2003:178; cf. also Kruger, 2003; Masitsa et al., 2004).

Mortimore and MacBeath (2003:237-238) point out that research indicates that a well-led and managed school has a high level of consistency “where the cross-fertilization from classroom to classroom, subject to subject, is seen as important in enhancing effectiveness at whole-school level, and feeds back down into improved performance at classroom and individual pupil levels.”

Ouston (2003:258) and Martinez (2003:267) list eleven features of effective schools that have been revealed by research on School Effectiveness and School Improvement (SESI). These features are:

- A strong, purposeful and involved professional leadership.

- Shared vision and goals.
- A learning environment.
- Concentration on learning and teaching.
- Explicit high expectations.
- Positive reinforcement.
- Monitoring progress.
- Learner rights and responsibilities.
- Purposeful teaching.
- A learning organization.
- Home-school partnership.

These features indicate that the school has to operate as a whole or unit to bring about an improvement in the achievement of learners. Effective ESL learning and teaching should be seen within this light. The under-performing schools have ESL as the language of learning and teaching. Effective learning and teaching of ESL is therefore placed in a critical position for the effectiveness of the whole school.

4.3 The Principal and Effective Teaching and Learning

Gunter (2001:96) explains that “research continues to show that the interplay between core values and personal models of headship and the internal and external demands of the job is central to how we need to understand the realities of headteachers’ work.” Research (e.g. Riley & MacBeath, 2003:175; Department of Education, 2000a:9) indicates that, although the context and emphasis of school leadership may vary, it is the principal as an individual who is placed in the spotlight. Gunter (2001:102) indicates that change in relationships and cultures are the most significant factors that define the roles and self-conception of the principal (cf. also Department of Education, 2000a:11-12). A contradictory situation exists where the relationship of the principal with the Department of Education, the school governing body, parents, learners and teachers is an unsettled terrain where boundaries are tested (cf. Gunter, 2001).

According to Gunter (2001:102), what seems to matter in the role of the principal in effective learning and teaching is whether he/she is actually enabling democratic development in the school. Gunter (2001:103) aligns himself with the school of thought that broadly divides the role of the principal into three broad areas:

- Principal-manager: endorses site-based management and believes that it is important to improve teacher and learner performance (cf. Riley & MacBeath, 1998; 2003).
- Principal-professional: emphasises collegial relationships and works through transformation in ways that do not alienate the principal from pedagogy.
- Principal-resistor: seeks union leadership in order to defend schools from curriculum and assessment being imposed. This enables the principal to apply democratic principles that create ownership of decisions amongst teachers who mostly belong to unions. The principal resists dictatorial processes and seeks the support of union leadership that represents the interests of the staff.

Riley and MacBeath (2003:174) state that the demands and expectations of the role of the principal “relate to national purposes, local context, as well as the skills and attributes of individuals, and the demands and expectations of school communities.”

Masitsa (2005:173) singles out the effectiveness of the principal as the most important factor that contributes to the academic performance of learners (cf. also Masitsa et al., 2004; Kruger, 2003). Riley and MacBeath (2003:184) argue that effective school principals “are distinguished by their vision and passion and their capacity to bring a critical spirit into the complex and demanding job of headship, whilst at the same time focusing on staff and pupil performance, and on classroom pedagogy” (cf. also Kruger, 2003:207).

When all is said and done, the main role of the principal is to create an atmosphere that is conducive for learners to receive effective and quality instruction (cf. Kruger, 2003:206).

The effective principal is regarded as having the following qualities:

- A good education and the ability to solve problems.
- Experience as a teacher.
- Ability to understand learners.
- Firmness but easy to work with.
- Has knowledge of how to look after the building, and can create a safe and pleasant environment for learning.
- Takes responsibility for what happens in the school without blaming others.
- Can make learners, staff, and the community confident about what they do in the school.
- Sets a good example.
- Is not racist and encourages others to be the same.
- Keeps the community informed about what happens in the school.
- Treats learners and staff equally.

(Riley & MacBeath, 2003:179-180; cf. also Masitsa, 2005).

The school leadership paradigm that emerges as effective emphasises the capability of the school leader to sustain relationships (cf. Masitsa, 2005; Harris et al., 2003; Riley and MacBeath, 1998; 2003).

Shared leadership becomes more and more invaluable in improving and sustaining the performance of schools (cf. Riley & MacBeath 1998; 2003; Harris et al. 2003; Leithwood, Jantzi & Steinbach, 2003). "It is simply not possible, and may not even be desirable, for one individual to undertake every leadership task within a school" (Riley & MacBeath, 2003:181).

According to Riley and MacBeath (2003:181), effective school principals manage, motivate and inspire people, thereby maximising the diverse leadership qualities of others to enable them to take on leadership within their areas of expertise (cf. also Masitsa, 2005).

The school principal is a lifelong learner who constantly has to make choices, decide on priorities and be willing to learn and change (Riley & MacBeath, 2003:181-182; cf. also Harris et al., 2003). Although there is no recipe for turning an ineffective school around,

Mortimore and MacBeath (2003:243) state that research shows that motivating staff, focusing on teaching and learning, enhancing the physical environment and changing the culture of the school are amongst the most important elements that assist in improving the performance of the school. However, research indicates that "resources in themselves do not guarantee improvement but help convince staff, parents and the students that society believes in the school and is willing to invest" (Mortimore & MacBeath, 2003:243).

4.4 The Principal and Effective ESL Teaching and Learning

Amongst the many roles played by the principal in effective school management, this section concentrates on four that are likely to contribute directly to effective ESL teaching and learning. These are: creating an enabling learning and teaching environment, developing staff, managing change, and motivating staff and learners

4.4.1 Creating an Enabling ESL Teaching and Learning Environment

One of the major roles of the principal is to create an enabling environment so that learning and teaching can take place effectively (cf. Masitsa, 2005; Riley & MacBeath, 1998; 2003; Harris et al., 2003; Ouston, 2003). In achieving this, the school principal has to play a major role in the management of the finances and physical resources of the school, human resources of the school and time (cf. Masitsa, 2005; Pretorius, 2004; Department of Education, 2000a; 2000b; 2000c; 2000d; Blandford, 1997; South African Schools Act, 1996; Kelly, 2001).

4.4.1.1 The Management of Finances and Physical Resources

According to Masitsa (2005:191), schools cannot run effectively without finances. The goal of financial management is to use the finances of the school in the interest of effective learning and teaching. This is where the principal has to facilitate the use of resources so that they can be equitably distributed to the various subject departments (cf. Masitsa, 2005).

Blandford (1997:160) places the budgeting process within the context of educational management. Figure 4 displays such a framework.

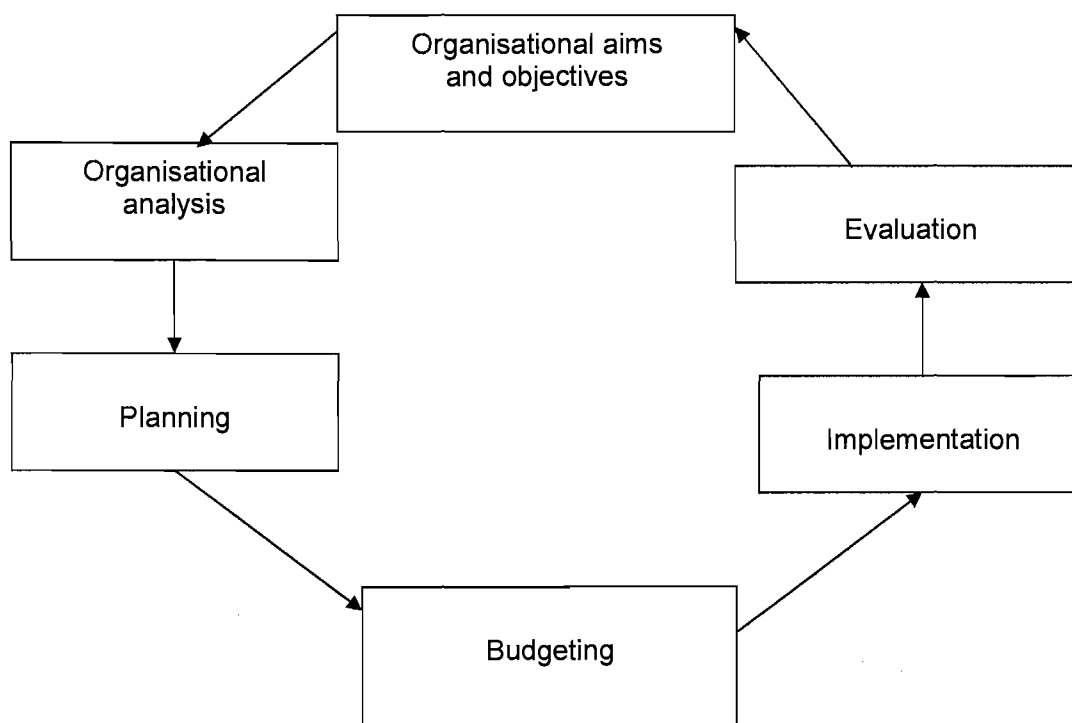


Figure 4: The Educational Management Cycle (Blandford, 1997:160)

Blandford (1997:161) discusses four stages of the budgeting process:

- Budgeting review: the current financial position and its causal factors are assessed and discussed.
- Budgeting forecasting: the impact of future financial trends and the resources required by the school are assessed.
- Budget implementation: implementation decisions are taken on the basis of future projections according to the following recommended process:
 - Budget headings and sub-headings are set out.
 - Fixed costs to headings and sub-headings are allocated.
 - Recurrent costs are allocated.

Priorities are determined by bringing forward items from the audit and forecast.

Alternative projects and action plans are determined.

The School Governing Body is consulted for budget approval.

Check points are set out in order to assess the effectiveness of the budget plan.

- Budgetary evaluation: evaluation is key to producing effective budgets.

The power of the management of school funds is vested in the School Governing Body (SGB). However, the principal plays an important role in guiding the SGB after thorough consultation with the various subject departments (cf. South Africa Schools Act, 1996).

The principal should judiciously manage the funds of the school so that basic resources needed for learning and teaching are provided to learners and teachers (cf. Masitsa, 2005). Such resources include textbooks, stationery, radios, televisions, computers, furniture, library, video, chalkboards, overhead projectors, photocopiers, paper, pens, staples, chalk, cleaning materials and other resources which the languages department may regard as necessary in contributing to effective learning and teaching (cf. Masitsa, 2005; Pretorius, 2004).

Effective management of the budget of the school contributes tremendously to effective ESL learning and teaching because it enables improved teaching provision, improved levels of staff support, improved supply cover, more procurement of resources and an environment that is clean and well-maintained (Blandford, 1997:163-164; cf. also Pretorius, 2004). "The increasing demand for effective teaching and learning means that the best equipment and stock need to be used in each classroom" (Pretorius, 2004:57).

4.4.1.2 The Management of Human Resources

Recruitment, selection, appointment, induction and the development and appraisal of staff are aspects of human resource management (Kruger, 2004:49). The principal of the school executes these functions in consultation with his/her School Management Team (SMT), the School Governing Body (SGB) and the Department of Education (Pretorius, 2004:49).

Kelly (2001:74) argues that the teaching staff of the school is critical for effective learning and teaching. According to Kelly (2001:74), the main source of contact between the learners, parents and the school is likely to be the teaching staff and as such “a confident and well-informed staff is a necessity, not a luxury” (cf. also Department of Education, 2000c).

Through the selection and interview processes, the principal should make certain that appropriately qualified English teachers are appointed. Selecting staff is one of the new functions of the School Governing Body in which the SMT under the leadership role of the principal play the critical role of assisting the Governing Body (Department of Education, 2000c:2). Proactive selection, dismissal, and replacement of staff have been found to be some of the determinants of school effectiveness in most studies (Kelly, 2001:74).

4.4.1.3 Time Management

The principal needs to make sure that appropriate time required for the teaching and learning of English is embedded within the school timetable (cf. Employment of Educators Act, 1998; Department of Education, 2000d). “The SMT has a crucial role to play in the management of time as a resource” in schools (Department of Education, 2000d:26). The Department of Education (2000d:27) provides the principal and his/her SMT the following guiding principles for organizing the timetable of the school:

- The official workload of teachers must be considered (cf. Employment of Educators Act, 1998:c63-c68).
- The staff should discuss the timetable during regular meetings.
- The SMT and the staff should work together.
- The needs of the learners should be the most important factor in drawing up the timetable.
- The timetable should encourage team-teaching, the sharing of work and creativity.
- All teachers must own up to the responsibility for effective time management in their own classrooms (cf. Marais, 2004:65-66).

- The timetable should be flexible to allow teachers to concentrate on individual learners or small groups of learners when they need to.

4.4.2 Developing the Staff

Masitsa (2005:184) indicates that "staff development offers one means of motivating teachers because it makes them feel sufficiently equipped and prepared for their task." Staff development is rendered essential because of the knowledge explosion, educational change and the demand on schools to be effective (cf. Masitsa, 2005).

Riley and MacBeath (2003:175) and Leithwood et al. (2003:186) indicate that the principal has the responsibility in this role for developing the professional competence and leadership of staff while at the same time he/she should allow the individual classroom teacher the freedom to develop his or her relationship with pupils and with their parents.

The evaluation of staff is designed to identify the weaknesses and strengths of teachers in order to improve performance of both teachers and learners (cf. Masitsa, 2005; Department of Education, 2000c; Education Labour Relations Council, 2003). The principal as the manager and leader of the school plays a major role in seeing to it that the evaluation and development processes and structures of the staff are in place and sustainable (cf. Masitsa, 2005; Department of Education, 2000c). To this effect, the principal of the school should oversee the implementation of the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) in order to evaluate and empower his/her staff (cf. Education Labour Relations Council, 2003). The Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) is relevant here.

The IQMS is a system by which the Department of Education seeks to promote quality teaching amongst educators (cf. Education Labour Relations Council, 2003). It is a tool that enables the teacher to be more effective (cf. Education Labour Relations Council, 2003). The responsibility of the teachers has been extended by the introduction of the performance management system in the education department (cf. Education Labour Relations Council, 2003). The teacher receives consistent guidance, achieves goals set

by the school and improves his/her work (cf. Masitsa, 2005; Education Labour Relations Council, 2003). IQMS is a continuous process of teacher development and the need for it is never satisfied (cf. Education Labour Relations Council, 2003; Masitsa, 2005).

Team leaders within subject teams are now playing a major role in assessing and monitoring the performance of others (cf. Harris et al., 2003; Education Labour Relations Council, 2003; Department of Education, 2000c).

The Integrated Quality Management System integrates three programmes so that the overall performance of the education system can be enhanced and monitored. These programmes are Developmental Appraisal, Performance Measurement, and Whole School Evaluation (Education Labour Relations Council, 2003:3).

The purposes of the three programmes within the Integrated Quality Management System are outlined as follows by the Education Labour Relations Council (2003):

- The Developmental Appraisal: the intention is “to appraise individual educators in a transparent manner with a view to determining areas of strength and weakness, and to draw up programmes for individual development” (Education Labour Relations Council, 2003:3).
- Performance Management: according to the Education Labour Relations Council (2003:3), the purpose of this programme is “to evaluate individual teachers for salary progression, grade progression, affirmation of appointments and rewards and incentives.”
- Whole School Evaluation: this programme seeks to “evaluate the overall effectiveness of a school-including the support provided by the District, school management, infrastructure and learning resources-as well as the quality of teaching and learning” (Education Labour Relations Council, 2003:3).

The principles that guide the Integrated Quality Management System are outlined as follows by the Education Labour Relations Council (2003:6).

- Recognition of the crucial role played by quality public education delivery.

- Equal access to quality education for all learners.
- A comprehensible, credible, value-driven and professional Integrated Quality Management System.
- A positive and constructive focus.
- A process of self-evaluation and discussion of individual expectation.
- Guaranteeing validity, reliability and relevance through transparency, open discussion and quality controls.
- Fairness through affirmation of the rights of educators.
- Individual professional growth of educators and continuous support for educators and the school.
- Clarity of protocol regarding the interaction of the parties involved.
- Encouraging diversity in teaching styles.
- Standardisation of sound quality management that includes propriety (ethical and legal), utility (useable and effective), feasibility (practical, efficient, and cost effective), and accuracy.
- Development through a national Human Resource Development strategy and Skills Development.
- An ongoing search for continuous improvement by schools.

In order for the Integrated Quality Management System to be effectively implemented in the school the following structures have to be in place.

- The Senior Management Team (SMT). This structure comprises the principal, deputy principal and education specialists (subject heads of department). The role of this structure is to ensure the efficient and effective operations of the school (Education Labour Relations Council, 2003:5).
- The Staff Development Team (SDT): this structure seeks to plan, oversee, coordinate and monitor all Quality Management processes (Education Labour Relations Council, 2003:5).
- The Development Support Group (DSG): each educator is required to belong to this structure that comprises the educator her-/himself, his/her immediate senior and one other educator. The role of the Development Support Group

is to offer support and mentoring for the individual educator (Education Labour Relations Council, 2003:5).

The effective implementation of the Integrated Quality Management System rests within the roles and responsibilities of the principal in as far as it is an academic and didactic issue. Most often, owing to the changing responsibilities of the principal, he/she delegates these specialised issues expected within the IQMS to the subject head of department (cf. Department of Education, 2003). The didactic and academic support given to the teacher is discussed in some detail under the role of the Head of Department.

4.4.3 Managing Curriculum Change

South Africa has seen the rolling out of curriculum transformation since the adoption of the new constitution in 1996 (cf. Department of Education, 2003). The teaching and learning of English has not been immune to such transformation as South Africa adopted an Outcomes-based approach to education (OBE). New changes in the curriculum have been implemented since 1998 (cf. Department of Education, 1997). Initially, the teaching and learning of English in the new dispensation in South Africa was designed according to Critical and Developmental Outcomes, Specific Outcomes, Range Statements, Assessment Criteria and Performance Indicators (cf. Department of Education, 1997). In an attempt to strengthen the new curriculum, the Department of Education later simplified the design of the National Curriculum Statements (NCS) into Critical and Developmental Outcomes, Learning Outcomes and the Assessment Standards (cf. Department of Education, 2002b; 2003).

These changes in the National Curriculum Statements and in the teaching and learning of English in particular have placed new demands on the leadership and management of South African schools making the management of change one of the key roles of the principal (cf. Department of Education, 2000a; 2000b; 2000c).

Dean (1993:85) and Lambert (1995:52) both posit that change is a natural and inevitable process of human existence and is likely to continue. According to Hopkins et al.

(1994:13), society is "becoming increasingly accustomed to, and expectant of, change as a way of life."

There have been enormous changes inside and outside the school, making the management of change one of the major tasks of the principal (cf. Lambert, 1995; Dean, 1993; Department of Education, 2000a). The principal of the school requires a radically different way of looking at, responding to, and managing change (cf. Hopkins et al., 1994). Change can mean positive things like innovation, development, progression, renewal and reform, but also negative things like disaster and catastrophe (Dean, 1993:85). For change to be effective, the people involved in it have to make it their own by changing their attitudes (Dean, 1993:85).

The principal should be proficient in managing change inasmuch as he/she is expected to manage the conflicting trends brought about by change, make change less disruptive, and make teachers understand and accept change as a human phenomenon (Dean, 1993:84; Masitsa, 2005:189). The massive curriculum transformation in South Africa has plunged schools into a state of flux, resulting in the effective management of a school being "measured by the extent to which it is able to adapt successfully when major changes are required" (Masitsa, 2005:190; cf. Dean, 1993:85). The teaching and learning of English is also tremendously affected by the effects of this transformation (cf. Department of Education, 1997; 2002a; 2002b; 2003).

Dean (1993:85) indicates that the difficulty in managing change lies in dealing with the attitudes of those affected by change. The major changes in the teaching and learning of English (e.g. designing the Learning Programme) challenge the approaches that are used by teachers of English (cf. Department of Education, 1997; 2002a; 2002b; 2003; Dean, 1993).

The principal plays a major role in leading the school to overcome the following obstacles to change and school improvement teased out by research. These obstacles could lead to ineffective teaching and learning of ESL in the new curriculum (cf. Department of Education, 2002b; 2003):

- Teachers projecting their own deficiencies on to learners or their communities;
- Teachers clinging on to past practices;
- Defences built up against threatening messages from outside;
- Fear of failure;
- Seeing change as someone else's responsibility;
- Hostile relationships among staff;
- A ring-fenced mentality (seeking safety in numbers)

(Mortimore & MacBeath, 2003:244).

A combination of the following practices has been found to be effective, and may assist in managing change within the learning and teaching of ESL:

- Concrete, teacher-specific and extended training;
- Classroom assistance from teachers in neighbouring schools;
- Teacher observation of similar teaching practices in other classrooms, schools or districts;
- Regular meetings that focused on practical issues;
- Teacher participation in decisions-making;
- Local development of teaching materials;
- Principals' participation in training.

(Hopkins et al., 1994:18).

