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54

AN EXPLORATION OF THE LEARNING - TEACHING OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE BY NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS

by

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I hereby declare that this dissertation is my own original work and has not been submitted before to any institution for assessment purposes.

Further I have acknowledged all sources used and have cited these in the bibliography.

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ABSTRACT

This is an exploratory study of the teaching strategies of non-native speakers of English who teach English as a second language in secondary schools. Classroom observations of three teachers were conducted. It was found that teaching and learning through English as a second language is not a single decisive factor in ensuring teaching and learning effectiveness. Other factors such as cultural norms and the teacher's choice of strategies could impinge on the quality and effectiveness of the teaching-learning process.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1. INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

This study is a quest for more insight into the learning-teaching process where English is taught and learned as a second language (ESL) by non-native speakers (NNS). There are many teaching materials and approaches which are recommended, with good intend, for ESL teaching. How do NNS teachers deal with all these innovations in a real classroom situation? What constraints if any do they experience in attempting to teach in a second or even third language? What exactly is a 'language problem" or 'language need" with regard to the teaching and learning of English as a second language by non-native speakers?

The questions posed above are not at all new questions. Every teacher, learner and any other person who has an interest in learning, and second language learning and teaching in particular, has asked and even been asked similar questions at some stage of her learning or teaching career[1]. There is also implication, however subtle, that there could be problems regarding the teaching and learning of English by NNS. In addition, the questions are often too general to allow for a clear grasp of the problem in relation to the ESL and NNS scenario.

[1] The amount of literature that has been written on the issue of "language problems" and "language needs" is eveidence enough that all the stakeholders in education are interested in such an issue.

The way forward is, therefore, to examine a particular aspect of the ESL and NNS scenario. In this chapter, we put into context what could be perceived as the problem, while simultaneously laying a foundation for a more focused question or questions.

2. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Learners and teachers in South Africa (as well as in the rest of Africa), learn and teach through a medium of instruction which very often is a second language to both parties. The language that is used in most of these countries is English (Mouton, 1995). In South Africa, there are eleven official languages. The percentage distribution of language spoken as a first language follows: English 9,1%; Afrikaans 15,1%; isiZulu 22,4%; isiXhosa 17,5%; Tshivenda 1,7%; Setswana 7,2%; Xitshonga 4,2%; siSwati 2,6%; Sesotho 6,9%; isiNdebele 1,5%; Sepedi 9,8; Afrikaans/English 0,2% and other 1,8% (CSS, 1991). Only 9,1% of the population use English as a first language while the rest of the population speaks the other ten languages.

One assumes that only a small percentage of native speakers (NS) of English are teachers. In addition, even if all English first language speakers were language teachers, the numbers of learners would still be too enormous for them to handle. As a result, teaching in South Africa has to be carried out by teachers who are non-native speakers (NNS) in contexts where their learners too are NNS.

2 (a) Conceptualisation of the problem

According to Mouton (1996); and Mouton & Marais (1990) a researcher does not stop at merely stating or formulating the research question, she has to go beyond that

by conceptualising the problem. The writers define conceptualisation as a dual process of both (i) clarifying key concepts in the statement and (ii) integrating the problem within a broader conceptual context. We now turn specifically to the clarification of key concepts in the investigation of teaching strategies where both the teacher and the learner are non-native speakers of English.

(i) English as a second language

English as a second language (ESL) is a concept that refers to the role of English in countries where English is used as a medium of instruction in addition to the use of the home language (Nayar, 1997; Phillipson, 1991 and 1992). This means that the learners involved already have their numerous vernaculars and for them English is a "vital medium of education giving access to a broader culture, providing an auxillliary language for ordinary use" (Morris, 1945 in Nayar, 1997:11). The same point is reiterated by Pride (1979) who explains that in such situations, there is no effort on learners to acquire an overseas standard form of English because local varieties are accepted as standard. Pride goes further to show that since the content of the school course is usually local, learners in ESL contexts begin to learn English without necessarily knowing or caring what life is like either in England or America.

Even though the definition of ESL that has been given here seems to be clear, recently there has been controversy regarding what exactly ESL might be, especially when comparing it to English as a foreign language (EFL). EFL refers to the role of English in countries where English is studied as a foreign language in schools/universities and

is not normally a language of instruction but simply a branch of study (Pride, 1979; and Phillipson, 1992). In the context of this study, it is with ESL that we are concerned.

The argument raised about ESL is that it has three different denotations which are not integrated, namely ESL_1, ESL_2, and ESL_3. For purposes of this study, I wish to adopt ESL_1 which is identified by the following characteristics:

1. English is not regarded or generally accepted as native to the environment, so few speak it as the mother tongue.
2. English is used widely by an influential if not significant section of the people as a medium of communication in a variety of domains like education, administration, and commerce. The learners/users may be multilingual and may use English as a link language between them.
3. Though English is not native, there is a certain amount of environmental support for English in the form of, for example, popular English language media and some indigenous literature in English.
4. English has some officially approved status and social prestige.
5. Communication with NS (native speaker) is not a primary or even likely objective of learning (Nayar, 1997:15).

All the characteristics of ESL_1 above are clearly relevant to the South African situation. We now turn to an analysis of English as an important language globally.

The question is: what is it that gives English language the status it has in this country and many others?

(ii) The status of English in the world

In Africa and the rest of the developing world, English is viewed by many as a language of economic, educational and political opportunity (Oladejo, 1981; Rubagumya, 1990; Amuzu, 1992 and Mushwana, 1996). Apart from that, many of the African and Asian countries were once colonies of Britain and people in such countries had to learn English in order to communicate with their colonial masters. As a result, the inclination to learn the language still remains in these countries long after independence.

In South Africa, even though both English and Afrikaans were the only official languages during the Apartheid era, the previously disadvantaged population groups often do not want to use Afrikaans because they perceive it as a language of oppression[2] (Christie, 1985; Peirce, 1989; and Alexander, 1997). Because of the political history of Apartheid rule, English is seen as a 'language of access" for those who were previously oppressed (Clifford & Kerfooot, 1992). As a result, children and adults alike are learning the language through different means such as mainstream schooling and adult literacy programmes[3]. Even though parliament has approved a

[2] Christie gives a detailed account of why Afrikaans is seen as a language of the oppressor. She gives a detailed account of the SOWETO uprisings of 1976 where learners were boycotting school because they did not want to learn through Afrikaans.

[3] Adult literacy programmes are rife in South Africa in the form of what are called "night schools" and/or Adult Basic Education Training Programmes (ABET) where adults (people over twenty-five years of age) learn how to read, write and count. Others come to such programmes for the specific purpose of leaning English literacy. It is also common to hear parents say they send children to school in order to learn English .

policy which states that the governing body of any school can decide on the language that will be used for learning in their school, this policy might never be implemented. English is also seen as a bridge towards access to international literature and commerce. Therefore, the teaching of English as a 'language of power' will still need attention in order to the prevent exclusion "of those who do not speak English from educational and economic advancement" (ibid. p. 153).

While it is not the aim of this study to justify or oppose the use of English as a medium of instruction among non-native speakers of English, the status of English in the world brings to light the following important point for those who are already learning through this medium. Being literate in English need not merely mean being able to speak and write the language but also to be in a position to think and work critically with English language. Hence it is imperative to re-examine English language teaching (ELT) theories and how they impact on the teaching of English as a second language. This, will be addressed in the next chapter.

(iii) An analysis of learning and teaching in ESL/NNS scenario

Learning and teaching are regarded as complimentary processes (Hirst, 1979; and Passmore, 1980). The writers go further to state that every teaching activity is aimed at some end product which is referred to as learning. The question now is, does every teaching activity achieve learning? In order to answer this question, let us explore the learning-teaching process where the learner and teacher are non-native speakers of English .

Among the many and varied needs of learners in Southern Africa, language is often singled out as an area which raises the loudest alarm. One of the reasons given for this concern is that the medium of instruction, English in this case, is often not a first language to both teacher and learner. There is a tendency in such situations to say that learners have 'language problems". Wood (1991:41) argues that 'language problems' 'is a vague, catch-all term which... is often heard in situations where the underachievement of students is at issue".

The issue of 'language problems', therefore, needs to be revisited with a deeper analysis of the learning-teaching situation. Teacher textbooks, methods, and materials were originally for native speakers [NS] use with NNS learners. Perhaps time has come for the teaching methods and materials to be revised in order to suit NNS teachers. Nayar (1997:30) states that 'it is one of the paradoxes of English language teaching (ELT) in the world that the majority of the teachers of English today are themselves NNS, whereas most of the current literature and material seems to presume that they are NSs".

Opinion has been expressed elsewhere that where both teacher and learner use the second language in the learning-teaching process, a number of disadvantages could ensue (Mills & Mills, 1993 in Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 1997). First, the quality of the learning-teaching process will be affected since there will be 'no easy flow of language back and forth' which could bring about active learning. Second, the learning-teaching process can become 'passive and instrumental and result in information-giving as this is linguistically easier to handle (Thembela, 1986 in David,

Lazarus and Lolwana, 1997:158). A related view is expressed elsewhere that African learners, due to the use of a second language, are not in the habit of vocalising their learning. Fuller and Snyder (1991:271) state that

> Many African children come to the formal school with social norms that encourage silence and honour to the teacher's authority. African children also may enter the classroom with language, knowledge, and cognitive maps that are quite inconsistent with social norms found within this foreign school setting. Second, the school (and its teachers) may interpret pupil silence and cognitive inconsistencies as manifestations of passivity or slowness, leading to more intense teacher dominance and routinization of lessons within the lessons.

(iv) Research questions

Observations like those included above must, however, be unpacked if they are to become informative. I will therefore pose the following research questions:

1. How far are the teaching strategies of NSS teachers consistent with the strategies and approaches which have been researched and found to be suitable in ESL settings?
2. What are the teaching strategies of teachers of English where both teacher and learner are NNS?

In order to answer these questions, the following data is required.

1. As regards what teachers are doing, data must be produced on the learning-teaching process. Therefore, I had to construct a reliable observation schedule to collect this kind of data (cf. Chapter Three and Appendix A).
2. The second question relates to how far what teachers are doing is reflected in the literature. The best of current knowledge on the issue of effective second language teaching will be examined in order to construct the observation schedule (cf. Chapter Two).

Generally, the data gathered will then guide the researcher in drawing conclusions about (i) how English is taught where both teachers and learners are NNSs, and (ii) the degree of mismatch or match between actual classroom practices and research on this issue as reported in the literature on ESL. These will assist in unpacking the two observations made by Thembela mentioned above; i.e. lack of easy flow of language back and forth between NNS teacher and learners; as well as the resulting passiveness and rote learning.

In the next chapter (Chapter Two) we examine the issue of second language teaching, especially the communicative approach to language teaching. In addition, we explore the role of the teacher in a learning-teaching process. Vygotsky's viewpoint on mediation is adopted as the grounding theory for analysis of the research findings.

Chapter Three gives a detailed account of the research method that has been followed in order to answer the questions posed in this chapter. Included are (i) The PEC

framework (Mouton, 1996), under which we detail the problem to be investigated, the evidence required and the conclusion thus warranted.

In Chapter Four the findings of the study are presented while in Chapter Five the findings are discussed and analysed. The conclusion and recommendations are presented in Chapter Six.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

1. INTRODUCTION

We have learned from Chapter One that one of the frequently made observations regarding teachers and learners who use English as a second language is that in such circumstances the teaching and learning process can become "passive and instrumental and result in information-giving and rote-learning" as this is linguistically easier to handle (Thembela, 1986 in Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 1997:158).

I have also suggested that observations made by Thembela must, however, be unpacked if they are to become informative. Hence this study sets out to investigate the following questions:

1. How far are the strategies teachers use in line with strategies which have been researched and found to be suitable in ESL settings? In this chapter literature that allows for an examination of this question is reviewed.
2. What are the teaching strategies of teachers of English where both teacher and learner are non-native speakers of English? This question will be dealt with extensively in the results section, Chapter Three.

In this chapter, I will examine relevant literature on the issue of non-native speakers (NNS) of English teaching English as a second language (ESL). The aim is to provide a framework for the analysis of teaching strategies actually implemented by teachers who have participated in this study. I start this review by once again giving a brief

explanation of what I mean by NNS and ESL, respectively. This is what I turn to below.

ESL is a concept that refers to the role of English in countries where English is used as a medium of instruction in addition to the use of other home languages (Nayar, 1997; Phillipson, 1991 and 1992). This means that the learners already have various vernaculars, furthermore English is for them a vital medium of learning that gives them access to a broader culture and provides an additional language for ordinary use Morris, 1945 in Nayar, 1997:11). Consequently, in this study the teachers who teach English as a second language, and are second language speakers of English, are referred to as non-native speakers of English or NNS for short (cf. p.3-4 for more clarification of ESL and NNS). Having highlighted the key terms which will be mentioned throughout this chapter, I now continue with the task at hand. In what follows, I will discuss:

(a) Evolutions in the teaching of ESL

This section examines approaches used in second language teaching with a specific focus on "communicative language teaching".

(b) The teacher's role in second language teaching

In this section different views on effective teaching and learning are reviewed with specific emphasis of Feurstein's (1990) *Theory of Mediated Learning Experience* (MLE); Flavell's (1987) *Metacognition*; and Craig's (1996) *Theory of Defamiliarisation*; and lastly, language learning from the perspective of second

language learning/acquisition theorists such as Krashen (1977); Wenden (1986 and 1991); Macdonald (1990 and 1991); Goh (1997), and others.

(c) Relevant strategies used in second language teaching

In this section I will examine the teaching strategies which are recommended for second language teaching. Emphasis will be placed on strategies which teachers who participated in this study implemented in their lessons. However, no attempt will be made at this point to analyse their strategies, this will be dealt with in the next chapter.

2. EVOLUTIONS IN THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

The teaching of English as a second language has evolved quite significantly over the years, but the concerns that have prompted innovations in ESL continue to be related to two important considerations. One is how language is viewed by the people who introduce an innovation. Second, is the learning theory on which the approach will be grounded. This means that every ESL teaching approach is based on both language teaching and learning theories.

Educationists, psychologists and language specialists acknowledge that it is difficult to learn and become literate in the second language because of a number of constraints involved. First, learning through a second language involves learning "a system of written symbols, and a system of expressing meaning in another language" while simultaneously focusing on the task at hand (Clifford & Kerfoot, 1992:156). Therefore, teachers should not only be involved in the teaching of content *per se*. They should also engage in the teaching of strategies that will help their learners to develop

the ability to select and apply information in the solution to specific problems, particularly under constraints such as time or distracting stimuli (Bialystok, 1985; and Macdonald, 1990).

Kerfoot & Clifford (1992) also point out that even though there are many approaches in the teaching of ESL, none of these approaches developed independently. Common threads linking most of them suggest a very complex relationship between the language theories and the theories of learning on which all the approaches are based. In addition, the underpinning principle (i.e. basing ESL teaching on both language and learning theories) in ESL dates as far back as the pre-twentieth century innovations.

> Virtually every contemporary 'innovation' in language teaching seems to have an antecedent somewhere back in the 2,500-year of history of language pedagogy (Rutherford, 1987 in Clifford & Kerfoot, 1992:162).

This quotation means that all the present methods, strategies and language teaching packages are not completely new innovations. They are all coined on practices of the past. So, any investigation of the 'what', 'how' and 'why' of the teaching of ESL should be grounded on a theory which reflects the relationship between teaching/learning theories that give a glimpse into the past of how such theories came into being. For this reason I attend to the work following.

There are many approaches on which language teaching is based (Richards & Rodgers, 1986; and Clifford & Kerfoot, 1992). There is evidence that only two approaches have greatly influenced the ESL teaching scenario (Nunan [1978];

Widdowson [19]; Thompson [1991]; Makhobotloane [1992]; Richards & Rodgers [1986]; Ellis [1982]; and Van der Walt [1989]). The two approaches are:

(a) Formalist language based approaches

(i) Structural approach

(ii) Transformational approach

(iii) Situational approach

(b) Communicative language teaching

In discussions that advocate the communicative approach to language teaching, there is often reference to the formalist language based approaches. For example, in a study that Nunan (1987) carried out in which he investigates the communicativeness of ESL classes, he constantly refers to some aspects of the findings of the study which elaborate vividly the differences between teaching ESL "communicatively" and teaching "traditionally". The formalist approaches are often referred to as "traditional" i.e. stressing the teaching of grammatical forms (Clifford & Kerfoot, 1992), while the communicative language teaching is referred to as the new "orthodoxy" i.e. it recognises a need for a more communicative approach in ESL teaching which relies on a more active role of students (Thompson, 1991). I now turn to a discussion of the two approaches.

(a) Formalist language based approaches

Formalist language based approaches refers to language teaching in evidence earlier this century. Each of the three strands in formalist approaches perceives language

teaching in a manner different form the others. The first is the structural approach, the second the transformational approach, and the third the situational approach.

The structural approach is based on the theory that language has observable features which can be broken down in to smaller parts. Such an analysis of breaking down sentences into segments does not recognise that sentences that look similar can have different meaning, as the following sentences illustrate:

> He was killed by midnight. (by referring to time)
>
> He was killed by the enemy. (by referring to subject)
>
> (Bell, 1981 in Clifford & Kerfoot, 1992)

Teaching strategies recommended by structuralists predominantly feature oral techniques such as language pattern drills, chorusing and pronunciation drills, i.e. repetitive exercises on sentence structure, and pronunciation whereby the teacher says something and the learners repeat it *verbatim* after her until they know the structures by heart. There is generally no concern with how language expresses meaning but rather language is characterised "as habit formation, or the unconscious 'over-learning' of language forms through meaningless, mechanical repetition based on stimuli-response, imitation, and reinforcement" (Ibid. p.164). This lack of consideration for meaning and critical thinking is seen as the biggest flaw in this approach.

Due to several inadequacies associated with structural approaches, they were soon challenged by transformational-generative linguistics. The underpinning language

philosophy was based on a cognitive, mentalist theory with the following four key assumptions about the nature of language:

(i) language is a system which relates meanings to substance;

(ii) language is a mental phenomenon;

(iii) language is innate; and

(iv) language is universal (Bell, 1981 Ibid. p170).

Chomsky has played the paramount role in the inception of this approach. He introduced the concept of language acquisition device (LAD) in which he postulates that all human beings are endowed with the potential to acquire language. The approach recognises that successful learning of language can only come about if what is to be learned is meaningfully related to something that is already known.

Criticism has, however, been levelled against the transformational approach. Critics argue that Chomsky over-emphasised the language competence, i.e. "our innate ability to make rules about a language" and ignored the real-life situations in which language is used or performed (Clifford & Kerfoot, 1992:171). Even though weaknesses were identified in this approach, Chomsky's work still remains relevant today because he renewed interest in the human intellect and in learning as a cognitive activity, thereby discrediting behaviourism.

Following on the footsteps of transformationalists is the situational approach to language learning. The situational approach stresses the importance of the context of

language use and learners' needs in language learning so that language is often taught for relevant real-life situations such as "at the post office and shopping".

The situational approaches have been criticised for limiting the learners' ability to transfer learning strategies to other situations. This criticism has paved the way to a very popular approach which is known as "the communicative approach to second language learning-teaching" or "communicative language teaching".

(b) The communicative approach to language teaching

Communicative language teaching is regarded as the dominant theoretical model in English language teaching. According to Makhobotloane (1992:105) "the goal of the communicative approach in teaching is to help students to become communicatively competent, which involves being able to use the language appropriate to a given social context". The role of the teacher in this approach is that of facilitator while students are at the centre of the learning-teaching process engaging actively in the manipulation of the second language.

The approach has as its main concern the development of learners' communicative competence and meeting learners' communicative needs. It is based on the belief that "students need to understand and express rather than describe the core of language through the traditional concepts of grammar and vocabulary" (Richards & Rodgers, 1986).

Ellis (1982:73) on the other hand, argues that in trying to define the communicative approach, we should not ask "what is the communicative approach?" one should ask "In what way is X approach a communicative one?" This suggests that the term "communicative" is too all embracing, therefore, the strategies that a teacher uses in his lesson might be labelled a "communicative approach" (e.g. the situational approach) if the classroom tasks adhere to aspects of communicative language teaching i.e. learner-centred and the teacher acting as the facilitator.

As a result of on-going research in second language teaching, communicative language teaching is no longer opposed to formal grammatical input to enhance acquisition (Henning, 1991) and (Thompson, 1996). Rather "the focus has moved away from the teacher covering grammar to the learners discovering grammar" (Thompson, 1996:11). Only when the learners have discovered the grammatical forms can the discussion address those forms specifically with guidance from the teacher (Ibid.). Since literature on second language teaching indicates that the communicative approach is the orthodoxy on which strategies and techniques of language teaching should be based, one is compelled to explore why this approach is suited to ESL in the case of NNS.

