

TEACHING METHODS IN GRADE 7 IN SHURUGWI DISTRICT,
ZIMBABWE

by

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DECLARATION AND COPYRIGHT

I hereby declare that the dissertation submitted for the degree Master of Education in Didactics (98434) at UNISA is my own original work and has not been previously submitted to any other institution of higher education. I further declare that all the sources cited or quoted are indicated and acknowledged by means of a comprehensive list of references.

CHIRINDA ADMORE

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DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my family that includes Pretty, Ivainavo, Anesu and Ruvarashe Chirindas.

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ABSTRACT

The research study was conducted to investigate the effectiveness of the instructional methods, particularly the lecture-discussion instructional method as a teaching and learning method at grade 7 level, in Shurugwi district, Zimbabwe. The subject taught being English language. The experimental method (quasi-experimental) used at the twenty chosen schools was the pre-test and post test group method. It was found that the lecture-discussion instructional method produced better results in more cases than the discussion method alone. It was also found that work produced by the lecture-discussion instructional method was more refined than work produced by the discussion method alone. Guided learners were more work focused than learners discussing alone without a teacher. Average and below average learners did not enjoy learning without the presence of the teacher talk. The learners, during teacher absence, seemed hesitant and confused at times. The lecture-discussion method seems to cater for all the learners and their learning styles. The importance of the teacher in the class was clearly demonstrated by the work and results produced by the learners at the twenty selected primary schools in Shurugwi district, Midlands province, Zimbabwe. All the learners that received treatment from the experiment produced better results than their control groups that did not receive the treatment. However, conclusions and generalisations can not be made because the samples used and the areas covered were too small in size. The learners studied were too few to make meaningful generalisations and conclusions for the country. Further researches should be carried out in future.

TITLE PAGE

TEACHING METHODS IN GRADE 7 IN SHURUGWI DISTRICT,
ZIMBABWE.

Research Summary

Title of the research

Teaching methods in Grade 7 in Shurugwi District, Zimbabwe.

The research problem was identified as high failure rate of grade 7 learners in English, in Shurugwi district, since 2003 to 2009. Among the suggested causes of the failure rate, only one was investigated, the methods of instruction. One method of instruction (lecture) was investigated. This was chosen because current system of education (Outcomes Based Education) is highly supporting child-centred approaches and hands-on methods, while it is neglecting and denouncing the lecture method.

The research study was done theoretically and practically. The research done tried to investigate the effectiveness of the lecture method of instruction when employed as a supplement to other methods during teaching. Literature study was done, the research methodology set and the practical findings got and tabulated. The tables were interpreted and analysed. Quantitative (positivism) approach was used. The results, conclusion and recommendations were written.

The findings supported the use of the lecture method as a supplement to other teacher and learner-centred methods during teaching and learning situation.

Definition of terms (Operational definitions)

Proper descriptions of terminologies which were used in the investigation are explained in terms of the context of the research.

1. Method: a method is a way, process, system, manner, technique or course of action taken to do something.
2. Teaching method: a teaching method can be defined as a planned procedure intended to achieve a specific aim or objective. In the school context, it is defined as the various classroom activities planned by the teacher which must always take the main components of the didactic situation (learner, teacher, content) into consideration (Fraser et al. 1992:153). To Jacobs, Vakalisa and Gawe (2004:175), "a teaching method is a particular technique a teacher uses to help learners gain the knowledge which they need to achieve a desired outcome". Therefore a teaching method is all that a teacher plans to make the learners understand the concepts to be taught.
3. Teacher-centred methods (ostensive): The teacher dominates the talk and activities in the classroom. The teacher supplies most of the information to the learners. In the ostensive approach to teaching the teacher supplies (transmits) all the information and learning content is communicated to the learners (Lasley & Matczynski, 2005:240). In this research, the word 'ostensive' literally means to supply, show, demonstrate and tell.
4. Lecture method: The lecture method of instruction is also an ostensive method. Lecture method (sometimes called narrative, expository or ostensive) is a direct instructional method of teaching and learning (Fox, 2005:12). In most textbooks it is referred to as a teacher-centred method and \ or 'receptive activity' teaching method. According to Borich (1998:143) and Killen (2007:126) expository teaching method is also known as "direct instruction, demonstration teaching, competency-based instruction, presentation, explicit instruction, deductive or didactic teaching and teacher-directed instruction". It is when the teacher silences everyone in the class and let everyone in the class listens to him or her talking. The teacher may be instructing, introducing something, guiding learners, summarizing facts or directing learners towards a point, to achieve desired outcomes. The lecture method is teacher-centred, highly structured and activity directed. Moore (2009:145) and Curzon

(2005:306) also share the same explanations with the above authors when they say, “a lecture involves a continuous oral and formal exposition of, or discourse on, some topic”. The definition of Kirschner, Sweller and Clark (2006:75) summarises the lecture method as “providing information that fully explains the concepts and procedures that students are required to learn as well as learning strategy support that is compatible with human cognitive architecture”.

5. **Learner-centred methods:** Learner-centred methods are those teaching methods that favour self-activity like the discussion, problem solving and co-operative learning methods. Learner-centred methods allow very high learner participation and the learners would determine the progress of their learning according to how they understand (Nash, 2009: xiv-xv, and Jacobs, Vakalisa & Gawe, 2004:175-176). Therefore, learner-centred methods are those methods that allow learners to do the things themselves, to discover information, hands on approach and learners own the learning.
6. **Discussion method:** One of the learner-centred methods. Discussion, a learner-centred method, is defined by Killen (2007:155) as “an orderly process of group interaction in which learners are exchanging ideas listening to a variety of points of view, expressing and exploring their own views, applying their knowledge and reflecting their own attitudes and values”. In a discussion, communication is between and among learners themselves and, learners and the teacher (that is, learner-learner interaction and learner-teacher interaction).
7. **Supplementary:** In simple terms the word supplementary means harmonizing, paired or corresponding. In this research context, complementary means, something that is added to something else to make it complete. In this case, the lecture method is used together with other methods to try to get the desired goals. The lecture method tries trying to complement the learner-centred method (discussion).
8. **Quantitative approach:** Quantitative research approach involves the study of samples and populations, and relies heavily on numerical data and statistical analysis. For Mouton and Marais (1990:150), the quantitative approach is that approach to research in the social sciences that is more highly formalised as well as more explicitly controlled, with a range that is more exactly defined and which in terms of the methods used, is relatively close to the physical sciences.