The key to managing change lies in planning and effectively making decisions (cf. Dean, 1993; Hopkins et al., 1994; Department of Education, 2000a). School improvement "is about weighing and taking decisions and living with the consequences, before moving to the next set of problems" (Hopkins et al., 1994:14; cf. Department of Education, 2000a:15). However, Hopkins et al. (1994:18) caution that it is the implementation policy that determines learner achievement rather than the decisions made to adopt new policies brought about by changes in the curriculum.

Lambert (1995:56-63) packages recommendations for effectively managing curriculum change in schools into four themes:

- **The Leadership Lens:** the principal should take into account the wholeness or ecological nature of the school community "otherwise, the workings in the school remain fragmented, lacking the linkages that are essential to integrated thinking about school change" (Lambert, 1995:57).
- **Patterns of Relationships:** Lambert (1995:57) views one of the roles of the principal as facilitating the creation of patterns of relationships in the school. This forms the basis for integrating emotions, identity and cognition. In order to sustain and facilitate the creation of patterns of relationships in the school, it is recommended that the principal form action research teams, parent/learner learning groups and guidance planning groups. These groups will assist the school community to engage in reciprocal processes; commit to peer relationships; share work; talk about common purposes; and "laugh together" (Lambert, 1995:58).
- **Inquiry and the Role of Information:** the school gathers, generates and interprets information from within and as well as from outside the school and this information then plays a crucial role in the inquiry stance of the school (Lambert, 1995:59). This information is gathered from talking with and observing learners, talking about the work of learners, observing one another's work, holding conversations with parents and one another, reflecting on their own practices and experiences, disaggregating school-based data, visiting other schools, using critical inquiry, and carrying out action research (Lambert, 1995:59).
- **Breaking Set with Old Assumptions:** Lambert (1995:62) indicates that it is necessary to consciously create processes that cause the stakeholders in the school to break set with old assumptions. This is critical in the management of change if new ways of working with learning and teaching are to be explored (Lambert, 1995:62). Some of the strategies that the principal can use in breaking set with old assumptions include *seeking to understand* instead of explaining, describing and defending; *finding out* by involving

stakeholders so that they can discover for themselves; *imagining* where participants are encouraged to be creative by imagining shared futures; *storytelling/literature* where dialogue is opened so that new ideas can be discussed; *liminality* so that stakeholders can shed their roles, authority, and expectations in order to enter into new experiences; and *humour* to lessen the stress that may arise when old assumptions are challenged and reframed (cf. Lambert, 1995:62-63; Zimmerman, 1995).

If implemented, the above-mentioned recommendations can effectively assist principals to manage change in their schools.

Another strategy used by the effective principal is to involve his/her staff in planning (cf. Department of Education, 2000a; Lambert, 1995; Dean, 1993). Hopkins et al. (1994:14) stress the importance of staff involvement in planning by indicating that the principal should "make change everyone's business." This results in the staff gradually owning change (Dean, 1993:85). With effective strategies at his/her disposal, the principal should possess the skill to choose the appropriate time to make a change in the school (cf. Dean, 1993; Hopkins et al., 1994).

4.4.4 Motivating Staff and Learners

As mentioned, the principal plays a critical role in effective learning and teaching. Therefore, it is imperative that the principal motivate the staff and learners (Masitsa, 2005:183). The effectiveness of the leadership and management of the principal depends to a great extent on the skill of the principal to motivate, influence, lead and communicate with those who are the stakeholders in education, particularly the school (cf. Masitsa, 2005:183; Masitsa et al., 2004). "Management activities are dormant cocoons until the leader triggers the power of motivation in people and guides them towards their goals" (Masitsa, 2005:183).

The role of the principal in motivating the staff and learners is crucial, especially as research into township schools has revealed that the lack of motivation of learners to learn has become the major problem faced by those involved in education today (Masitsa, 2005:183). Likewise, the teachers also often feel demotivated (cf. Masitsa, 2005) (cf. 3.5.2.2). Research indicates that teachers' poor morale is due to poor working

conditions, inadequate curricular materials, and vague government policies (Masitsa, 2005:183).

Gunter (2001:95) indicates that research shows that staff values the principal's presence at the school and that he/she is approachable. According to Gunter (2001), a vital aspect of what principals deal with is relationships. Gunter (2001:99) says that principals who are "disposed towards working with people encourages an emotional commitment to children."

4.5 The Role of the School Management Team (SMT)

The principal is expected to form and lead the SMT that will assist him/her in performing the professional and operational management of the school on a day-to-day basis (cf. Department of Education, 2000a:24; Department of Education, 2000b:2; Kruger, 2004:41 & 44). Even so, the responsibility of leading and managing the school rests with the principal (cf. Department of Education, 2000a).

The SMT will mainly consist of the principal, the deputy principal, and the subject heads of department (cf. Department of Education, 2000b; 2000a). It is difficult to separate the duties of the different members of the SMT seeing that they are regarded as a team that is led by the principal (cf. Department of Education, 2000a:9). Nevertheless, the discussion that follows briefly discusses the role played by each member of the SMT.

4.5.1 The Role of the Deputy Principal

The "demand for a more rational management structure in schools is connected to concerns about the role of the deputy head" (Gunter, 2001:95). The increasing workload of principals highlights the importance of the role of the deputy principal (cf. Gunter, 2001; Harris et al., 2003; Department of Education, 2000a; 2000b). The duties of the deputy principal are closely linked to those of the principal.

The aim of this leadership position is "to assist the principal in managing the school and promoting the education of learners in a proper manner" and "to maintain a total

awareness of the administrative procedures across the total range of school activities and functions” inasmuch as the deputy principal will be called upon “to assist the principal in his/her duties and to deputise for the Principal during his/her absence from school” (Employment of Educators Act, 1998:c65).

4.5.2 The Role of the Subject Head of Department

In schools teachers are members of subject departments. Teachers of English are members of the department of languages. There is a head of department (HOD) in charge of languages (cf. Department of Education, 2000a; 2000b; Mortimore & MacBeath, 2003). This section discusses the role of the Languages Head of department in effective ESL learning and teaching.

Harris et al. (2003:132) are of the opinion that it is impossible for one person to undertake the workload of the HOD efficiently and effectively. Therefore, the principal should develop a democratic model of collegiality through teams that make policies of the school (Gunter, 2001:94; cf. also Department of Education, 2000a).

As the subject departments play a major role in the achievement and progress of the individual teacher and learner, the school principal plays the role of creating synergy by drawing strengths from each department, cross-fertilizing and amplifying best practices across the whole school (cf. Masitsa, 2005).

As indicated in 4.4, the school principal provides directive leadership, facilitates the development of school policies, vision and a broad plan that will be owned by the departments and teachers (cf. Department of Education, 2000a). This creates a learning organization with its own ethos, culture, policy and planning (cf. Mortimore & MacBeath, 2003:239). In this way the heads of department (HODs) have a sense of direction as they implement policies of the school within their departments.

The Languages Department forms a collegial team that provides an important locus for sharing of practice, for monitoring, for quality assurance and for professional development (cf. Department of Education, 2003). Research indicates that there is “a

generally positive correlation among different subjects and between individual subject departments and whole-school effectiveness" (Mortimore & MacBeath, 2003:239).

The Head of Department plays a major role in supporting the teacher regarding didactic and academic issues. This is regulated under the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) (cf. Education Labour Relations Council, 2003).

The Head of Department is a member of the teacher's Development Support Group (DSG) by virtue of the fact that he/she is the immediate senior of the teacher (cf. Education Labour Relations Council, 2003). The DSG is expected to support and develop the teacher according to clearly set out Performance Standards that are stated as criteria (cf. Department of Education, 2003). Performance Standards 1 to 4 deal specifically with didactic issues.

Performance Standard 1 deals with the creation of a positive learning environment. The teacher is expected to create a positive learning environment that enables the learners to participate actively and to achieve success in the learning process (Education Labour Relations Council, 2003:10). The teacher is evaluated according to four criteria. These are learning space, learner involvement, discipline and diversity (Education Labour Relations Council, 2003:10).

Performance Standard 2 deals with knowledge of curriculum and learning programmes. The teacher is expected to possess appropriate content knowledge that is demonstrated in the creation of meaningful learning experiences (Education Labour Relations Council, 2003:12) (cf. 3.4). Four criteria of this Performance Standard will comprise knowledge of ESL, skills, goal setting and involvement in learning programmes (Education Labour Relations Council, 2003:12).

Performance Standard 3 has to do with lesson planning and presentation. The teacher is expected to demonstrate competence in planning preparation, presentation of the lesson and management of learning programmes (cf. Education Labour Relations Council, 2003:14). Although evidence of planning is required, this does not imply that the teacher must have a written plan. Nevertheless, "it must be clear that the lesson has been planned" (Education Labour Relations Council, 2003:14). Criteria for this

Performance Standard are planning, presentation, recording, and management of learning programmes (Education Labour Relations Council, 2003:14).

In Performance Standard 4 the teacher is developed on the basis of learner assessment or achievement. The teacher is expected to demonstrate competence in monitoring and assessing learner progress and achievement (Education Labour Relations Council, 2003:16). The four criteria of Performance Standard 4 are feedback to learners, knowledge of assessment techniques, application of techniques, and record keeping (Education Labour Relations Council, 2003:16).

These four Performance Standards indicate the monitoring of and support provided to the teacher by the Languages Head of department as mandated by the IQMS. They deal specifically with didactic and academic issues. It must be pointed out that it is neither expected nor desirable for the principal to execute this task owing to the changing roles and demands placed on him/her. It is not humanly possible for the principal to be a didactic and academic expert in all the subjects offered in the school. The principal delegates this critical role to the subject Head of Department.

4.6 The School Governing Body

Gunter (2001:98) stresses that the relationship between the principal and the school governing body, especially the chairperson, is crucial to effective education. Kruger (2004:47) outlines the roles and responsibilities of the School Governing Body as follows:

- Ensuring the development of the school.
- Developing the school policy with regard to the language policy, code of conduct and admission of learners to the school.
- Suspension of learners.
- Establishing a school fund and structures that are relevant to the school's financial management.

- Offering support to the principal and his/her staff in their roles as professionals.
- Advice on appointments of the staff of the school.
- Maintain, and improve the property, buildings and grounds of the school.
- Purchase textbooks, materials and equipment necessary for effective learning and teaching.
- Pay for services rendered to the school such as teachers appointed by the governing body.

Effective school management and governance in the current South African context requires a School Governing Body that ensures that “educators are able to carry out their instructional and classroom management activities in order that effective learning can take place” (Kruger, 2004:48). This indicates the major role played by the School Governing Body in supplying the school with the necessary resources needed for effective ESL teaching and learning such as textbooks, materials, equipment as well as teachers if needed by the school. These teachers are then appointed and paid by the School Governing Body.

4.7 The Department of Education

The Education Labour Relations Council (2003:3) holds the Department of Education responsible for “providing facilities and resources to support learning and teaching.” According to the Education Labour Relations Council (2003:3), successful learning and teaching outcomes also depend upon empowering, motivating and training educators.

Harris et al. (2003:140) argue that “the existence of external pressure and support is an important contributory factor in changing teachers' practice and behaviour.” In this regard the Subject Advisory Services of the Department of Education play a major role in supporting teachers in executing their professional and specialised role (cf. Employment of Educators Act, 1998).

In the Department of Education the didactic and academic responsibility is left to the Subject Advisors who fall under the Professional Support Services Chief Directorate.

The English Subject Advisor supports and monitors the school in all matters pertaining to English. The Department of Education has developed a Learner Attainment Improvement Strategy (LAIP) in order to give focus to under-performing schools owing to growing problems of under-performing schools (cf. Department of Education, 2007).

The following are the roles that need to be played by the English Subject Advisor in supporting educators in effective teaching and learning (cf. Employment of Educators Act, 1998:c68-c70).

- Creating and fostering commitment and confidence in educators.
- Assisting educators in identifying, assessing and meeting the needs of learners.
- Disseminating and encouraging good working practices.
- Assessing professional development needs.
- Assisting in equitable deployment of resources so that learning and teaching can be facilitated.
- Monitoring and recording progress of learners.
- Providing guidance in learner assessment.
- Maintaining effective partnership between parents and the school staff for purposes of effective learning and teaching.
- Facilitating curriculum development at schools.
- Promoting the culture of learning, teaching and services.
- Supporting and planning staff development activities.
- Implementing staff development programmes.
- Evaluating the success and problems of staff development programmes.
- Building capacity for the School Management Teams and School Governing Bodies.
- Supporting educators in professional growth within the appraisal programme.
- Reviewing professional practices of educators regularly.

In conclusion, the above discussion indicates that the English Subject Advisor plays a major role in empowering teachers regarding subject-related matters.

4.8 Conclusion

The above discussion of the role played by the principal in effective learning and teacher indicates that delegation and the division of labour has a double-edged effect (cf. Gunter, 2001). On the one hand, it enables the principal to get work to be done but, on the other, it has distanced the principal from teaching and made the principal the manager of the conditions in which teaching takes place, such as the buildings and the budget. Moreover, delegation has become a risky business at a time when principals can suffer a loss of livelihood through the consequences of failure or the politicking around what is regarded as failure (cf. Department of Education, 2000c). Nevertheless, this does not reduce the significance of collegiality, delegation and role definition, thereby highlighting the importance of professional relationships in effective learning and teaching.

The challenge facing leadership in the school is adopting strategic business-like models rather than leadership growing out of pedagogic expertise. In order to prevent education from falling into this trap, it is imperative for the principal to take into account the context of the school when (s)he manages and leads the school

It is worth taking into account that:

headship is not necessarily leadership because holding a post does not necessarily imbue the person with the capabilities and the capacities for leadership, though the merging of headship and leadership is enabling reform to take place as both are power structures that can be made to fit with each other.

(Gunter, 2001:104).

Effective school leaders do not learn how to 'do' leadership and then stick to set patterns and ways of doing things along a prescribed set of known rules but are willing to change in response to new sets of circumstances by meeting the differing needs of children, young people and teachers. Effective school leadership is often prepared to be rule-breakers (cf. DiPaolo, 2003).

CHAPTER 5

METHOD OF RESEARCH

5.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the methodology used in this study. This is done according to the following headings:

- The design employed in the study.
- The subjects who participated in the study.
- The instruments used in the study.
- The procedure followed in the collection of data.
- The techniques used in the analysis of data.

The aim of the study was to obtain data on the teaching and learning of English Second Language in some under-performing schools (cf. 1.1).

5.2 Design

The design followed in this study was a cross-sectional descriptive survey of four underperforming schools in the Further Education and Training Band (FET). A survey focuses on a sample of a population in order to provide a description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population at a specific point in time (Creswell, 2003:153).

5.3 Subjects

The subjects involved in this study were Grade 10 to 12 ESL teachers (n=10), Grade 10 to 12 learners (n=9), languages heads of department (n=3), principals (n=4) from four under-performing schools in the Southern Region in the North West province of South Africa, as well as the official from the North West education department in charge of under-performing ('trapped') schools.

The four schools were randomly selected from the list of under-performing schools in the region. The teachers at the schools were not selected by the researcher, but were ones who were prepared to have their lessons observed. They thus formed an availability sample. The learners were randomly selected from the classes that were observed. The findings can therefore not be generalised to all teachers in under-performing schools in the region or province, but provide an indication of the situation in these schools.

5.4 Instrumentation

The researcher observed seven lessons presented by teachers of the four dysfunctional schools. Lessons taught by the other three teachers could not be observed because arrangements that had been made fell through. An observation framework (in Appendix 1) was designed in order to observe lessons in the classroom (cf. Seliger & Shohamy, 1989; Lynch, 1996). The framework made provision for open-ended note taking. The goal of the observation was to determine the effectiveness of the teaching and learning in the classroom. The framework focused on the physical description of the classroom, the format of the lesson, the language used by the teacher and learners, whether the lesson was teacher-centred or learner-centred, the participation and involvement of learners, the language skills focused on during the lesson, effective use of class time, the achievement of the objectives of the lesson, as well as the relevant use of materials and resources during the lesson.

All ten ESL teachers were interviewed. The format of the interview was semi-structured and contained a number of core questions, but also allowed for elaboration in the question and answer. An interview schedule (Appendix 2) was designed for this purpose. The goal of these interviews was to determine the problems experienced by teachers, their views on ESL teaching and learning, their qualifications and experience. Heads of the Languages Department were also interviewed. They were asked additional questions to determine the monitoring that they did and the role they played as subject heads (cf. Appendix 4).

The researcher interviewed nine learners. Two learners were selected randomly in three of the schools, and three in the last school. The format of the interview was semi-structured and contained a number of core questions but also allowed for elaboration in

the question and answer (cf. Appendix 3). An interview schedule was designed for this purpose. The goal of these interviews was to determine the learners' home circumstances, the resources available at home and their experiences at school.

The principals of the 'trapped' schools were interviewed. The format of the interview was semi-structured and contained a number of core questions but also allowed for elaboration in the question and answer. An interview schedule (cf. Appendix 5) was designed for this purpose. The goal of these interviews was to determine the problems experienced by the principals, their qualifications and experience and the monitoring that they do as principals of ESL teaching and learning.

The departmental official charged with monitoring dysfunctional schools in the North West was interviewed to determine his views on dysfunctional schools and the actions that had been undertaken to improve teaching and learning conditions (cf. Appendix 6).

5.5 Data Collection Procedure

Permission to observe the classes was obtained from the North West Department of Education. The researcher made arrangements with the principals and teachers to visit the schools. The teachers were therefore expecting the researcher. They were informed about the visit and consented to their lessons being observed. The researcher travelled to the four schools of the Southern Region where the observations and interviews were conducted. The researcher also made an appointment to interview the departmental official. In order to ensure anonymity, the names of the participants were not recorded (cf. Creswell, 2003). The researcher attended the classes of the teacher and took notes of what took place, making use of the observation framework (Appendix 1).

One-on-one interviews were conducted to gather information that could not be collected through observation. Teachers also made their subject files available so that the researcher could check for the accessibility of relevant documents.

5.6 Analysis

The data were analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively in terms of a thematic framework, which reflected the themes included in the instruments that were used. The data were organised, classified and then interpreted. They were arranged according to the themes in the instruments. Tables were used to summarise information obtained from the participants. A conclusion was provided at the end of each theme to provide an analysis of interconnecting themes. The literature review was also taken into account in the interpretation of the data. A synthesis of the literature review and the data was made in the chapter following the presentation and discussion of the results (cf. Creswell, 1994; 2003).

5.7 Conclusion

The methodology of this study was carefully designed because the method of research plays a crucial role in determining the validity and reliability of the results, as well as those of the framework that is recommended later in the study.

Chapter 6 provides a detailed analysis and interpretation of the collected data.

CHAPTER 6

PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of the data collected in this study. The analysis attempts to answer the following question posed in Chapter 1 of this study:

What are the problems experienced in ESL learning and teaching in the under-performing schools?

The analyses of the collected data are done under the following headings:

- Lesson observation.
- Interviews with teachers.
- Interviews with learners.
- Interviews with Heads of Departments.
- Interviews with principals.
- Interview with the departmental official.

6.2 Data Analyses

6.2.1 Lesson Observation

Of the seven lessons observed, five were literature lessons and two were language lessons. Although teachers were not asked the reason why they chose to teach literature instead of language, it is probable that most of them felt more comfortable with teaching literature than language. This was confirmed in the interviews with the teachers, who indicated that they needed guidance with the presentation of language lessons (cf. 6.2.2). As mentioned, teachers were expecting the researcher, as there was no other means possible of obtaining entry to the classrooms.

Table 5 reports on the physical description of the classrooms where lessons were observed.

Lesson	Classroom
1	Desks were arranged in rows. There were no posters, wall charts, or pictures
2	Desks were arranged in rows. There were no posters, wall charts, or pictures
3	Desks were arranged in rows. There were posters on vocabulary, a calendar and a map
4	The classroom was big and spacious. Desks were arranged in groups of four. There was no electricity - wires hung from the roof. There were no posters, wall charts, or pictures
5	Desks were arranged in rows. There were no posters, wall charts, or pictures Wires hung from the roof. There were holes in the ceiling. The classroom was dirty. The chalkboard hung loosely on the wall.
6	Desks were arranged in rows. There were no posters, wall charts, or pictures
7	Desks were arranged in rows. There were no posters, wall charts, or pictures.

Table 5: Physical Description of the Classrooms

All the desks in the classrooms, except in one, were arranged in rows. Six of the classrooms were rather unattractive and had bare walls, with no posters, wall charts or pictures on the walls. The classrooms presented a picture of neglect, with peeled-off paint in places, and were unlikely to inspire motivation in learners.

Lesson Presentation

Table 6 reports on the introduction phase of the lessons that were observed.

Lesson	Announcement of Theme/Topic	Announcement of Objectives
1	There was no announcement of the theme or topic of the lesson. (Lesson on direct and indirect speech.)	The teacher announced that the lesson was on direct and indirect speech.