The communicative approach to language teaching is suitable to ESL and NNS settings for several reasons. One of the most important is that it is learner-centred[4] since it places the learner at the centre of instruction and emphasises the

[4] Child-centred or, then, learner-centred education is defined as an approach in education whereby a learner is viewed as the central agent in the learning-teaching process. Therefore, she does not only receive from the master/teacher but discovers for herself and thinks critically about what she learns, thus in effect controlling the learning-teaching process.

communicative interaction in the classroom (Van der Walt, 1989:192). Van der Walt also states that in recent years education has become more learner-centred with the focus being placed on the learner's abilities and needs.

The learner is no longer viewed as a passive recipient in the classroom, but as an active person who can learn through self-activity and experience. To realise this aim of education, the communicative approach deliberately involves the learners in tasks and activities by focusing on the meaning things have for the learner. Moreover, the aim is for learners to use their natural abilities of interpretation, expression and negotiation. As a result, this approach transcends the teaching and learning of merely content, as it recognises the need for a more active and reflective role on the part of the learner (this is also the focus of Outcomes-Based Education) (The media in Education Trust, 1997).

The above review is meant as a general background to the issue under discussion. Each view on the learning-teaching process implies a particular role for the teacher. We have learned that in communicative language teaching the teacher acts as a facilitator. As the facilitator in the process to create conditions under which learning can take place but also an active teacher i.e. transmitter of knowledge who imparts, by a variety of means, knowledge to her learners (Wright, 1987:52). These two distinct roles of the teacher show a shift from a learner-centred to a teacher-centred stance in the learning-teaching process, with variations in between. Wright (1987) goes further to show that the two functions/roles of facilitator (enabling or management function) and that of transmitter of knowledge (instructor), compliment each other. The latter

would be more or less impossible without the former. Thus in the classroom the two functions cannot be separated, so the teacher has to perform both simultaneously. We now turn to other conceptions of the teacher's role which deals specifically with second language teaching.

3. THE TEACHER'S ROLE IN SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING

ESL teaching is based on theories derived from both Psychology and Linguistics (Richards & Rodgers, 1986; and Clifford & Kerfoot, 1992). The aim of these theories is to inform educators on how best to guide learners in:

(a) the acquisition of content (what) and form (how) of their learning tasks; and

(b) an extension of their existing store of language usage to encompass the unfamiliar language (Craig, 1996; and Rutherford 1987, in Kerfoot, 1992).

The extent to which teachers are successful in (a) and (b) will not only create successful learners but also fluent speakers of a second language learners who can thus think, read and write critically, through the medium of English, in this case.

Macdonald & Burroughs (1991:19) state that "the role the teacher adopts is one of the biggest drawbacks or one of the biggest headstarts experienced by learners". This means that the strategies that the teacher implements in the teaching of a second language, determine the extent to which learners will be able to express themselves in English. For example, if the teacher's way of teaching is only teacher-centred (or content based), it will deprive the learners of the opportunity to be reflective and critical in their learning experience; on the other hand if the teacher functions merely as

a facilitator, this might deprive learners of learning knowledge and skills needed for successful task completion.

The question to ask now is, what is the teacher's role in communicative language teaching? According to Van der Walt (1990:192), the teacher's role in communicative language teaching is multi-fold because

> he is regarded as a facilitator and manager of language learning and a number of demands are borne in mind when his role is considered. He remains accountable for his teaching and a number of variables need to be borne in mind when his role is considered. The teacher has to plan his work and he has to keep a record of what he has done.

The implication of the above quotation is that the success of any approach in teaching is determined by the teacher's choice of strategies. A strategy is defined as

> a pattern of acts that serve to attain certain outcomes and to guard against certain others. Among the general objectives toward which a strategy may be directed are the following: to ensure that certain learnings will be acquired in as brief a time as possible; to induce students to engage in an exchange of ideas; and to minimise wrong responses as the student attempts to learn concepts and principles (Smith & Meux, 1972:3).

Paivio (in Bialystok, 1985:255), on the other hand, defines strategies in language learning as "the skilful planning and management of language learning carried out by the learner or language teacher". Bialystok argues that as much as strategies are defined as "skilful planning of language learning", in language teaching and learning some of the strategies are applied without being conscious of doing so, or unintentionally on the part of either the teacher or the learner. This means that being conscious of the strategy underlying the learning-teaching process is not a criterion in the identification of either teaching or learning strategies. This can be explained by the fact that the teacher might have used a certain type of questioning or any other strategy unconsciously with the intention to develop certain skills in her learners.

While each teacher might have personal preferences, there are a number of strategies which are recommended in second language teaching/learning (this is discussed in section 4 below).

It is said that teaching is nothing more than showing someone that something is possible, and that learning is merely discovering that something is possible (Bassano, 1986). This means that in second language learning like in any other educational setting, learners have to act upon what they are taught in class and transform it. If learners have to take an active role in their learning, where does this place the teacher? First, the teacher's role is to provide active methods and strategies through which learners can reconstruct knowledge (Ginsburg, 1985). In addition, there is no one way to teach a language, there are rather many possibilities that can be explored. A model for containing, as it were, the exploration of possibilities is available in the work of

Vygotsky on mediation, i.e. the interposing of an adult between the child/ and the object/learning task to which I turn below.

In the process of transformation (i.e. learning), learners will make the language that was unfamiliar to them a familiar mode of communication. The transformation process is said to happen through various channels of mediation. Vygotsky (in Kozulin & Presseisen, 1995) suggests three major classes of mediators as catalysts to higher mental processes. These are material tools, psychological tools and other human beings. The three classes of mediators are equally important for enhancement of cognition. However, for purposes of this study, I propose to examine mediation through another individual more closely.

In this view, teachers are very important because they act as mediators in the process i.e. they act as human tools (cf. Kozulin & Presseisen [1995]; Haywood [1993]). Central to this is the concept of Mediated Learning Experience (MLE), which can be defined as

> a special quality of mediated interaction between the child and the environmental stimuli. The quality is achieved by the interposition of an initiated and intentional adult between the stimuli of the environment and the child. ...the ultimate goal of mediated learning is to make the child sensitive to learning through direct exposure to stimuli and to develop in the child prerequisites for such direct learning (Kozulin & Presseisen, 1995:69).

The teacher's role as a mediator in the case of language learning, involves interposing herself between the child and the new language. In other words, in ESL and NNS scenario the teacher mediates by facilitating the acquisition of ESL, as well as guiding learners in an extension of their store of language usage to encompass the unfamiliar language. Macdonald and Burroughs (1991:18) state that the teacher of ESL has "the additional task of introducing the children gradually to a second culture - a complex culture which expects people to know about things like computers, electricity, and other emerging technology".

Thus, the purpose of mediation in the teaching process should not only be to assist learners in the acquisition of the content of ESL, but in addition, to bring about cognitive change/modifiability which will itself help in the learning and acquisition of the new language. Krashen (1977) posits that in ESL teaching/learning, acquisition and learning happens differently. Acquisition arises as the result of processes of creative construction by the learner. It takes place naturally and is not influenced by the instruction. Learning on the other hand, is a conscious process that results from formal study and which is amenable to instruction. "MLE produces in the organism a propensity to learn how to learn, by equipping the organism with the tools necessary for this facility" (Feurstein, 1980:25). MLE therefore, has to be carried out in a systematic way i.e. according to certain principles as unpacked below.

Feurstein outlines the following principles for proper MLE (in Kozulin & Presseisen, 1995:70; and Haywood, 1993):

(i) **Intentionality and Reciprocity:** The major contribution of the mediating adult is to turn the interactive situation from incidental into intentional. This intentionality has two foci: one is the object (i.e. the learning task), and the other is the child (i.e. the child's own thinking). Some characteristics of the objects are "transformed" by the adult so that the object is experienced and not merely passively registered by the child. On the other hand, it is not the object *per se* but the child's cognitive processes that are the primary target of mediated interaction, and this, too, should be made clear to the child. In a learning situation, the child should realise that the real objective of the learning activity is not a particular task but her own thinking. With regard to the teaching of ESL, the lesson should show features of a planned activity. Things should not happen by coincidence. The teacher should be able to guide learners towards and against certain behaviours and/or goals. In other words, the OBE principles of encouraging critical thinking, reasoning and reflection on the part of students with the teacher acting as a facilitator who also motivates learners by constant feedback and affirmation should be adhered to (The Media in Education Trust, 1997).

(ii) **Transcendence:** In MLE the transcendent nature of learning is one of the most important features of what the mediator should consider. Whatever the specific subject of MLE interaction, it always includes identification of the underlying principle and its transfer to a wide range of other situations and tasks. Feurstein (1980:20) describes intentionality and transcendence as very important principles of MLE because "an interaction that provides mediated learning must include an intention, on the part of the mediator, to transcend the immediate needs or concerns of the recipient of the mediation by venturing beyond the there and now,

in space and time". In addition, whatever is taught should transcend/go beyond addressing the here and now i.e. current content. The teaching activities should be structured in such a way that they will demand of learners the application of strategies which are necessary in comprehension exercises such as prediction, inference etc.

(iii) Meaning: MLE becomes possible only when stimuli, events, or information are infused with meaning by the mediator. When mediation becomes a mere sequence of strange behavioural acts, devoid of purpose and affective investment, the situation loses its mediational potential. In the case of ESL, the teacher has the task of helping learners to find significance and understanding in the new language. Moreover, while the aim of the lesson/activities would be to teach learners how to communicate through the new language, that which they learn should go beyond the subject matter at hand. It should equip them with strategies that will make them **meta-learners**[5], learners who can deal with any situation that arises in the future. This is further elaborated by Slabbert (1992:439) who states that the concern of any educationist should be "on the attainment of competencies which will enable students to comprehend a continuously and rapidly changing world". This means that what is taught/learned should not have as its only foci the current content and structure of tasks and/or learning situations. It should prepare learners to take their place in the unknown future in terms of content, how it is taught and how that can help them deal with any other aspect of learning.

[5] When one applies this to Flavell's (1987) description of metacognition, meta-learners are learners who are aware about how they learn. They also learn not only for the particular subject, they apply what they are learning in all aspects of life.

(iv) **Mediation of a feeling of competence:** Children's feelings about their own competence as learners are extremely important. Mediators communicate this in two specific ways. The first is to reward appropriate responses, especially process-oriented responses, with acceptance, acknowledgement and praise. The second is to be certain that the children understand exactly what aspects of their behaviour were good and should be repeated. Thus, a mediator does not stop at saying "Good" when a child has done well, but might say something such as "Good, you made a plan, so now you know what to do as you go along". The ESL teacher should make the learners aware of what they can do and what it is they still have to do. In addition, they should be helped to discover their strengths and abilities in the new language. For example, in ESL learning-teaching, the teacher's choice of classroom activities should provide learners with opportunities to express themselves in English. During such activities, the teacher must point out to them how much their expression has improved in comparison to what they did previously, while, at the same time indicating to them the importance of communicating among themselves in English.

(v) **Shared participation:** Mediators convey the attitude that they and the learners are engaged in a shared quest for cognitive change in the learners. Each has an identifiable and separate role, but each is a participant and shares in a "We're in this together and you can count on me to do my part" manner. The interaction, then, is not one-way, and while it is directive it is neither authoritarian nor patronising. According to Feurstein, the process of teaching and learning is a shared activity. This implies that each of the involved parties, i.e. the teacher and learners, should be equally committed to making the learning-teaching process

successful. The communicative approach to language teaching has as one of its underlying principles the realisation that learners have to take a reflective and active role in the learning of the new language. Therefore, the teacher is there to show them it is possible for them to learn the new language while they have to discover, for themselves, that it is possible to communicate in the new language.

The above principles mean that the teacher has to analyse every teaching task and balance it with making it meaningful to her students. MLE further implies that the teacher acts as a bridge between the unfamiliar content and the mode of communication - ESL in this case - and the learners' ways of knowing, in particular, knowing how to know.

These five principles of proper MLE explicate, as it were, the interaction between the learner and teacher. In particular, these emphasise the role of the teacher in MLE. We now turn to an analysis of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD); the ZPD being the Vygotskian framework for MLE.

Wertsch (in Craig, 1985) unpacks the ZPD along three related notions, *viz* "situation definition", "intersubjectivity", and "semiotic mediation". Following is the discussion of each of these.

(i) Situation definition: A situation definition refers to the way in which a setting or context is represented, that is, defined by those operating in the setting (ibid. p.81).

Contained in this notion is the belief that people in the process of mediation "actively create a definition of the situation and are not merely passive recipients of another's representation of the situation" (ibid). This means that the gap between what the learner knows and that which she has the potential to know, the new language in this case, can only be closed if she contributes actively in the learning-teaching process.

Task analysis is suggested in order to provide an account of steps which are involved in the mediation activity. In other words, this would mean that a clear analysis of the goals, as well as the processes which are involved in the execution of a task, should be laid down before-hand. In second language learning-teaching, for example, the teacher should have a clear account - beforehand - of what is involved for both herself and the learners, in a reading comprehension exercise, for example.

It is further suggested that the task analysis should take into account a third (and changing) definition of the situation which represents a definition based on a compromise between the mediator and the learner. "In other words, the adult attempts to guide the child toward a definition of the situation which parallels that of the adult" (Frawley & Lantolf, 1985:21). Consequently, a 'situation definition' is reached when "the child gives up his/her situation definition in favour of a qualitatively new one" (Craig, 1985:81). ZPD will then be created when the situation has been redefined through communication between the child and the adult.

(ii) Intersubjectivity: Craig states that communication between the mediator and the organism revolves around intersubjectivity. Wertsch defines intersubjectivity as follows:

> We can say that intersubjectivity exists between two interlocutors in a task setting when they share the same situation definition. At one extreme it can consist of no more that agreement on the location of concrete objects in a communication setting. At the other extreme, nearly complete intersubjectivity exists when two interlocutors represent objects in identical ways (Wertsch, in Craig, 1985:82).

This means that for the teacher and the learner to share the same situation definition, they should first have some basis for agreement (and disagreement), which is referred to as "a negotiated intersubjectivity". This involves on the one hand the teacher explaining and/or representing the events in manner that will suit the learner's level of understanding by referring to familiar situations and circumstances in the learner's life. On the other hand, the learner first defines the situation from her/his perspective, and then through communication on the basis of what the teacher has said, and thus, they reach a 'negotiated intersubjectivity'.

In the case of ESL, the communication between the teacher and the learner, which involves reference to similar ideas, experiences and situations assist the learner to understand the new language differently, i.e. differently from the learner's spontaneous grasp.

(iii) Semiotic mediation: The third notion in ZPD, 'semiotic mediation', refers to what "the child understands in order to respond appropriately to an adult directive" (ibid. p.83). Seemingly semiotic mediation acts as a catalyst to intersubjectivity. In the case of ESL, talk between the teacher and learner creates a new understanding of the mechanics involved in learning the new language.

Even though the three notions have been separated in the discussion, they are interrelated since they stem from the communication between the teacher and the learner. Craig states that

> this communication is made possible by semiotic mediation and enables the establishment of intersubjectivity, and through negotiated intersubjectivity, a situation definition and redefinition. The situation definition, and possible redefinition, allows the child to establish knowledge about the world of objects and events within the form determined (at least in part) by the adult (Craig, 1985:84).

In this way, then, Wertsch allows us to understand the role of the teacher in the provision of proper MLE. This emphasis (on the teacher, and teaching for learning) is explicated further by Craig (1996).

She argues that in order to bring about education for all, i.e. also for those previously excluded from decent, or then, mainstream education, teachers should create conflict between what is known and unknown. She writes:

> in the absence of conflict (between what learners know and can do, and the task-demands/constraints, i.e. the content and

> cognitive operations required and the [epistemic] rules which define the task), knowledge and thinking remain static (p.47).

She points out that for educators to bring about cognitive change in their learners they should:

(a) elicit action to empower learners to overcome the unfamiliar;

(b) grasp occasions for learning though scaffolding between learner and task; and

(c) teach through acknowledging and manipulating the gap between what a learner knows and does spontaneously, and that which demands new operations.

These three conditions for learning mean that, in general, teachers should learn to teach from the learners' actual level of development to their level of potential development. They should also recognise the importance of presenting the learning material at a level which is in advance of the learners' immediate grasp. In addition, teachers should neither "overteach" nor "underteach" but allow learners to be involved in the learning-teaching process. Moreover, this negotiated intersubjectivity crucially involves both content and metacognitive instruction[6] .

The question now is, besides providing MLE, what else can teachers do to help their learners learn and acquire the new language? This is what I turn to below.

There is evidence that what second language learners know about their learning can influence the process as well as the outcome of their learning (Goh, 1997). This relates

[6] Westwood (1993:30) defines metacognitive instruction as teaching that focusses the learner on techniques that require, her the learner to monitor the appropriateness of her responses and to weigh up whether or not a particular strategy needs to be applied in full, in part, or not at all in a given situation.

particularly to their perceptions about learning which will influence kind of learning strategies they use. Goh (1997) goes further to show that if teachers take into consideration learners' awareness and perceptions, this can give them a better picture of the cognitive complexities that differentiate good and poor learners. This awareness of mental processes are referred to as 'metacognitive awareness' (i.e. knowing about one's knowing), and this is said to be deficient in some learners, thus resulting in learning problems.

The deficiency of metacognitive awareness will prevent learning unless acknowledged by the teacher. Therefore, learners should be encouraged to track 'how they know' in order to assist learning generally. In the teaching of particular content, not only for "here and now" the language teacher should also teach learners metacognitive skills. What makes metacognitive skills important in learning and teaching is unpacked below. Flavell (1987:104) defines metacognition as

> any knowledge or cognitive activity that takes as its object, or regulates, any aspect of any cognitive enterprise. It is called metacognition because its core meaning is "cognition about cognition". Metacognitive skills are believed to play an important role in many types of cognitive activity, including oral communication of information, oral persuasion, perception, attention, memory, problem solving, social cognition and various forms of self-instruction and self-control.

Flavell further states that every person has metacognitive knowledge about how they learn which includes knowledge about persons, tasks and strategies.

The "person knowledge" category includes knowledge and beliefs one might have about universal cognitive differences within people, differences between people as well as similarities among all people. The "task" category refers to the nature of information and the nature of the task. The "strategies" category refers to means or ways that are likely to succeed in achieving the cognitive goals concerned, for example, comprehending, remembering and solving problems. Learners' metacognitive knowledge concerns combinations of, or interactions among two or three of these three categories of knowledge.

Wenden (in Goh, 1997) and Matsumoto (1996) have applied Flavell's typology to language learning and identified the same kinds of metacognitive knowledge among language learners. In language learning, person knowledge comprises knowledge learners have about how learning takes place and how different factors such as age, aptitude, and learning styles can influence language learning. Included in person knowledge is what learners know about themselves as learners and what they believe could lead to their failure or success in learning a language. For example, in a reading comprehension exercise each learner can have her own way of approaching tasks. Examples are reconstructing meaning from words read, stopping and searching for meanings of words, and translating words into the learners first language.

In the case of ESL, task knowledge refers to what learners know about the purpose, demands and nature of the learning task. Included in task knowledge is their knowledge of the procedures that constitute the tasks e.g. how to answer questions

such as "what?", "who?", and "why?", and unfamiliar vocabulary that students have to attend to.

Strategies knowledge refers to what ESL learners know about strategies that can assist them in engaging tasks. In particular it is knowing about which strategies are likely to be more effective in achieving goals. Strategies knowledge includes an understanding of how best to approach language learning. For example, in reading comprehension, they need to be aware of learning strategies they can use for developing comprehension skills. According to Adams, Carnine and Gersten (in Macdonald, 1990: 113) examples of such a comprehension strategy are to:

1. preview the passage by reading the headings and subheadings;
2. recite the first subheading;
3. ask oneself questions about what might be important to learn;
4. read to find the important details;
5. read the subheading, reciting important details; and
6. rehearse (as a final review and check of task readiness).

Macdonald warns that the example of strategies that has been included above could be very effective but ESL learners, even those at tertiary level might have difficulty applying such strategies. This is where the teacher's input proves vital.

Evidence from different authorities attests that metacognitive skills as embedded in different views of metacognitive knowledge are imperative in any learning situation (Matsumoto, 1996; Westwood, 1994; and Macdonald, 1990). So, metacognitive instruction should be included in any teaching task(s) as it is every teacher's

responsibility to help learners become more autonomous so that they can become independent, reasoning and critical learners.

Many learners want to exert control over their development in the learning situation. However, most of them lack adequate knowledge about how they can learn more effectively (Goh, 1997). For purposes of catering for individual differences, incorporating metacognitive education in content teaching is the obvious way to go for all teachers if successful learning-teaching is to be achieved.

Goh (1997); Matsumoto (1996); Wenden (1991); and Macdonald (1990) believe that leanrers' cognitive awareness can be enhanced. Encouraging learners to do retrospective self-reports through, for example, diary-keeping and group discussions could be one of the ways of enhancing metacognitive skills. Goh (1997) states that a diary reflects the right stimulus for learners to reflect on their learning and consider ways of improving their skills.

The teacher's input, by way of devoting special time and effort for learners to think about and discuss learning strategies needed for different tasks such as reading, listening, speaking and writing, is also vital. They can have group discussions about learning which can expose them to other learners' beliefs, strategies and attitudes. In this way, they can evaluate and improve their own learning strategies. Westwood (1993:31) states that "a variety of intellectual tasks can be more easily accomplished if students use metacognitive skills and are provided with instruction in how to do so".

The ideas from Goh (1997); Craig (1996); Kozulin & Preisseisen (1995); Haywood (1993); Slabbert (1992); Feurstein (1992); Macdonald (1990); and Flavell (1987) all point towards important implications in education, especially in second language teaching-learning as the main focus of this study. Of particular note are:

- That educators should apply a more conscious, deliberate effort to make the learning-teaching process a meaningful journey which transcends the "here and now" of the classroom content and reaches into the unknown future both in terms of content and form of life's tasks in general.
- Teachers should regard themselves as researchers like all other professional people. They must develop the spirit of enquiry which will assist them in the understanding of the relationship between theory and practice.
- Teaching strategies used in ESL should enhance learning in terms of both the acquisition and learning of content and communicative competence; and, in addition; aim at assisting learners to become critically aware of the way they learn (i.e. their metacognitive knowledge).

In the foregoing, we examined various principles and/or guidelines for the teacher's role in the communicative approach to language teaching. In the next section I will describe some of the teaching strategies which are prevalent and/or recommended specifically for second language teaching.

4. STRATEGIES USED IN SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING

In this section I examine the strategies as recommended for ESL purposes i.e. what a particular strategy is, how it can be used and its usefulness/efficiency for teaching English as a second language. In particular, we will examine the following strategies: codeswitching; drama; co-operative learning; stress, intonation and pronunciation; and elicitation and positive feedback.

(i) Codeswitching: Codeswitching is a strategy that is used by teachers of English who are themselves NNS (Kgomoeswana [1993]; Faleni [1993]; Zulu [1995]; Walters [1996]; and Eldridge [1996]). Hoffman (in Zulu 1995:105) defines codeswitching as follows:

> The most general description of codeswitching is that it involves the alternate use of two or more languages or linguistic varieties within the same utterance or during the same conversation. In case of bilinguals speaking to each other switching can consist of changing language. In that of monolinguals, shifts in style.

There has been a lot debate on the efficiency of codeswitching in ESL learning and teaching (Zulu, 1995). One view is that it helps in clarifying difficult English concepts in multicultural classrooms (Walters, 1996). However, Zulu (1995) believes that while there are English words which do not have equivalencies in African language, the use of codeswitching can easily get out of hand in circumstances of English being taught by NNS. The use of codeswitching for purely translation purposes is regarded as

different from communicative approach to second language teaching since it does not grant students the opportunity to express themselves in the new language.

Some authors believe, however, that codeswitching is used by teachers with language incompetencies (Kgomoeswana in Zulu, 1995:107). That is ESL teachers who are not proficient in English language use codeswitching to hide their incompetencies. This clearly supports the point made earlier by Thembela (in David, Lazarus & Lolwana) with regard to NNS teachers struggling to express themselves in English and, therefore, struggling to teach it. The same point is further supported by teachers who participated in studies by Hibbert (1994); and Walters (1996). In Hibbert (1994:35) two teachers say:

- Some of the teachers are afraid of talking English. They feel uncomfortable because they don't want to be laughed at as well as making mistakes.
- I have problems because I struggle myself to express in English what I want to do or say.

Cummins & Swain (1986) are of the view that the use of a first language in the ESL classroom would facilitate the transition to English as well as enhancing cognitive and learning skills. This is said to be the case where both learners as well as teachers are not fully competent in the use of English. While Cummins and Swain make seemingly helpful generalisations in terms of NNS, the usefulness of codeswitching as a teaching/learning strategy has not yet been established in South Africa and similar contexts.

The strategy might pose more harm than good in the South African context because in most cases a teacher might have a class which consists of learners who come from different language backgrounds (Walters [1996]; and Zulu [1995]). Therefore, Zulu (1995) points out that while some teachers might continue using this strategy, it should be practised with caution in the South African context. Eldrige (1996) also states that codeswitching is a strategy that yields short term benefits to the second language learner, but with a risk of hampering long-term acquisition of the new language.

(ii) Drama: Drama is another strategy that is recommended for use in ESL settings. Greyvenstein (1990:13) defines drama as

> action and interaction, a process through which children are involved in an experience that leads to an expression of sincere feeling and an understanding of meaning. It is not the acting of short scenes/incidents in small groups for the general enjoyment and merriment of the rest of the class, the teacher must have an objective in mind which may be most effectively achieved through the use of drama.

There are many instances in literature where drama is documented as an effective strategy for teaching and learning ESL (Davies [1991 & 1992]; Henning [1991]; Dyers [1995]; Greyvenstein [1990]; and Singh [1992]). Dyers (1995) states that drama in education means learning by doing. It uses the same tools used by actors in

the theatre. In particular, it uses improvisation, group dynamic activities, movement and mime and speech. Unlike in theatre where everything is contrived for the benefit of the audience, in classroom drama, everything is produced for the benefit of the learners. For example, in cases where the teacher might want learners to dramatise a scene from *Macbeth* or *The Gods Are Not To Blame* in class, such dramatisation would not be for the benefit of the outside world. It would entertain the whole class but most importantly it would bring learners in touch with the characters they are acting, therefore providing them with a deeper understanding of the story.

There are many teaching and learning benefits which can be derived from using drama in a learning environment. One of them is that it directs attention away from the teacher and places the learner at the centre of the learning-teaching process (Dyers [1995]; and Faulkner [1987]). Dyers (1995:150) goes on to show that teachers who use drama in their teaching

> are not imparting knowledge in a 'final' sort of way, which pupils will then employ in the examination, but are helping their pupils to discover things for themselves through active participation and involvement in the learning process. Such pupils are also likely to become more independent of their teacher, exhausting all channels of knowledge available to them first before consulting the teacher.

In the case of ESL and NNS, using drama is an obvious way to go because it allows students to express themselves. Secondly drama shifts the focus from the teacher to

the learners, which is one of the principles of communicative language teaching that is recommended in ESL teaching. As a result, the teacher acts as the facilitator in the learning-teaching process where drama is used as a teaching strategy.

Drama is a strategy that can be used in the teaching and/or learning of any subject. In the case of ESL, it has been shown that drama encourages the operation of certain psychological factors in the participant which improve communication (Stern, in Dyers, 1995:150). These are listed below:

- heightened self-esteem: learners are more confident, and actually feel better about themselves;
- motivation: there is greater eagerness to succeed at the target language;
- spontaneity: learners enjoy the learning process because drama is fun;
- increased capacity for empathy: they get on better with the other learners and are more sensitive about other people's feelings and cultures; and
- lowered sensitivity to rejection: they are able to cope better when they make mistakes or are not understood by other.

In second language teaching, drama is also seen as a way of teaching which is consistent with the underpinning principle of the communicative approach, i.e. learner-centred.

(iii) Co-operative learning: Another strategy that is recommended for use in multicultural contexts is co-operative learning (CL) which is usually referred to as 'group work' by teachers. Slabbert (1992:439) states that "people unfamiliar with co-

operative learning often mistake it for group work". There is more in co-operative learning than mere group work because "it involves more than just putting students together in small groups and giving them a task. It also involves careful attention and thought to various aspects of the group process" (Davidson, in Slabbert 1992:439). The aspects related to CL (to be discussed below) are positive interdependence, individual accountability, promotive face-to-face interaction, co-operative skills, group processing evaluation, and group size. It is, therefore, imperative for teachers to familiarise themselves with all the principles and essentialities of CL before using it in their classrooms.

De Villiers & Grobbler (1995:126); Slabbert (1992:439); and Brombacher (1994:1) identify six essential elements of a co-operative learning setting:

(i) **Positive interdependence:** This is the heart of co-operative learning, as pupils are given tasks and a goal that means they are interdependent on each other for success, task completion and for goal achievement. i.e. the group "sink or swim together". For example, in the case of a group coming together to dramatise an episode from text, since each member will have a role that s/he has to play, the success or failure of their group will depend on how much each is prepared to give to the task.

(ii) **Individual accountability:** This is a two tiered system where there is group accountability for achieving group goals, as well as individual accountability where each member is responsible for contributing his/her share of the group. For example, if the group has been assigned the task of discussing various superstitions in their culture, each member should contribute a point about what s/he knows.

(iii) **Promotive face-to-face interaction:** This refers to opportunities to share resources, and to help and encourage each other's efforts to learn. For example, working in the group will make it easier for other members to spot who does not understand the task at hand. Therefore, others can explain and encourage those who do not understand.

(iv) **Co-operative skills:** Students must learn and frequently use required interpersonal and small group skills such as leadership, decision making, trust building, communication, respect, conflict management, recognition, etc. For example, they can decide who is going to be the secretary of the group, spokesperson, and so on.

(v) **Group processing evaluation:** It refers to a periodic and regular evaluation to decide which group functions should be undertaken by describing which member actions are helpful and which behaviour should continue. For example, since they will have delegated duties, the group leader can lead the discussion about what was done well or badly during the discussion so that they can know exactly what they can do better in the future.

(vi)**Group size:** Two to five members with the optimum at four, depending on the type of tasks and method of co-operative learning is the recommended number. For example, if the groups are dramatising an episode in the novel, the number of members should tally with that of characters who are involved in that particular episode.

Slabbert (1992:441) also points out that "in multicultural settings we are confronted with problems such as low self-esteem, poor language proficiency and prejudice"

which inhibit learning quality. Since the underpinning philosophy in co-operative learning is learning, sharing and assisting one another, barriers such as these, which affect learning could disappear through the effective use of co-operative learning techniques.

Co-operative learning is also seen as a good strategy because it induces learners "to become effective, independent, life-long learners who take responsibility for and exert control over their own learning" (Slabbert, 1992:439). Consequently, such learners become meta-learners who "are able to plan, execute, and continuously evaluate the process of his/her own learning" (ibid). The teacher's role is that of facilitator while learners are actively involved in the process by incorporating the six principles outlined above (Brombacher, 1994).

(iv) Stress, intonation and pronunciation: Paying particular attention to stress, intonation and pronunciation is another useful strategy in the teaching of ESL. Arnold and Varty (1981:2-3) define stress and intonation as follows: "...stress is emphasis laid on certain words in a sentence or on certain syllables in a word. Intonation is the change of tone or pitch; the rising or lowering of the voice when speaking. Stress and intonation together are generally referred to as expression".

Stress and intonation are useful strategies in second language learning-teaching because they add meaning to what the speaker is saying. They also make what is being said more interesting, consequently prompting the learner/listener to pay more attention to what is being said, in the process, learning and acquiring the second

language more effectively. The way the teacher pronounces words is regarded as the most important example of any pronunciation exercises that learners might be put through. Therefore, "the teacher should make certain that his or her pronunciation, stress and intonation are as near as possible to that of a speaker to whom the language is a home language" (Arnold & Varty, 1981:4). This is obviously a problem in cases of NNS because English spoken in ESL contexts is often not of the standard form (Pride, 1979).

It has been shown by Wong (1989) that misplacing stress affects the perception of words. The implication is that NNS speakers, particularly students, might be at a higher risk for not only perceiving words wrongly but also copying the wrong pronunciation from the teacher.

(v) Elicitation

This refers to the teacher's use of 'close questioning' in order to bring previously acquired knowledge to the surface (Wright, 1987). The teacher uses this strategy "either to clarify that knowledge or get learners to say or do something with the knowledge as a prelude to embarking on new knowledge" (ibid. p.70). Doff, Jones & Mitchell (in Wright, 1987:70) state that

> Instead of just 'presenting' the language to the students (e.g. by telling them or writing it on the board), the teacher elicits the relevant information from the students by asking questions. The presentation material may take the form of examples, a listening dialogue or reading passage, or even pictures, and the teacher uses this and his own questions to

establish the teaching point or to introduce new items of language.

In the case of NNS teaching ESL, elicitation is obviously a helpful strategy since the presentation material provides them with a reliable starting pointing. However, the extent to which the teacher uses elicitation greatly impacts either negatively or positively on other issues in communicative language teaching such as meaningful communication versus sentence drills.

Thornby (1996); and Nunan (1987) argue that elicitation is not an effective teaching strategy in the communicative approach. Some teachers rely so heavily on this strategy that their lessons end up resembling traditional patterns of classroom interaction rather than meaningful interaction. In the example below, note how devoid of the attributes of fluid 'communicativeness' the conversation between the teacher and learners is

> Teacher: The question will be on different...? what? Different...?
>
> Students: Talks.
>
> Teacher: Tasks, what?
>
> Students: Subject.
>
> Teacher: Different sub...?
>
> Students: Subjects. Subjects.
>
> Teacher: Subjects, subjects, thank you, right, yes (Nunan,1987:137-138)

The results of Nunan's study showed that in ESL classes, where teachers use elicitation, the most commonly occurring pattern of interaction was identical with the basic exchange structure found in mother-tongue classes and adult English, as a

Foreign Language (EFL), classes, as in the example above. The structure consists of the following turns:

Teacher initiation->Learner response->Teacher follow-up.

As a result, drilling is still practised, albeit unintentionally, in lessons where the teacher decides who should say what and also when it should be said. While there is nothing wrong with elicitation, it is necessary to use it moderately in order to avoid passive learning.

(vi) Positive feedback

Making learners feel that they are competent is a strategy which is regarded as an absolute necessity in general educational activities. Haywood (1993) states that in the mediation process, it is essential for teachers to reward appropriate responses with acceptance, acknowledgement and praise. Therefore, teachers should always encourage and motivate their learners by not only praising them when they have given correct responses but also pointing out to them that what they did was the right way of doing it.

In the case of second language learning-teaching, one would expect the teacher to praise the learners for any achievements they make in terms of the aspects of communication namely speaking, writing, reading and listening in the new language. This will lead to a heightened sense of self-esteem which again plays an important role in learning.

In this chapter, I examined the following:

- The approaches used in second language teaching.
- The teacher's role as mediator in the language situation.
- The commonly used strategies in the teaching of ESL.

In conclusion, we have seen that the conception of the teacher's role in ESL and NNS settings is multi-fold. The teacher is expected to function as: a facilitator (i.e. the enabling factor); teacher of content (i.e. the instructor); modeller of form (i.e. teaching how to learn); and guide, role model and mediator. These are different conceptions which may very well come into conflict from time to time.

Each language and learning theory demands and assumes a very specific role for the teacher. The one emphasised in this review is that of mediator and knowledge transmitter. The former suggests that the teacher enables learning to take place by interposing between the object and the child/learner; while fulfilling the role of mediator; this role, however, is empty without the teacher as transmitter of knowledge.

In the process of acting as a mediating factor, the teacher fulfils whatever function is expected of her. For example, explicitly modelling to students the forms of the new language while at the same time managing the learning-process by encouraging active involvement of learners as well as facilitating group and individual processes in the classroom. In addition, scaffolding learning tasks for her learners, involves her in task analysis in order to plan and structure the goals and process of learning-teaching.

In the next chapter, our aim is to present the methodology for this study.

CHAPTER THREE

METHOD

1. INTRODUCTION

According to Mouton (1996:146) "the quality of research findings is directly dependent on the methodological procedures followed in the study. For this reason, researchers should provide a complete account of the way in which their research has been planned, structured and executed".

In the discussion that follows, a clear and detailed account of how this study was conducted is given. The discussion has been based on what Mouton (1996:69) calls the 'PEC framework', that is the problem the study is investigating [P], the method of data collection that is used for addressing the problem and thus the evidence produced [E]; and the conclusions [C] legitimised by the evidence regarding the phenomenon under investigation.

(a) The Problem

In this study we are concerned with teaching strategies of teachers of English as a second language. The teachers are non-native speakers of English who teach learners who are also non-native speakers of English. This is worth investigating because it is assumed by some people that where NNS teach English as a second language, many disadvantages could ensue. In particular, it is feared that there is no easy flow of language between the teacher and the learners which could bring about effective

learning. As a result, the learning-teaching process can become passive and instrumental (Thembela, 1986 in Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 1997).

Thembela's observations are important but, as is, they remain a problem because we do not know what really happens in the NNS/ESL scenario. Given the observations made by Thembela, I pose the questions:

(i) How far are the strategies teachers use consistent with the strategies and approaches which have been researched and found to be suitable in ESL settings?

(ii) What are the actual strategies employed by teachers of English - where both teacher and learner are non-native speakers of English?

(b) Evidence

The following data is required to answer the two questions posed above: as regards, what teachers are doing, data must be produced on the learning-teaching process. Towards this end I have done classroom observations which were recorded on videotapes. The videodata gives me discernible evidence regarding what occurs during the learning-teaching process that involves NNS teachers and learners.

Second, literature on the question of English as a second language has been examined. In particular, three factors are discussed at length. These are: a) the teacher's role as a mediator in the learning-teaching process; b) the important principles underpinning the process of mediation; and c) the approaches and strategies which are recommended for non-native speakers in the learning and teaching of ESL.

(c) Conclusion

The data or, then, evidence will guide us into making conclusions about what the three teachers do and if it is effective in view of the literature. To this end, the data goes through a process of analysis that involves "a continuous critical discussion of theory against data against theory" (Craig, 1988:98). The process of the analysis of data affords us the opportunity to make informed conclusions regarding Thembela's observations.

Given the scope of the present project (a research project towards the degree M.Ed), and the nature of the investigation, i.e. an exploratory study, the following conclusion are sought:

- a clear articulation of the problem regarding the NNS/ESL scenario; and
- direction for further research, i.e. which questions to ask and pursue through further empirical research.

The data gathered and the kind of study undertaken, do not lend support to definitive conclusion as far as Thembela's questions go; merely directives for more focused questions. This is not regarded as a short-coming of the present project, rather a necessary first step in gaining clarity on the problem under investigation.

2. METHOD

(a) Introductory comments

This study sets out to explore the teaching strategies of NNS teachers. The questions posed, and the problem under investigation warrant a method that will allow the

researcher access into that which transpires during the learning-teaching process. For this reason, classroom observations were decided on.

Selinger & Shohamy (1989:162) state that "the main use of observations is for examining a phenomenon or a behaviour while it is going on". In second language research, in particular, the writers state that observations are often used to study language learning and teaching processes in the classroom, and to study teachers' and students' behaviours.

The method of observation used involves recording the classroom observations on videotape. According to Craig (1988:96),

> Whereas the casual observer must rely on memory if those actions which have already occurred, need to be recalled, the analyst with recourse to actions recorded on video, can replay, and check, and stop and start the tape countless times. The videotape, therefore, affords one the opportunity to 'reverse' time so that actions separated in time or not occurring chronologically may be compared with one another.

The videotape is therefore considered as a method of recording data for further observation and analysis. As a record, the videotape can indeed provide the researcher with countless opportunities for viewing the learning and teaching process in order to make informed decisions about the teaching strategies involved in the teaching of NNS/ESL case.

The study is conducted in two previously Department of Education [DET], secondary schools in the Cape Town area. Xhosa is a first language to the majority of learners and teachers, with English being taught, studied and used as a second or third language. Consequently, the teachers and learners meet the NNS criteria (cf. p11).

We now turn to a discussion of the participants who have contributed to this research.

(b) Subjects

Since the study sets out to explore classroom processes, the subjects involved are teachers and learners. In particular, both parties are non-native speakers (NNS) who teach and learn English as a second language (ESL), respectively.

Three teachers and their ESL classes participate in this research, here referred to as Teacher 1, Teacher 2 and Teacher 3. One of the teachers teaches standard seven [Teacher 1 in School A] while the other two teach standard eight [Teacher 2 and Teacher 3 in School B].

(c) Procedure

(i) Gaining Access into schools

I had previously done a small scale B. Ed project at School B. The B.Ed project was an investigation into the intervention strategies used by teachers to cater for special needs in their classrooms. It was therefore easy for me to request teachers at this school to take part in the new project. With regard to School A, I asked one of the

teachers who had been my colleague in the B.Ed programme to arrange access on my behalf.

I had to communicate with the three teachers regarding their timetables and arrange the times that would suit them for the video-recording of their lessons. The videotape recordings of each lesson were taken during normal school hours. To put teachers at ease, it was explained beforehand that the recordings were not going to be used for supervisory purposes but for research purposes by the author. Each of the three teachers was also asked to explain the situation to the learners beforehand.