2	There was no announcement of the theme or topic of the lesson. (Lesson on poetry.)	There was no announcement of the objectives of the lesson.
3	There was no announcement of the theme or topic of the lesson. (Lesson on a short story, "The Voter".)	There was no announcement of the objectives of the lesson.
4	There was no announcement of the theme or topic of the lesson. (Lesson on a short story.)	There was no announcement of the objectives of the lesson.
5	The teacher announced the topic of the lesson as Active and Passive Transformations.	There was no announcement of the objectives of the lesson.
6	The teacher announced the title of the Short Story as the topic of the lesson.	There was no announcement of the objectives of the lesson.
7	The teacher announced the title of the poem as the topic of the lesson.	There was no announcement of the objectives of the lesson.

Table 6: The Introduction phase of the Lessons

Of the seven lessons observed, four teachers did not present any introduction to the lesson (cf. Table 6). Of the three teachers who introduced their lessons, the announcement of the topic of the lessons appeared to be a coincidence, as the objectives of the lessons were not clearly stated and no specific effort was made by the teachers to capture the attention of the learners or motivate them for the lesson.

Table 7 reports on the progress/development phase of the lessons.

Lesson	Progress/Development	Materials Used
1	The teacher wrote questions on direct and indirect speech on the board. Learners answered questions in their papers. Learners then exchanged papers to mark them. Learners wrote answers on the chalkboard. The teacher checked with the whole class if the answers were correct. The teacher asked questions that did not encourage learners to use direct and indirect	None

	speech in context.	
2	The teacher handed out poems photocopied on one page. Learners cut out the poem that was to be studied. The teacher read the poem once. The teacher wrote months of the year on the board. The whole class read out each month aloud. One learner drew a tree on the chalkboard. The teacher explained vocabulary used in the poem and some figures of speech used in the poem.	Photocopies of poems
3	The teacher asked learners what democracy was and pointed out the prepositions in the definition of democracy, e.g. 'of', 'for'. The whole class read the short story aloud from the photocopies. The teacher used the question and answer method to explain the vocabulary used in the short story. The teacher taught learners how to pronounce certain words as they continued reading the short story. The teacher explained the plot of the short story.	Photocopies from the book. Three learners shared a copy. Handouts that explained the vocabulary of the short story.
4	The teacher asked questions about what learners learnt in the previous lesson and learners responded. The teacher asked each learner to read paragraphs from the short story while others followed in their text. The teacher explained the vocabulary used in the short story. The teacher then talked about the previous test.	Photocopies of the short story.
5	The teacher mentioned that learners would be doing revision. The teacher wrote on the chalkboard to explain the active and passive voices. The learners sat passively listening to the teacher.	None.
6	The teacher explained the historical background of the short story and why the author wrote the short story. The teacher introduced the topic of the short story and explained the plot of the short story while learners passively listened to the teacher.	Notes and photocopies of the short story.
7	The teacher briefly introduced the poem and gave learners 2-3 minutes to read the poem	Photocopies of poems.

	silently. The teacher instructed learners to read the poem aloud as a group. The teacher explained the poem stanza by stanza as she read it. The teacher asked learners questions in the process but learners did not respond.	

Table 7: Progress/Development of the Lesson

The picture that emerges from Table 7 indicates that learners were mostly passive participants during the lessons, the lessons were teacher-centred, there was no group or pair work and learners were not involved in any communicative activities. The development phase of the lessons left little room for active learning and critical thinking to take place. Questions that the teachers asked learners were generally of a low order, and did not stimulate any thought or discussion. The overall impression was that the lessons were poorly structured.

The lessons on the short stories mostly involved the teaching of vocabulary and the narration of the plot of the short stories. There was no attempt at a critical analysis of the short stories. Likewise, the poetry lessons were teacher-centred and learners were not involved in any critical analysis of the poems. Generally, the literature lessons did not engage learners in any analysis of literary aspects, such as characterisation or imagery, as is required in the senior phase.

The lesson on the direct and indirect speech was taught out of context and learners were not provided the opportunity to practise direct and indirect speech in any meaningful way. The lesson on the active and passive voice was a revision lesson, and involved formal instruction. Learners were passive and the teacher did not make any effort to encourage learners to actively use the grammatical forms for communicative purposes during the lesson. Generally, these were formal grammatical drill lessons, reminiscent of the Audiolingual Method. Although formal grammar teaching may be helpful, researchers indicate that it must be part of communicative teaching and lead to the practical use of grammatical structures (cf. Ellis, 1994:659).

Some of the materials used during the lessons were of a poor quality, as the photocopies were unclear. In some instances learners had to share photocopies. There were no textbooks or prescribed books in any of the classes.

Table 8 reports on the conclusion phase of the lessons that were observed.

Lesson	Recapping main points	Assessment within lesson	Comments
1	There was no recapping of the main points.	There was no assessment within the lesson.	The conclusion was abrupt and unexpected.
2	There was no recapping of the main points.	There was no assessment within the lesson.	The teacher did not finish the lesson.
3	The teacher recapped the main points of the lesson.	There was assessment within the lesson.	The teacher asked questions about events in the short story and vocabulary during the lesson. Some questions were asked to conclude the lesson.
4	There was no recapping of the main points.	There was no assessment within the lesson.	N/A
5	There was no recapping of the main points.	There was no assessment within the lesson.	N/A
6	There was no recapping of the main points.	There was no assessment within the lesson.	N/A
7	There was no recapping of the main points.	There was no assessment within the lesson.	The teacher asked learners one question to answer the following day.

Table 8: Conclusion of the Lessons

Table 8 indicates that only one teacher recapped the main points at end of the lesson. The conclusions of the other lessons were rather abrupt. There was no recapping of the main points at the end of the lesson and the observer had the impression that learners did not have a sense of what was learned during the lesson. Assessment during the lesson was non-existent except in one lesson where assessment (in the form of oral questions) was done during and at the end of the lesson.

Table 23 reports on the homework that was given to learners during the lessons.

Lesson	Homework
1	No homework was given to learners.
2	No homework was given to learners.
3	No homework was given to learners.
4	The teacher gave learners homework to do although the questions were of a low order.
5	No homework was given to learners.
6	No homework was given to learners.
7	No homework was given to learners.

Table 9: Homework Given to Learners

Table 9 indicates that learners were given homework in only one lesson. Although learners indicated that they were usually given homework to do (cf. Table 9), the lessons that were observed may indicate that learners are not assigned homework very frequently.

Teachers' voices were clear and English was used during the lessons, with minimal code-switching occurring. Learners displayed confidence in speaking English.

The teachers who presented lessons were also requested to submit their subject files to the researcher, and this was done voluntarily. The presence of relevant documents, such as the syllabus, subject policy, year plan, lesson plans, marks of the learners, previous question papers, and memoranda was checked. Most of the subject files presented contained the relevant documents, handouts and materials from other sources relevant to the subject. Only one teacher had a written lesson plan for the lesson taught. Table 10 reports on the contents of the subject files that were presented.

Lesson	File available	Syllabus	Policy	Year plan	Lesson plan	Marks	Question papers	Memo
1	Yes			√		√	√	√
2	Yes	√	√	√			√	√
3	Yes	√	√			√	√	√
4	Yes	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
5	No							
6	Yes	√	√	√		√	√	√
7	Yes	√	√	√		√	√	√

Table 10: Subject Files of Teachers

The conclusion that can be drawn from the lesson observations is that these teachers lacked certain basic skills in presenting lessons and making use of systematic phases. Literature lessons did not provide learners with the opportunity to engage in any critical analysis of the literary aspects, and focused on content only. Grammar was taught according to the Audiolingual Method, with no communicative activities. The lessons were teacher-centred while learners acted as recipients of information. Materials provided to learners were photocopies, some of which were of poor quality and had to be shared by learners.

6.2.2 Interviews with Teachers

As indicated in Chapter 5, teachers were interviewed using an interview schedule. The analysis of these interviews follows below.

Table 11 reports on the teachers' home language, qualifications and experience.

Teacher	Home Language	Qualifications (General)	Qualifications (English)	Experience
1	Sepedi	B.A. & HED	English 2	6 Months
2	Sesotho	HED	HED	18 yrs
3	Sepedi	B.A. & HED	English 2	8 yrs
4	Sesotho	B.A. Paed	English 3	17 yrs
5	Afrikaans	B.A. (Languages), Teaching Diploma, Remedial Teaching Diploma	English 3	25 yrs
6	Setswana	STD	STD	12 yrs
7	Sesotho	B.A. Paed	English 3	17 yrs
8	Sesotho	H.E.D.	H.E.D.	2 yrs (temporary)
9	IsiXhosa	B.Ed	STD	6 yrs
10	Setswana	H.E.D.	H.E.D.	2 yrs

Table 11: Teachers' Home Language, Qualifications and Experience

The teachers involved in the study were generally well-qualified and had specific training in teaching English. One teacher had only six months' teaching experience, while on average the rest had 9 years teaching experience. Thus, the teachers in this survey can

be regarded as experienced. All the teachers, except one, had an African language as their home language.

Table 12 reports on the resources that were available to the teacher at school as well as the materials that they used.

Teacher	Materials consulted by teachers	Photocopier
1	The teacher consulted the public library and newspapers.	There was no photocopier at school.
2	The teacher consulted other textbooks.	There was a photocopier at the school.
3	The teacher consulted the public library.	There was no photocopier at school.
4	The teacher consulted study guides, guidelines on assessment requirements, the dictionary and other textbooks.	There was a photocopier at the school.
5	The teacher consulted magazines, textbooks and the internet.	There was a photocopier at the school.
6	The teacher consulted study guides.	There was a photocopier at the school.
7	The teacher consulted other textbooks and the dictionary.	There was a photocopier at the school.
8	The teacher consulted study guides and newspapers.	There was a photocopier at the school.
9	The teacher consulted magazines, the television, newspapers and the public library.	There was a photocopier at the school.
10	The teacher consulted magazines and newspapers.	There was a photocopier at the school.

Table 12: Resources Available to the Teacher

The teachers reported that they had access to the public library, newspapers, magazines and television, and consulted these for the preparation of lessons. Eight of the teachers who were interviewed reported that they had photocopiers at their schools. On the whole, these resources seem to be adequate, but the question that remains is to what extent they are actively used by the teachers, especially when one considers that these schools did not perform as expected.

Most of the teachers indicated that they did not understand the concept “Language Across the Curriculum”. Most of these teachers did not integrate content or topics from content subjects into their English lessons. Half of the teachers indicated that they did not understand the Communicative Language Teaching approach. This is problematic, as this approach is the one suggested by the Department of Education, as it is now generally regarded as an effective approach to the teaching and learning of languages.

Teachers regarded the following as some of the problems that contributed to the under-performance of learners:

- Learners and teachers do not use English as the language of learning and teaching in the content subjects. This poses as a problem, as English is the official medium of instruction, and final examination question papers are set in English.
- Lack of a culture of reading amongst learners. Learners simply do not read English, and this means that they have a limited exposure to English outside the classroom.
- Learners’ lack of competence in writing and speaking.
- Lack of parental involvement.
- Lack of resources for the learner (e.g. textbooks, prescribed books and dictionaries). The Department of Education does not replenish resources as required (cf. 6.2.4; 6.2.5; 6.2.6).
- Poor maintenance of resources due to a lack of school funds (e.g. often the photocopier did not work or ran out of ink) (cf. 6.2.5).
- Vandalism of school buildings: broken windows, doors, etc.
- Burglary (e.g. stealing of learning aids such as files and computers).
- Drug abuse amongst some learners.
- Absenteeism of learners, especially on Friday.
- Workload too heavy for most teachers (e.g. there were no free periods and therefore teachers could not mark at school). This is in agreement with what the HODs indicated in their interviews (cf. 6.2.4).
- Lack of capacity (e.g. lack of proper training in OBE and in drawing up lesson plans). Most teachers felt that they still needed training.

- Large classes and overcrowded classrooms.
- Learners not doing their homework because of a lack of proper supervision at home (cf. Table 20).
- Poor discipline amongst learners, as many were frequently absent from school.
- Teachers not teaching subjects they specialised in (e.g. a teacher who majored in English but did not teach it for 8 years).

The picture that emerges from the above list is that teachers tended to blame others for their problems, and were not very proactive in addressing them. They also said very little about their own performance.

It is clear that the situation in under-performing schools needs to be improved. Problems such as a lack of a culture of reading amongst most learners, poor competence in writing and speaking, a lack of involvement of most parents, a lack of resources, absenteeism of learners and an inability to do homework were confirmed by the findings of the learner interviews (cf. 6.2.3). As a result, half of the teachers interviewed indicated that they did not feel motivated in their profession. This lack of motivation was likely to affect the performance of these schools.

From the above, it can be concluded that teachers require training and development that include the following aspects:

- *Planning and presentation of lessons.*
- Dealing with learner problems, such as absenteeism.
- Dealing with the poor socio-economic background of learners, e.g. learners who lived by themselves, orphans, gangsterism, HIV/AIDS, and teenage pregnancies.
- Recording marks.
- Assessing learner performance.
- Disciplining learners.
- Dealing with large classes and overcrowded classrooms.
- Implementing Communicative Language Teaching and Language Across the Curriculum.
- Motivating learners.

Table 13 reports on how the teachers rated the English competence of their learners.

Teacher	Speaking	Listening	Writing	Reading
1	Poor	Poor	Poor	Fair
2	Poor	Average	Average	Poor
3	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor
4	Average	Average	Average	Poor
5	Average	Good	Average	Poor
6	Poor	Average	Poor	Poor
7	Average	Average	Average	Poor
8	Average	Good	Average	Average
9	Poor	Average	Average	Poor
10	Average	Poor	Average	Poor

Table 13: Teachers' Rating of the Language Competence of Learners

Table 13 indicates that teachers rated their learners' competence in English as poor to average. This contradicts learners' rating of themselves regarding their competence in English (cf. Table 21) – teacher perceptions and learner perceptions do not correlate.

Table 14 reports on the support the teachers said they received from the heads of departments (HODs), principals and Subject Advisors.

Teacher	HOD	Principal	Subject Advisor
1	There was no HOD	The teacher received support from the principal.	The teacher received support from the Subject Advisor.
2	The teacher received support from the HOD	The teacher received support from the principal.	The teacher received support from the Subject Advisor.
3	The teacher did not receive support from the HOD	The teacher received support from the principal.	The teacher received support from the Subject Advisor.
4	The teacher received support from the HOD	The teacher received support from the principal.	The teacher did not receive support from the Subject Advisor.
5	The teacher received support from the HOD	The teacher received support from the principal.	The teacher did not receive support from the Subject Advisor.

6	The teacher did not receive support from the HOD because he specialises in Afrikaans.	The teacher received support from the principal.	The teacher did not receive support from the Subject Advisor.
7	The teacher received support from the HOD	The teacher received support from the principal.	The teacher did not receive support from the Subject Advisor.
8	The teacher received support from the HOD	The teacher received support from the principal.	The teacher received support from the Subject Advisor.
9	There was no HOD	The teacher received support from the principal.	The teacher did not receive support from the Subject Advisor.
10	The teacher received support from the HOD	The teacher received support from the principal.	The teacher received support from the Subject Advisor.

Table 14: Support Provided to the Teacher

Four of the teachers interviewed indicated that they did not receive any guidance on how to teach English from their Subject Heads of Departments (HODs) (cf. Table 14). Three of the four teachers stated that they had no HODs for English. One indicated that the HOD in charge of English did not specialise in English. All the teachers indicated that they were satisfied with the support they received from their principals, while half of the teachers indicated that they did not receive any support from their Subject Advisors as they had little contact with them. Their impression was that the Subject Advisors concentrated on *Grade 12* at the expense of the lower grades and that the Subject Advisors were “too busy to get to everything.” The fact that only half of the teachers received support from their Subject Advisors is likely to increase the problems at these schools, as Subject Advisors are supposed to provide in-service training on aspects such as Communicative Language Teaching and learner-centred approaches to teaching, as espoused by the new outcomes-based curriculum. Principals cannot supply this type of support. It seems as if many teachers in under-performing schools do not receive much-needed specialised support that will take them out of the cycle of under-performance.

The interviews with teachers in the under-performing schools that were involved in this survey indicated that they were in a despondent mood. There is clearly a need to improve the level of these teachers' motivation as well as their teaching skills in order to raise their performance.

6.2.3 Interviews with Learners

Learner interviews are analysed according to the personal details of the learner, the support the learner receives at home, conditions at home, and the support the learner receives at school.

Learner	Age	Gender	Home Language
1	15 yrs	Female	Setswana
2	17	Female	Setswana
3	18	Male	Setswana
4	20	Male	Sesotho
5	19	Male	Setswana
6	22	Male	Sesotho
7	17	Female	Sesotho
8	19	Male	Sesotho
9	17	Female	Setswana

Table 15: Learners' Personal Details

Nine learners from the four under-performing schools were interviewed (cf. Table 15). These learners were in the Further Education and Training Band (5 in Grade 10 and 4 in Grade 12). Only the 15-year old learner was within the age group suggested for his Grade (cf. NEPA, 1996; SASA, 1996). The rest of the learners were over the age norm for Grade 10, and four of these learners were over the age norm for Grade 12.

Learner	Breadwinner	Type of work	Salary	Level of education
1	Mother	Labourer	R1000	Unknown
2	Grandmother	Domestic worker	R380	Std 8
3	Uncle	Labourer	R2800	Gr. 12
4	Sister	Domestic worker	R300	Gr. 12
5	None	N/A	N/A	Gr. 12
6	Father	Self-employed	Not known	Gr. 12
7	Grandmother	Sells cold drinks.	N/A	Gr. 10

8	Brother and sister	Labourers	Brother: R1900. Sister: R700	Gr. 12
9	Grandmother	Unemployed	N/A	N/A

Table 16: Support at Home

The picture derived from Table 16 is that of general poverty. Of the nine learners interviewed, only two were provided for by their parents. None of the breadwinners was employed in a professional job, as is also indicated by their level of education. The salaries of these breadwinners ranged between R300,00 and R2 800,00 per month. Seven of the learners lived in an extended family setting.

Table 17 reports on the home conditions of the learners that were interviewed.

Learner	Condition of home	Location of home	Distance from School	Transport to school	Electricity
1	4 rooms	Township	Not far	Walks	Yes
2	Tin house	Informal settlement	30 minutes walk	Walks	Yes
3	Tin house	Informal settlement	15km	Walks	Yes
4	Tin house	Township	Not far	Walks	Yes
5	Two rooms (RDP)	Township	20 minutes walk	Walks	Yes
6	Two rooms extended with a shack.	Township	1 km	Walks	Yes
7	Three rooms.	Township	15 minutes walk.	Walks	Yes
8	Four rooms.	Township	15 minutes walk.	Walks	Yes
9	Five rooms	Township	15 minutes walk	Walks	Yes

Table 17: Conditions/Resources at Home

Table 17 indicates that the home conditions of some subjects were of a poor socio-economic standard. Learners had to walk to school for an average of 15 minutes, with one learner having to walk for 30 minutes.

Of the nine learners involved in the study, seven reported that they were exposed to radios at home, six to televisions and all had access to newspapers. Although these learners indicated that they read newspapers, it was beyond the scope of this study to determine to what extent this was true or had an influence on their English proficiency. Table 18 refers to the reading habits of learners.

Learner	Set-work reading	Preferred literary genres	Use of library (school)	Use of library (community)
1	Does not read often.	N/A	Never thinks of using it.	No
2	Does not read often.	Novel	No library	Once or twice a week.
3	Does not read often.	Short stories	No library	Uses the one in town for exams.
4	Does not read often.	History	No library	Uses it when teacher tells them to.
5	When feeling bored.	Short stories	Dysfunctional	Yes: Wednesday and Friday.
6	Does not read.	Poetry	Does not have time to use it.	Does not have time to use it.
7	Every day.	Poetry	Does not use it.	Three times a week.
8	Does not read.	Drama and poetry.	Dysfunctional	Twice a week.
9	Does not like reading.	Short stories	Does not use it.	Once a week.

Table 18: Reading Habits

The data presented in Table 18 show that only one learner had any interest in reading. It seems as if minimal or no reading takes place in these schools, even of the prescribed works. These schools either had no libraries or the libraries were not exploited. The learners reported that they used the community library when encouraged by their teachers. On the whole, it is clear that these learners did not read sufficient quantities of English.

Table 19 reports on the areas learners had problems with, the help they needed at school and the learning strategies they said they used to learn English.

Learner	Problem areas	Help needed	Learning Strategies
1	None	Extra classes	Memorisation
2	Reading comprehension, grammar, speaking.	Teacher should take more time explaining and should not call her stupid.	Reading aloud in class so that teacher can correct her.
3	Pronunciation	Speaking.	Note-taking, writing.
4	Speaking/debating, vocabulary.	The teacher is not eager to help.	Studying.
5	Grammar.	The teacher should give more challenging work.	Paying attention when people speak.
6	Reading comprehension, grammar, summaries.	Spelling practice, reading comprehension.	Speaking and writing.
7	None	Reading comprehension, summaries, extra lessons.	Getting more information at the library, reading, using the dictionary, writing down, asking for teacher's feedback.
8	There are no books and I can't study the moment I want to.	Spelling and reading.	Reading, asking for clarity/explanation, using the dictionary.
9	None	Spelling and reading aloud.	Note-taking.