(ii) The recording of the lessons

I had initially planned to do the recordings myself. However, due to unforeseen technical problems I could not use the camera on my own. I arranged with the teachers to allow the camera-man to place his equipment at a point from which he could record all the learning-teaching transactions. The camera-man found the left-hand corner at the back of each classroom the most favourable point from which to do the recordings. From this position, he could include all the learners as well as the teacher.

While the lesson was in progress, I sat at the back of the classroom making written observations about general classroom procedures (cf. Appendix C for qualitative comments about each lesson).

Teacher 1 was using an extract from a prescribed novel. His main emphasis was on teaching learners new vocabulary. Either the teacher or the learners would read.

Reading was stopped every time a new word emerged to find if (i) they understood the contextual meaning; and (ii) if they could relate it to their own world.

In the class of Teacher 2 the lesson was based on a poem. The teacher and the learners read the poem aloud; after which the teacher asked questions pertaining to different words in the poem. The class was also divided into groups for discussion and dramatisation of different themes in the poem.

The class of Teacher 3 on the other hand dealt with an extract from a prescribed novel. The aim of the lesson was to teach learners how to answer different questions. In particular, they had to pay attention to key words like "what"; "why"; "who" and "when".

(d) Tools

Fanselow (in Allwright, 1988:144) states that there are five characteristics of communication in educational settings. These are (i) who communicates; (ii) what is the pedagogical purpose of communication?; (iii) what mediums are used to communicate content?; (iv) how are the mediums used to communicate areas of content?; and (v) what areas of content are communicated? Fanselow's five characteristics of communication were adapted and used in the design of the observation schedule for analysis of data (cf. Appendix A).

Following is the description of the basic components of the observation schedule. The observation schedule is based on the following four concerns.

1. What are the teacher and the learners doing or saying? This question addresses anything that the teacher and the learners are doing or saying during the lesson. For example, the teacher could be asking a question or reading from text while the learners could be sitting quietly listening to the teacher. The data collected under this category is termed teaching strategies [TS].
2. Why is the teacher doing what he[7] is doing? This question addresses what is seen as the reason(s), or the intentions behind every action of the teacher. For instance, if in relation to category 1 (Teaching strategies) the teacher asks the following question "What is superstition?" the researcher coded this as (i) part of the language focus category (coded as models vocabulary) in which the teacher wants to enrich the learners' vocabulary, and (ii) part of the process category (coded as teacher inquires about understanding) in which the teacher wants to inquire about learners' understanding. In particular, this question addresses the specific roles of the teacher and learners in the learning-teaching process (cf. Appendix B for coding categories).
3. Which aspects of language is the lesson addressing? This part of the observation schedule records the different language forms that occur in the lesson. Examples are (i) modelling vocabulary [VM], (ii) repeating vocabulary [VR].

(d) The analysis of data

The method of analysis of data to be described is based on the method of analysing human transactions recorded on videotape proposed by Craig (1988). The videodata analysis is carried out at two levels: the first involves what Craig (1985) calls

[7] As it turned out, all three teachers included were male.

"evaluation and quantification". In other words, this is (i) the evaluation of data in terms of particular categories (as outlined above), which then allows for quantification, i.e. referring to a number of instances a certain behaviour is recorded to have occurred given certain categories; and (ii) an elaboration of the main findings regarding both the teachers' and students' behaviours during the learning-teaching process (cf. Chapter Four). Following is the discussion of both levels of analysis.

According to Craig (1988) the process of analysing videodata is broken down into five primary steps or stages. The steps are (i) Viewing of tapes; (ii) Review of tapes; (iii) The production of the re-review of a compiled tape; (iv) Applying thick description, and (v) Providing an explanatory account. I have adapted Craig's method of videodata analysis to suit my purposes. I have proceeded as follows:

(i) construction of a preliminary observation schedule for the coding of actions recorded on videotape;

(ii) viewing of tapes to get an initial "feel" for the data;

(iii) an assessment of the observation schedule;

(iv) refinement of the observation schedule;

(v) review of tapes and engaging in evaluation and quantification of data as recorded

(vi) on videotape (appendix D);

(vii) grouping of categories (appendix B);

(viii) compilation of descriptive extracts (pp 80-128); and

(ix) observations regarding trends exposed by the exploration.

Craig (1988) emphasises that the process of analysis starts when the researcher has decided where to point the camera. In this case, the analysis starts with the decision that "I will point the camera at classroom interaction between the teacher and learners", as already outlined. Therefore, the successful implementation of each stage of analysis was largely dependent on how the recordings of each lesson were made. Following is a detailed description of what was involved in each of the eight stages of data analysis.

(i) The construction of the preliminary observation schedule

Before attempting the actual evaluation and quantification of data, the researcher used videodata of teaching practice lessons of two teachers to: a) test if the observation schedule would work in data analysis; and b) adapt the method of analysis proposed by Craig (1988). The lessons were twenty minutes respectively. In the initial observation schedule, I stopped the tape and asked "Who is doing what and why?" into large chunks. I realised that a slice of a few minutes was too big as it was not easy to recall every transaction. Then I decided to stop the tape after three seconds as recommended in Craig (1988). The three seconds interval was too short because I could not capture the complete utterings of both the teachers and the learners. As a result, the recordings were meaningless and incoherent. After these preanalysis activities, I decided to work on the actual data of this study.

Let us examine how the other stages of analysis have proceeded in this study.

(ii) Viewing of tapes

The viewing of tapes refers to the first stage in the analysis whereby the researcher plays the tapes with a specific aim in mind.

> The viewing involves working towards building an interpretative network or building a 'picture' of the data. Viewing the tape also enables the analysts to familiarise themselves with the data, to begin to ask questions about certain points of interest in the data... (Craig, 1988:97)

It is at this stage that the researcher views the tapes and asks herself "what are the learners and the teacher doing?" At this point, the intentions of the teacher and the learners are not only viewed in passing, but the researcher constructs "a reading of the actions in which the meaning of the actions for the analysts (in terms of their 'preunderstandings' and theoretical commitments), and their speculation about the intentions of the actors from an ordered mix" (p. 98).

I divided this stage into two phases. The first phase involved viewing the tapes with the sole objective of familiarising myself with the data. No written records of anything that transpired in the lesson were kept during this phase. Having acquainted myself with the data, I entered the second phase of viewing the tapes. Involved in the second phase of viewing the tapes was what Craig (1985) calls the coding of the actions and transactions recorded on video (cf. Appendix B for coding categories). It was during the second phase of the viewing of the tapes that I proceeded to an assessment of the observation schedule.

(iii) An assessment of the observation schedule

Craig (1988) states that the coding procedure involves stopping the tape after approximately three seconds. At the end of each interval, the actions of both the mediator (the teacher in this case) and the child (learner) are coded on the TLPL observation schedule (the TLPL acronym has been derived from the first four letters of the main categories; refer to Appendix A for the observation schedule). Even though three seconds is suggested as the ideal time for chunking data, the pre-analysis exercises described above proved that three seconds could not always work in this study. The teachers' meaningful utterings often took more that three seconds to unfold or show themselves. Therefore, in most cases the tape was allowed to run between three and eight seconds in order to capture the full meaning of the learning-teaching actions and transactions. The assessment of TLPL afforded me with many pieces of data, most of which similar characteristics. Therefore, I had to engage in the refinement process whereby pieces of information with similar characteristics were grouped together.

(iv) The refinement of the observation schedule

The assessment of TLPL led to the next stage referred to as the refinement of the observation observation tool. Craig (1988:98) terms this stage "a first reading of, or a first order imposition of meaning, on the data". It is called the first order imposition of meaning on the data because after going through each lesson, the data went through a process of refinement whereby I used what Maykut & Morehouse (1994:136) call the "feel/look alike" criteria. The authors define the "look/feel alike" criteria as a way of

describing the "emergent process of categorising qualitative data" (p.136). The refinement of data, concurrently obliged me to refine the observation schedule.

The refinement process involved grouping pieces of data which have the same characteristics together and giving them a new name, that is, a more appropriate propositional statement; one that conveys the meaning which is contained in the particular group of strategies. As a result, the data was grouped under four categories which are described below.

(v) Grouping of categories

Following the application of the look/feel alike analysis, I went through each piece of data which I had recorded on the observation schedule to regroup it under the appropriate category: a) teaching strategies; b) language focus; c) process; and d) learner responses. It was at this stage that I also used a defining statement to accompany the coding categories (cf. Appendix B). The defining statement, or what Maykut & Morehouse (1994) call a "propositional statement" conveys the meaning that is contained in each piece of data. The meanings helped me to arrive at the main subcategories regarding the teaching and learning of ESL by NNS.

(vi) Review of tapes

This stage is said to start when the analyst has "some preliminary 'answer to the question, "what do the data mean?" (p98). The researcher will have made a summary in mind through her "look/feel alike analysis" of the possible intentions of the teacher

and learners. The "summary in mind" is provided in the form of defining statements of the coding categories (cf. Appendix B).

(vii) Compilation of descriptive extracts

The selection of illustrative extracts is done "in order to illustrate crucial aspects of the summary-in-mind regarding the (possible) intentions behind actions, and the meaning which may be imposed on the actions". Hence the analyst does not stop for example at "the teacher asks cognitively challenging questions" but goes further than that by providing an illustrative extract from the tape to attest to this observation.

None of the illustrative extracts are regarded as being 'absolute certainty'. It is with this uncertainty that I proceed with "a continuous critical discussion of theory against data against theory, and so forth until a construction is achieved which represents the best possible solution or most likely suggestion about what the data mean" (Craig, 1988:98). This means that a constant interplay between data and theory is the fundamental element of this stage of the analysis.

(viii) Observations regarding trends

Craig (1988:96) describes the steps in the process of videodata analysis "as representing segments from a continuous spiral; the fifth or final stage of analysis 'meets' the first stage of analysis in some way but also transcends it". This is indeed the case in the analysis of data in this study. In the final stage of analysis, we view once again the raw data which unfolds in the viewing of the tapes. However, the task also goes beyond merely viewing the data as a more intense dialogue marks this stage of

analysis. It is at this stage that the analyst is expected to address the following questions (cf. pp 114-128) as it aims at providing some further description (in the cae of an exploratory study) of that which was observed, recorded and analysed.

In the next chapter, the findings of the study are presented. The presentation of each piece of data is accompanied by some elaboration of the most salient features of the results.

CHAPTER FOUR

THE RESULTS

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the findings of this study are presented. The presentation consists of (i) the results in a quantitative form referring to a number of times a certain behaviour is recorded to have happened; and (ii) the elaboration of the salient features of both the teachers' and learners' behaviour during the learning-teaching process.

The teachers have been labelled Teacher 1, Teacher 2, and Teacher 3. Two of the classes, for Teacher 2 and Teacher 3, are standard eight while Teacher 1 is in standard seven. The tables below show the basic data as per teacher strategies [TS], language focus [LF], process [P] and learner responses [LR].

The teaching strategies used by each of the three teachers are shown in Tables 1, 2, and 3. Presented in Table 4 are the total number of times each strategy is used by the three teachers while in Table 5 we have refined teaching strategies i.e. strategies with similar characterists which have been grouped together. The learner responses which each teacher elicits are shown in Tables 6 (a), (b) and (c). Tables 7 (a), (b) and (c) contain data about classroom processes, per lesson, and Tables 8 (a), (b) and (c) consist of data on instances of language focus as recorded per teacher.

What follows is the basic data per teaching strategies by each teacher. Note that in the tables that follow, the number of times different behaviours occur per class are not the

same for Teacher 1, Teacher 2 and Teacher 3. This is due to the amount of time each lesson took. In South Africa, a single lesson in the secondary school is officially awarded forty minutes, but the actual teaching in the above lessons was far below forty minutes. Teacher 1 used thirty-five minutes, Teacher 2's lesson was about twenty-eight minutes while Teacher 3's lesson took about twenty-two minutes.

Following are the strategies used by Teacher 1.

Teaching strategies (TS)	**Definition of teaching strategies**	**Number of instances recorded**
TS 1	Uses feelings	58
2	Refers to familiar experiences	8
3	Opposites	7
4	Refers to synonyms	3
5	Asks leading questions	12
6	Accepts approximations	44
7	Rejects approximations	2
8	Direct questioning	40
9	Direct instruction	12
12	Mimicking and gestures	39
13	Encourages thinking	9
14	Compares situations	2
15	Allows learners to struggle	1
18	Tells stories	4
19	Questions responses	4
23	Invites responses	13
25	Recaps	7
26	Reads	12
27	corrects reading	10
28	concludes lesson	12

TABLE 1 : Teaching strategies used by Teacher 1

Note that in Table 1, there is variation in the strategies Teacher 1 uses. He has used twenty of the total recorded strategies. Even though he seems to utilise TS1 (using

feelings) more than the other strategies, he also implements strategies 6, 8 and 12 at a high frequency.

Following are the strategies used by Teacher 2.

Teaching strategies TS)	Definition of strategies	Number of instances recorded
TS 2	Refers to familiar experiences	1
5	Asks leading questions	1
6	Accepts approximations	6
7	Rejects approximations	1
8	Direct questioning	7
9	Direct instruction	26
10	Uses codeswitching	15
11	Allows discussions	32
15	allows learners to struggle	2
17	Uses incomplete sentences	1
18	Tells stories	13
19	Questions responses	3
21	gives clues	1
22	Uses drama	61
23	invites responses	5
24	invites questions	1
25	recaps	0
26	reads	18
27	corrects reading	4
28	Concludes lesson	4

TABLE 2 : Teaching strategies used by teacher 2

In Table 2 above, it is clear that when compared to Teacher 1, Teacher 2 displays less inclination towards variety. He relies heavily on TS22 (asking learners to act some episodes from the poem) and the frequency with which he uses other strategies is not striking.

We turn now to teaching strategies used by Teacher 3.

Teaching strategies (TS)	Definition of teaching strategies	Number of instances recorded
TS 1	Uses feelings	5
2	Refers to familiar experiences	5
4	uses synonyms	2
6	Accepts approximations	8
7	Rejects approximations	3
8	Direct questioning	32
9	Direct instruction	20
11	Allows discussions	60
17	Uses incomplete sentences	19
19	Questions responses	3
20	Solicits chorus responses	17
21	gives clues	5
23	invites responses	6
25	recaps	8
26	reads	4
28	Concludes lesson	3

TABLE 3 : Teaching strategies used by Teacher 3

Note in the table above that Teacher 3 also relies heavily on one strategy (TS9). There is some attempt at variety because he also implements teaching strategies 8, 11, and 17 at a high frequency.

In Table 4 below is a comparison of instances per strategy by each teacher. Table 4 allows for a comparison of teaching strategies used by each of the three teachers. The comparison affords us the opportunity to assess the most prevalent strategies used by the three teachers.

		TEACHERS			
TS	**Definition of strategies**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**Total**
1	Uses feelings	58	0	5	63
2	Uses familiar experiences	8	1	5	14
3	Opposites	7	0	0	7
4	synonyms	3	0	2	5
5	Asks leading questions	12	1	0	13
6	Accepts approximations	44	6	8	58
7	Rejects approximations	2	1	3	6
8	Direct questioning	40	7	32	79
9	Direct instruction	1	26	43	70
10	Uses mother tongue/codeswitching	0	30	0	30
11	Allows discussions	0	21	31	52
12	Uses mimicking and gestures	39	0	2	41
13	Encourages thinking	9	0	0	9
14	Compares situations	11	0	0	11
15	Allows learners to struggle	1	2	0	3
16	Explains graphically	0	1	0	1
17	Uses incomplete sentences	0	1	20	21
18	Tells stories	4	13	0	17
19	Questions responses	3	3	3	9
20	Solicits chorus responses	0	0	17	17
21	Gives clues	21	1	5	27
22	Uses drama	0	61	0	61
23	Invites responses	13	5	6	24
24	Invites questions	0	1	0	1
25	Recaps	7	0	8	15
26	Reads	12	18	4	34
27	Corrects reading	10	4	0	14
28	Concludes lesson	5	4	3	11

TABLE 4 : A comparison of instances per strategy by each teacher

The most prominent feature of the results as contained in Tables 1 to 4 is that each teacher has a personal preference i.e. he relies more heavily on one strategy rather than other strategies he might have at his disposal. For instance, co-operative learning/group work (TS 11) is the most widely used strategy by Teacher 2 and

Teacher 3. They both use co-operative learning to engage their learners in discussions of what might have just been discussed in class or new tasks. Teacher 1, on the other hand, uses "feelings" (TS 1) and "gestures and mimicking" (TS 12) throughout the lesson to guide learners towards understanding meanings of new words.

Contained in the table that follows are data of the refined strategies from the total outcome of strategies used by the three teachers.

A group of Teaching strategies with similar characteristics	**New name/Propositional statement**
(i) TS2, TS3, TS4, TS5, TS8, TS9, TS14, TS17, TS18, TS20, TS21, TS23, and TS26	Elicitation
(ii) TS1 and TS12	Stress, Intonation and Pronunciation
(iii) TS10	Codeswitching
(iv) TS11	Co-operative learning
(v) TS22	Drama
(vi) TS6 and TS13	Motivation

TABLE 5 : Refined teaching strategies

We can deduce from the foregoing table that the most salient feature of the teaching strategies is elicitation (i.e. engaging learners in the learning-teaching process by asking them questions based on the material presented).

The three teachers spend most of the teaching time eliciting responses from their learners. They do not just present the material to the students by telling or writing it on the board, they specifically elicit responses from the students. The style of elicitation involves the reading of a passage, and some lecturing i.e. the direct teacher talk in

which the teacher introduces new items of language. After the presentation, the teacher asks a question which he clarifies by referring to familiar situations, asking for opposites and synonyms of the desired answer, comparing situations, etc.

In order to guide this level of analysis, Tables 6 (a), (b) and (c) are also provided. Contained in these tables is quantitative data regarding the following questions: (i) what are learners doing and saying with regard to the teacher's queries and presentation (learner responses)?

(a) Teacher 1

Learner response	**Instances recorded**
Class attends (CA)[7]	159
Class reacts (REA)	4
Class responds as a group/chorus response (CRG/CR)	1
Learner answers question (LAQ)	30
Learner struggles with English (LRSE)	15
Learner responds by demonstrating with hands, facial expressions etc (LRD)	5

TABLE 6 (a) : Learner responses recorded for the class of Teacher 1

We can gather from Table 6 (a) that Teacher 1 attempts to engage learners actively in the lesson by asking individual students to answer questions (LRQA). However, most of the time learners are sittings quietly listening to the teacher (CA).

Following, the data regarding learner responses in the class of Teacher 2.

[7] In brackets are the codes which were used for recording data during the viewing of the tapes.

(b) Teacher 2

Learner responses	Instances recorded
Class attends (CA)	133
Class reacts (CREA)	40
Class responds as a group/Chorus response (CRG/CR)	1
Learner answers questions (LAQ)	3
Learner repeats what teacher has just said for clarification (LRRC)	1
Class acts in groups (CAG)	61
Learner struggles with English (LRSE)	6

TABLE 6 (b) : Learner responses recorded for the class of Teacher 2

It should be noted that Teacher 2 involves the class in acting out some episodes of the subject matter (GA). The classroom proceedings are also characterised by a lot of silence from learners with the teacher doing most of the talking (CA).

We now view learner response data emerging from the class of Teacher 3.

(c) Teacher 3

Learner responses	Instances recorded
Class attends (CA)	124
Class reacts (REA)	11
Class responds as a group/chorus response (CRG)	35
Learner answers questions (LAQ)	8
Learner repeats what teacher has just said for clarification (LRTC)	1
Learner struggles with English (LRSE)	4

TABLE 6 (c) : Learner responses recorded for class of Teacher 3

From the data in Table 6(c) it can be noted that the class of Teacher 3, responds to questions as a group (SRG). Most of the responses Teacher 3 elicits from his class are either in monosyllables of 'yes' and 'no' or they complete the sentences that the teacher is already uttering (CRG).

The salient feature of Tables 6 (a), (b) and (c) is that most of the time the learners are sitting quietly listening to the teacher (LRCA). The learners only respond to teacher initiated queries as in learner answers question (LAQ); and class responds as a group (CRG). There is no indication from learner response data that learners initiate interaction in the three classes.

Classroom processes [P] is the third category which comprises data presentation. In Tables 7 (a), (b) and (c), sets of actions and operations, i.e. processes, that take place in each class are portrayed.

Following is data on processes from all the lessons. We start with Teacher 1.

(a) Teacher 1

Process	**Instances recorded**
Teacher inquires about understanding (TIU)	2
Teacher explains content (TEC)	2
Teacher writes on board (TWB)	6
Teacher engages metacognitively (TEM)	4
one student reads (SR)	20
Teacher varies turn-taking (TT)	50

TABLE 7 (a) : Instances of classroom processes for the class of Teacher 1

Teacher 1's class is highly characterised by turn-taking (TT) which results from the teacher asking questions and individual learners responding to such questions. Learners also engage in a reading exercise from which the questions are derived. In addition, the rest of the class attends silently to what the teacher is saying most of the time (CA).

We turn now to classroom processes per the class of Teacher 2.

(b) Teacher 2

Process	Instances recorded
Class discusses in groups (CDG)	11
Varies group acting (GA)	5
Teacher writes on the board (SDC)	10
Teacher engages metacognitively (TEM)	3
Varies turn taking (TT)	5
Student reads (SR)	12

TABLE 7 (b) : Instances of classroom processes for the class of Teacher 2

We learn from the foregoing table that Teacher 2 spends most of the learning-teaching time engaging the class in group discussions (CDG) which later on lead to dramatisation of the subject matter (GA).

Following is the process data as per the class of Teacher 3.

(c) Teacher 3

Process	Instances recorded
Teacher inquires about understanding (TIU)	11
Teacher explains content (TEC)	9
students discuss in groups (SDG)	31
Teacher engages metacognitively (TEM)	35
Varies turn-taking (TT)	7
Student reads (SR)	5

Table 7(c) : Instances of classrom processes for the class of Teacher 3

It is clear from the table above that Teacher 3 spends some time teaching learners strategies on how to learn (TEM). Similarly to Teacher 2, his class activities are mostly based on group discussions (SDG). He also consistently asks if his class understands what is going on (TIU).

We turn now to the last category of the results, the language focus category [LF]. Tables 8 (a), (b) and (c) show the aspects of language that each teacher deals with. Showing students how to do things with words, e.g. usage of words is the most prevalent feature of this category (G&UM).

We turn now to the presentation of language focus instances recorded per teacher. The first table refers to Teacher 1.

(a) Teacher 1

	Corrects		Models		Repeats
Vocabulary	(VC)	4	(VM)	124	(VR) 12
Grammar & Usage	(G&UC)	6	(G&UM)	130	(G&UR) 6
Content	(CC)	0	(CM)	120	(CR) 51
Pronunciation	(PC)	7	(PM)	122	(PR) 2

TABLE 8 (a) : Language focus instances recorded for the class of Teacher 1

We learn from table 8 (a) that Teacher 1 spends most of the time repeating content from either text or the learners' responses.

Following is data from Teacher 2's class.

(b) Teacher 2

	Corrects		Models		Repeats
Vocabulary	(VC)	2	(VM)	120	(VR) 2
Grammar & Usage	(G&UC)	4	(G&UM)	90	(G&UR) 4
Content	(CC)	0	(CM)	97	(CR) 20
Pronunciation	(PC)	3	(PM)	10	(PR) 5

TABLE 8 (b) : Language focus isntances recorded for the class of Teacher 2

What unfolds from the table above is that Teacher 2 on the other hand works exclusively on enriching the learners' vocabulary. For instance, he asks for and gives meanings of words (VM).

Following is the data on language focus instances recorded per Teacher 3.

Teacher 3

	Corrects		Models		Repeats
Vocabulary	(VC)	2	(VM)	78	(VR)	7
Grammar & Usage	(G&UC)	32	(G&UM)	71	(G&UR)	2
Content	(CC)	58	(CM)	78	(CR)	42
Pronunciation	(PC)	0	(PM)	77	(PR)	11

TABLE 8 (c) : Language focus instances recorded for the class of Teacher 3

Besides modelling language forms [(VM), (G&UM), (CM) and (PM)], Teacher 3 also relies heavily on correcting content and grammar and usage of words [(G&UC), as well as content (CC)].

Overall, the three teachers show a greater tendency towards demonstrating/modelling language forms (i.e. vocabulary, grammar and usage, content and pronunciation) to their classes, than other language forms. Depending on the focus of each lesson, the other language forms are catered for to various degrees. For example, Teacher 3 is working on how to answer different questions, as a result, he also spends more time on correcting language forms if learners have not paid attention to the key words such as "what", "why" and "who" in the questions. Teacher 1 and Teacher 2, on the other hand, have their teaching heavily concentrated on teaching new vocabulary, albeit in different ways, as will be clarified in the discussion.

In the next chapter, we are turning to an analysis of quantitative data given in this chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

1. INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, I discuss the following issues which relate to the results of the study (cf. Chapter Four) and the literature which was reviewed (cf. Chapter Two):

A discussion of categories

This section discusses the four categories of teaching strategies [TS]; language focus [LF]; process [P]; and learner responses [LR].

The relationship between the teaching strategies and learner responses

To be addressed specifically in this section is the question of how the teachers' choice of teaching strategies influences learner responses.

Concluding comments

2. DISCUSSION OF CATEGORIES

(a) Teaching strategies

Below, a detailed account of elicitation; stress, intonation; pronunciation; codeswitching; co-operative learning; drama; and motivation follows.

(i) Elicitation

Elicitation refers to the teacher's use of close questioning in order to bring previously acquired knowledge to the surface (Wright, 1987)[8]. The three teachers rely heavily on

[8] Elicitation is a combination of strategies 2 (referring to familiar experiences); 3 (teacher asking for opposites); 4 (referring to synonyms); 5 (asking leading questions); 8 (use of direct questioning); 9 (direct instruction); 14 (comparing situations); 17 (using incomplete sentences); 18 (telling stories); 20 (soliciting chorus responses); 21 (giving clues); 23 (inviting responses); and 26 (reading to the class) (cf. Tables 4 and 5).

elicitation. They elicit information from learners in several ways as will be discussed below.

Wright (1987) describes elicitation as a way of teaching language through eliciting the relevant information from the learners by asking questions. While there is pedagogically nothing wrong with using elicitation in ESL teaching, the degree and how it is used determine the effectiveness of this strategy (Nunan, 1987). In the present study elicitation has been used extensively by the three teachers - perhaps overused. The teacher initiates interaction all the time. There is never a time when the learners initiate discussions; to the learners' reactions, the teacher often responded in one of the following ways:. They give responses which are followed by any of the following:

- by answering "yes', "very good", "that's right", and "I accept";
- by further elaboration of the answer; and
- by further questioning learners to give their own version/view of what exactly they mean.

As a result, the lesson ends up with a pattern very similar to the one noted by Nunan in his study (cf. pp.49-50), i.e. **teacher elicits->learner responds->teacher answers**.

Nunan (1987) and Thornby (1996) have expressed a view that in classrooms where this pattern of interaction exists, no communication as described in communicative language teaching is taking place.

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20 (soliciting chorus responses); 21 (giving clues); 23 (inviting responses); and 26 (reading to the class) (cf. Tables 4 and 5).

Despite the fact that Teacher 1 relies so heavily on elicitation, he enhances the use of this strategy by effectively combining it with others. For example, while asking questions, he also refers to familiar experiences (TS2), gives or asks students for opposites to synonyms of (TS3 and 4) the word they are dealing with, and at the same time, asks related questions (TS5) that lead students to the desired answer (cf. Table 1). The extract below elaborates this point:

Teacher 1	Learners
If he had just walked in, was he showing any respect? (Looks at class)	No.
Then what was he then showing?	(Silence)
Imagine, just walking in (with emphasis) into your mother's room without knocking. Is that a sign of respect?	No.
Then what is that? Yes, Monde (learner)?	He was showing to be rude.
Yes! He was showing to be rude, he was showing some rudeness. If you say, "May I come in", you are showing a sign of respect, and that is politeness.	

Extract 1 : The use of elicitation by Teacher 1

Another difficulty I detect with the use of this strategy is that the teacher ends up vocalising while students remain silent and/or passive recipients in the learning-teaching process. Wertsch (in Craig 1985) emphasises the need for situation definition and redefinition by both the mediator (teacher) and (learner). This means that for the mediation process to be successful, both the learner and the teacher should give their interpretation of the task in an on-going process of negotiation of meaning.

Teacher 2 also uses elicitation. Unlike Teacher 1, he does not enhance the strategy as successfully. He asks learners to read from text after which he then asks them direct questions. He makes no attempt to ask any leading questions or to ask learners to provide any opposites and/or synonyms of the required answer. Furthermore, there is no probing of any kind or even an attempt to encourage learners to think. Instead, he provides the answer himself by doing any or all of the following: telling

- learners the answer; and
- learners something about the situation from his own experience/perspective.

Following is an extract to illustrate the point.

Teacher 2	Learners
(Draws a map of Africa on the chalkboard) This is Central Africa, Nigeria is somewhere here. The West, Central part of Africa. But the most important thing is that Nigeria is in Africa, we Africans, believe in what? Superstitions. What are superstitions? You can go to Central Africa, anywhere in Africa and you'll find Africans believing in superstitions. What are those things? Gideon, what are they? What are superstitions. Come on let me tell you an example about myself.	(Attending quietly) Yes (They respond in unison)
(Then he tells them a story about his dreams. He concludes by saying that it is his superstition).	

Extract 2 : Teacher taking the lead in eliciting responses

Communicative language teaching calls for a more facilitative rather than a prescriptive or authoritarian role of the teacher (Makhobotloane, 1992; Slabbert, 1992; Nunan, 1987; and Thornby, 1996). Learners on the other hand, have to take a more active role by expressing themselves and reflecting on what they are learning

(Wenden, 1991). Teacher 2 does not provide opportunities for this expression and independence of learners.

Similarly to the other two teachers, elicitation features prominently in the lesson of Teacher 3. He enhances elicitation, however, in a manner that is distinctly different from the other two teachers. He reads an extract from the text and afterwards asks his learners questions. Then he asks a question which is directed not at one learner but to all learners. Learners respond, as a group, in the following manner to this:

- they give monosyllabic answers of either 'yes' or 'no'; and
- the learners complete the teacher's incomplete answer.

The following extract elaborates the point just mentioned:

Teacher	Learners
You have all read the story	Yes (chorally)
This tragedy now involves who? Mar...	Margaret(chorally)
Margaret. Who got what?	A car accident (chorally)
A car accident or what?	A bus accident ``
Yeah, it's a bus acci...	Accident ``
She died instantly, having now Comfort without a mo...	A mother ``

Extract 3 : Teacher 3 eliciting information from his class

Responses such as the ones found in the class of Teacher 3 are also recorded in the studies conducted by Nunan (1987); Macdonald (1990); and Fuller and Snyder (1991). That is to say that the teacher asks questions that demand of learners to reproduce facts from the texts. As a result, the learning-teaching process remains largely teacher-centred as opposed to learner-centred. The teacher talks all the time giving little or no opportunities for learner expression. Macdonald (1990:77) comments that in

circumstances such as the one described here 'children's language production remains largely imitative"; they produce the teacher's utterances and/or parts of texts.

(ii) Stress, Intonation and Pronunciation

Stress refers to emphasis that we lay on certain words in a sentence or on certain syllables in a word. Intonation is the change of tone or pitch; the rising or lowering of the voice when speaking. Stress and intonation combined are generally referred to as expression. The way one uses stress and intonation will affect the pronunciation of words. (Arnold and Varty, 1981:1-2).

Teacher 1 uses stress and intonation in a special way throughout his lesson. Whenever there is a word that he wants his students to pay particular attention to, he puts a lot of 'feeling" in the way he pronounces it, to the extent that one might get a sense of the meaning of the word given his portrayal. He changes the tone of his voice, uses different facial expressions and gestures. All these have been documented by Arnold and Varty (1981) as useful strategies to aid acquisition of meaning in ESL teaching. The example below illustrates how Teacher 1 uses stress, intonation and pronunciation to create effect.

Teacher 1	Learners
Teacher reads: Ghamka ran to Noni's house and called out POLITELY (emphasised, with feeling) as she had taught him, may I come in? (changes the tone of his voice, to signal a question). Come in my son. He blinked, (He exaggerates his blinking) adjusting his eyes to the dark INTERIOR (says interior with 'feeling') of the hut. Then he sprang into Noni's arms. He said (still reading) Suddenly stops reading and says: OK let's go back to the paragraph again. reads again: Ghamka ran to Noni's hut and called out PO-LI-TELY (emphasised, pause, then again says) PO-LI-TELY. (Writes on the board and says it again, gently and softly) PO-LI-TELY. Now, how do you understand it?	

Extract 4 : Teacher 1 using 'feelings' to teach vocabulary

Even though using stress and intonation are regarded as useful and effective strategies in ESL teaching, there are problems which might arise through the incorrect use of this strategy. It has been noted that in ESL settings there is no effort to acquire the native speakers' standard form of English. This element is very obvious in the way Teacher 2 pronounces words. Sometimes his pronunciation is so obscure that it took the researcher time to understand what he meant yet his class seemed to follow what the teacher was saying without any difficulties.

This brings us to the point that has been made by Wong (1989), regarding the importance of using stress, intonation and pronunciation. If teachers misplace stress, which constitutes mispronunciation, the perception of certain words to the listener is affected. Arnold & Varty (1981) have also warned that the teacher's role in pronunciation is vital. If she mispronounces words, this might lead to a vicious cycle in

that the learners copy the teachers wrong pronunciation. Following is an example of how Teacher 2 pronounced some of the words:

> I wrote *ecsams* on the, on Wednesday last week, I wrote my *ecsams* on Wednesday last week, and I slept at around *past* (the p- pronounced as in play), past *two* (the t- pronounced as the t- in insert). When I was s*upp*osed (p as in *past*) ... on Wednesday at 9.00am.

Extract 5 : Non-standard pronunciation of words by Teacher 2

Teacher 3, similarly to Teacher 1, also puts 'feeling" in the way he pronounces words. His pronunciation is also typical of NNS. Teacher 2 on the other hand, does not put 'feeling" into words. His pronunciation is the most difficult to understand. This might be exarcebated by the fact that his lesson is to a large extent conducted in Xhosa (i.e. his mother-tongue).

(iii) Codeswitching

Codeswitching is defined as 'the alternate use of two or more languages or linguistic varieties within the same utterances or during the same conversation. In case of bilinguals speaking to each other switching can consist of changing languages. In that of monolinguals, shifts of style" (Hoffman, in Zulu, 1995:105).

Teacher 2 is the only one of the three who alternates between English and Xhosa. He uses codeswitching whenever he explains something or when asking a question. Below is an example of how he codeswitches:

Teacher 2	Learners
What are superstitions?	
(silence)	
Don't you know (...said in Xhosa)	
(Students respond in Xhosa)	

Extract 6 : Teacher 2 alternating between two languages

There has been an on-going debate on the question of using codeswitching in ESL classes. Particularly, whether such a strategy is useful and effective in ESL teaching-learning (Zulu, 1995; Faleni, 1993; and Eldridge, 1995).

One view is that using a first language in the ESL classroom would facilitate the transition to English as well as enhancing cognitive and learning skills (Cummins and Swain, 1986). This might be the case in the class of Teacher 2. Whenever the teacher has asked anything in Xhosa, the learners become very active, displaying enthusiasm in the way they respond to the question as they talk more freely and with confidence in the language they know best - Xhosa.

Zulu (1995); and Walters (1996) express a view that codeswitching could have short-term benefits to second language learners. However, they also fear that codeswitching can hamper long-term acquisition of English.

Through codeswitching, Teacher 2 is able to encourage learners' active involvement even though it is not involvement in the actual learning of ESL. There is no doubt that codeswitching encourages operation of certain psychological factors such as confidence and a heightened sense of self-esteem. However, we cannot ignore the fact

that learners learn ESL because they want to be proficient in English - which they cannot become if they learn ESL through mother-tongue.

(iv) Co-operative learning

Co-operative learning, CL for short, refers to learning which occurs in small groups (Slabbert, 1992). Teachers 2 and 3 use co-operative learning. This strategy is used in conjunction with elicitation. Learners have to work in groups to answer questions. Both teachers use CL for one or all of the following reasons:

- to engage learners in what has just been discussed;
- to answer questions that are based on an extract; and
- to discuss concepts that will be dealt with later by the whole class.

Following, is an extract from the lesson of Teacher 3 to highlight this point

Teacher 3 says:	Learners
She is working as a social worker. Now, I want to lead you now to a point, because I have got a very good exercise now on Comfort which will deal specifically with the paragraph we have just looked at. Now, I want you to work as you are seated with groups or you can make your groups. Can somebody now read that for us, anybody? (Learner reads, when the learner has finished the teacher continues) Yeah, very good. Thanks. That extract there is from chapter nine of *Comfort Herself*. Now I want us to deal with some questions.	

Extract 7 : Teacher 3 preparing the class for co-operative work

In the extract above, Teacher 3 prepares his class for co-operative work by first reading from the extract. In the extract following, Teacher 2 and his class have read a poem together. That is followed by co-operative work.

Teacher 2 says:	Learners
Now I am going to give you a short exercise. all right, you Tulegile and Lawrence can join these guys here, and you are group A. You guys there are group B. You are group C. And you over there are group D. You should not take a long time. we are going to do something called role playing or drama (writes on the board) yes role playing. You should not take a long time. Now, discuss among your groups. I will come around to see what, what you are doing.	

Extract 8 : Teacher 2 preparing his class for co-operative work

In the extracts above, Teacher 3 and Teacher 2 use co-operative learning to engage Learners in answering questions. The content is based on what they have been teaching (cf. Appendix C).

While there is indication that CL is a good teaching-learning strategy in ESL, many problems which occur during its use in this study hamper whatever benefits it has. One of the problems is two of the teachers use CL merely as group work. Slabbert (1992) explains that CL is not group work since its rationale is more than just putting learners in small groups. De Villiers & Grobbler (1995); Slabbert (1992) and Brombacher (194) state that teachers who use CL have to give careful attention to various aspects of the group process[9] (cf. p.45 for essential elements of a CL setting).

[9] According to De Villiers & Grobbler (1995); Slabbert (1995); and Brombacher (1994), the following six esential elements should be accounted for in a cooperative learning setting: positive interdependence; individual accountability; promotive face-to-face interaction; co-operative skills; gorup processing evaluation and group size

In the two lessons in which CL is used, the six elements which constitute various aspects of group process have not been explicitly accounted for. For example, the two teachers have not considered group size. From Extract 7, it is noted that Teacher 3 says, "I want you to work as you are seated or make your own groups". On the other hand in Extract 8, Teacher 2 randomly puts them into groups by saying, "You guys there are group A, you guys there are group B". In both instances, the members in each group are more than five. Second, there was no constant monitoring of the groups by both teachers. Third, some of the groups obviously lacked leadership skills since no delegation of duties was assigned. Lastly, there is no evaluation of intra-group activities during or after co-operation.

The problems mentioned above show that the teachers have not clearly defined their role (e.g. that of facilitator) during CL. Brombacher (1994) states that the teacher's input as facilitator is vital to the success of CL initiatives. In addition, she needs to develop monitoring skills to observe students and be in a position to give feedback on their use of interpersonal and small groups social skills.

Despite the problems which are present during the use of CL groups, CL is highly recommended as a teaching-learning strategy in ESL contexts. Slabbert (1992) states that it induces learners to become independent and effective as learners. In addition, CL compliments the communicative language teaching [CLT] approach because the underlying principle in both is for learners to take a more active role in their learning, with teachers as facilitators in such a process (Makhobotloane, 1992; Slabbert, 1992).

If all the principles of CL are adhered to, it presents both the teacher and the learners the opportunity to employ the three notions of the Zone of Proximal Development[10].

Through talk (semiotic mediation), the teacher and learners share perspectives about a task (intersubjectivity) which later assists the learners to define and even redefine the situation. The purpose of this communication would be to guide learners towards being autonomous learners. In the case of Teacher 2 and Teacher 3, the two teachers promote learner autonomy; they allow them to form their own groups as well as giving them the opportunity to discuss among themselves what the tasks demand.

Teacher 3	Learners
Now I want you to do questions 1.1 to 1.5. Do them as a group, do you understand? I am going to give you five minutes to do that. There are five questions, one minute each question (laughs), I hope you manage.	

Extract 9 : Teachers promoting autonomy through co-operative work

✓ **(v) Drama**

Teacher 2 is the only one who uses drama in his lesson. He uses drama in order to ask learners to act out an episode from a poem. He first asks the class to divide themselves into groups. Afterwards each group is asked to come to the front of the class. The teacher reads a few lines from the poem and simultaneously the learners are asked to 'act' by either miming or using words to express the message of the poem. They are allowed to speak in either Xhosa or English.

[10] Wertsch (in Craig, 1985) states that in a quest towards guiding learners from their actual level of development to their level of potential development (i.e. the Zone of Proximal Development or ZPD for short) such a process should be made up of the following three interrelated notion: situation definition; intersubjectivity; and semiotic mediation.

Teacher 2	Learners
Teacher 2 continues from Extract 8: (He moves from group to group giving further instructions on what the learners are supposed to do during 'role playing'. He uses both Xhosa and English, and the learners likewise discuss in Xhosa).	
	(A learner asks) We use English?
You can use English or Xhosa. What is important is role play.	