Table 19: Learner Problems and Learning Strategies

The table indicates that learners felt they had problems with reading comprehension, grammar, summaries, vocabulary, pronunciation, spelling, speaking/debates and reading aloud. Learners also said that they would like extra classes and to see teachers making an extra effort to enable them to understand lesson content.

The learners in this study seemed to use limited learning strategies. During the interviews, it became clear that some of them had an awareness that they needed training in language learning strategies (cf. Dreyer, 2000).

Table 20 below indicates the frequency with which the learners were given homework, who helped them with homework and how homework was marked at school.

Learner	Frequency	Help with homework	Marking of homework
1	Once a week	Sister: she has completed Grade 12.	Teacher asks questions, learners respond and mark.
2	Three times a week.	Neighbours and friends: feels free to talk to them.	Teacher writes answers on the chalkboard and learners exchange books to mark. Sometimes the teacher takes the books to the staff room to mark.
3	Seldom	Uncle.	Learners exchange books to mark the teacher checks afterwards.
4	Three days in a week.	Friends and sister.	Learners raise hands and volunteer to give answers.
5	Three times a week.	Does not prefer to be helped. The teacher encourages learners not to ask for help so that they can identify their own mistakes.	Learners exchange books. The teacher asks questions. Learners answer and mark. Books are returned to owners who then make corrections.
6	Sometimes.	Never asks for help because learner wants to be independent.	Learners exchange books, mark and return them. Sometimes the teacher marks them.
7	Every day.	There is no one to help at home.	The teacher writes answers on the chalkboard and the learners mark them.
8	Twice a week.	Sister: she was the only one who had passed Gr. 12.	The teacher asks questions. Learners answer. The teacher then takes books for marking.
9	Every day.	Aunt.	The teacher asks questions orally and learners answer.

Table 20: Homework

The frequency with which learners in this study were given homework varied. This shows that these learners were not consistently provided with the opportunity to practise what they were taught. Some of the learners were assisted by their neighbours and

friends with homework, while some did not ask for any help with homework. It seems that the parents of these learners did not assist them with homework at all.

Learner	Speaking	Listening	Writing	Reading
1	Good	Good	Good	Excellent
2	Poor	Average	Not rated	Good
3	Average	Good	Good	Good
4	Average	Average	Good	Average
5	Good	Good	Average	Good
6	Poor	Poor	Average	Average
7	Average	Average	Good	Good
8	Good	Excellent	Good	Excellent
9	Average	Good	Good	Average

Table 21: Learners' Assessment of their Language Competence

Table 21 indicates how learners rated themselves regarding their language competence. Only two learners rated themselves as poor in speaking English. The rest saw themselves as being competent in speaking English. Regarding listening competence, only one learner regarded himself as poor, while the rest perceived themselves as competent. Teachers rated their learners' competence as poor to average (cf. Table 13) and this contradicts the learners' rating of themselves.

Learner	Self-confidence in English	Eagerness to learn English	Enjoyment of English	Confidence in talking to teacher	Motivation from the teacher
1	Average	Yes: our teacher communicates well with us. You understand well when she teaches.	Yes	Yes: a very understanding teacher.	Yes: by talking to learners about their problems.
2	Good	Yes: learner is prepared to take risks. Believes English is spoken every day; needs to learn it to communicate and find a job.	Yes: grammar and comprehension has nice stories that are enjoyable to read.	Yes: a very understanding teacher who takes time to correct and explain.	Yes: by giving homework and taking time to explain.

3	Good	Yes: you sometimes have to use English because other people do not always speak Setswana.	Yes: the teacher is always open and not angry. The teacher is always friendly.	Yes: he always helps me, corrects my spelling and would ask if I do not understand.	Yes: the teacher is always open and not angry [sic]. The teacher is always friendly.
4	Good	Yes: likes to talk in class to practise, talk to the teacher and people.	Yes: likes to read and to do orals.	Yes: she helps us to learn English.	Yes: when she speaks I listen very well [sic].
5	Good	Yes: he is confident and not shy – when people laugh at his English he does not stop speaking it. He takes it as a challenge to improve himself.	Yes: wants to study B.A. English and end up studying M.A. majoring in English.	Yes: they give him a challenge and encourage him to speak English.	Yes: teacher helps learners with work and guides learner with his speech for debates and vocabulary.
6	Excellent	Yes: does not mind answering or asking questions in class.	Yes: English is an international language. Learner wants to speak English without making errors.	Yes: most of the time the teacher is open and free for us. We can talk to her. She does not scare us. She makes school fun for us.	Yes: most of the time the teacher is open and free for us [sic]. We can talk to her. She does not scare us. She makes school fun for us.
7	Excellent	Yes: the teacher says when I speak I should not be afraid of being laughed at she will correct me. Learns English to speak with whites when she finishes school. She	Yes: when I speak English I enjoy myself. We are given homework and it is corrected in class.	Yes: when I speak English I enjoy myself. The teacher becomes happy because we do what she teaches us.	Yes: if you don't know something she teaches us not to laugh at each other. When you laugh others you will not learn.

		does not want to pose problems for lecturers at tertiary.			
8	Average	No: does not use English in class because learners answer in mother tongue. The learner wishes to speak excellent English when he goes to England.	Yes: teacher is friendly and gives learners individual attention. The teacher makes free time to speak English. The teacher makes sure that you understand the content.	Yes: she is more open to listen and talk to. You can say whatever to her because she is friendly.	Yes: she encourages us to stick to our dreams and supports you all the way.
9	Average	She is confident because she reads out loud in class when asked by the teacher. Does not mind people laughing at her talking English. She enjoys talking English.	Yes: she wants to be excellent in English. She likes English as a subject.	Yes: she is friendly to learners.	Yes: teacher corrects learners.

Table 22: Learner Motivation

Generally, Table 22 indicates that learners regarded themselves as confident in using English in the classroom. Learners were eager to learn English, enjoyed English lessons, were comfortable talking to their teachers and seemed to feel they were motivated by their teachers.

In conclusion, these interviews indicate that most of the learners lived under poor socio-economic conditions and had little or no parental support at home – in fact, most of them did not live with their parents. Teachers, heads of departments and principals of these schools also viewed the lack of parental involvement as problematic (cf. 6.2.2; 6.2.4; 6.2.5). Most of these learners showed no interest in reading, and this correlates with the teachers' comments (cf. 6.2.2). Schools in this survey that had libraries did not make

use of them (cf. 6.2.5). Homework, if assigned, seems to be poorly done, and this is also indicated by teachers (cf. 6.2.2). Learners recognised that they needed assistance with various aspects, such as reading comprehension, grammar, summary, vocabulary, pronunciation, spelling speaking/debates and reading aloud. This may be a revealing indication that the teaching of English was not very effective in these schools.

6.2.4 Interviews with Heads of Departments

Three heads of departments (HODs) were interviewed (cf. Appendix 4). In the fourth school there was no HOD, leaving the principal with the task of managing the Languages Department. The data on the HODs' interviews are analysed below.

All the Subject Heads of Department (HOD) were qualified to fill this position. Only two of the HODs had qualifications in English. This finding is in agreement with the comments made by four teachers, who indicated that they did not receive support from their HOD because he/she did not specialise in English (cf. Table 14). One HOD indicated that he had not received any training as HOD from the Department of Education or any institution. Two indicated that they had received training in general management of the school from the department. Nevertheless, these HODs could not specify the aspects they had received training in, except one, who indicated that it had included training in English, checking and controlling the work of teachers and learners, keeping the minutes of meetings, monitoring and administration.

Two HODs viewed the standard of English in their schools as poor. Some of the reasons stated included learners' lack of vocabulary, poor basic reading skills and poor understanding of literature. One HOD indicated that the standard of English in the school needed special attention. This is in agreement with the rating of the learners by the teachers (cf. Table 13) and the departmental official in charge of under-performing schools (cf. 6.2.6), but contradicts how learners rated themselves (Table 21). One HOD viewed the standard of English in the school as good, but this contradicts the views of the teachers (cf. Table 13).

The Subject Heads of Department listed the following problems in their departments:

- There was a shortage of teachers in the school. This is in agreement with what the teachers indicated in their interviews (cf. 6.2.2).
- The HOD indicated that he/she did not know how to keep records (poor filing system).
- The HOD indicated that he/she did not know how to manage time effectively.
- Some teachers were appointed temporarily. This meant that the teacher knew that he/she was going to leave the school and this resulted in a lack of continuity in teaching and poor team building.
- One of the HODs indicated that their school library was dysfunctional. This is in agreement with the findings of the interviews with learners (cf. 6.2.3).
- The HOD could not assist English teachers because he specialised in Setswana. This is in agreement with the findings of the interviews with teachers (cf. 6.2.2).
- The department had no system for substituting the Subject Advisor in the case of his/her absence.
- The Department of Education left the responsibility for the selection of textbooks with schools. This resulted in poor selection of books because teachers were not trained on how to select learning and teaching materials. This correlates with the findings of the interviews with teachers (cf. 6.2.2).
- The English staff did not meet deadlines for the submission of question papers. This resulted in poor moderation of question papers.
- One of the HODs indicated that the administration clerk in their school was on maternity leave and had not been replaced. This delayed the typing of question papers and notes for learners.
- The HODs found it difficult to cope with the new teaching methodology and the implementation of the new National Curriculum Statements (NCS) because they felt that they were not properly trained for the NCS.
- There was a shortage of textbooks for learners. This is also indicated in both the interviews with teachers and the lesson observation (cf. 6.2.2 & 6.2.1).
- There was a lack of funds to buy resources and to appoint teachers to School Governing Body (SGB) posts when needed.

One of the HODs regarded his ability to organise, make the Languages Department run effectively and to induct newly appointed teachers as his strengths. Others cited holding

meetings, monitoring learner books and controlling the teachers' work as their strengths. One of the HODs indicated that some of his weaknesses were that he was not a specialist in all languages, could not interpret policies and set an English question paper when it was required of him to do so. Poor time management and filing systems were regarded as other weaknesses by the HOD concerned.

The HOD in one of the schools involved in this study indicated that he capacitated his English staff by sending them to workshops organised by the Subject Advisory Services of the Department of Education, as well as holding mini-workshops and meetings to discuss problems faced by his staff. Another HOD indicated that he organised debates, workshops and symposiums for the teachers. The others indicated that they left the training of teachers to the Subject Advisory Services of the department. HODs indicated that they were not very confident to train teachers who were new to the education system, and that they needed computers and functional school libraries in order to train such teachers. According to these HODs, it was the duty of the Subject Advisors to train new teachers, while NGOs and principals could supply them with the necessary resources.

Departmental meetings were held on a monthly basis or as needed. Issues discussed were workshops attended, subject policies, assessment, recording of marks, daily preparations and strategies for improving results. However, one of the HODs indicated that the decisions and plans adopted in departmental meetings were not implemented.

Generally, the Heads of Departments were satisfied with the support they received from the Department of Education. Support came in the form of workshops, school visits by Subject Advisors and provision of limited resources. However, the late arrival of resources, the almost exclusive attention given to Grade 12 learners and teachers and a lack of support for lower grades were unequivocally stated as a serious cause for concern.

The HODs differentiated between monitoring and moderation. Monitoring was regarded as a continuous process, done to develop teachers' competencies, while moderation was periodic and only done at certain intervals, such as when teachers were required to

set question papers. One of the HODs could not differentiate between monitoring and moderation.

Aspects of the teacher's work monitored by the HODs included learner scripts, tests, examinations, continuous assessment, recording of marks, written work and teacher portfolios. Aspects of the learner's work monitored by the HODs included scripts, tests, examinations and portfolios (tests, creative writing, class work). Generally, feedback was given through individual discussions. Feedback to learners was given through written comments in the books of learners – there were no face-to-face discussions with learners. Generally, monitoring was done only on a monthly basis because of the work overload experienced by the HODs.

Aspects of the teacher's work moderated by the HODs included tests, question papers and memoranda, recording of marks, projects and teacher portfolios. Aspects of the learner's work moderated included portfolios (scripts, tests, creative writing, assignments/projects) and written work. However, the problem in the under-performing schools was that some of the HODs were not specialists in English. It seems there was no quality moderation in some of these schools.

The HODs, except one, indicated that they did not observe the lessons of teachers in the classrooms. They indicated that lesson observation was regulated by the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS). This policy determines processes and structures that should be in place in order for lesson observation to be carried out in the classrooms. It seems that IQMS is not fully implemented in these schools.

Two of the HODs indicated that they had no need to discipline their teachers. One felt that educators were mature and should know why they were at work. According to one HOD, the absence of teachers from school due to ill health may contribute to disciplinary problems.

The HODs of the schools involved in this study indicated that they could not offer their staff incentives because of financial constraints. Some gave motivational speeches during briefing sessions in the morning, and some indicated that they acknowledged and showed appreciation for the good work done by the teachers in order to motivate them.

Generally, the HODs were motivated by their principal. He/she listened to their problems, was approachable, offered advice, gave them extra duties that made them feel they were part of the management of the school, and showed appreciation for good work done.

Support from the parents was dismal (cf. 6.2.1 & 6.2.2). If there was any, support came when some parents bought resources required by learners and attended meetings called by the school. Support from the SGB also seemed to be minimal. Sometimes the SGBs of some of the schools assisted in fundraising projects, addressed staff to encourage good performance, made school visits, held meetings with parents and learners and encouraged extra classes.

Support from the community was limited. In one of the schools involved in this study, Correctional Services sometimes assisted with the cleaning of the school premises, and the local Farm College was involved during water conservation week and the Department of Health provided lessons on health issues.

Although the HODs of these under-performing schools reported that they monitored and moderated the learners' and teachers' work, this seems questionable, because some of the teachers indicated that they did not receive much support from their HODs (cf. Table 14). This may indicate that these HODs were eager to paint an acceptable picture of their schools. The fact that these schools were not performing as expected also points to the quality of their work. This is confirmed by the comment of one of the HODs, who indicated that some teachers did not stick to deadlines for submitting question papers, and that this affected the quality of moderation of these papers (cf. 6.2.4). The problems stated by the HODs indicate that, unless a special programme was designed to deal with these, the schools would remain caught up in their under-performance.

6.2.5 Interview with Principals

As indicated in chapter 5, an interview schedule (Appendix 5), was designed to gather data from the principals of the four under-performing schools. A discussion and interpretation of the data collected from these interviews follow.

The principals involved in this study had relevant qualifications, experience and appropriate training in school management from the Department of Education. Aspects of school management that the principals indicated they had been trained in included departmental policies, the implementation of policies, financial management, discipline procedures, labour relations, conflict management, dispute management, school management, policy making and policy implementation, ordering and procurement. Generally, the principals reported that they were well-equipped to manage their schools.

One of the principals involved in this study regarded the standard of English in his school as moderate, while three of the principals regarded the standard in their schools as low. This is in agreement with the findings of the interviews with teachers and the departmental official (cf. 6.2.2 & 6.2.6). They stated that English was poorly taught, teachers needed to be retrained in Communicative Language Teaching, teachers and learners could not communicate fluently and accurately in English, and that some teachers were forced to teach English to avoid being declared redundant. These observations correlate with the findings of the interview with teachers (cf. 6.2.2), HODs (cf. 6.2.4) and the departmental official (cf. 6.2.6).

The following are some of the problems regarding physical resources that the principals of the under-performing schools listed:

- Buildings were not conducive to teaching and learning.
- Vandalism of school property by learners and the community.
- Inadequate furniture.
- Deteriorating infrastructure.
- Lack of funds to manage the school.

The physical conditions of the buildings impacted negatively on both learners and teachers. These schools lacked sufficient funds as a direct result of the inability of the parents to pay school fees because of their poor socio-economic conditions.

The principals of under-performing schools mentioned the following problems regarding their staff:

- The Department of Education took a long time before they appointed teachers to new posts. This correlates with the findings of the interview with HODs (cf. 6.2.4).
- No Senior Management Team (SMT) in some schools because of the Post-Provisioning Model used by the Department of Education, which determines the teacher-pupil ratio. This is in agreement with what the departmental official indicated in an interview (cf. 6.2.6).
- Lack of teamwork amongst the Senior Management Team (SMT). This was also indicated by the departmental official as one of the problems in under-performing schools (cf. 6.2.6).
- Lack of policy implementation by teachers.
- Lack of discipline amongst teachers (e.g. principals often had to remind teachers to go to classes).
- Inexperienced staff. This is in agreement with the findings of the interviews with HODs (cf. 6.2.4).
- Staff absenteeism. Some HODs also indicated this as one of the problems they faced (cf. 6.2.4).

Learner problems mentioned by the principals of the under-performing schools included:

- Poor learner performance.
- Lack of discipline (cf. also 6.2.2; 6.2.4).
- Late-coming by learners.
- Learner absenteeism (cf. also 6.2.2; 6.2.4).

These problems may result from the fact that many learners come from a poor socio-economic background and some had to walk some distance to school. Poor parental involvement in the school may also be a major contributory factor to these problems.

The principals involved in this study mentioned that some of their strengths included their ability to adhere to departmental policies, even under difficult conditions, school policies were in place, they were supported by the majority of their staff members, their ability to work under difficult conditions, good communication with some members of the

School Governing Body and their experience in management. Others indicated that some of their weaknesses included their inability to manage conflict and a lack of daily planning.

The activities that these principals engaged in to capacitate their English staff members included making subject documents available to teachers, liaising with the Subject Advisors regarding subject matters, encouraging teachers to attend workshops organised by the Subject Advisors, and organising and paying for transport to such workshops. The principal of one of these schools indicated that he supplied teachers with DSTV so that they could watch and learn from educational programmes, bought plain video cassettes so that teachers could tape relevant educational programmes and created opportunities for teachers who were appointed as Grade 12 final examination markers to share their experiences with teachers.

The problems encountered by two of the principals involved in this study in capacitating their English staff members included the inability of teachers to apply what they had learnt in the workshops, teachers who misplaced documents and disregarded policy and the inability of teachers to attend to problems experienced by learners.

All but one of the principals of the schools involved in this study indicated that they needed libraries (cf. also 6.2.2; 6.2.4), resources such as magazines and books, and assistance with in-service training and workshops for teachers at school level. The principals indicated that they supplied English teachers with Learning and Teaching Support Materials such as charts, newspapers, prescribed books, textbooks, study guides, and previous question papers. However, this seems to contradict what teachers and HODs indicated in the interviews with them and the observation of lessons (cf. 6.2.2; 6.2.4; 6.2.1).

One principal indicated that electricity was available in some areas of the school, while other areas had no electricity as a result of vandalism.

All the principals, except one, differentiated between monitoring and moderation. Monitoring was regarded as a continuous process while moderation was regarded as a one-off activity done only at a specified time. These principals allocated the task of

monitoring and moderation of learners' and teachers' work to the Senior Management Team, except in cases where there was no SMT. In the case where there was no SMT, the aspects of the teachers' work monitored and moderated by the principal included examinations, tests, projects, class works as well as the scripts of the learners. All the principals, except the one who did not have an SMT, indicated that they did not visit teachers in class. Class visits were conducted according to the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS). The IQMS determines the policy on how class visits should be undertaken. The principals did not have first-hand information regarding the performance of both learners and teachers. The principal who did not have an SMT indicated that he only conducted class visits in order to write quarterly reports that were required by the Department of Education. This was because he did not have much time, as he had 40 periods to teach.

The principals indicated that they could not give their teachers incentives owing to financial constraints. Motivation of teachers was done through speeches and acknowledgement of work done well.

The involvement of the parents of learners in the under-performing schools posed a serious concern. Only a few dedicated members of the School Governing Body supported the principals of these under-performing schools (cf. 6.2.2; 6.2.3; 6.2.4). This may contribute to the poor performance of these schools. Three of the principals indicated that they did not receive any support from the community in which the schools were situated.

The principals indicated that they needed to discipline teachers from time to time. One of the principals indicated that more than 90% of the cases of discipline in the school were because of misconduct of teachers. Departmental procedures were followed in disciplining teachers.

In conclusion, it is clear that the principals had to function under difficult circumstances, which included neglected buildings, poor communities, poor parental involvement, and teachers and learners that misbehaved at times. These principals may need training on how to manage scarce resources and how to motivate their staff, learners and parents.

As indicated by the principals, the teaching of English in these schools needs to be improved.

6.2.6 Interview with the Departmental Official

A specific official has been appointed to manage the under-performing schools in the North West Province. This official is a Deputy Chief Education Specialist (DCES), who closely monitors the under-performing schools. As indicated in Chapter 5, an interview schedule (cf. Appendix 6) was designed to interview this departmental official. The data collected from this interview are discussed and interpreted below.

The departmental official indicated that the standard of English teaching in the North West Province was poor. This is in agreement with the views of the HODs and the principals involved in this study (cf. 6.2.4; 6.2.5). According to the departmental official, the most crucial reason was teachers' language proficiency. He mentioned that it was common for an English lesson to be presented in Setswana.