Extract 10 : A question of language use during drama

While drama is documented as a very effective strategy in ESL learning and teaching, the way Teacher 2 uses this strategy is more confusing than educating. In the first place he does not communicate with the rest of the class about what each group is doing. Second, he does not engage the class in discussions about whether the acting has helped them understand what "superstitions" are (this notion having posed problems for the learners). Third, there is no cue from any of the "actors" regarding what exactly they are acting. As a result, one questions the educational value of this strategy in this particular class in relation to what is being dramatised since there is obviously no coherence between the story in the poem and what learners and the teacher are doing. The following illustrates this point:

Teacher 2	Learners
(After about ten minutes of group discussions) OK, that's all. that's all now. Thanks a lot. Let's round up. Let's listen to Group A. (Teacher 2 reads from the poem)	
	Group A comes to the front of the class. As the teacher reads, they make movements which are not accompanied by words. The rest of the class roars with laughter and they obviously do not understand what Group A is up to. (A member from Group A talks) "That is the end of the story".

Extract 11 : A lack of meaning in the use of drama by the class of Teacher 2

The communicative approach in language teaching stipulates that learners are involved in tasks and activities by focusing on meaning. They also have to use their natural ability of interpretation, expression and negotiation. Teacher 2 does not take account of this principle since he does not allow learners to say exactly what they are acting. They seem to be acting for the sake of acting not because they are attempting to portray their understanding of the meaning (Greyvenstein, 1990).

In the following extract we see how Teacher 2 directs one of the groups during the dramatisation of the poem.

Teacher 2	Class
(Reads) When a grumbling old woman is the first thing I meet in the morning...	As he reads Group A mimes Some members of the class are laughing while others look perplexed.

Extract 12: Inconsistency between what the group is acting and what is being read by Teacher 2

Note that while the members of Group A were dramatising some Xhosa ritual (which involved the pouring of water on one person) the rest of the group were shouting something in Xhosa. What the group was doing and what the teacher was reading were not related because none of their movements have to do with an old woman or the rest of the message in the poem (cf. Appendix C for the poem).

The teacher also prescribes and dictates what learners should do. In the extract above, the learners are supposed to act in line with what he reads. The learners' expressive skills are, therefore, confined within what they think is appropriate. There is no sign of the teacher playing a facilitative role.

With regard to the teacher being a mediator (interposing herself between the learner and task) Teacher 2 is not following stipulated principles of (i) intentionality and reciprocity, (ii) transcendence, (iii) meaning, (iv) mediation of competence (v) shared participation (cf. p25-26).

✓ **(vi) Motivation**

Motivation is dubbed an 'absolute necessity' in general educational activities (Haywood, 1993). Motivation by way of either giving positive feedback (cf. Table 1, TS6) or encouraging students to give responses (cf. Table 1, TS13) is used by the three teachers.

Teacher 1 continually rewards his students for the responses they give. After a learner has given a correct answer, he says

- "very good"
- "that's right"
- "good"
- "I accept, what does somebody else say?"

In some cases he goes further by pointing out what exactly is good about the answer. He also encourages his students to give as many responses as they can. He consolidates this strategy with (cf. Table 1, TS13) whereby he encourages his students to think further about the answer. Teacher 2 and Teacher 3 also use motivation, but to a much lesser degree than Teacher 1.

Motivating students is one of the elements which are recommended in the mediated learning experience (Haywood, 1993). Haywood states that a mediator does not only stop at saying "good" but should indicate to the learner what about her response was praiseworthy.

(b) Language focus

There is never a time when any of the three teachers sets out to teach language forms in a traditional way (e.g. 'Today we are going to talk about the present tense'). Learners are exposed to language in its natural form as in reading a story from text; only then do the teachers engage learners in tasks that will demonstrate if they have understood the extract. In the process of evaluation, different language forms are dealt with by

- correcting learners' wrong language forms;
- modelling (showing/telling) usage of words; and
- repeating language form either after the student has said something or repeating for emphasis.

In the process of correcting, modelling, and repeating, the teacher assumes the double role of both facilitating knowledge, through modelling and correcting. and also through teaching by repeating forms. Note below how Teacher 1 models, corrects and repeats language forms.

Teacher 1 says:	Learners
Now, let us look at the word, Kanga took the stick REVERENTLY, (emphasising it) in both hands. ...Someone guess, REVERENT (goes (continued in the next page) to the chalk board) Someone, give me the correct spelling.	(A learner spells it out for him)
Where have we ever met this word? Mmmh, yes. A pastor, we also call a pastor a reverend (laughs) OK. ...Now, we are using the word differently Someone gives you something and you collect it in both hands (He demonstrates with hands and bows his head). Let's guess if you understand.	In the church (A learner replies) (different responses are given all indicating respect)
(The teacher paraphrases the responses and finally says) OK he receives it in both hands. He shows some sign of respect. Showing that it is something important.	

Extract 13: Teacher 1 modelling, correcting and repeating language forms

In the foregoing extract, the teacher teaches new vocabulary. In the process, he engages the class in deducing and inferring the meaning of new words from the context. At the same time he explicitly shows, through expressions and gestures what the word means. After engaging learners in inferring and deducing, he sums up their answers by telling them exactly what the word means.

Nunan (1987) and Thornby (1996) have argued that non-communicative tendencies are still prevalent in the classes which are said to be following CLT. The three lessons in this study display many 'traditional' classroom activities which Nunan (1987) found in his study (for example, teacher initiated interaction and one word responses from

learners). Most of the time the classroom activities are teacher-centred with the teacher talking or deciding what should be done.

Modelling of the language forms is the most commonly occurring pattern in language focus. Let us now examine how each of the three teachers addresses language forms. Teacher 1 picks a word from text and asks the class what it means. Then he invites responses from several students. Afterwards he paraphrases all the responses. Below is an extract that shows exactly how he does this

Teacher 1	Learners
'Interior', I've got another word.	(Many raise hands to respond)
Now, who can tell me, 'Interior', 'Interior'. He walked into the room trying to find out the interior.	
'Interior', I want someone who hasn't spoken this morning.	
Yes, Nomsa.	Inside
Yes, that is inside. Mmmm, who could give me the opposite...interior?	(Many raise hands)
(Laughs) It seems to be simple, Yes, Andile?	Exterior

Extract 14: Teacher 1 teaching vocabulary

His approach implies that he does not regard himself as the "one who has all the knowledge" but he encourages learners to contribute their understanding of the word in the discussion. It is only after the learners' contributions that he paraphrases all the responses.

Teacher 2 on the other hand is the exact opposite of Teacher 1. He also works on enriching the learners' vocabulary. However, he often gives his own version without

asking for learners' opinion. In other words, he has the 'I know" and 'learners don't know attitude" that is described by Thornby (1996). Below is an illustrative extract to emphasise this point.

Teacher	Learners
Let's do a short exercise. But before we do a short exercise, there are some of the words that are, some of the new words that I don't think you know. (Writes them on the chalkboard): grumbling, wandering, mortal, ancestral spirits, clumps and crumbs.	(Attending quietly)
(Then he quotes from the poem) I know that when a grumbling old woman, is the first thing I meet in the morning (then explains in Xhosa). I mean, to grumble... . (explains in Xhosa) Wandering is to loiter, to move around (explains in Xhosa) that is what? That is loitering. It means to move around. And mortal is, a thing that is living, a living person. But an immortal person is somebody who is dead. Ancestral spirits are what? ancestral spirits are our ancestors, neah?	"Yes" answer all learners
Clumps means, eh, if you eat a banana you'll find that a banana has about...things, so that's a clump of bananas. Crumbs is bread.	

Extract 15: Teacher 2 modelling vocabulary

(c) Process

The process category refers to general classroom management procedures in relation to the task of ESL learning and teaching. In particular, this category refers to the specific roles of the teacher as manager in the learning-teaching process as well as the roles of learners (cf. Tables 7(a), (b) and (c) . Following is a typical example of one of the ways in which a teacher can manage the learning-teaching process:

Teacher 1	Learners
What was the last chapter we treated?	
What was the last chapter we treated?	The battle

Extract 16 : Teacher ensuring learner participation in the learning-teaching process

In the above extract, Teacher 1 opts to involve the learners in the process of recapturing what the class last dealt with. Instead of telling the class what they did, he involves them in the process, thus connecting the topic of the day to what was done previously. This is one of the ways in which the teacher manages the process of learning-teaching by ensuring learner participation.

Van der Walt (1990) states that the teacher's role in CLT is vital because she is both a facilitator and manager of language learning. The roles of facilitator and manager are very demanding since they also require of the teacher to remain accountable for her teaching (cf. p.21-22 of literature review). In the present study a number of variables have emerged which also highlight the point Van der Walt has made. Following is the discussion of such variables.

(i) Teacher inquires about understanding [TIU]

This refers to the teacher asking the class if they have understood the general classroom proceedings as well as asking if they understood his questions.

Only two teachers ask about learners' understanding. These are Teacher 1 and Teacher 3. TIU happens in two ways. First, the teacher asks a question, he then asks if they have understood what the question demands. Following that, he paraphrases the

question. Second, the teacher asks during the course of the lesson if the class understands what is going on.

Teacher 3	Learners
What is a social worker? Mmm...	(Silence)
If somebody were to ask you now a question, "what is social worker?" You know, a teacher is someone who stands in front of you now, but just tell me, what does a social worker do? Here is Comfort, her mother has died and now Comfort is being placed now in a place where they have to take care of her by social workers. What is a social worker?	(There is some reaction from the learners. They are whispering among themselves and the teacher asks one to answer the question).

Extract 17: Teacher 3 inquiring about understanding

Van der Walt (1990:96) refers to the teacher as 'the ultimate determiner of communicativeness". This means that whatever happens in the classroom, as far as communication is concerned is her responsibility. This therefore, means that even if the class has to take an active role in the learning-teaching process, the teacher should have as one of her main concerns whether the activities have any meaning to them.

Shared participation is one of the principles of MLE. This principle means that the teacher has to create an environment of "we are in this together" with her learners. Checking and rechecking that the learners are following what is going on is one of the ways of ensuring shared participation with her class.

Even though the two teachers (Teacher 1 and Teacher 3) ask about their learners' understanding, there are a number of difficulties which I observed in relation to this process. First, they only ask if learners understand without asking for further elaboration of what it is they understand. The following is an example from Teacher 1:

Teacher 1	Learners
Do you follow me?	Yes (All answer)
(No follow-up to elaborate)	

Extract 18: Teacher 1 finding out if learners understand

The same problem is related in the study that was carried out by Fuller and Snyder (1991). The authors explain that in many countries of Africa, teachers never follow-up student responses.

The notion of not asking for learners' elaboration clearly negates one of the principles of MLE which proposes that in the process of questioning, the teacher does not only ask 'what", she goes further to ask 'how do you know?" or 'what is it that you do not know?" (Haywood, 1993:35). Apart from that, granting learners an opportunity to elaborate on their answers will also guide the learners towards defining as well as redefining the task (Craig, 1985). With regard to CLT, elaboration on the part of learners will develop in them the skills of self-expression as well as confidence in the new language.

(ii) Class discusses in groups [CDG]

Reference has already been made to this subcategory under the category of teaching strategies as co-operative learning (CL). Now we re-examine it under the category of

process with particular emphasis on the roles of both learners and teachers in discussion groups.

Teacher 2 and Teacher 3 give their classes an opportunity to work in groups. As mentioned in category A, the teachers have not clearly defined their roles during discussions among learners. One of the prerequisites for a successful group discussion initiative is on one hand the teacher's input as a facilitator and monitor of the process. On the other, learners take roles such as problem restaters, elaborators, strategy seeker/elaborator and mistake manager (Brombacher, 1994; and Slabbert, 1992). This suggests that both the teacher and the learners are involved in the process, albeit in different ways. Note in the extract below how the two teachers and their learners behave prior to and during the co-operative learning process:

Teacher 2	Learners
You guys here are Group B You guys here are Group C You guys here are Group D You shouldn't take a long time.	(The different groups as arranged by learners or the teacher sit together to discuss tasks. Some are moving around in class while others are engaged in discussions. Some of those who are seated are not taking part in the discussions).
(After approximately ten minutes) OK, that's all, that's all now. Thanks a lot. Group B, let's round up.	

Extract 19: Teacher 2 arranging learners into groups for co-operative work

In Extract 19, Teacher 2 does not allocate specific roles to learners. As a result, some of the learners are taking part in the discussions while others are not. In the next extract, note how Teacher 3 differs from Teacher 2 and the resulting effect.

Teacher 3	Learners
Now, what I want you to do, questions 1 to 5. Just do them as a group. Do you understand?	Yes (All answer)
Somebody in that group must be the secretary of that group to write down all the necessary answers which have been discussed by the group.	(The different groups discuss the questions. Everybody is seated and there is involvement from many members in each group).

Extract 20: Teacher 2 preparing his class for co-operative work

Teacher 3 indicates to his class that there should be role sharing by saying that one of the people in each group must be a secretary. This could in turn influence the effectiveness of co-operative learning in this class.

Wertsch (in Craig, 1985) states that in the quest to develop the Zone of Proximal Development, the child should be actively involved in the process under the direction of the adult. In other words, asking learners to work in groups does not erase the teacher's involvement. She has to facilitate the process by communicating with different members of the group. In CLT as well, the teacher's role is that of the enabling factor to catalyse both the learning and the communication process. Therefore, she has to be equally committed to CL as her learners are.

The two teachers give instructions to the class regarding the tasks they have to deal with. No further facilitation is given during group discussion to ensure that the learners are following the tasks.

(iii) Teacher engages metacognitively

Metacognition is defined as 'understanding and controlling one's own thinking" (Westwood, 1993:29). Westwood goes on to show that metacognition refers to an individual's capacity to monitor and regulate his or her mental processes in dealing with a new learning task. As mentioned before (cf. pp.33-37), it is necessary for the teacher to include metacognitive instruction in her teaching for reasons such as developing in learners the capacity to function without the teacher. Metacognitive instruction focuses learners on techniques which require a learner 'to monitor the appropriateness of his or her responses and to weigh up whether or not a particular strategy needs to be applied in full, in part, or not at all in a given situation" (ibid. p.30)

In the present study, despite a few difficulties, all the teachers engage their learners metacognitively (cf Table 7 (a), (b) and (c). Teacher 1 and Teacher 2 are concerned with reading text with 'a meaning it deserves". In both cases a learner is asked to read a passage. In the process of reading, it is difficult to comprehend what is being read because most of the words are distorted through incorrect use of stress. The two teachers caution their learners to read meaningfully. They go further than that by demonstrating how 'reading with meaning" is done. This is a good example of teaching metacognitively because it takes into account the following factors:

- the modelling of correct behaviour (correct strategy) by the teacher;
- giving verbal cues; and
- allowing learners to re-do the task as modelled by the teacher (Westwood, 1993:30).

Teacher 2	Learners
I'm going to ask, to ask a person with a loud voice to read, the poem to the rest of the class. Let's get someone with a very... voice. Where is...? Anyone, reads to us?	(A learner volunteers)
Stand up and read to us.	(As he reads, he struggles with some words and the teacher does not help).
All right, thanks a lot. Let's read it again. I'll read it for you. While we read, I want us to look at the paper to make sure that we read it with a meaning it deserves. (Teacher reads)	

Extract 21: Teacher 2 cueing learners to read with meaning

The two teachers follow the first two steps in their teaching of reading with meaning, i.e. modelling correct behaviour as well as giving verbal cues. However, they do not give the concerned learners a chance to read again in order to show if they have understood when they were supposed to do initially.

Teacher 3, on the other hand, engages the class metacognitively with regard to answering questions in a reading comprehension task. From time to time he tells them that it is important to understand and pay particular attention to key words like 'who', 'what' and 'why' in a question so that one can know exactly what the question demands. He is also specific in his focus in that he tells the class at the beginning of the session that they are going to deal with 'how to answer questions". The only flaw is that he does not provide follow-up tasks to find out if learners have understood the strategy.

Teacher 3	Learners
Today we are going to work on answering questions.	(Class attends quietly)
The question is: why is Comfort staying with Miss Hanker? The question is asking for a reason not just who. That is why it there wants a reason on why now Miss Hanker is taking care of Com...	
What is the reason?	Comfort (in unison) (One learner): The death of her mother.
That is why now Miss Hanker had to take care of Comfort. But now there, in line four, you seem to be lost, not to understand it as well. What is discipline and what is manners? You can check in the dictionary the DEFINITION (stresses it) of MANNERS. Now, manners, they relate to what Miss Hanker, specifically, tells Comfort to do. When somebody gives you something, you must say then	
	(Both teacher and learners) "Thank you".

Extract 22: Teacher 3 engaging learners metacognitively

Several authorities have stated that students can accomplish many intellectual tasks if they are taught how to use metacognitive skills (Goh [1997]; Wenden [1986]; Westwood [1993]; Macdonald [1990]). Metacognitive skills are said to play an important role in reading comprehension (Westwood, 1993). Therefore, it is promising to see that at least one of the three teachers is taking this aspect into consideration.

(iv) Turn-taking [TT]

This subcategory refers to instances when the teacher chooses a specific learner to answer a question. Van der Walt (1990) describes the teacher as the enabling factor in CLT. She enables in the sense that she has to create conditions under which a language can be acquired. In addition, she has to motivate and encourage learners by giving them responsibility for their own learning as well as deciding how best they can learn the new language. It is equally important for the teacher to engage learners both

at a group and individual level in classroom activities. Thus the teacher will choose individual learners at different times to respond to questions or to read from text.

Teacher 1 uses more varied turn-taking than the other two teachers. As much as there are certain learners who volunteer to answer questions more often than the rest of the rest of the class, he still calls upon the other learners to participate. He goes as far as reminding them that some of them have not said anything at all.

Teacher	Learners
Now, who can tell me, INTERIOR, INTERIOR.	(Silence)
He walked into the room, trying to find out the INTERIOR.	
Some of you haven't spoken since morning.	
I want someone who hasn't spoken this morning.	
Someone who hasn't spoken this morning?	
Yes, Deda	Inside

Extract 23: Teacher 1 encouraging learners to participate actively

Teacher 2 and Teacher 3 also vary turn-taking but to a lesser degree than Teacher 1. This could in part be because they use CL and drama in addition to asking questions and reading from text. Teacher 2 also varies turn-taking between groups which dramatise some episodes from the poem. Teacher 3, on the other hand, seems to prefer chorus to individual responses.

Nunan (1987) states that the kind of turn-taking that takes place in the three lessons illustrated above has no communicative benefit to learners. The reason cited is that there is no communication taking place. The teacher asks a question, the learner responds and the teacher follows up the response. Interaction is mainly initiated by the teacher. Moreover, the teacher is the one who decides who should say what and when.

Fuller and Snyder (1991) also report the same behaviour in their study. They state that this interrogatory style is an evaluative exercise, not one that seeks to increase pupils' understanding of the material. As a result, there is no genuine communication as learners are not given a chance to reflect on their learning with regard to the new language.

(v) Student reads [SR]

This subcategory refers to instances when a learner reads from text. Learners in this study either volunteer to read or are chosen by the teacher. One of the striking features of learners' reading is the way they pronounce words. Their pronunciation, similarly to their teachers', is undoubtedly non-standard. This, once again, brings to the fore the teacher-learner pronunciation which is discussed under teaching strategies (see pp.83-85). In some instances the learners' pronunciation is so poor that the teachers have to intervene (cf. Tables 7 (a), (b) and (c)). The intervention is in the form of asking learners to read with meaning.

Arnold and Varty (1981) stress the importance of the teacher's role in pronunciation exercises. As stated earlier, the pronunciation of Teacher 2 in particular is quite incomprehensible.

(d) Learner responses

The category of learner responses refers to the kind of responses given and displayed by the class during each lesson. The guiding principle in CLT is that the learning-teaching process should be learner-centred. This means that learners should be active

in the process by displaying the ability to think critically, reason and reflect in the second language. The same principle of learner-centredness is contained in OBE (The Media in Education Trust, 1997). To find out if the learning-teaching process of the three lessons abides by these principles, let us now discuss learner responses of the three lessons.

(i) Class attends

The most prevalent feature of learner responses in the three lessons is that each class is always attending silently to what the teacher is saying (cf. Tables 6 (a), (b) and (c). Similar behaviour has been observed in other studies which involved NNS. Fuller and Snyder (1991:275) comment about the same behaviour in Southern African schools. They state that many African children are brought up to be docile beings who never question adults and people they regard as authorities (cf. p8).

Since CLT places the learner at the centre of instruction and emphasises the communicative interaction in the classroom, one begins to question just how communicative a lesson which comprises so much listening from learners can be.

(ii) React

This subcategory refers to instances whereby learners either laugh, mumble or do anything other than directly responding to the teacher's queries.

This behaviour is more prevalent in the lesson of Teacher 2; most of the time learners chuckle or converse among themselves while the teacher is talking. Learners' reaction

as described here should not be mistaken for communicativeness in CLT. It could have both negative and positive implications. On the negative side, it would indicate unruly behaviour, while on the other side it might indicate that the learners find the lesson so interesting that they cannot detach their emotions from it. My opinion is that it could be indication that learners do not understand what is going on as far as the teacher's teaching. Unfortunately, there is never a time when Teacher 2 questions this kind of behaviour; He continues "lecturing" as if nothing is happening.

(iii) Students/class respond as a group [SRG]

SRG means that learners give a chorus response (respond as a group) to the teacher's questions. This kind of learner response is dominant in the class of Teacher 3. Fuller and Snyder (1991) describe the same kind of behaviour in their study. They report that 'the teacher poses a question, these utterances are usually directed at the entire class, not spoken to an individual student" (Ibid. p.278). Then learners give a chorus response like 'yes" or 'no" or complete the teacher's sentence which already has a cue regarding the answer.

Teacher	Learners
What has colour got to do with Comfort's placement? What colour was she? Ah?	Black (Chorus)
Teacher and learners (in unison) Black	
Because the father was bla..	Black
Coming from Gha...	Ghana
Right	
And the mother was...	White
Coming from...	England

Extract 24 : Learners responding chorally to the teacher's questions

Most often the teacher's queries request a single piece of factual information which rarely requires complex cognition. Once again, there is no real communication as would be expected in CLT. It is the kind of teaching pattern that Nunan (1987) comments unfavourably about in his study on how communicative communicative language teaching approach classes are. All interaction is teacher initiated and only the teacher comments on responses elicited from learners.

(iv) Answer questions [AQ]

This subcategory refers to instances when individual learners stand up to respond to questions posed by the teacher.

All the three teachers involve learners in the task of answering questions. Teacher 1, in particular, engages his class in this task on a regular basis. This kind of task can be mistaken for genuine communication. However, the way in which the questions are asked once again reflects the following pattern:

Teacher asks a question->Learner responds->and

Teacher follows up the response.

Real communication is not taking place where such a pattern of interaction exists.

Despite the fact that we can say real communication does not occur in the lesson of Teacher 1, there are impressive features of this subcategory. The questions which the teacher asks are asked in a variety of ways which are shown below:

- reference to familiar experiences;
- close-ended questions which demand factual information; and

- followed by open-ended questions which need learners to give their own opinion on the response to the close-ended question.

This point will be discussed in more detail in the following section in which the relationship between teaching strategies and learner responses are examined.

3. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHING STRATEGIES AND LEARNER RESPONSES

We are now going to examine how the teaching strategies which have been discussed in section 1 influence the kind of responses learners give.

(i) Elicitation

This is a popular strategy in this study (cf. Tables 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5); as regards this strategy, the following are discussed below:

- What kind of questions are asked?
- What kind of responses do such questions yield?
- Do the responses indicate if language learning is taking place and whether learners are cognitively challenged?

The questions that are asked mostly by the three teachers are close-ended. This means that learners are required to give factual information without thinking about the reasons for questions given. For example

Teacher 3: What is the name of the social worker in this story?
What does a social worker do?
Teacher 2: What are superstitions?

Extract 25: Teacher 2 and Teacher 3 asking close-ended questions

Such questions do not challenge learners to go beyond the realms of the text. They merely demand of learners to reproduce words which are written in the story or what the teacher has told them.

Teacher 1 is the only one who asks both close-ended and open-ended questions. He first asks for factual information and then goes beyond that in several ways. For example, he asks the class what one character (Ghamka) does before entering his mother's room (cf. Table 1 and Extract 1). They respond that he knocks. Then he wants them to relate this kind of behaviour to the reasons for it; he wants them to say why the boy knocks before entering the room. It takes them some time to come up with the correct answer that 'he is showing respect". In the process of guiding them towards the answer, he refers to their world by saying, 'imagine if you were to just walk into your mother's room without knocking, what would that show?" The learners are then able to visualise themselves in similar circumstances and, finally, one of them is able to come up with the answer that it would be wrong because one would not be showing any respect.

The learners' response to the questions Teacher 1 asks indicates that they are fully involved in the learning-teaching process. The learners who give responses seem to struggle with the language because it takes them time to utter the desired response. Their teacher is both persuasive and patient in his endeavour to guide them towards the correct response.

As a result of the technique involved in questions Teacher 1 asks, as well as the responses elicited, I am led to assume that learning does take place in this class. The teacher not only mediates between the learner and the task, but he also allows his learners to bring to the situation their own potential.

Macdonald (1990:57) states that "the mediator has a critical role in determining the course of development". In the case of Teacher 1, we see him determining the course of language development for his learners by both interposing between the second language as well as making it possible for the learners to bring to the situation their own experiences by way of

- referring to familiar experiences; and
- provoking their thinking by asking for opposites and synonyms of the new word (cf Table 1 and Extract 14).

Teacher 2 exclusively asks close-ended questions by way of "what"questions. Several authorities regard "what" questions as obstacles to learning because they do not test genuine understanding (Macdonald and Burroughs, 1991; and Fuller and Snyder, 1991). He asks questions like "In which continent is Nigeria?", "What are superstitions?" as well as questions that demand of the learners to answer either "yes" or "no" like, "Do you have superstitions in Xhosa?". Such questions do not require complex cognition since they only require learners to recall what the teacher might have said earlier or what they might have read from text.

Macdonald and Burroughs (1991:17) state that 'this kind of teaching forms a closed loop from which genuine information about what is not understood can simply not escape; the teacher remains safe as the controller of knowledge". The questioning format of Teacher 2 clearly illustrates this point. The teacher remains safely as the controller of knowledge because in addition to his close-ended questions, he writes words on the board which he does not find out if his learners have seen before but tells them what each word means (cf. Extract 15). At the same time what could be explained as the teacher's lack of proficiency in English clearly comes through since he tells his learners that 'mortal means a thing that is living, a living person; immortal means somebody who is dead while crumbs means bread". In what way will imparting wrong information to learners affect their learning? We cannot overstate the ill-effect of giving wrong information on any individual.

On the basis of this evidence, are the learners in this class either learning the new language or being cognitively challenged? My opinion, based on the data, is that the questions Teacher 2 asks do not provide occasions for communicating in English and thus display their expressive abilities. They do not challenge learners cognitively since they only respond in monosyllabic answers or reproduce the teacher's utterances.

In addition to the questioning format, the teacher also does not create opportunities for further exploration of a task. If learners do not respond immediately he tells them the answer. A teacher who 'spoonfeeds' learners negates the mechanics of mediation which state that in a quest towards helping learners realise their potential, interaction should not be one way since the learners, with assistance from teachers have to engage

in situation definition and redefinition until they reach intersubjectivity (Wertsch, in Craig, 1985).

Similarly to Teacher 2, Teacher 3 also asks close-ended questions. In his lesson, he mostly asks 'what', 'where', 'who' and 'when' questions which all demand factual information. Unlike the class of Teacher 1, his class gives chorus responses in the following ways:

- 'yes' or 'no'; and
- completing his sentences as in the following extract

Teacher 2	Learners
Miss Hanker is a socia...	...social worker.
She takes care of the social needs of the peo..	...of the people.

Extract 26: The class completing the teacher's sentences as a way of answering close-ended questions

One again we are led into assuming that learning is not taking place in this class as well. The result could be similar to that of Teacher 2 in the sense that no complex cognition is required to answer the questions that Teacher 3 asks. Emphasis is only laid on teaching learners how to answer questions but not requiring of them to think beyond the sphere of the text.

(ii) Stress, Intonation and Pronunciation

We are going to examine how the teacher's expression affects the learner's responses. The expression of the three teachers is obviously that of non-native speakers of English. Interestingly, the learners seem to cope with their teachers' pronunciation

since there is never a time when any of them asks the teacher to repeat a sentence or question because it has not been heard. However, we cannot say that their silence means they understand, it might merely mean that they do not question. Fuller and Snyder (1991) state that African children enter the classroom with ways of learning which are inconsistent with the Western school setting; one of which is learning without questioning whatever the adult and/or teacher says. Despite the wrong pronunciation of some words, certain aspects of the way the teachers express themselves, Teacher 1 in particular, might in fact influence positive learner responses.

Teacher 1 puts a lot of 'feeling' in the way he pronounces words. Whenever there is a word from text that he wants his class to pay attention to, he repeats that word, putting a lot emphasis in his pronunciation and, in a way, intoning its meaning.

Teacher	Learners
Ghamka ran to Noni's hut and called out POLITELY, POLITELY(emphasises the word). Now POLITELY, how do you understand it?	
He blinked adjusting his eyes to the dark INTERIOR, INTERIOR. Now, I've got another word, INTERIOR, (Writes it on the chalkboard). Now who can tell me, INTERIOR, what does it mean.	

Extract 27 : The impact of the active involvement of the teacher on learner responses

The class responses in Teacher 1's class are regular and varied (cf. Table 6[a]) . We cannot say the use of 'feeling' in the pronunciation of certain words directly influences learners' responses. However, we can say that a combination of factors, one of which is the teacher's obvious active involvement in the learning-teaching process could positively influence positive learner responses.

As mentioned earlier, most of the responses in Teacher 1's class are consistent with learning because they are not a reproduction of the teacher's or the text's words. The learners phrase what the teacher might have said in their own words. In addition, they think beyond the teacher's words by giving responses which reflect similar experiences in their own world. The following extract attests to this point:

Teacher	Learners
Being a captain, what is it?	A king
Mmm, do I accept it? Not quite. Sandile is very active this morning. Let's here him one more time.	To be a leader.
Pardon	leader
A leader! Oh, yes, a leader! What do you also have to tell me Fundiswa?	The same thing and to be a boss.
To be a boss (laughs). OK, I accept it. Now Captain of what? Sometimes we have to be captains of some other things.	
Now captains of what?	Yes (all) Captain of the stone gatherers.
No, yes, that is what he was trying to say. Outside the stone gatherers, outside the story that we are learning now, sometimes we become captains for some things.	
OK Thabisi.	(inaudible)
Speaker louder	A captain of soldiers.
In an army. Another person?	A captain of a netball
Good, a captain of a netball team. Zingisane?	A captain of a players
Could you tell, what sort of players?	A soccer team.

Extract 28: Teacher 1 eliciting responses by referring to familiar experiences

In the above extract, Teacher 1 attempts to engage as many learners as possible in the class discussions. He does not tell the learners the answer, instead he creates an open

environment whereby everyone can feel free to contribute a point. As a result, there are varied responses which are made up of learners' experiences as well as what they have gathered from the story. We can gather from the kind of responses given that the learners are learning since they can relate that which is from the teacher and text to their own experiences.

(iv) Codeswitching

Teacher 2 uses codeswitching after asking a question in English, presumably to explain in Xhosa what the question demands. He either asks if the learners do not know what he is asking by only replacing that particular word in Xhosa or he explains the whole question in Xhosa as in

Teacher 2	Learners
What is superstition?	(Silence)
Don't you know...? (said in Xhosa)	(Then they start talking among themselves in Xhosa. Some also volunteer to answer)

Extract 29: Teacher 2 inducing learners to participate in class by alternating between Xhosa and English

In both questions the learners give their responses in Xhosa. Some learners mumble among themselves in Xhosa while others respond directly to the teacher. In both cases, they are very cheerful and involved in what they are saying.

If the teacher does not use either Xhosa or both Xhosa and English, the class does not participate as cheerfully as they do during codeswitching. This behaviour leads to the conclusion that alternating between English and the first language encourages the operation of certain psychological factors among learners. These are:

- increased confidence: codeswitching leads to increased confidence thus resulting in more learner participation; and
- spontaneity: learners also enjoy the learning process because they can respond spontaneously in the language they know best.

Even if codeswitching has psychological benefits for learners, the question that still remains is whether the actual learning of the second language is being addressed. At this point, I agree with Eldridge (1996) who states that codeswitching yields short term benefits to the second language learner, but with a risk of hampering long-term acquisition of English.

In addition, the teacher only asks questions which demand factual information such as the existence of superstitions in the learners' culture, they do not require complex cognition. Therefore, the learners are not cognitively challenged to think beyond the here and now.

(v) Co-operative learning

Teacher 2 and Teacher 3 use co-operative learning (CL). The questions to address in relation to the implementation of this strategy are:

- Do the teachers adhere to elements of a successful CL initiative?
- What are the learners' responses during CL?
- Are the responses indicative of learning?

The teacher's input is regarded as a very important prerequisite towards a successful implementation of CL. She is expected to facilitate and monitor the process in order to be able to give feedback to her learners on the use of interpersonal and small group social skills. The members of each group, on the other hand, are expected to be fully involved in group activities. To ensure full participation by each member, they have to delegate duties among themselves (Brombacher, 1994).

The following shortcomings were noted during the use of co-operative learning in both classes:

- Both Teacher 2 and Teacher 3 do not monitor group processes. The teachers only go around the class to give tasks. As a result, one or two members of a group of more than five people dominate group proceedings.
- Learners are not given the opportunity to report back to the rest of the class what they have been doing.
- Teacher 2 dictates the proceedings of each group. This results in miming movements which are very difficult to decipher.
- Teacher 3 elicits chorus responses of either "yes" or "no".

On the bases of the above evidence, I am led to assume that the responses are not indicative of learning (cf. Table 6 (b). First, in the case of Teacher 2, the learners merely mime things without any verbal cues, and this does not indicate what the dramatisation is about or if they understand what they are doing and why they are doing it.

With regard to Teacher 3, the group chorus responses do not indicate that learning and and/or understanding is taking place. Learners do not think deeply about the responses because the questions are close-ended and very simple. It is very easy for one to be misled into thinking that the responses attest to learning because the chorus responses reflect that both the teacher and learners are vocal. Furthermore, the teacher remains the dominant figure, thus shifting the learning-teaching process to being teacher-centred rather learner-centred.

(vi) Drama

Classroom drama 'is not the acting of short scenes in small groups for the general enjoyment and merriment of the rest of the class" (Greyvenstein, 1990:13). We are now going to address the following questions.

- How do teachers in this study use drama?
- What is the learners' response to this category?
- Does the response suggest that learning is taking place?

Teacher 2 is the only one who uses drama in this study (cf. Table 2). As noted in the preceding discussion, there is no verbal communication or an explanation regarding what learners are doing. Dyers (1995):150 states that drama in education involves using improvisation, group dynamic activities, movement, mime and speech. Even though miming is mentioned as one of the components of educational drama, I do not think that it means miming aimlessly (cf. Extract 11 and Extract 12).

It is also fair to expect learners to take initiative in what they are going to act as well as how they are going to do it. However, in this particular lesson, the learners are robbed of such a privilege. The teacher is very dominant because he determines what learners are going to do. Even in the process of acting, he is the one who talks and does not give the actors a chance to express in speech what they are acting. One or two of the actors throws in a Xhosa or English expression. The rest of the class either attends silently or they laugh at what is being done. They look as confused as the actors since they seem not to understand what is going on.

I do not think the laughter and the silence (cf. Extract 12) mean the class understands what superstition is. The teacher does not ask any follow-up questions about the acting. The answers would suggest if the learners appreciate the poem and also understand what superstition is. Consequently, we cannot say that drama in this class has been of any cognitive value since no questions are posed to assess understanding.

(vii) Motivation

Haywood (1993) regards motivation as an integral part of a mediation process. Motivation can come in many forms such as (i) encouraging learners to learn and (ii) rewarding appropriate behaviour in several ways. The questions to ask at this point are

- How do teachers in this study motivate their learners?
- Does motivation induce learners to respond to the teachers queries?
- Do the responses reflect understanding?

Teacher 1 motivates his learners in several ways (cf. Table 1). Following are the examples of how he does this:

- He acknowledges all the approximations by saying " yes", 'I accept" and 'that's good" if the response is correct.
- Even if the correct response has been given, he still asks for more responses from the rest of the class.
- He rejects wrong approximations in a gentle way e.g. " I do not accept" as opposed to "No you are wrong" or "How stupid of you".
- He paraphrases all the answers by commenting on a point of commonality in all of them.
- He addresses each learner by name when asking for responses and when he is paraphrasing their responses e.g. "Lunga said, ... while Themba said that".

Teacher 2, on the other hand, does not employ any strategies to motivate his class to give responses. He asks a question once and if they give an incorrect answer he tells them that they are wrong. Then he proceeds to give the answer himself. e.g. 'No, you are wrong. The answer is...". He also imparts information without first finding out if learners might have an idea of that which he tells them (cf. Extract 15).

Teacher 3 motivates his class by accepting both the wrong and correct answers by saying either 'good" or 'very good". In addition, he also allows learners to respond as a group which might help those who are shy to be singled out in class.

Having looked at how each teacher implements motivation in his class, let us now examine if motivation induces learner responses which are indicative of learning. We will answer this question by revisiting once again the class of Teacher 1 because there are varied and constant motivational cues in his class. Teacher 1 is able to instigate more learners to participate in class discussions. Most of the time learners volunteer to answer questions hence varied and frequent learner responses in his class (cf. Table 6(a) and Extract 28). Most of the responses indicate learning because they are not a production of the teacher's words. This could in part be due to the fact that he does not only ask "what" questions, he also asks his class to reflect on why the characters in the story they are discussing behave the way they do (cf. Extract 1 and Extract 13). In addition Teacher 1 asks,

Teacher 1	Learners
Tell me, why does Ghamka knock before entering his mother's room?	
Would you do the same?	
Why would you do that?	

Extract 30: Teacher encouraging learners to think and respond

He gives learners an opportunity to express their views. Since he gives them as many chances to speak as possible, different learners try to come up with answers. On the bases of the responses in the class of Teacher 1, it is safe to say that motivation induces more learner participation during class proceedings. The question now is whether such responses are indicative of learning.

From Extract 1 and Extract 30, we can see that Teacher 1 asks both open-ended and close-ended questions. In the process of questioning, he does not only test if learners can repeat *verbatim* what he or the text might have said, he goes beyond that by posing questions that demand complex cognition. The learners are, therefore, forced to think beyond the realms of the text and reflect on what both the text and the teacher have said. The answers they give are based on both the teacher's and text's information as well as how they relate that information to their own situation. For example, in response to the questions posed above, they give the following responses

Learner 1:I think he knocks because it is his mother's room.

Learner 2: I think he knocks because he is afraid.

Extract 31 : Learners responding to Teacher 1's open-ended questions

The teacher accepts the responses, but he wants them to go beyond what the text says so he asks them to imagine they were the character in question, and think of why they would knock before entering their mothers' rooms. One of the learners then gives the following answer

He knocks because he is showing respect.

The kind of responses the learners give suggest that learning does take place in this class. The learners reflect and relate to what they are learning. Contrary to what happens in this class, the other two teachers only ask close-ended questions which do not produce the same results as those of Teacher 1.

We have noted, in the foregoing, some variety in both teachers' and learners' behaviour in this study. Generally, however, the three teachers are more vocal and dominant than their learners[11]. This behaviour is not encouraging because it is not consistent with the principle of learner-centredness in communicative language teaching. In addition, the learners are robbed of opportunities to vocally reflect on their learning. Teacher 1 in comparison to the other two teachers, asks some questions that provoke reflective learning.

We now turn to the final chapter; here we highlight the major constraints on this study as well as draw together the most striking features which have emerged during the discussion

[11] Teachers are more vocal and dominant than their learners because they do most of the talking; and initiate all the discussions. The learners only respond to the teachers' queries and keep quiet most of the time.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION

This exploration has revealed interesting trends regarding the ESL teaching where both teachers and learners are NNS. The following are the most striking features concerning participants in this study:

(i) Vocal teachers, silent learners: Teachers are very vocal and dominant in this study, however, learners are not altogether silent. Teacher vocality versus learner silence has been observed in other studies involving NNS learners and teachers in Southern Africa (Fuller and Snyder, 1991). They state that in such classrooms, most of the teaching time is spent "chorally reciting material or individual pupils responding to questions". Therefore, learners are not altogether silent because they are always responding to the teacher's questions either in a chorus fashion or individually. The teacher is the only one who poses questions and students never present any queries of their own.

There is a view that African adults and children have cultural beliefs about learning and teaching which do not conform to the formal Western classroom setting (Fuller and Snyder, 1991; Macdonald and Burroughs, 1991; and Craig, 1985). The writers posit that in the African traditional way, education takes place informally through observing what adults do and then trying to do that. When the children come to school, the same behaviour continues: 'the teacher is the one who knows while the learner is the-one-who follows" (Macdonald, 1991:17).

These beliefs could in part inhibit learners from taking initiative in their own learning while on the other side they could induce the teachers to mistake silence for lack of understanding. As a result, the teacher takes more control of the situation by 'overteaching' thus overlooking to activate a verbal learner participation.