The official indicated that the North West Department of Education had an intervention strategy for the under-performing schools. The goal of the strategy was to improve the Grade 12 results of all the schools so that those that had a pass rate of below 50% could increase this.

The intervention strategy was as follows:

- The schools that had a pass rate of below 20% would be closed down.
- Private schools that had a pass rate of below 20% would have their subsidies withdrawn.
- Teachers would be developed in teaching and content.
- Learning and Teaching Support Materials (LTSM) would be replenished where there were shortages.
- The school Senior Management Teams (SMT) and the School Governing Bodies (SGB) would be developed.
- Resource Centres (e.g. language laboratories) would be established within a radius of 15 kilometres of the schools.

- The MEC for Education, Chief Education Specialists and Deputy Chief Education Specialists would be allocated schools to monitor.

The departmental official indicated that the intervention strategy had not been implemented fully. Some of the problems he faced in implementing the intervention strategy were that the Circuit Managers did not work closely with the Subject Advisors in implementing this strategy, there was no quick-fix strategy to address problems and some of the Subject Advisors could not assist because of transport problems.

The interviews with teachers, HODs and the principals also indicated that the intervention strategy had not been fully implemented. The development of teachers in teaching and content seems not to have been done as some principals involved in this study indicated that teachers needed training in Communicative Language Teaching (cf. 6.2.5). Learning and Teaching Support Materials seem not to have been replenished, as most of these schools indicated that they had shortages of textbooks and prescribed books for learners (cf. 6.2.2; 6.2.4; 6.2.5).

The official indicated that there was no intervention strategy specifically for English. In his visits to schools, he generally monitored the policies of the school, its improvement plan, predictions of the results of the Grade 12 final examinations, the attendance register of teachers, how the school controlled the written work of learners, the subject policy and subject meetings of the Heads of Departments as well as the teachers' work such as the written work, class tests, projects of learners and learner portfolios. Feedback on monitoring was given through meetings with teachers, the HODs, the principals and formal reports to the Provincial Head of Department.

According to the departmental official, the following were some of the reasons for the under-performance of the schools:

- Poor management skills of the principals of the under-performing schools and their SMT (cf. 6.2.5).
- Teachers offering to teach subjects they did not specialise in. Teachers did this because they did not want to be declared redundant (cf. 6.2.4; 6.2.5).

- The Post-Provisioning Model of the Department of Education was failing to address teacher-learner ratios (cf. 6.2.2; 6.2.4; 6.2.5).

In conclusion, it seems as if the departmental intervention strategy has not succeeded in improving the results of the under-performing schools. Learning and Teaching Support Materials are often not replenished, and teachers are not trained in teaching and content (cf. 6.2.2; 6.2.4; 6.2.5). Moreover, there is no intervention strategy that focuses specifically on English as a subject.

6.3 Conclusion

The above discussion has presented the data collected from the lessons that were observed in the under-performing schools and the interviews with teachers, learners, heads of departments, principals and the departmental official who monitors the under-performing schools in the North West province. This discussion was done with the purpose of identifying problems that prevented these schools from improving. The data collected during the observation of lessons indicated that teachers generally had problems with the presentation of lessons. Lessons observed had no clear introduction, development and conclusion. The interviews with teachers indicated that most teachers did not have basic teaching resources and still needed more training and development on second language teaching. The interviews with learners indicated that they needed Learning and Teaching Support Materials such as textbooks and prescribed books. The data collected from learners indicated that they had little exposure to English. Most learners lacked parental support, especially with homework. The interviews with heads of departments and the principals indicated that it was difficult for most of them to support teachers with specialised second language teaching as they did not specialise in English. The picture that emerged from the interview with the departmental official was that, although the Department of Education had an intervention strategy, it had not been not fully implemented.

Taylor and Vinjevold (1999:137) indicate that principals and teachers often tend to blame outside forces for their problems, expecting solutions from these outside forces instead of taking responsibility themselves. There were indications that this tendency was

present at the schools investigated. It is therefore clear that there is a need for a growth and development programme that can empower these schools to improve their performance.

CHAPTER 7

LITERATURE REVIEW AND EMPIRICAL DATA: A SYNTHESIS

7.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a synthesis of the literature review and the empirical findings of this study with a view to presenting a framework for a growth and development programme that seeks to improve the teaching of ESL in under-performing schools of the North West province in the next chapter. The synthesis is presented according to learners, teachers, HODs and the principals in the under-performing schools, and the role played by the Department of Education.

7.2 The Learner in the Under-Performing Schools

The interviews with learners indicate that they come from poor socio-economic backgrounds. Most of them are beyond the age-norm for the grades in which they find themselves (6.2.3). The literature review of this study (2.2.1.1) points out that there is a correlation between the learners' socio-economic circumstances and their academic achievement. Learners from a poor socio-economic background seem to under-perform when compared to their peers from affluent families. The socio-economic background of these learners may have a demoralising effect on them (2.2.1.1). Although the findings of the study indicate that learners were confident in the classroom (6.2.1), one of the key ingredients in learning and teaching ESL successfully is learner motivation (2.2.1.2). Research proves that processes within the classroom have a direct and/or indirect bearing on learner motivation and consequently, success in ESL learning (2.2.1.2). Studies conducted in South Africa confirm that learner motivation affects learner performance (2.2.1.2). So what happens in the classroom is crucially important. Learners should experience lessons as interesting, relevant and challenging, and they should participate actively in class.

Most learners do not seem to have any interest in reading (6.2.1; 6.2.2). Minimal reading takes place in the schools investigated in this study. Some of these schools do not have libraries, while those that do, do not exploit them fully (6.2.1; 6.2.2). Teachers may also make use of code-switching in content subjects. Exposure to English is therefore limited in these schools (6.2.1; 6.2.2), which is problematic because English is the Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT).

Learners were not given any homework during lessons observed in this study (6.2.1). Parents were also unlikely to assist learners (6.2.1; 6.2.2; 6.2.4). Studies indicate that, when learners are provided with emotionally supportive home environments in which academic success is affirmed, their academic achievement scores improve tremendously (2.2.1.1). Parental involvement improves the motivation and cognitive skills that are likely to contribute to learners' academic success (2.2.1.1). However, this study indicates that the parents of learners involved in this study were poor and often not well-educated. The problem of poor parental involvement in these schools is likely to remain.

It seems as if learners in under-performing schools use limited learning strategies (6.2.3). ESL teachers in the schools also did not seem to teach any specific learning strategies to learners (6.2.3). Learners in under-performing schools may therefore find learning ESL a difficult task (2.2.1.2). The use of appropriate learning strategies may contribute to effective ESL learning, and instruction in language learning strategies may help to improve success in ESL learning (2.2.1.2).

In the interviews, learners indicated that they were aware of their language learning problems. They said they needed assistance with aspects such as reading comprehension, grammar, writing summaries, vocabulary, pronunciation, spelling, speaking English, debates and reading aloud (6.2.3). Learners realised that learning English was a difficult task and that they needed help.

7.3 The Teacher in the Under-Performing Schools

Research reveals that Communicative Language Teaching and Task-Based Language Teaching are effective didactics of English (3.5.1). However, the findings of this study

indicate that teachers are not very familiar with these practices and do not implement them (6.2.2; 6.2.5). Teachers also indicated that they needed more training in the NCS (6.2.2). The NCS requires teachers to implement Communicative and Task-Based Language Teaching.

Teachers indicated in the interviews with them that they felt they lacked capacity in planning lessons (6.2.2). This was confirmed by lesson observation (6.2.1), and the fact that most of the files teachers presented to the researcher did not contain any written lesson plans (6.2.2). Research indicates that the effective teacher spends time collecting and organising materials and planning activities that will be used with the learners throughout the year (3.5.3). The better the preparation of materials and activities, the more effective the teacher (3.5.3; 3.5.4).

The findings of this study indicate that teachers need training in the presentation of various types of grammar, literature, vocabulary, writing and pronunciation lessons (6.2.2). Research has revealed key principles and teaching skills that, if applied, will improve the teachers' presentation of lessons (3.5.3).

Most of the lessons observed in these under-performing schools did not have a clear structure (6.2.1). These lessons had no introduction - the theme or topic of the lesson was not announced, the objectives or outcomes of the lessons were not stated and no attempt was made to capture the attention of learners (6.2.1). The development of the lessons gave the impression that there was little room for effective learning and critical thinking as learners were passive, there was no group or pair work, the lessons were teacher-centred, communicative techniques were not used and materials used were of poor quality, while learners shared learning materials in most instances (6.2.1). At the end of the lessons there was no recapping of the main points and learners were not given any homework (as mentioned above) (6.2.1). Research indicates that lessons should follow specific procedures that facilitate effective learning and teaching (3.5.1).

The classrooms in which lessons were observed were unattractive, as there were no posters, wall charts and pictures that serve to motivate learners and make lessons enjoyable (6.2.1). Research indicates that effective teachers use a variety of teaching

and learning materials as a vehicle to achieve the learning and teaching outcomes (3.5.4).

The findings of the study indicated that teachers needed to be trained on assessment (6.2.2). Assessment and monitoring learner progress is critical in learning and teaching in that it informs the teacher how well the learners understand new content, enables the teacher to focus the learners' progress on specific learning tasks and maintains an atmosphere conducive to learning (3.5.1).

Teachers indicated that they needed to be capacitated in dealing with learner problems such as lack of participation in class and lack of interest of learners during the lessons (6.2.2). Well-presented lessons keep learners actively involved in class.

Teachers also indicated that they needed training on how to deal with problems related to learners who live by themselves, orphans, gangsterism; learners who are infected and/or affected by HIV/AIDS, teenage pregnancy, absenteeism of learners from school and how to discipline learners (6.2.2).

Research indicates that good teaching and motivation go hand in hand and this is how needs of learners in the learning and teaching environment can be met (3.5.2.2).

The findings of this study indicate that the proficiency and subject knowledge of teachers of English should be improved (6.2.5; 6.2.6). Subject knowledge of teachers of English are critical for effective language learning and teaching (1.1; 3.4.1).

The above discussion points to the need for an in-service course to address the particular problems of teachers in the under-performing schools. This should be a comprehensive course that has both theoretical as well as practical components.

7.4 The HOD in the Under-Performing Schools

The findings of the interviews with the heads of departments (HODs) indicate that most of them did not specialise in English and, therefore, could not guide teachers in second

language teaching (6.2.4). There were therefore no quality moderation and monitoring in these schools (6.2.4). The HOD plays a major role in supporting the teacher regarding academic and didactic issues (4.5.2). He/she is expected to form a collegial team with teachers and provide an important locus for monitoring the teaching-learning process (4.5.2).

HODs interviewed in this study did not observe any lessons in class as a rule (6.2.4), and, as a result, they might have problems to promote quality assurance in the Languages Departments of the schools (4.5.2).

The HODs were not very familiar with appropriate Learning and Teaching Support Materials (6.2.4). As indicated in 7.3, it is necessary for teachers to use a variety of teaching and learning materials as a vehicle to achieve the learning and teaching outcomes.

This study has also indicated that the HODs of under-performing schools lacked effective management skills (6.2.4). Moderation and monitoring are part of the management skills necessary for effective ESL learning and teaching. The HOD, as a member of the Senior Management Team (SMT), plays a crucial role in the management of the school (including time management) (4.4.1.3).

The HODs also indicated that they had a problem with teachers who were constantly absent from school (6.2.4).

This study indicates that an in-service course is needed to train HODs in lesson observation based on the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS), moderation and monitoring, the selection and development of Learning and Teaching Support Materials and effective time management.

7.5 The Principal in the Under-Performing Schools

The interviews with principals indicated that most of these principals did not plan for the management of the school (6.2.5). As responsibility of leading and managing the school

rests with the principal (4.3), the principal is expected to lead the SMT that will assist him/her in performing the professional and operational management of the school on a day-to-day basis (4.5).

The findings of this study indicate that the principals of under-performing schools often lacked the ability to manage changes related to the curriculum, the SMTs often did not operate as a team, and teachers and learners lacked discipline (6.2.5).

The findings of this study indicate that the principals had problems in motivating their staff and learners (6.2.5). The effective principal manages and motivates people, inspiring pride in learners, staff and the community in the school, thereby maximising the diverse leadership qualities of others (4.4.4). The role of the principal in motivating the staff and learners is crucial, especially as research into under-performing schools has indicated that the lack of motivation amongst teachers has become a major problem (4.4.4).

Principals also faced problems with resources, such as buildings, libraries, infrastructure, electricity, furniture and Learning and Teaching Support Materials, as well as funding (6.2.5). An effective principal maintains the buildings of the school and can create a pleasant environment for learning and teaching within the school, and manage the finances of the school (4.4.1.1).

Parental involvement is another problematic area for the principals of under-performing schools involved in this study (6.2.5). A good home-school partnership is one of the features of effective schools (4.2; 2.2.1.1). Effective governance requires a School Governing Body that ensures that teachers perform their instructional and classroom management activities, so that effective learning and teaching can take place (4.6). The School Governing Body plays a major role in ensuring that schools are well-equipped (4.6).

The principals of the under-performing schools in this study did not monitor and moderate learners' and teachers' work (6.2.5). One of the features of effective schools is monitoring of learner and teacher progress (4.5). This is one of the major roles of the principal and his/her SMT (4.5). The principals in this study did not conduct any class

visits because the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) had not been fully implemented (6.2.5).

This study points to the need for the principals of under-performing schools to undergo an in-service course in planning for the management of curriculum change, team building, learner and teacher discipline and motivation, management of school resources, parental involvement and monitoring and moderation. The purpose of the course should not be to train principals because he/she is a professional manager, but to assist them in the mentioned aspects in order to improve the performance of under-performing schools.

7.6 The Departmental Official and the Under-Performing Schools

According to the Education Labour Relations Council (2003), the Department of Education is responsible for providing facilities and resources to support learning and teaching in schools, particularly those that under-perform (4.7). This study indicates that the Department of Education was not consistent in replenishing basic resources such as Learning and Teaching Support Materials in these schools (6.2.6).

The interview with the departmental official in charge of under-performing schools indicates that teachers' proficiency in English was a cause for concern (6.2.6). The official also indicated that the Department of Education did not have the intervention strategy aimed specifically at English as a subject (6.2.6).

The interview with the official indicates that he felt that most of the principals of the under-performing schools had poor management skills (6.2.6). Circuit Managers and the Subject Advisory unit of the Department of Education did not collaborate to solve the problems encountered in these schools (6.2.6).

The departmental official indicated that teachers in under-performing schools taught subjects they did not specialise in out of fear of being declared redundant (6.2.6). Research indicates that proactive selection, dismissal and replacement of staff if necessary contribute to the effectiveness of schools (4.4.1.2).

According to the departmental official, most of the problems encountered at the under-performing schools were not addressed by the department (6.2.6). This made repeated visits to these schools by him meaningless (6.2.6).

In conclusion, the interview with the departmental official indicated that the departmental intervention strategy had not been fully implemented. The researcher is therefore of the opinion that a growth and development programme for the under-performing schools is required and that training in the teaching of English for English teachers and management skills for principals is necessary.

7.7 Conclusion

This chapter has provided a synthesis of the literature review and the findings of the empirical data of this study. The picture that emerges from this synthesis is that training for teachers, HODs and principals of under-performing is necessary. Although the principals and their HODs need some training, the focus of in-service training should be on the teacher, as he/she is at the centre of improving learning and teaching in under-performing schools. From this synthesis flows a growth and development programme framework for in-service training that seeks to improve teaching and learning in under-performing schools of the North West Province.

CHAPTER 8

A PROPOSED FRAMEWORK FOR A GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME FOR ESL TEACHING AND LEARNING IN UNDER- PERFORMING SCHOOLS

8.1 Introduction

Chapter 7 of this study indicates that the Department of Education does not have a growth and development programme specifically for English Second Language in its intervention strategy for under-performing schools. This chapter presents a growth and development programme framework for ESL learning and teaching in these schools. It first presents some basic requirements and then a general outline which forms a basis for a detailed programme framework to be used for an in-service training course. Suggestions for the implementation and monitoring of such a growth and development programme framework are also provided.

8.2 Basic Requirements for the Improvement of Performance in Under-Performing Schools

This section provides basic requirements necessary for the general improvement of the under-performing schools. It recapitulates the proposals that are made in Chapter 7 of this study.

As learners in under-performing schools as a rule come from a poor socio-economic background and there is a correlation between the learners' socio-economic circumstances and their academic achievement (7.2), this framework proposes that the Department of Education should alleviate the socio-economic conditions of learners by introducing a feeding scheme in these schools. These learners should be provided with breakfast and lunch with tea/juice in-between. In addition, the Department of Education should encourage these schools to start fruit and vegetable gardens so that they can

become self-sufficient in providing nourishment for learners. The parents of learners in these schools, the SGB and NGOs can be solicited for assistance in this project.

The Department of Education has the responsibility to provide facilities and resources to support learning and teaching in schools and to refurbish them, particularly those that under-perform (cf. 7.6). The Department should make it mandatory that the Area Project Office Managers (formerly District Managers) hold regular meetings with the Circuit Managers and the Subject Advisors so that they can jointly address problems discovered in the under-performing schools in their area, review the Post-Provisioning Model with a view of addressing the teacher-learner ratio ensuring that relevant teachers teach the subjects they are competent in, appoint counsellors at schools to counsel learners with problems and supply the Subject Advisors with transport so that they can perform their duties in these schools.

Parents of learners in under-performing schools are not involved in their children's education and do not assist these learners with homework (7.2). Homework sessions should be introduced after school under the supervision of teachers. Moreover, the principals of the under-performing schools should be trained on how to develop a parental involvement programme (cf. 8.3.3).

Chapter 7 indicated that the skills of English teachers in under-performing schools need to be further developed on lesson planning, presentation and assessment (7.3). In addition, teachers need to be trained on the selection of Learning and Teaching Support Materials, teaching language learning strategies to learners, motivational techniques and disciplining learners (7.3).

As indicated in 8.1, this study proposes a growth and development programme framework for teachers in under-performing schools. The proposed growth and development programme framework for the teacher forms a core aspect of this study (cf. 8.3.1; pages 3 & 20).

The HOD plays a major role in supporting the teacher regarding academic and didactic issues (7.4). The HODs in these schools should attend the proposed training sessions conducted for teachers so that they can conduct quality monitoring and moderation (cf.

8.3.1). In addition, they should be trained in lesson observation based on the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS), the selection and development of Learning and Teaching Support Materials and effective time management (cf. 7.4).

Principals should be trained on how to manage curriculum change, team-building, learner and teacher discipline and motivation, management of school resources, parental involvement and monitoring and moderation of the work of learners and teachers (cf. 7.5).

The section that follows provides the proposed growth and development programme framework for ESL teaching and learning in under-performing schools in some detail.

8.3 A Growth and Development Programme Framework for ESL Teaching and Learning in Under-Performing Schools

The growth and development programme framework follows. The terms *growth* and *development* mean to develop the teacher's own awareness and judgement about what goes on in his/her classroom (Williams, 1989:86). A reflective model should be used in the in-service course in order to develop the teacher's ability to think critically and reflect on his/her teaching practice (cf. 3.5.5) (cf. Williams, 1989; Swan, 1993; Ali, 2007). Teachers are provided with a theoretical background (cf. 8.3.1.1) and the opportunity to practise the theory they have acquired (cf. 8.3.1.2). This growth and development programme framework, therefore, embraces a focused, critical and reflective practice in which in-service teachers are enabled to "plan reflective lessons; teach lessons using various techniques and methodologies; rationalise a range of teaching procedures and processes they use with their classes; and reflect upon their teaching and make changes if necessary" (Ali, 2007:17).

The focus of the growth and development programme framework is the ESL teacher, with additional training provided for the HOD and the principal as far as they can provide support for the ESL teacher. The framework is based on the survey of the literature as well as the empirical data, which may be regarded as painting a picture of the typical under-performing school.

8.3.1 A Growth and Development Programme Framework for In-service Teachers of ESL in Under-performing Schools

The growth and development programme framework that follows is organised according to themes derived from both the literature review and the findings of the empirical study, each with its general outcome. These themes are divided into units with specific outcome(s), suggested resource(s), teaching-learning activities and assessment at the end of each theme. Assessment is necessary because it evaluates the teachers' understanding of the theme.

The growth and development programme framework consists of two main components. The first is *ESL Teaching Approaches and Procedures*, which forms the basis for the second component, *Practical Teaching* (cf. 8.3.1.1 & 8.3.1.2).

8.3.1.1 ESL Teaching Approaches and Procedures

Theme 1: Approaches to Language Teaching

General Outcome: Teachers should be familiar with the principles and practice of the Audiolingual Method, Communicative Language Teaching, Task-based Language Teaching and the eclectic approach to language teaching.

Unit 1: The Principles of Communicative Language Teaching

Specific Outcomes:

The teacher should be able to:

- explain the principles of the NCS.
- explain the aims, principles and practice of Communicative Language Teaching.