It is imperative to state that teachers cannot excuse their limitations by referring to cultural norms. It is their responsibility as educators to make the best of both worlds (i.e. African and Western) by combining the best aspects of such cultures which enable learning. Teacher 1 is exemplary in this regard. While he is performing his role as a teacher, he also guides and facilitates the learning-teaching process in a 'fatherly' manner which is neither patronising nor authoritarian. The result is eagerness on the side of learners to please the 'father' by responding to his questions, albeit a few hesitations now and then because of a lack of proficiency in English.

(ii) The teachers' language use: The issues of the teacher's 'overteaching' or 'overvocalisation' takes us back to the observation that was made by Thembela (in Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana). Thembela states that learning in NNS classrooms can be passive because both teacher and learner cannot manipulate the language. How far have the findings of this study confirmed or disconfirmed this observation?

The findings of this study present us with a dual spectacle. On one hand the teachers' language as shown by the way they pronounce certain words presents them as typical NNS. However, they are able to communicate sufficiently for their learners to follow classroom activities. Through Teacher 1, we are also able to dispute the claim that

NNS teachers are altogether hindered from teaching effectively because they are using a second language. On the other hand, when we examine different components of each lesson by comparing them to studies done elsewhere, we come to understand how teaching in a second language can obstruct, among others, the ability to ask challenging questions.

According to Macdonald & Burroughs (1991) it is likely that teachers are unable to ask more challenging questions because they are aware that their learners cannot respond to them because of their lack of proficiency in English. The question is, whose lack of proficiency? In this regard I see a problem in the use of codeswitching by Teacher 2. Could codeswitching be the teacher's attempt to hide his own language inadequacies or does he combine the two languages because he is aware of his learners' lack of proficiency? Teacher 1 and Teacher 2, on the other hand, demonstrate a fairly good command of English; they also do not use both English and Xhosa during teaching. In the light of (i) the teacher vocality and student silence; and (ii) the teachers' lack of proficiency in English and/or their appreciation of this lack among their learners language, what recommendations can be made for further research?

FURTHER RESEARCH

The method adopted in this study afforded us the opportunity to explore learning and teaching in a NNS/ESL classroom. The observation tool, the videotapes and the method of analysis have placed us at an informed position to pose certain questions, on the basis of the results obtained.

However, the three cases are not enough to draw definitive conclusions on the issue of ESL/NNS and the effectiveness of learning and teaching in such situations. Therefore, further research should be carried out in order to scrutinise the questions revealed here. In particular, the following need to be investigated further:

(i) In view of NNS difficulties suggested by this study, teaching and learning materials could be designed to cater for the needs of both NNS/ESL teachers and learners. The best ways in which to scaffold both learners and teachers through materials should be investigated.

(ii) The study has also offered further emphasis to Thembela's claims about learning and teaching in the NNS/ESL context. Teacher "vocality" as opposed to learner "silence" comes through as the most prevalent behaviour in this research. Therefore, we need to unpack the issue further. One possible influence on this could be cultural norms hindering effective teaching and learning; this too should therefore be examined.

(iii) We have also encountered a wide range of strategies that the three teachers used in their lessons. While the number is relatively high, there is no evidence to link any of these strategies to effective teaching that brings about learning. Therefore, the question of the teachers' choice of strategies and their impact on learning is, likewise, an issue that is worthy of further investigation.

By way of concluding, it could be asked whether Thembela's observations are justified? That is to say: Does teaching/learning in a second language hamper teaching and learning quality, ultimately leading to information giving and passive learning? To address these questions, the following are worth noting:

The mediational role of the teacher in NNS/ESL is more than just the interposing of the teacher between the content *per se* and the child. Teaching and learning may take many forms such as teaching how to learn, understanding the culture on which that which is being learned/taught is based as well as the theories on which learning and the subject are grounded. Therefore, it is not only what we teach that is of substance, more importantly it is how we teach so that effective learning can take place. To address more specifically Thembela's observations, this exploratory study has put me at a position to voice the following view: It is not the language *per se* that affects teaching in ESL/NNS. I see it as a lack of understanding regarding the teacher's choice of strategies. Language would be the determining factor if no learning was taking place in such an environment. We have seen through Teacher 1 that despite the use of ESL, effective teaching can still take place.

Another factor, which is indirectly tied to the language issue could be cultural norms. Learners do not question, and evidence from other studies is that such behaviour is contained in the social norms of the African learners (Fuller and Snyder, 1991; Macdonald and Burroughs, 1991; and Craig, 1985). This once again is not a factor than can be tied directly to learning through ESL. Studies referred to have demonstrated that learner silence and lack of initiative run across all the school subjects regardless of whether English or mother tongue is used. Therefore, the necessity to investigate how cultural norms can hinder effective learning cannot be overstated

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The research undertook an exploration of three teachers' actual classroom practices. The outcomes of the three case studies cannot be generalisable to a larger population. As an exploration, it is noticed, however, that the study reveals trends in the ESL and NNS scenario which could be indicative of general NNS/ESL classroom practices. As such, the trends observed auger well for the ESL/NNS scenario, but only if teachers are given more direct instructions regarding suitable strategies. Strategies which will enable them to bridge between

- their and their learners' lack of proficiency in English;
- their common-sense regarding teaching and properly substantiated methods to promote learning; and
- their cultural norms and the expectations contained in the Western way of schooling that promotes learning and teaching.

It is only when such considerations are borne in mind, irrespective of a language of teaching and learning, that real learning will take place.

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APPENDIX A

TLPL OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

(An extract from the lesson of Teacher 1)

Teacher			Class
A (TS)	B (LF)	C (P)	D (LD)
9			ca, rea
8, 25	vm		ca
9			ca
9			ca, rea
8		TT	laq
6, 1	cr		ca
1	cr		ca
9	vm		ca
8			ca
23			ca, rea
		TIU	
14, 13	cr		rea
		TT	laq
			laq
6	cr		ca

Key : A - [TS] Teaching strategies
B - [LF] Language focus
C - [P] Process
D - [LR] Learner responses

APPENDIX B

ANALYTIC CATEGORIES FOR DATA ANALYSIS

A. TEACHING STRATEGIES [TS1-28]

Teaching strategies category refers to the strategies the teachers implemented during the learning-teaching process.

1. Gives a 'feel" of a meaning of a word he wants learners to understand by entoning its sense and pronouncing it in a manner that suggests its meaning.
2. Refers to learners' world experiences when explaining something which is unfamiliar e.g. 'imagine, if you just walked into your mother's room without knocking".
3. Provides/asks learners to give opposite of a known and related word towards understanding what a new or alien word means. e.g. 'outside is the opposite of inside, what do you think is the opposite of interior?"
4. Uses synonyms to enrich and vary vocabulary. e.g. 'Therefore inside means the same as interior, while outside means the same as exterior".
5. Asks leading questions. e.g. 'What was Ghamka given by his mother? ...yes he was given a stick. What was that stick for? ...very good for protection. Protection against what? ...wizards, what are wizards?
6. Accepts approximations which learners give in an attempt to move them closer to the "target" he has in mind. e.g. "Yes, I accept, what does another person think?"
7. Rejects approximations and asks learners to try again. e.g. 'ummm, I do not accept, try again ... somebody else?"

8. Uses direct questioning without any leading questions. e.g. at the beginning of a lesson: "what is superstition?"
9. Gives direct instruction of subject matter. e.g. "We will read together ... you, join that group and answer the questions."
10. Uses mother tongue/Xhosa words, phrases and sentences in order to explain new words. e.g. 'If you meet an old woman very early in the morning, you will think she is a ghost 'isiporho' or a witch 'igqwirha' "
11. Gives learners a chance to share information/discuss among themselves. e.g. I want you to work in groups and answer the following questions...you only have five minutes."
12. Acts out the meaning of certain words or behaviour through gestures, mimicking and facial expressions. e.g. 'Please" holding out both hands to indicate that one is asking for something.
13. Entices or encourages learners to think for themselves. i.e., teacher does not explain to them even when he is aware that they are struggling, but waits for them to produce the desired answer.
14. Sometimes compares the situation or behaviour he is talking about with similar situations. Not necessarily to enrich vocabulary as in TS3 and TS4 but to drive the point home about something.
15. Allows learners to correct their own pronunciation when reading. When a learner cannot pronounce a word, he lets her to struggle until she gets the pronunciation right on her own.

16. Explains graphically on board. e.g. teacher draws a map of Africa to enable learners to place themselves in a situation that he is talking about. e.g. 'So, in which part of Africa is Nigeria?"
17. Uses incomplete sentences. e.g. "because her parents had di.." Learners: "...died".
18. Tells stories to explain concepts. e.g. 'OK, let me tell you a story about myself and my superstitions..."
19. Directly questions responses. e.g. 'What do you mean by that... what do wizards do?"
20. Solicits group responses i.e. he directs his questions to the whole group and the whole class gives a chorus response. e.g. 'She takes care of what? She takes care of the social problems of the peo?" Class: "People"
21. Gives learners clues from which to guess. e.g. 'The word starts with P... What is it?"
22. Moves about in the class, making eye contact with different groups/individuals.
23. Teacher invites/encourages more responses/learner participation through varying turntaking. e.g. "Some of you have not spoken since morning, yes Themba?"
24. The teacher invites learners to ask him questions, e.g. "Ask me why"
25. The teacher recaptures what was done previously. e.g. 'Last week we talked about the a battle. What is a battle?"
26. The teacher reads from text. e.g. 'Listen while I read the poem with the meaning it deserves."
27. The teacher corrects reading/pronunciation when learners are reading.
28. Teacher concludes lesson. e.g. Now, we have come to the end of our lesson, we will continue from here tomorrow."

B. LANGUAGE FOCUS

This category refers to the forms of language the lessons were addressing.

	CORRECTS	MODELS	REPEATS
Vocabulary	**VC**	**VM**	**VR**
Grammar & Usage	**G&UC**	**G&UM**	**G&UR**
Content	**CC**	**CM**	**CR**
Pronunciation	**PC**	**PM**	**PR**

1. CORRECTS

Corrects refers to the teacher's initiatives to correct learners' mistakes.

(i) **Corrects vocabulary [VC]:** Teacher corrects learners when they have given the wrong meaning of a word or when they are not explicit enough. e.g. 'If you say a social worker is someone who helps people when they have problems, can s/he help all the people who do not have money. Specifically what does a social worker do?"

(ii) Corrects grammar [G& UC]: The teacher corrects learners when they have given the wrong structure of a sentences. e.g. teacher asks, 'If he is not showing politeness, what is he then showing?" Learners answers, 'He is showing to be rude." Teachers corrects, 'He is showing rudeness" The teacher also evaluates use of word. e.g. 'Do you mean that anybody can go to a social worker when s/he does not have money?"

(iii)Corrects content [CC]: Teacher asks learners questions to find out if they have understood the story. If the answers given are wrong he corrects that. e.g. 'No, you are wrong, the question is not who but why had she gone to see Comfort. And we all know that it was because Comfort's parents had di... ."

(iv)Corrects pronunciation [PC]: Teacher corrects reader's pronunciation. When a learner mispronounces a word when reading, he corrects that and gives the proper pronunciation.

2. MODELS

Modelling means that the teacher explicitly and clearly teaches a language form. It could be grammar and usage; vocabulary; content; and pronunciation.

(i) Models vocabulary [VM]: This refers to the way in which the teacher directly explains and/or defines words learners do not know. e.g. 'Mortal means...; a clump means...; grumbling means...".

(ii) Models grammar and usage [G&UM]: This subcategory refers to: (i) how the teacher lays out the rules of language. e.g. Learners answers 'captain of a football." Teacher repeats after him, 'that's right, captain of a football team." (ii) It also refers to the teacher's way of using particular words in context. e.g. The teacher wants learners to know the meaning of the word superstition. He then tells the class a story in which he talks about 'his superstitions". By so doing, he exposes learners to how to use the new word.

(iii) Models content [CM]: This refers to the part of teaching whereby the teacher 'lectures". e.g. 'Ghamka comes to his mother with good news, excited and tells

her that he has been chosen as the captain of the school. Instead, his mother looks sad."

(iv) Models pronunciation: This refers to instances whereby the teacher emphasises the pronunciation of a new word for the learners' benefit. e.g. Now, we have a new word, INTERIOR, INTERIOR."

3. REPEATS

Repeats refers to instances that the teacher repeats (i) that which a learner has said; (ii) what has been read (iii) for emphasis.

(i) Repeats vocabulary [VR]: Teacher emphasises a work by repeating it. e.g. "Battle, what is a battle, what is a battle?"

(ii) Repeats grammar and usage [G & UR]: Refers to repeating the grammatical form and usage of a word in a phrase or sentence. e.g. after the learner has said 'He was showing to be rude" teacher says, 'he was showing some **rudeness**... yes, **rudeness**."

(iii) Repeats content [CR]: Teacher recaptures the content of what was done in a previous lesson or repeats what has just been dealt with in class. e.g. "Yesterday we read that Comfort's mother died."

(iv) Repeats pronunciation [PR]: Teacher repeats pronunciation of a word a learner failed to pronounce correctly or asks learners to repeat s/he has been corrected.

C. PROCESS

Process category refers to general classroom management procedures in relation to the task of ESL learning and teaching. In particular, this category refers to the specific roles of the teacher as manager in the learning-teaching process as well as the specific roles of learners.

(i) **Teacher inquires about understanding [TIU]:** This refers to instances when teacher asks learners if they understand and/or are following the proceedings of the lesson. It also refers to instances when learners are hesitant to respond to the teacher's queries. So he asks if they understand what the question is asking for.

(ii) **Teacher explains content [TEC]:** It refers to when the teacher explains either what he has just read form the textbook or anything that is related to content which learners have not understood.

(iii) **Teacher writes on board [TWB]:** Teacher writes a word or phrase taken from text while he or a learner was reading OR words and/or phrases taken from learners' responses which he wants learners to pay particular attention to.

(iv) **Teacher engages metacognitively TEM]:** When learners are taught a skill which they can use in any aspect of life; not necessarily for the specific lesson. e.g. How to answer questions by paying particular attention to key words like what?, why?, how? and who?

(v) **Learner reads [LR]:** When a learner volunteers or is asked to read.

(vi) **Teacher varies Turn-Taking [TT]:** Choosing a specific learner to answer a question.

D. LEARNER RESPONSES

This category refers to responses given and displayed by the learners during the process of learning and teaching.

(i) Class attends [CA]: Class attends quietly while the teacher talks.

(ii) Class reacts [REA]: Learners give reflexive communications e.g. laugh, exclaim and so on.

(iii) Class responds as a group/Chorus response [CRG/CR]: Learners respond to the teacher's queries as a group. e.g. "Yes."

(iv) Learner answers questions [LAQ]: One learner responds to the teacher's question.

(v) Learner struggles with English [LRSE]: Refers to the learner's obvious struggle to express himself in English.

(vi) Learner responds by demonstrating with hands, facial expressions etc. [LRD]: Refers to responding in other ways besides verbal communication as in demonstrating what a word means. e.g. a learner demonstrating what blinking means.

APPENDIX C

A: LESSONS

Teacher 1: The lesson in this class was based on a story titled the *The Battle.* The teacher and class read the story together. In the process of reading, new words were identified and discussed in detail.

Teacher 2: The lesson was based on a poem called *Superstitions.* One of the learners read to poem to the whole class. After that the teacher reread the poem "with the meaning it deserved". Learners were asked questions regarding what they had just read. later the class was divided into groups for discussion and dramatisation.

Teacher 3: His lesson was based on an extract titled *Comfort Herself.* The learners were given a set of questions that they were to answer in different groups.

B. QUALITATIVE COMMENTS MADE DURING THE LESSONS

Lesson 1

Pedagogics: The teacher is solely concerned with vocabulary. They read from the book and whenever a new word is identified, reading stops and he finds out if learners know what the word means. He continually uses probing by referring to learners' experiences, comparing situations etc. The lesson seems to be well thought out; the teacher seems to have mapped out in advance where to stop during the reading and what questions to ask.

Class organisation: The classroom is spacious and tidy. There are about 35 learners; two to three learners share a desk. The learners are very quiet and they only speak if asked a question. They also seem to respect their teacher who could be old enough to their father. They address him as "Sir". They are also very relaxed and respond easily to his jokes.

Lesson 2

Pedagogics: The teacher is dealing with vocabulary. He uses direct questioning/teaching technique. There is no probing or guidance to lead learners to the wanted answer. The lesson is a bit confusing because there is not enough follow-up on learner responses.

Class organisation: The classroom is very small with about 25 learners. Desks are arranged close to one another with 3 to 4 learners sharing. It is very untidy, for example, there are papers on the floor, there are remnants of Mathematics, Xhosa and Commerce notes on the chalkboard. The teacher only clears the space he needs when he wants to write something. In addition, the school is very close to the main road, so there is a constant traffic noise. Many learners have arrived late for class; probably from the toilets. Learners from other classes peep through the door and run away when they see that a lesson is in progress. Some of the class members are also disruptive

because they talk at leisure. The teacher does not say anything about this kind of behaviour. The learners are on first name terms with their teacher.

Lesson 3

Pedagogics: The teacher is concerned with teaching learners how to answer different types of questions. The teacher seems to have planned the lesson in advance and there is coherence in classroom activities.

Class organisation: The classroom is very small. However, the classroom setting is well arranged and there is a general sense of order. Most of the learners are already seated when the lesson commences with about 2 who arrive five minutes late (probably from the toilets). The classroom is very clean and orderly. Teacher-learner rapport is high because the learners are very relaxed. They address their teacher as "Umfundisi" meaning teacher.

C. EXTRACT OF MATERIAL USED

Lesson 1 *The battle*

Ghamka ran to Noni's hut and called out politely, as she had taught him, 'May I come in?' 'Come in my son." He blinked, adjusting his eyes to the dark interior of the hut. Then he sprang into Noni's arms.

'Mamas!" he cried excitedly. 'I am to be captain of the stone gatherers. My tatab says I am nearly a man now."

'That is good," Said Noni in a choked voice. Ghamka was puzzled. Why did she look sad?

Noni went over to the wall of the hut and lifted down a thick stick which had been tied up there ever since Ghamka could remember. He had often wondered about it.

This was Naob Harus' stick when he was a young like you," She told him. 'It's strong and hard like a spear. Now it is yours."

Ghamka took the stick reverently in both hands. The niggling fear inside him dwindled away. He made up his mind to be worthy of his Naob, his brave grandfather.

Noni bent over him, and tied a little leather bag round his neck. It contained a dried root. 'Keitsi says that this will keep away bad spirits," she told him. 'Don't lose it." Noni gave him a quick hug. 'Remember you are a chief's son, Ghamka. Be a man tomorrow. Now come and eat."

Lesson 2 *Superstition*

I know
that when a grumbling old woman
Is the first thing I meet in the morning
I must rush back to bed
And cover my head.
That wandering sheep on a sultry afternoon
Are really men come from their graves

To walk in light
In mortal sight.
That when my left hand or eyelid twitches
Or when an owl hoots from a nearby tree
I should need pluck
It means bad luck.
That drink spilled goes to ancestral spirits,
That witches dance in clumps of bananas;
That crumbs must be left in pots and plates
Until the morn
For babes unborn.
That it's wrong to stand in doorways at dusk
For the ghosts must pass - they have right of way!
That when a hidden root trips me over
Fault's in my foot.
It's an evil root.
That if I sleep with feet towards the door
I'll not long be fit
I know it - yes I know it!

Lesson 3 ***Comfort Herself***

'I expect you will find Granny fusses a bit," Miss Hanker said carefully negotiating a bus drawing into a bus stop in the narrow lane. SO much depended on the initial meeting, she thought, a sullen expression could ruin the most promising placement. The Bartons were family of course but Comfort's colour could be a difficulty. 'Older people do fuss rather. It's a way of being fond of people, fussing. You want the people you are fond of to quite perfect. You'll have to try to understand that, Comfort. Lots of please and Thank you and perhaps you'll help granny all you can because she's not very strong."

1. Why is Miss Hanker taking care of Comfort?
2. What is the matter with Comfort's colour?
3. How is granny related to Comfort?
4. "Lots of please and Thank you..." refers to

A. Manners. B. Discipline C. Humbleness

5. Explain why Comfort has come to stay with her parents?

APPENDIX D

EXAMPLE OF HOW DATA FROM APPENDIX A WAS QUANTIFIED AND EVALUATED

(referring to a number of times behaviour was recorded to have occured)

	A:TS	Total number of times recorded
Uses feelings	1	
Accepts approximations	6	2
Direct questioning	8	3
Direct instruction	9	4
Encourages thinking	13	1
Compares situations	14	1
Invites responses	23	1
Recaps	25	1

	B: LF	Total number of times recorded
Models vocabulary	VM	2
Repeats content	CR	4

	C: P	Total number of times recorded
Varies turn-taking	TT	2
Teacher inquires about understanding	TIU	1

	D: LD	Total number of times recorded
Class attends	ca	10
Class reacts	rea	4
Learner answers question	laq	3