- differentiate between the approach, method and techniques of the Audiolingual Method, Communicative Language Teaching and Task-based Language Teaching.
- explain which methods and techniques he/she will employ in a coherent approach to second-language teaching and learning.
- formulate his/her own approach to the communicative teaching and learning of ESL.

Suggested Resource(s): Richards and Rodgers (2003); Ellis (2004); Lightbown (2000).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- Teachers explain and discuss basic principles of effective ESL teaching and learning as well as relevant findings from SLA.
- The facilitator elicits the difference between the Audiolingual Method, Communicative Language Teaching and Task-based Language Teaching.
- The facilitator divides teachers into groups of four and instructs them to summarise the principles of the Communicative Approach, Audiolingual Method and Task-based Language Teaching. Teachers also discuss the merits of each approach and which approach to use.
- Teachers formulate their own eclectic approach and these are discussed and evaluated by others.

Assessment of Theme 1:

Each teacher writes out his or her own approach to ESL teaching and learning and these are evaluated by the facilitator.

Theme 2: Revision of Aspects of English Language

General Outcome: Teachers should improve their subject knowledge of English language.

Unit 2: Aspects of English Grammar

Specific Outcomes:

The teacher should be able to:

- explain and illustrate the form and use of relevant grammatical structures.
- use reference works.

Suggested Resource(s): Thornbury (2003); Harmer (2004); Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997); Dictionary; Swan (2005); Parrott (2000).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator asks teachers to explain and illustrate relevant aspects of English grammar, such as the tense system, prepositions, adjectives, adverbs, passive voice and indirect speech.
- The facilitator gives teachers exercises on these aspects of English grammar, e.g. fill in the correct form of the verb, the cloze procedure and editing of incorrect sentences.
- The facilitator discusses the exercises with the teachers.
- The facilitator explains and illustrates how teachers can make use of reference works on English grammar such as Swan (2005) and Parrot (2000).

Unit 3: English Functions and Exponents

Specific Outcomes:

The teacher should be able to:

- explain English functions and their exponents.

Suggested Resource(s): Wilkins (1976); Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator explains the relevant use of English functions such as sympathising, appreciating, judging, congratulating, asking for information, inviting, persuading, suggesting, advising, commanding, forbidding, predicting, warning, consenting, informing, telling, emphasizing, disagreeing etc in ELT.
- He/she elicits their exponents from the teachers.
- The facilitator gives teachers an exercise to match functions with their exponents, e.g. request – Would you mind/Do you mind...; suggesting – How about.../What about...; disagreeing – I disagree with.../I can't accept your argument.
- The facilitator discusses the exercise with the class.

Unit 4: Aspects of English Pronunciation

Specific Outcomes:

The teacher should be able to:

- distinguish between various English accents, such as RP, Black South African English, and Afrikaans English.
- decide on the accent to use as model.
- identify learners' typical pronunciation problems.

- apply the techniques for teaching pronunciation.
- look up pronunciation in a dictionary.

Suggested Resource(s): Brown (1979); Paulston and Bruder (1976); Dictionary.

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator explains the phonetic symbols and how to read phonetic script.
- The facilitator provides teachers with a list of words and requests them to look up their pronunciation in the dictionary.
- Teachers make a list of typical pronunciation features of learners in their teaching-learning context.
- The facilitator discusses and illustrates pronunciation teaching techniques.
- Teachers design a pronunciation activity using minimal pairs and demonstrate how to teach it.
- Teachers discuss and evaluate their activities.

Assessment of Theme 2:

The facilitator gives teachers a test on aspects of English grammar, and functions of English and their exponents.

Theme 3: Language Across the Curriculum

General Outcome: Teachers should be able to teach language across the curriculum effectively by incorporating content from other subjects in English.

Unit 5: Using Content from Other Subjects in the Language Class

Specific Outcomes:

The teacher should be able to:

- explain the concept “Language Across the Curriculum”.
- use content and register from other subjects in the English class.

Suggested Resource(s): Widdowson (1992); Corson (1990).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator leads a discussion on the concept “Language Across the Curriculum”.
- The facilitator instructs the teachers to select a subject of their choice and write out an outline for a lesson in which content and register (and language structures) typical of the subject are illustrated.
- Teachers teach their micro-lessons that are then discussed and evaluated.

Assessment of Theme 3:

Individual teachers develop another teaching-learning activity from a different subject to demonstrate how to apply Language Across the Curriculum. Teachers submit their activities to the facilitator for evaluation.

Theme 4: Planning Learning and Teaching

General Outcome: Teachers should be able to plan effectively for teaching and learning.

Unit 6: Evaluating the Subject Framework and Work Schedule

Specific Outcome:

The teacher should be able to:

- evaluate the Subject Framework and Work Schedule in use in their schools.
- re-design the Subject Framework and Work Schedule.

Suggested Resource(s): NCS: Learning Programme Guidelines-Languages (2005); NCS Policy Document (2003).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator discusses the Learning Programme Guidelines for the Subject Framework and Work Schedule.
- Teachers evaluate Subject Frameworks and Work Schedules from their schools against the guidelines of the Department of Education.
- Teachers amend and re-design the Subject Framework and Work Schedule where necessary.

Unit 7: Planning Lessons

Specific Outcomes:

The teacher should be able to:

- plan lessons effectively.
- write out a lesson plan.

Suggested Resource(s): NCS: Learning Programme Guidelines-Languages (2005); NCS Policy Document (2003).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator discusses and illustrates the departmental lesson plan format that includes, for example, a cycle of lessons, learning outcomes, a series of teaching-learning activities, use of resources such as OHP, use of texts, integration of skills, teaching strategies, assessment tasks, tools and methods, as well as enrichment and remedial activities.

Assessment of Theme 4:

Teachers submit their Subject Frameworks and Work Schedules to the facilitator for evaluation (cf. Unit 6).

Theme 5: Listening Comprehension

General Outcome: Teachers should be able to apply the techniques of listening comprehension teaching effectively.

Unit 8: Listening Comprehension as a Form of Input**Specific Outcomes:**

The teacher should be able to:

- explain the rationale for teaching listening comprehension.
- differentiate between intensive and extensive listening.

Suggested Resource(s): Buck (2004); Brown (1979).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator explains and illustrates the rationale for teaching listening comprehension (as a form of input) and the differences between intensive and extensive listening.
- Teachers discuss the difference between intensive and extensive listening and list specific listening texts that they can use in their respective schools, for example, radio drama, recorded short stories, radio and television news, music, and poetry.

Unit 9: Listening Comprehension**Specific Outcomes:**

The teacher should be able to:

- select and record passages for listening exercises.
- draw up questions on the listening passage.

Suggested Resource(s): Buck (2004); Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997); Harmer (2004).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator discusses and explains how teachers can select and record listening passages.
- Teachers select and record listening passages according to the guidelines provided.
- Teachers present their passages and others evaluate them.
- The facilitator provides guidelines on drawing up questions on a listening passage.
- Teachers draw up questions on the listening passages they have selected.

- Teachers present their questions and model answers and others evaluate them.

Assessment of Theme 5:

Individual teachers design one intensive listening comprehension activity with relevant questions and submit them to the facilitator for evaluation.

Theme 6: Teaching Speaking

General Outcome: Teachers should be familiar with and apply the techniques of teaching speaking effectively.

Unit 10: The Use of Dialogues in the Teaching of Speaking

Specific Outcomes:

The teacher should be able to:

- make use of dialogues in the teaching of speaking.
- select and write dialogues.

Suggested Resource(s): Harmer (2004); Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator explains the use of dialogues in the teaching of speaking.
- He/she elicits criteria for a good dialogue.
- Teachers divide in groups and write a dialogue on a given topic.
- Groups present their dialogues to the class.
- The class evaluates each dialogue.

Unit 11: Controlled, Guided and Free Conversation

Specific Outcomes:

The teacher should be able to:

- distinguish between controlled, guided and free conversation in the teaching of speaking.
- design activities based on controlled, guided and free conversation.

Suggested Resource(s): Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell and Pincas (1978).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator discusses and illustrates controlled, guided and free conversation lessons.
- Teachers divide in groups of at least four teachers and design controlled (e.g. a mini-dialogue, the substitution drill and simulation), guided (e.g. role-play, quizzes and information gap) and free conversation (e.g. role-play, communication games, discussions) activities.
- Groups present their activities to the class.
- The class evaluates each activity.

Unit 12: The Place of Drill Work

Specific Outcomes:

The teacher should be able to:

- critically assess the role of mechanical, meaningful and communicative exercises.
- make use of meaningful drills to teach speaking.

Suggested Resource(s): Harmer (2004); Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997); Paulston and Bruder (1976).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator elicits the opinion of teachers about the place of mechanical, meaningful and communicative drills in the teaching of speaking.
- Teachers divide in groups of at least four and write out lessons on speaking, using meaningful and communicative drills.
- Teachers micro-teach their lessons and the class discuss and evaluate them.

Unit 13: Form and Meaning/Accuracy and Fluency-Focused Activities

Specific Outcomes:

The teacher should be able to:

- evaluate teaching-learning activities to determine whether they focus on form or meaning/accuracy or fluency.

Suggested Resource(s): Prabhu (1987); Harmer (2004); Brumfit, 1984.

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator elicits from teachers the differences between form and meaning/accuracy and fluency-focused activities.
- The facilitator provides teachers with examples of fluency activities such as information-gap exercises, problem-solving activities, language games, and provides them with an opportunity to perform simulation and role play exercises.
- Teachers design their own fluency activities in groups based on the examples.

- Groups present their communicative activities to class and these are discussed and evaluated.

Unit 14: Using Group and Pair Work in Large Classes

Specific Outcome:

The teacher should be able to:

- use group and pair work effectively in large classes.

Suggested Resource(s): Hayes (1997); Harmer (2004).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator elicits possible ways to use group and pair work effectively in large classes from teachers, e.g. forming groups with mixed abilities and allocating duties (such as facilitator, scribe, time-keeper and reporter) to members of the group.
- The facilitator elicits a discussion of the types of tasks that can be effectively applied in group work.
- The advantages and disadvantages of group and pair work are discussed.
- Teachers divide in groups of four and write out lessons on speaking, making use of group and/or pair work.
- Teachers micro-teach their lessons and these are discussed and evaluated.

Assessment of Theme 6:

Individual teachers write out lessons on speaking using dialogues and meaningful drills and submit them to the facilitator for evaluation. These lessons should be different from the ones they did as groups.

Theme 7: Teaching Reading Comprehension

General Outcome: Teachers should be familiar with and apply the techniques of teaching reading comprehension effectively.

Unit 15: Intensive Reading Passages

Specific Outcomes:

The teacher should be able to:

- explain the difference between *Intensive* and *Extensive* reading.
- select intensive reading comprehension passages.

Suggested Resource(s): Harmer (2004); Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator elicits the difference between *Intensive* and *Extensive* reading from the teachers.
- The facilitator leads a discussion on the criteria for the selection of reading comprehension passages (e.g. topic, interest and language level of learners).
- The facilitator requests teachers to select intensive reading comprehension passages from magazines and textbooks using the criteria for the selection of reading comprehension passages.
- Teachers discuss and evaluate the selected reading comprehension passages according to the appropriate level (grade).

Unit 16: Intensive Reading Questions**Specific Outcomes:**

The teacher should be able to:

- draw up different types of reading comprehension questions, such as direct reference, inference and supposition.
- make use of various formats, such as multiple choice, full-sentence answers, and cloze.

Suggested Resource(s): Davies and Widdowson (1979); Harmer (2004); Hughes (1993).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator initiates a discussion on different types of reading comprehension questions, such as direct-reference (questions that require learners to recover information directly from the passage), inference (those that require learners to discover the relationship between sentences and the way that they combine in communication) and supposition (questions that require learners to say what he/she supposes is implied by certain language items).
- Teachers draw up different types of questions and answers (memoranda) based on a reading comprehension passage they selected in Unit 14.
- Teachers submit their reading comprehension questions and answers (memoranda) to the facilitator for evaluation.

Unit 17: Vocabulary Teaching Techniques

Specific Outcomes:

The teacher should be able to:

- integrate vocabulary teaching in the teaching of intensive reading.
- teach vocabulary using various techniques.

Suggested Resource(s): Bromley (2007); Ambe (2007).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator leads a discussion in which the various techniques for teaching vocabulary, for example, the use of dictionaries, guessing the meaning from the context and keeping a vocabulary list, are explained and illustrated.
- Teachers divide in groups and write out a comprehension lesson in which they integrate vocabulary teaching in the teaching of intensive reading.
- Teachers present their lessons to the class.
- The class evaluates each lesson.

Unit 18: Extensive Reading

Specific Outcome:

The teacher should be able to:

- design a framework for implementing and managing an extensive reading programme.

Suggested Resource(s): Harmer (2004).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator discusses an extensive reading programme that includes, for example, class readers, a reading corner and the use of libraries.
- Teachers write out a framework for implementing and managing an extensive reading programme (e.g. learners write a report on a book or a magazine like *Reader's Digest* every two weeks) and submit them to the facilitator for evaluation.

Unit 19: Skimming and Scanning

Specific Outcomes:

The teacher should be able to:

- explain skimming and scanning as reading strategies.
- train learners to skim and scan reading texts.

Suggested Resource(s): Harmer (2004); Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator discusses and illustrates skimming and scanning as reading strategies.
- Teachers divide in groups of four and write out questions that require the reader to skim and scan for information from a reading text.
- Teachers present their questions for discussion and evaluation.

Assessment of Theme 7:

Individual teachers select reading comprehension passages that are different from the ones above and write out comprehension lessons in which they integrate vocabulary teaching. These are submitted to the facilitator who evaluates them.

Theme 8: Teaching Writing

General Outcome: Teachers should be familiar with and apply the techniques of teaching writing effectively.

Unit 20: Formulation of Sentences and Paragraphs**Specific Outcomes:**

The teacher should be able to:

- teach formulation of sentences and appropriate punctuation.
- teach paragraph structure.

Suggested Resource(s): White & Arndt (1991); Harmer (2004); Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator gives teachers poorly formulated sentences to correct.
- The facilitator discusses the responses with the class.
- The facilitator gives teachers a paragraph to identify main points and supplementary ideas.
- The facilitator discusses the responses with the class.

Unit 21: Cohesion and Coherence

Specific Outcomes:

The teacher should be able to:

- explain the difference between cohesion and coherence.
- explain cohesive devices in English.
- explain coherence in English.

Suggested Resource(s): Widdowson (1978); Halliday & Hasan (1990).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator explains and illustrates cohesion and coherence and if an utterance can be coherent without being cohesive.
- The facilitator and teachers discuss grammatical cohesive devices such as pronominals, demonstratives, definite articles and comparatives, as well as lexical cohesive devices such as repetition, synonymy, antonymy, naming and semblance.
- The facilitator gives teachers a test that requires them to fill in cohesives such as *however*, *nevertheless*, *firstly*, *secondly* and *in conclusion*.
- The facilitator marks and discusses the test with the teachers.
- The facilitator explains and illustrates coherence, e.g. where there is no formal syntactic or semantic links such as in:
A: What are the police doing?
B: I have just arrived.
- The facilitator elicits an illustration of cohesion and coherence in essay writing, e.g. how cohesive devices make an essay coherent and how coherence ensures the logical flow of an essay.

Unit 22: The Process Approach to the Teaching and Learning of Writing

Specific Outcome:

The teacher should be able to:

- teach learners how to implement the steps of process writing.

Suggested Resource(s): White & Arndt (1991); Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator discusses and illustrates the steps of process writing such as generating ideas, e.g. brainstorming, using questions, making notes, using visuals and role-play or simulation; focusing, e.g. discovering main ideas, considering purpose, as well as considering audience and form; structuring, e.g. ordering information, experimenting with ideas and relating structure to focal idea; drafting, e.g. considering ways of beginning, ending and adding information; evaluating, e.g. assessing the draft and conferencing; and re-viewing, e.g. checking the context, checking connections, checking divisions, assessing impact, editing, correcting, marking and taking final stock of the product.
- Teachers write out a micro-lesson on one of the steps of process writing.
- Teachers micro-teach their lessons and these are discussed and evaluated by the class.

Unit 23: Writing a Summary

Specific Outcomes:

The teacher should be able to:

- summarise a reading text.
- design an activity based on summary writing.

Suggested Resource(s): Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator gives teachers a passage and asks them to identify the main points.
- The facilitator distributes another text and requests teachers to summarise it in point-form (the format assessed in Grade 12).
- Teachers summarise the text and submit their summaries to the facilitator for evaluation.
- The facilitator discusses and provides teachers with feedback.

Assessment of Theme 8:

Teachers write out essay and summary lessons and submit them to the facilitator for evaluation.

Theme 9: Teaching Language

General Outcome: Teachers should be able to teach grammar (language forms) communicatively.

Unit 24: The Teaching of Grammar

Specific Outcome:

The teacher should be:

- familiar with explicit and incidental teaching of grammar.

Suggested Resource(s): Thornbury (2003); Harmer (2004); Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997); Ur (1988).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator revises the distinction between accuracy and fluency.
- He/she leads teachers into a discussion of whether grammar teaching is necessary, and, if so, how it should be done.
- The facilitator explains and illustrates explicit and incidental teaching of grammar.
- The facilitator elicits the stages of teaching grammar, e.g. contextualisation, explanation, practice, application.
- Teachers write out a grammar lesson in full.
- Teachers micro-teach their lessons and these are discussed and evaluated.

Unit 25: Teaching Functional English

Specific Outcome:

The teacher should be able to:

- teach lessons based on certain functions of English.

Suggested Resource(s): Harmer (2004); Wilkins (1976); Finocchiaro & Brumfit (1983).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator distributes a comprehensive list of the functions of English, such as greetings, inviting, congratulating, asking for information as well as their exponents, and discusses the techniques for teaching them, such as using dialogues and information gaps.
- Teachers write out lessons on certain language functions.

- Teachers micro-teach their lessons and these are discussed and evaluated.

Assessment of Theme 9:

Individual teachers plan lessons on two functions of English and submit them for evaluation.

Theme 10: Teaching Prescribed Literature

General Outcome: Teachers should be able to teach the prescribed literature effectively.

Unit 26: The Basics of Teaching Poetry

Specific Outcomes:

The teacher should be able to:

- explain the basic concepts used in the analysis of a poem.

Suggested Resource(s): Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997); Subject Assessment Guidelines (2007); NCS Policy Document (2003).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator discusses and explains basic concepts in the study of poetry such as general meaning, detailed meaning and sound patterns (e.g. alliteration, assonance, onomatopoeia, rhyme, rhythm and metre), choice of words (e.g. word class, register, repetition, contrast, etc.; sentence/stanza connectives), sentence structure (e.g. word order, sentence pattern variations/deviations; cohesion), figurative language (e.g. metaphor, simile, personification), poetic structure (e.g. formal organisation – poetry

type such as lyric, narrative, sonnet, ballad; content organisation such as content, field, cultural knowledge, themes, ideas and speech acts; rhetorical features such as contrast, irony, understatement and overstatement), critical appreciation (e.g. coherent literary, artistic structure of the poem as a whole for extended critical appreciation) and intertextuality (e.g. comparison of two poems).

- The facilitator gives teachers a prescribed poem to analyse.
- Teachers write out a poetry lesson.

Unit 27: Teaching a Play/Drama

Specific Outcomes:

The teacher should be able to:

- explain the basic concepts used in the analysis of a play/drama.

Suggested Resource(s): Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997); Subject Assessment Guidelines (2007); NCS Policy Document (2003).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator discusses and explains basic concepts in the study of drama or plays such as choice of words (e.g. word class, register, repetition, contrast, etc.; sentence connectives/cohesion), sentence structure (e.g. word order, sentence pattern variations/deviations such as active/passive/questions/negatives; cohesion), figurative language (e.g. metaphor, simile, personification), dramatic structure (e.g. formal organisation such as type of drama/short play, formal features/cohesion (acts, scenes), drama conventions, content organisation – content, field, cultural knowledge, themes, ideas, speech acts, setting, character, development, action, dramatic plot and structure, point

of view), critical appreciation (e.g. coherent literary, artistic structure of drama as a whole for extended critical appreciation) and intertextuality (e.g. comparison of any two drama/plays).

- Teachers analyse an Act in a prescribed drama/play (e.g. Shakespeare's *Julius Caesar*, *Romeo and Juliet*, or *Macbeth*).
- Teachers write out a drama/play lesson.

Unit 28: Teaching the Novel and Short Stories

Specific Outcomes:

The teacher should be able to:

- explain the basic concepts used in the analysis of a novel/short story.

Suggested Resource(s): Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997); Subject Assessment Guidelines (2007); NCS Policy Document (2003).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator discusses and explains basic concepts in the study of the novel/short story such as choice of words (e.g. word class, register, repetition, contrast, etc.; sentence/paragraph connectives or cohesion), sentence structure (word order, sentence pattern variations/deviations such as active/passive/questions/negatives; cohesion), figurative language (e.g. metaphor, simile, personification), narrative structure (e.g. formal organisation – type of the novel/short story; content organisation – content, field, cultural knowledge, setting, themes, ideas, speech acts, character, growth, plot structure, point of view), critical appreciation (e.g. coherent literary, artistic structure of the novel/short story as a whole for extended critical appreciation) and

intertextuality (e.g. comparison between two short stories or novels).

- Teachers analyse a section or chapter of a prescribed novel/short story.
- Teachers write out a lesson on a prescribed novel or short story.

Assessment of Theme 10:

Teachers hand in lessons on the two genres selected in their respective schools. These are evaluated by the facilitator.

Theme 11: An Integrated Lesson

General Outcome: Teachers should be able to teach an effective integrated lesson.

Unit 29: Integrating the Skills

Specific Outcomes:

The teacher should be able to:

- write out a lesson in which the four language skills are integrated.

Suggested Resource(s): Matthews, Spratt & Dangerfield (1986).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator elicits an outline of an integrated lesson from the teachers.
- Teachers divide in groups of four and write out an integrated lesson.
- Teachers micro-teach their lessons and these are discussed and evaluated by the class.

Assessment of Theme 11:

Individual teachers write out an integrated lesson and submit them to the facilitator for evaluation.

Theme 12: Teaching Language Learning Strategies

General Outcome: Teachers should be able to teach learners how to apply strategies to learn effectively in an ESL classroom.

Unit 30: Direct and Indirect Language Learning Strategies**Specific Outcomes:**

The teacher should be able to:

- explain the rationale for language learning strategies.
- illustrate direct and indirect language learning strategies.

Suggested Resource(s): Oxford (1990); Dreyer (1992).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator leads teachers in a discussion and an explanation of the rationale for language learning strategies.
- The facilitator discusses and illustrates direct language learning strategies (e.g. creating structure for input and output such as taking notes, summarising and highlighting; guessing intelligently such as using linguistic clues and using other clues; overcoming limitations in speaking and writing such as switching to the mother tongue, getting help, using mime or gesture, avoiding communication partially or totally, selecting the topic, adjusting or approximating the message, coining words and using circumlocution or synonym) and indirect language learning

strategies (e.g. arranging and planning your learning such as finding out about language learning, organising, setting goals and objectives, identifying the purpose of a language task, planning for a language task and seeking practice opportunities; evaluating your learning such as self-monitoring and self-evaluating; using a checklist, writing a language learning diary and discussing your feelings with someone else; asking questions such as asking for clarification or verification and asking for correction; cooperating with others such as cooperating with peers and cooperating with proficient users of the new language).

Unit 31: Language Learning Strategy Training

Specific Outcome:

The teacher should be able to:

- train learners to use appropriate language learning strategies.

Suggested Resource(s): Oxford (1990).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator presents and illustrates Oxford's 8-step model of language learning strategy training.
- Teachers illustrate how Oxford's model can be used to teach language learning strategies on their own.
- Teachers illustrate how they can use Oxford's 8-step model to train learners on language learning strategies by integrating them with ESL lessons.
- Each teacher draws up a lesson on prescribed literature, incorporating the *Creating structure for input and output* strategy (e.g. taking notes, summarising and highlighting).

Assessment of Theme 12:

Teachers design a language learning strategy training activity using Oxford's 8-step model and submit it to the facilitator for evaluation.

Theme 13: Assessment

General Outcome: Teachers should be able to assess learners in a valid and reliable manner.

Unit 32: The Basics of Test Construction**Specific Outcomes:**

The teacher should be able to:

- explain types and purposes of tests.
- explain qualities of a good test.
- explain different types of test formats.
- write various types of test formats.

Suggested Resource(s): Hughes (1993); Harmer (2004).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator discusses diagnostic and achievement tests, and qualities of a good test such as validity, reliability, feasibility and discrimination.
- The facilitator discusses and illustrates various types of test formats such as Open-ended questions, Matching, Fill-in-the blank, True/False questions, Multiple Choice questions, Cloze and Dictation.
- Teachers divide in groups of four and write different types of test formats for class tests and examination papers with their memoranda and submit them to the facilitator for evaluation.

Unit 33: Evaluating Tests and Examination Papers

Specific Outcomes:

The teacher should be able to:

- evaluate tests and examination papers.

Suggested Resource(s): Hughes (1993); Harmer (2004).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator provides teachers with previous tests and examination papers.
- Teachers discuss and evaluate these tests and examination papers.

Unit 34: Setting a Language Test

Specific Outcomes:

The teacher should be able to:

- draw up a Language class test and examination paper.

Suggested Resource(s): Hughes (1993); Harmer (2004).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator asks teachers to divide in groups of four and set *Language class tests and examination papers* with their memoranda.
- Teachers present their Language class tests and examination papers to the class for discussion and evaluation.

- Teachers revise their tests and examination papers with their memoranda.

Unit 35: Setting a Literature Test

Specific Outcomes:

The teacher should be able to:

- draw up a Literature class test and examination paper.

Suggested Resource(s): Hughes (1993); Harmer (2004).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator asks teachers to divide in groups of four and set class tests and examination papers on prescribed literature with their memoranda.
- Teachers present their class tests and examination papers to the class for discussion and evaluation.
- Teachers revise their tests and examination papers with their memoranda.

Unit 36: Essay and Functional Writing Topics

Specific Outcome:

The teacher should be able to:

- formulate essay and functional writing topics.

Suggested Resource(s): Widdowson (1992); Hughes (1993).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator discusses and illustrates the formulation of essay and functional writing topics, such as narrative, descriptive, reflective, argumentative, discursive and expository.
- Teachers divide in groups of four and formulate essay and functional writing topics for each.
- Teachers present these topics and they are evaluated by others.
- Teachers make the necessary improvements on their topics.

Unit 37: Marking Essays and Functional Writing**Specific Outcome:**

The teacher should be able to:

- use rubrics to assess essays and functional writing reliably.

Suggested Resource(s): Learners' essays and functional writing scripts.

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator discusses and illustrates how essays and functional writing pieces are assessed; for example, the design and use of rubrics, mark allocation, indication of errors and provision of feedback.
- The facilitator distributes essays and functional writing pieces and instructs teachers to mark them.
- Teachers use departmental rubrics to assess essays and functional writing pieces and compare the marks they have allocated for each.
- The differences are discussed and teachers discuss ways to improve the reliability of marking.

Unit 38: Oral Assessment**Specific Outcome:**

The teacher should be able to:

- use rubrics to assess oral work.

Suggested Resource(s): Hughes (1993); Harmer (2004); Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator elicits a discussion on the assessment of oral work; for example, the design and use of rubrics and allocation of marks.
- Teachers divide in groups of four and play roles of learners and teachers in turns and assess each other on one of the following: prepared speech, unprepared speech, debate, forum discussion and listening comprehension.
- Teachers present their marks and the reliability and the validity of their assessment are discussed.

Assessment of Theme 13:

Individual teachers draw up examination papers for language and one literature genre and submit them to the facilitator for evaluation.

Theme 14: Managing Large Classes

General Outcome: Teachers should be able to manage large classes effectively.

Unit 39: Problems Posed by Teaching Large Classes

Specific Outcomes:

The teacher should be able to:

- identify problems posed by large classes.
- develop strategies to deal with problems posed by large classes.

Suggested Resource(s): Hayes (1997).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator elicits possible problems faced in teaching large classes from teachers. The problems may include the inability to control such classes, neglecting the needs of learners as individuals, the difficulty of assessing each learner and the feeling that teaching large classes is ineffective.
- Teachers suggest strategies to deal with these problems.
- Teachers present their strategies and these are discussed and evaluated in class.

Assessment of Theme 14:

Individual teachers write out strategies to deal with problems faced in teaching large classes and submit them to the facilitator for evaluation.

Theme 15: Evaluation of Learning and Teaching Support Materials (LTSM)

General Outcome: Teachers should be able to evaluate a variety of appropriate Learning and Teaching Support Materials.

Unit 40: Evaluating Learning and Teaching Support Materials

Specific Outcomes:

The teacher should be able to:

- describe the categories of Learning and Teaching Support Materials;
- draw up criteria for the evaluation of Learning and Teaching Support Materials;
- evaluate Learning and Teaching Support Materials.

Suggested Resource(s): Tomlinson (1998); McGrath (2002); Harmer (2004).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator elicits the categories of Learning and Teaching Support Materials (for example, main textbooks, supplementary materials and teacher-made materials).
- The facilitator elicits a checklist for the evaluation of LTSM from the class. The checklist should contain aspects such as what the materials consist of in addition to the learner book (e.g. teacher's book, tests, workbook, cassettes, video, pictorial materials and CD-ROM); the publication date of the materials; the language components addressed in the materials; the cost of the materials; the kind of learners the materials are intended for (e.g. their age, level and interests) and the teaching-learning situation the materials are intended for (e.g. the type of course, such as whether it is a general English or exam-oriented course, the total time available, and the duration of the syllabus and the lessons).
- Teachers evaluate Learning and Teaching Support Materials provided by the facilitator and write a report based on the checklist.

Assessment of Theme 15:

Teachers submit the report on the evaluation of the Learning and Teaching Support Materials in their schools to the facilitator for evaluation.

Theme 16: Motivation Techniques

General Outcome: Teachers should be able to use motivational techniques to promote learning and teaching.

Unit 41: Motivational Techniques

Specific Outcome:

The teacher should be able to:

- use motivational techniques in ESL teaching and learning.

Suggested Resource(s): Blair (1988); Dörnyei (2001).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator elicits motivational techniques in ESL teaching and learning from teachers (e.g. changing the task at hand; considering the learners' interests, background, experience, and cultures; changing the reward structure used in the classroom such as allocating learners a mark for effort in addition to the performance mark; showing warmth, commitment, empathy and competence; and setting and maintaining group norms and authority).
- Teachers write out a lesson indicating how motivational techniques can be incorporated in it.

Assessment of Theme 16:

Teachers submit their lessons to the facilitator for evaluation.

Theme 17: Disciplining Learners

General Outcome: Teachers should be able to deal with discipline and learner problems.

Unit 42: Democratic Strategies of Discipline

Specific outcomes:

The teacher should be able to:

- describe and apply democratic strategies of discipline.

Suggested Resource(s): Porteus et al. (2001).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator presents the five steps used in dealing with disciplinary problems such as *the event* (e.g. identifying what the learner is doing that is causing a problem), *the social contract* (e.g. writing out the agreement and commitment to others, the class and the school), *the moral connection* (e.g. why what is happening is wrong and how does it drop the standard), *next steps* (e.g. what must be done to fix things up and what are the consequences that will be endured) and *revisiting commitments* (e.g. looking ahead, what will be the learner's commitment to others and the community).
- Teachers divide in groups of four and identify typical learner problems in their schools (for example, poor discipline, absenteeism, late-coming and drug abuse).
- Teachers propose how to deal with them using the five steps.

Assessment of Theme 17:

The facilitator gives teachers an assignment on a disciplinary problem (e.g. poor discipline, absenteeism, late-coming and drug abuse). Teachers write out how they will use the five steps to deal with the problem. The facilitator evaluates the assignment and provides feedback through discussions with teachers.

The section that follows discusses the practical implementation of Themes 1 to 17.

8.3.1.2 Practical Teaching during the Course

This phase of the growth and development programme framework is the practical implementation of Themes 1 to 17.

During the in-service course teachers plan lessons and present them either as micro-lessons or full lessons. This means that a group of four teachers can plan a lesson and present it as a group or individual teachers can plan and present a full lesson. This can either be done after themes 1-6 or at appropriate points during discussions of lessons.

Lessons that should be planned and presented include the various listening, pronunciation, speaking, reading, vocabulary, writing, language and literature lessons. Assessment of these lessons is based on peer and facilitator assessment. A checklist for assessment of practical teaching is provided in Appendix 7.

Each lesson presented should be followed by a post-observation feedback and discussion session in order to encourage teachers to reflect on their practice (cf. Ali, 2007). These discussions may have four stages: teachers go over each step of the lesson in detail, evaluate whether they have achieved the objectives of the lesson and finally reflect on what they have learned during the presentation and observation of lessons (Ali, 2007:20).

It must be emphasised that this is the most important phase of the growth and development programme framework inasmuch as teachers are required to implement the theoretical background they have acquired. The implementation is further discussed

in 8.4. The proposed in-service course should not be a one-off event, but it is recommended that a monitoring and mentoring programme should follow it and form an integral part of it.

Themes 18 and 19 provide the additional training for the HODs.

8.3.2 Additional Training for the HOD

Theme 18: The Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS)

General Outcome: Heads of Departments should be able to apply the Integrated Quality Assurance System (IQMS) effectively.

Unit 43: The Basics of IQMS

Specific Outcomes:

The HOD should be able to:

- describe the principles of IQMS.
- describe their role within the structures of the IQMS, particularly the Development Support Group.
- conduct effective observation of teachers in practice.

Suggested Resource(s): Checklist for Practice Teaching (cf. Appendix 7); Education Labour Relations Council (2003).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator discusses the principles of IQMS, e.g. self-evaluation, validity, reliability, relevance, transparency, quality control, fairness and individual professional growth.

- HODs discuss the structures of the IQMS (for example, the Development Support Group) in order to identify their role within such structures (e.g. providing support for the ESL teacher).
- The facilitator distributes a checklist for practice teaching (cf. Appendix 7) and HODs evaluate it, based on the IQMS (for example, is there a contradiction between the checklist and the IQMS?).
- HODs present their inputs and these are discussed and evaluated by the class.
- HODs discuss feedback to the teacher (how it should be given, what should be said, etc.).

Assessment of Theme 18

Individual HODs design a checklist for lesson observation as well as criteria for feedback and the facilitator evaluates them.

Theme 19: Time Management

General Outcome: HODs should be able to manage school time effectively.

Unit 44: Managing School Time

Specific Outcome:

The HOD should be able to:

- manage school time effectively.

Suggested Resource(s): Department of Education (2000d); Marais (2004).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator requires HODs to draw up a table to illustrate and allocate time they spend on their different roles in the school, such as administrative management (e.g. writing letters, filing, updating records and visiting the Department of Education); financial management (e.g. banking, collecting and recording school fees, budgeting and interpreting financial policy); organisational development (e.g. recruiting staff, resolving conflicts, co-ordinating extra-mural activities and meeting with the SGB) and instructional leadership (e.g. classroom teaching, talking to educators about their work, subject meetings arranging staff development workshops and class visits).
- The HODs evaluate these activities and discuss how they can be conducted effectively and efficiently.

Assessment of Theme 19:

Each HOD draws up a plan for the effective performance of their duties and submits it to the facilitator for evaluation.

The following training of the principal addresses only core aspects of school management. Only one theme is devoted to training the principal.

8.3.3 Training for the Principal

Theme 20: School Management for Effective Teaching and Learning.

General Outcomes: Principals should be able to manage change, human and financial resources and involve parents in their schools for effective ESL teaching and learning.

Unit 45: Managing Change

Specific Outcome:

The principal should be able to:

- manage curriculum change effectively.

Suggested Resource(s): Lambert (1995); Hopkins et al. (1994).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator elicits a discussion on curriculum changes (e.g. the National Curriculum Statements) and requires principals to plan how to manage and evaluate such changes in their schools.

Unit 46: Managing Human Resources

Specific Outcome:

The principal should be able to:

- manage teachers effectively.

Suggested Resource(s): Kruger (2004); Pretorius (2004).

Teaching-Learning:

- The facilitator requires principals to draw up a programme on professional leadership within their schools, such as guiding and supervising the work and performance of teachers, ensuring that workloads are equitably distributed among teachers, developing staff (e.g. managing staff training programmes and inducting new teachers), participating in the IQMS (e.g. conducting class visits and observing lessons), motivating and encouraging teachers and

learners (e.g. through team-building activities and inviting motivational speakers) and dealing with disciplinary problems (e.g. absenteeism and late-coming).

- Principals submit their programmes to the facilitator for evaluation.
- The facilitator provides feedback to the principals.

Unit 47: Managing Financial Resources

Specific Outcome:

The principal should be able to:

- explain the activities involved in school financial management.
- budget for effective ESL teaching and learning.

Suggested Resource(s): Blandford (1997); Masitsa (2005); The North-West Education Department (2007).

Teaching-Learning:

- The facilitator requires principals to explain and illustrate the activities involved in school financial management, e.g. banking (such as opening a bank account, depositing and withdrawing money and cheque requisition); cash receipts and payment journals; banking reconciliation; petty cash; control of receipts; stores and assets control; fund-raising control; travel and reimbursement; personnel and payroll; end of year financial reports; auditing.
- The facilitator requires principals to draw up a budget for their schools.
- Principals present their budgets and these are discussed and evaluated by the class.

Unit 48: Parental Involvement

Specific Outcome:

The principal should be able to:

- *draw up a programme for effective parental involvement in the school.*

Suggested Resource(s): Smit and Liebenberg (2003); Ma (1999); Desimone (1999).

Teaching-Learning Activities:

- The facilitator discusses areas in which the school can support parents from poor economic conditions with a view to promoting their involvement in the school (e.g. starting a literacy programme for parents and guiding parents on how they can structure children's time for homework, such as encouraging children to read and limiting children's time for watching television).
- The facilitator elicits from the principals ways and means of improving parental involvement in their schools.
- Principals develop a programme for parental involvement in their schools.

Assessment of Theme 20:

Principals submit their programmes for parental involvement to the facilitator for evaluation.

The following section provides suggestions for the implementation and monitoring of the growth and development programme.

8.4 Suggestions for the Implementation and Monitoring of the Growth and Development Programme

This growth and development programme should ideally be conducted after school for two hours five times a week. This means that the workshops may take ten hours a week. These workshops should be conducted at cluster level so as to take local contexts into account. A cluster consists of fewer and manageable groups than the district (APO).

After the completion of each theme, there should be follow-up sessions based on that specific theme that take the form of school visits conducted within the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS). The purpose of the school visits is to monitor the implementation of the programme and to provide mentoring for teachers. Therefore, this becomes a continuous and developmental process instead of a one-off event.

It is proposed that the growth and development programme should be implemented by the English Subject Advisors of the North West Department of Education. Monitoring and mentoring should be conducted at school level by the English heads of departments (HODs) to strengthen and clarify issues where necessary. Both the HOD of English and the principal should monitor whether teachers implement what they learned at the workshops in the ESL classroom by visiting them in class, following the procedures of the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) (cf. 4.4.2).

Additional training for the HODs and the principals should be conducted by the Education Management and Governance unit of the Department of Education (cf. 8.3.2; 8.3.3). The HOD should be monitored by the principal while the principal is monitored by the Circuit Manager and the Education Management and Governance unit of the Department of Education.

8.5 Conclusion

This chapter has provided a framework for a growth and development programme for effective ESL learning and teaching in under-performing schools of the North West

province. An attempt was made to address the problems of these schools, specifically as experienced by learners, teachers, heads of departments (HODs) and the principals of under-performing schools of the North West province.

CHAPTER 9

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

9.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to conclude the study and present recommendations for further research. Limitations of the study are also pointed out. The purpose of this study was to determine what makes ESL teaching and learning effective, identify the problems experienced in the teaching and learning of ESL in the under-performing schools, formulate the basic requirements for the improvement of performance in under-performing schools and develop a framework for the improvement of the teaching and learning of ESL in these schools.

9.2 What Makes ESL Teaching and Learning Effective

The literature review of this study discussed the typical situation in which under-performing schools operate. Learners in these schools live under poor socio-economic circumstances. The difficult task of teaching and learning in under-performing schools is, therefore, to compensate for this poor socio-economic background. This can only be done if teaching and learning of English is effective. The effective ESL teacher possesses certain knowledge, skills and personal qualities. He/she has personal qualities that enable him/her to develop genuine relationships with his/her learners, parents/community, colleagues and democratic classrooms. The effective ESL teacher knows both the subject matter and human development. He/she has didactic skills that enable him/her to plan lessons and maintain effective classroom control; use a variety of materials to teach learners; motivate learners; and be reflective in his/her practice. The effective HOD monitors and moderates teachers in his/her department and has expert knowledge of the subject (s) he/she leads while principals of effective schools manage the staff and motivate them; manage curriculum change, the finances and resources of

the school effectively; and has an effective programme for involving parents in the school activities.

9.3 Problems Experienced in ESL Teaching and Learning in Under-Performing Schools

Empirical data were collected in order to identify problems experienced in ESL teaching and learning in under-performing schools. Amongst the problems experienced in the under-performing schools were poor socio-economic conditions of learners in these schools, their lack of language learning strategy use and need for assistance in various aspects of language learning (e.g. grammar, reading and listening comprehension, creative writing, literature, etc.). Teachers displayed a limited knowledge of the subject matter and a poor didactic practice, and most of them lacked teaching and learning resources. Managerial problems experienced in under-performing schools included ineffective monitoring and moderation by HODs and principals, poor implementation of the IQMS (Integrated Quality Management System), and HODs' lack of ESL expertise and proper time management. Principals also experienced problems with resources (e.g. buildings, infrastructure, electricity, furniture and Learning and Teaching Support Materials), motivating staff and learners, managing curriculum change (e.g. the NCS) and a lack of parental involvement in their schools.

What happens in these schools indicate typical problems experienced in under-performing schools. It is therefore, clear that there is a need for intervention, and an in-service course is needed in order to address the problems experienced in these schools.

9.4 A Growth and Development Programme Framework for the Improvement of the Teaching and Learning of ESL in Under-Performing Schools

This study formulated basic requirements necessary for the improvement of the performance of under-performing schools and proposed a growth and development programme in order to address problems in these schools. The growth and development programme was set out in a framework. The in-service programme

focused on the ESL teacher in under-performing schools (cf. Chapter 8). Suggestions for the implementation and monitoring of the growth and development programme were also made.

9.5 Limitations of the Study

The results of the study are derived from and applicable to the four schools in the Southern Region of the North West province. They can, therefore, not be generalised to other schools. The results may, however, be regarded as typical of under-performing schools.

The proposed growth and development programme framework should be field-tested before final conclusions regarding its effectiveness can be reached.

9.6 Recommendations for Further Study

Tracer studies on the performance of the schools that undergo the proposed in-service-training course can be conducted in order to establish its effectiveness.

Further research can be conducted on other under-performing schools in order to develop a comprehensive growth and development programme framework that can be used in the North West province.

There is also a need for further research on the role of the HODs and the principals in the under-performing schools in order to support teaching and learning in these schools.

9.7 Conclusion

Improving the teaching of ESL in the under-performing schools requires teamwork. This study has investigated the role played by each major stakeholder in the team. The role of the ESL teacher in improving the effectiveness of under-performing schools cannot be overemphasised. What is done in the ESL classroom eventually determines the

performance of learners not only in ESL but also in other subjects offered in English. It is hoped that the proposed programme can contribute to the improvement of the teaching and learning of English in under-performing schools.

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APPENDIX 1**Observation Tool – FET Pilot Project****I. General Aspects**

Objective particulars:

Date: _____

Grade/level observed: _____

Primary first language(s) in classroom observed: _____

Type of lesson observed: _____

Names of observers: _____

II. Physical description of classroom:

(Include rough sketch on reverse side)

III. Lesson Format

A. Describe the introductory phase of the lesson:

Is the theme/topic of the lesson announced?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If so, what is the theme/topic?

Are specific objectives announced?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If so, what are they?

B. Describe progress/development of lesson (include tasks, activities, and modes of instruction):

[illegible]

C. Describe the materials used during the class period:
(request a copy of the materials if possible)

[illegible]

D. Describe the conclusion of the lesson:

[illegible]

Does the teacher recap the main points?

_____ Yes
_____ No

Is assessment given within the period on the lesson?

_____ Yes
No

If so, describe:

E. Is homework given?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If so, describe or, if not, why not? (ask the teacher)

F. Does it seem as if the teacher knows the subject?

_____ Yes
_____ No

Explain:

G. Is the teacher able to convey/explain concepts to the class?

_____ Yes
_____ No

Describe:

H. Additional comments:

IV. Instructor and Student Language

A. Is the instructor's voice clearly and easily heard?

_____ Yes
_____ No

B. How would you rate the instructor's English *speaking* ability? (Place an 'X' on the line below):

poor average good excellent

C. How would you rate the instructor's English *listening* ability?

poor average good excellent

D. How would you rate the instructor's English *writing* (on the board, OHP, etc.) ability?
(*If applicable*)

poor average good excellent

E. How would you rate the instructor's English *oral reading* ability? (*If applicable*)

poor average good excellent

Additional comments:

F. Does the teacher provide explanations and/or conduct the lesson in English only?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If not, describe:

Explain and give some indication of frequency of use (refer in particular to pair and group work):

The first step in the process of creating a new product is to identify a market need. This involves conducting market research to understand the preferences and behaviors of potential customers. Once a need is identified, the next step is to develop a concept that addresses this need. This concept should be innovative and differentiated from existing products in the market.

After developing a concept, the next step is to create a detailed business plan. This plan should outline the production process, distribution channels, and marketing strategy. It should also include financial projections to estimate the costs and potential revenue of the new product. A thorough business plan is essential for securing funding and guiding the development of the product.

Once the business plan is complete, the next step is to secure funding. This can be done through various means, such as seeking venture capital investment, applying for government grants, or crowdfunding. Each option has its own requirements and risks, so it is important to carefully evaluate the best funding source for the specific product and market.

After securing funding, the next step is to develop a prototype. This involves creating a small-scale version of the product to test its functionality and gather feedback from potential users. Prototyping allows developers to identify and address any issues early in the process, reducing the risk of failure when the full-scale product is launched.

Once a prototype is developed, the next step is to conduct a pilot launch. This involves releasing a limited quantity of the product to a select group of customers. The pilot launch allows developers to monitor the product's performance in the market, gather customer feedback, and make any necessary adjustments before a full-scale launch.

Finally, the last step in the process is to launch the product on a large scale. This involves implementing the marketing and distribution strategies outlined in the business plan. A successful launch requires careful coordination and execution to ensure that the product reaches its target audience and achieves its intended goals.

A. Is the observed class teacher-centred or student-centred? Describe:

[The](#) [New](#) [York](#) [Times](#) [has](#) [been](#) [the](#) [most](#) [widely](#) [read](#) [newspaper](#) [in](#) [the](#) [United](#) [States](#) [for](#) [over](#) [100](#) [years](#). [It](#) [is](#) [one](#) [of](#) [the](#) [most](#) [influential](#) [and](#) [respected](#) [sources](#) [of](#) [news](#) [and](#) [information](#) [in](#) [the](#) [world](#).

Describe:

[illegible]

C. What language skills are taught explicitly during the lesson? Check all that apply:

_____ speaking _____ listening _____ grammar

_____ vocabulary _____ oral reading _____ silent reading

_____ pronunciation _____ writing _____ literature –

specify type: _____

_____ learning strategies

_____ Other → describe:

Additional comments:

D. On what skills did students spend the most time during the observed lesson period?
Describe:

E. Does the teacher make efficient use of the available class time? Describe:

F. Were the objectives achieved?

☐ Yes
☐ No

Describe:

G. Are all the learners involved in the lesson?

☐ Yes
☐ No

Comment on student participation in the class:

VI. Subject file

A. Is/are there (a) subject file(s)?

☐ Yes
☐ No

If so, what does/do it/they contain? (check all that apply):

☐ course syllabus☐ marks☐ subject policy☐ exam/test papers☐ year plan☐ answer keys/memos☐ lesson plans☐ Other → describe below:

B. Comment on the quality of the file(s) contents including the teacher's writing ability if possible:

VII. Lesson plans

A. Is there a written lesson plan for the observed class period?

☐ Yes
☐ No

If so, what does the lesson plan include? Provide details below. It may include resources, objectives, activities, process steps, assessment, homework indicated, etc.

***Request a photocopy of the lesson plan and attach it to this observation document.*

VIII. Materials

A. What relevant materials/resources are available to students and teachers in the classroom?

(may include dictionaries, current newspapers, magazines, posters, etc.). List:

B. Does the teacher make use of supplementary materials?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If so, describe:

C. Are the materials (textbooks, handouts, etc.) for the lesson available for each learner?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If not, explain:

C. Does the school have a library?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If so, is the library functional? Describe:

IX. Questionnaires for teachers and interviews with students

APPENDIX 2**Interview with the Teachers**

Researcher will ask questions below and record teacher responses. No names will be used in reporting on the data gathered.

1. Qualifications (general):

2. Qualifications (in English):

3. Experience:

Years: _____

Levels:

4. What resources do you consult regularly besides the prescribed textbook(s)? List:

5. What are your views on Language Across the Curriculum (LAC)?

Describe how you implement LAC in your classroom:

6. What is your understanding of the communicative approach to teaching?

Describe:

7. Do you use communicative language teaching in your classroom?

☐ Yes
☐ No

If so, describe:

8. List the problems you face in your day-to-day teaching. What gives you the most stress?

9. What do you regard as your strengths as a teacher? Please list:

10. What do you regard as your weaknesses as a teacher? Please list:

[illegible]

11. Are there certain aspects of English language teaching that you would like more information about? If so, what are they? (Check the appropriate general topics then provide more specific details/examples if possible):

Grammar

Vocabulary

Writing

Speaking

_____ Pronunciation

Listening

_____ Reading

_____ Literature (poetry, drama, short stories, novels)

_____ Other

Please provide further details here:

[illegible]

12. How would you rate your students' English *speaking* ability? (Place an 'X' on the line below):

poor	average	good	excellent

13. How would you rate your students' English *listening* ability?

poor	average	good	excellent

14. How would you rate your students' English *writing* ability?

poor	average	good	excellent

15. How would you rate your students' English *reading* ability?

poor	average	good	excellent

Additional comments:

16. What is your first language? _____

17. Is there a photocopy machine available for your use at the school? ☐ Yes
☐ No

If so, do you make use of it?

18. Are you motivated to teach English? Explain:

19. Describe your relationship with the following people:

A) your HOD:

B) your principal:

C) your subject advisor:

APPENDIX 3

Interview with the Learners

Researcher will ask questions below and record teacher responses. No names will be used in reporting on the data gathered.

1. Student age: _____
2. Student gender: _____ Female _____ Male
3. What is your first language? _____
4. With whom do you live?

A. Does s/he or do they work?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If so, what do they do?

B. Do you know how much money s/he/they earn?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If so, explain:

C. Do you know what his/her/their highest level of education is?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If so, explain:

D. How many siblings do you have and how many of them are currently living at home?

5. Describe your home:

A. Where is your home located/situated?

B. How far is it from school?

C. How do you get to school?

D. Is your home in satisfactory condition?
Describe:

6. Do you have electricity in your home?

_____ Yes
_____ No

A. If so, for how long have you had it?
(e.g., In what grade did you get it?)

B. Do you experience any problems with the electricity?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If so, describe:

7. Do you have a radio at home?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If so, how often do you listen to the radio?

A. Do you listen to English programmes?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If so, which one(s)?

8. Do you have a television at home?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If so, how often do you watch television?

A. Do you watch English programmes?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If so, which one(s)?

9. Do you read English language newspapers or magazines?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If so, how often?

Which one(s)?

10. Have you read any of your prescribed literature books?

Yes _____
No _____

If you have not completed the reading of prescribed books, explain:

11. Do you read English language books in addition to your prescribed books?

Yes _____
No _____

If so, how often?

A. Describe the types/genres of books you enjoy reading:

12. Are there any other factors that affect your education? (*Examples: transportation, care of sibling, sick parent, pocket money, housework, etc.*) If so, describe:

13. Which sections of learning English do you find difficult? (*Possible prompts: grammar, literature, comprehension, etc.*)

14. Are there other problems you have in learning English?

Yes _____
No _____

If so, describe:

15. How do you learn and study English? (*Learning strategy prompts: memorise, visual clues, writing, rote, etc.*) Describe:

16. How can your teacher help you to learn English better? (*Possible prompts: grammar exercises, reading, comprehension, practical application, spelling practice, etc.*) Describe:

17. Are you assigned homework?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If so, how often?

A. If so, do you do your assigned homework?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If you don't do it, why not? Describe:

B. If so, do you get help with your homework?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If not, why not? Describe:

If so, from whom? Why this person?

C. If so, is the homework marked in class? Describe:

18. Do you use the school library?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If so, how frequently? Describe:

19. Do you use a community library?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If so, how frequently? Describe:

20. How would you rate your English *speaking* ability? (Place an 'X' on the line below):

poor	average	good	excellent

21. How would you rate your English *listening* ability?

poor	average	good	excellent

22. How would you rate your English *writing* ability?

poor	average	good	excellent

23. How would you rate your English *reading* ability?

poor	average	good	excellent

24. How would you rate your *level of self-confidence* in using English in the classroom?

poor	average	good	excellent

Comment on self-confidence and risk-taking abilities:

25. Do you want to learn English?

☐ Yes
☐ No

Why or why not?

26. Do you enjoy your English lessons?

☐ Yes
☐ No

Explain:

27. Do you feel comfortable talking with your English teacher?

☐ Yes
☐ No

Explain:

28. Does your English teacher motivate you?

☐ Yes
☐ No

If so/not, how? Explain:

APPENDIX 4**Interview with the HOD**

Researcher will ask questions below and record teacher responses. No names will be used in reporting on the data gathered.

Qualifications (general): _____

Qualifications (in English): _____

Experience:

Years _____

Levels _____

1. Did you have any specific training as HOD?

If so, who provided it?

When were you provided with such training?

What aspects where you trained in?

If not, do you find such training necessary?

2. What do you think of the standard of English teaching in your school?

Give reasons:

3. What are the problems you face as a HOD?

4. What do you regard as your strengths as a HOD?

5. What do you regard as your weaknesses as a HOD?

6. What are the activities you have engaged in to capacitate your English staff?

7. What are the problems (if any) you encounter in this regard?

8. What are the areas you need assistance in to capacitate your English staff?

9. What resources do you consult regularly beside the prescribed textbooks to capacitate your English teachers?

10. From whom would you like such assistance?

11. What resources do you provide the English teacher with?

12. What obstacles do you encounter in providing the English teacher with these resources?

13. Do you hold meetings of the English department? _____

How often? _____

What is discussed at these meetings?

If not, give reasons.

14. Do you get support from the Department of Education? _____

Describe:

15. Do you differentiate between monitoring and moderation? _____

Explain:

16. What aspects of teachers' work do you monitor (e.g. scripts, tests, exams, files)?

How often do you monitor this work? _____

Do you give feedback to the teacher after monitoring their work? _____

(Describe)

17. What aspects of learners' work do you monitor (e.g. scripts, tests, exams)?

How often do you monitor this work? _____

Do you give feedback to the learner after monitoring their work? _____

(Describe)

19. What aspects of teachers' work do you moderate (e.g. scripts, tests, exams, files)?

How often? _____

Do you give feedback to the teacher after moderating their work? _____

(Describe)

20. What aspects of learners' work do you moderate (e.g. scripts, tests, exams)?

How often? _____

Do you give feedback to learners after moderating their work? _____

(Describe)

21. Do you observe the lessons of English teachers in class?

How often? _____

What aspects of teaching and learning do you observe (e.g. teaching methodology)?

Do you give feedback to the teacher after the observation of the lesson? _____

(Describe)

If you do not observe the lessons of English teachers in class, give reasons

22. Do you provide incentives for your teachers? _____

Explain:

23. What kind of support, if any, do you get from the parents of your learners?

24. Does the community support your school? _____

Explain:

25. Do you need to discipline teachers? _____

Explain:

26. Do you motivate your staff? _____

Describe:

27. Does your principal motivate you? _____

Describe:

28. What support, if any, do you get from the SGB?

29. General Comments:

APPENDIX 5**Interview with the Principal**

Researcher will ask questions below and record teacher responses. No names will be used in reporting on the data gathered.

Qualifications: _____

Experience:

Years _____

1. Did you have any specific training in managing a school?

If so, who provided it?

When were you provided with such training?

What aspects where you trained in?

If not, do you find such training necessary?

2. What do you think of the standard of English teaching in your school?

Give reasons:

3. What are the problems you face as a Principal?

4. What do you regard as your strengths as a Principal?

5. What do you regard as your weaknesses as a Principal?

6. What are the activities you have engaged in to capacitate your English staff?

7. What are the problems (if any) you encounter in this regard?

8. What are the areas you need assistance in to capacitate your English staff?

9. From whom would you like such assistance?

10. What resources do you provide the English teacher with?

11. What obstacles do you encounter in providing the English teacher with these resources? _____

12. Do you get support from the Department of Education? _____

Describe:

13. Do you differentiate between monitoring and moderation? _____

Explain:

14. What aspects of the HOD's work do you monitor (e.g. scripts, tests, exams, files)?

How often? _____

Do you give feedback to the HOD after monitoring their work? _____

(Describe)

15. What aspects of teachers' work do you monitor (e.g. scripts, tests, exams, files)?

How often? _____

Do you give feedback to the teacher after monitoring their work? _____

(Describe)

16. What aspects of learners' work do you monitor (e.g. scripts, tests, exams)?

How often? _____

Do you give feedback to learners after monitoring their work? _____

(Describe)

17. What aspects of the HOD's work do you moderate (e.g. scripts, tests, exams, files)?

How often? _____

Do you give feedback to the HOD after moderating their work? _____

(Describe)

18. What aspects of teachers' work do you moderate (e.g. scripts, tests, exams, files)?

How often? _____

Do you give feedback to the teacher after moderating their work? _____

(Describe)

19. What aspects of learners' work do you moderate (e.g. scripts, tests, exams)?

How often? _____

Do you give feedback to learners after you have moderated their work?

(Describe)

20. Do you observe the lessons of English teachers in class?

How often? _____

What aspects of teaching and learning do you observe?

Do you give feedback to the teacher after the observation of the lesson? _____

(Describe)

If you do not observe the lessons of English teachers in class, give reasons

21. Do you provide incentives for your teachers? _____

Explain:

22. What kind of support, if any, do you get from the parents of your learners?

23. Does the community support your school? _____

Explain:

24. Do you need to discipline teachers? _____

Explain:

25. Do you motivate your staff? _____

Describe:

26. What support, if any, do you get from the SGB?

27. General Comments:

APPENDIX 6**Interview with the Departmental Official**

Researcher will ask questions below and record teacher responses. No names will be used in reporting on the data gathered.

1. What do you think are the reasons why schools under perform?

2. What do you think is the standard of English teaching in trapped schools?

3. What are the problems you face as co-ordinator of trapped schools?

4.1. What are the interventions you have for the trapped schools?

4.2. What are the interventions you have for English specifically?

4.3. What is the goal of this intervention?

5. Are these interventions successful? _____

Describe:

6. What are the problems (if any) you encounter when you provide this intervention?

7. Do you get support from the Department when you capacitate the trapped schools? _____

Explain:

8. Who assists you when you need support?

How often do you get this support? _____

13. Do you differentiate between monitoring and moderation? _____

Explain:

9. What aspects of the principal's work do you monitor in trapped schools?

Describe in detail:

Do you give feedback to the principal after monitoring their work? ____

(Describe)

10. What aspects of HOD's work do you monitor in trapped schools?

Describe in detail:

Do you give feedback to the HOD after monitoring their work? ____

(Describe)

11. What aspects of teachers' work do you monitor in trapped schools?

Describe in detail:

Do you give feedback to teachers after monitoring their work? _____

(Describe)

12. What aspects of learners' work do you monitor in trapped schools?

Describe in detail:

Do you give feedback to learners after monitoring their work? _____

(Describe)

13. Describe further plans you have to improve teaching and learning conditions in the trapped schools?

14. General Comments:

This image shows a single sheet of white paper with horizontal ruling lines. The lines are evenly spaced and run across the width of the page. There is no handwriting or other markings on the paper.

APPENDIX 7

Assessment Schedule for Lesson Presentation

General Instructions

Lesson

- Write out your lesson IN FULL, without errors.
- Make sure you use the FULL PERIOD.
- Make sure that learners are actively involved.
- Make sure that the content of the lesson is worthwhile and interesting.
- Make sure that the OHP (and/or other resources used for the same purpose) is legible from the back of the class.
- Make use of questions.
- Make sure that ALL LEARNERS are involved, not only some.

Self evaluation form

0 = not applicable

1 = poor

2 = average

3 = good

4 = very good

ITEM		RATING				
A.	THE BODY	0	1	2	3	4
1.	Use of voice (pitch/variety/intensity)					
2.	Use of eyes (life/scanning/individual eye contact)					
3.	Use of body (alert/poised/responsive)					
4.	Movement (directed/away from pupils/into body of class)					
5.	Dress/appearance (clothing/hair)					
6.	Other.....					

B. AIDS AND MATERIALS**0 1 2 3 4**

1. Chalkboard writing (size/regularity/neatness/spacing)
2. Chalkboard diagrams (colour/clarity/spacing/neatness)
3. Slides, transparencies (appropriateness/display/timing)
4. Handouts (appropriateness/neatness/timing)

C. LESSON STRUCTURE**0 1 2 3 4**

1. Opening (firmness/direction/attention-grasping)
2. Questioning
 - Cognitive memory
 - Convergent
 - Divergent
 - Evaluative
 - Probing
3. Language (appropriate level/fluency/speed)
4. Instructions (clarity/complexity/speed)
5. Simple-level operating (books, apparatus, material, distribution/collection)
- Other.....
6. Variety of learner activities
(reading/writing/observing/listening/discussing/answering)
7. Group work (size/timing/task-level/supervision)
8. Distribution of time over activities
9. Teacher's responses (praise/criticism/silence/re-direction of responses)
10. Exercises/assignments (appropriate level/worksheets/extent of structuring/time allowance)
11. Interruptions (outside class situation/inside class situation)
12. Closing (summary/anticipation of follow-up)
13. Other.....