9. Positivism: [The positivistic paradigm (positivism), founded by such great philosophers like Auguste Comte (1798-1857) and Emile Durkheim (1858-1917).] Positivism refers to a set of epistemological perspectives and philosophies of science which hold that the scientific method is the best approach to uncovering the process by which both physical and human events occur (Wisker, 2008:78-84). Epistemology is the branch of philosophy that studies the nature of knowledge and the process by which knowledge is acquired and validated. The fundamental of positivistic paradigm is: Objective reality exists that can be known only by objective means.

10. Outcomes based education: In Outcomes Based Education (OBE), the focus is on achieving measurable outcomes and not focusing on completing a syllabus. Outcomes are the things a learner is expected to be able to do, understand and demonstrate at the end of the learning process (Shuter & Shooter Booklet, 2005:4). Outcomes Based Education is a new system of education which is activity based, learner-centred, and social and learner responsible.

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CHAPTER ONE: - INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Statistics on the performance of learners in grade 7 final examinations showed that most learners failed English language as a subject during the years 2003 to 2009 in the Midlands province, Zimbabwe (Zimbabwe Schools Examination Council 2003-2009 reports) and Shurugwi district in particular, performed badly during these examinations. The average performance in the subject ranged from 40% to 55%. The government has introduced interventions in the form of workshops to introduce teachers to use learner centred instructional methods and do away with teacher-centred methods. Since the beginning of this century revolutionary changes have taken place in the field of education to eradicate teacher centred methods (e.g. lecture) in favour of learner centred methods including activity based (discussions) and problem solving methods (Duminy and Sohng, 1983:60). As much as there seems to be acceptance and use of learner-centred instructional methods and reduction of the use of the lecture method, performance of students in Grade 7 final examinations still has not improved much, students continue performing poorly, especially in English language, and yet, as I have indicated they are now exposed to “good” learner-centred methods. The answer to this concern may be poorly organised didactic situations (learning environment), where the teacher, methods, activities, the learners and other didactic factors exist. The researcher’s concern is whether it is actually right to completely do away with the lecture method or does it serve a purpose in the didactic situation to help learners obtain better performance results?

This investigation looked at the instructional methods employed by the teachers as a starting step. The assumption was that the methods currently employed are not so effective, that they may need to be complemented by the lecture method.

The researcher as an educationist and a holder of a Master’s degree in Education management, wanted to understand, to some extent, why learners do not performing satisfactorily, especially in that particular subject, English language, grade 7. The researcher also has seventeen years of service in education as a classroom teacher and is very worried about the failure rate of the grade seven learners in particular. Authors and chief proponents of activity based methods and lecture method like Nash (2009), Jacobs, Vakalisa and Gawe (2004), Moore (2009), Steyn, Badenhorst and Yule (1988), Curzon (2005), Fraser, Loubser and Van Rooy (1992), Jarvis (2006), Jacobs and Gawe (1998), Killen (2007) and Duminy and Sohng (1983) were asked to help with the literature needed.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Learners continue performing poorly in the English language at primary school level, in Zimbabwe, yet the so called good learner-centred methods are in use. Current trends in Education seem to be favouring learner-centred methods like the discussion, problem-based and project methods. Surprisingly, while the so called best instructional methods are being used, learners still fail their examinations. The problem of failing English at grade seven level is really a problem because all the learners who fail this subject at this level will be denied entry into historically high performing secondary schools, when they need to access secondary education (Form one). One of the requirements to be admitted at secondary schools is a pass in the English language. In the long run this selection definitely determines the learner's future life. Failing English language is deemed as poor academic performance at this level by the system of education we have in Zimbabwe. English is one of the compulsory subjects for one to access a better educational institution with high status and that produces leaders of tomorrow.

The explained situations above needed to be looked into from a research perspective by trying other methods or a combination of methods. This research tried a combination of methods as a solution to the existing problem. The solutions got, are going to help educators on what to leave or take when structuring their lessons and improve the standards of education in schools, particularly in the English language as a school subject at primary school.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTION

The main research question is, "How effective are the instructional methods used in Grade 7 level in Shurugwi district, Zimbabwe, especially in the English language?"

1.3.1. SUB-QUESTIONS

- a) What is the influence of the lecturing, as a supplementary method to the discussion method of instruction on the academic performance of grade 7 learners in English language as a school subject?
- b) How effective or useful is the lecture method of instruction in the didactic situation?
- c) What are some of the weaknesses of the lecture method of instruction when used alone?
- d) What are some of the strengths and weaknesses of the discussion method when used alone?
- e) What are the major advantages/ strengths and benefits of using a combination of the discussion and the lecture method of instruction in the didactic situation?

- f) Is it necessary to include the lecture method and other methods of instruction in the didactic situation for better academic results for learners?

1.4 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to determine the effectiveness of the instructional methods used in Grade7, in English language, on the academic performance of the learners in Shurugwi district, Zimbabwe.

1.4.1 AIM/S

The empirical study aims at the following:-

- a) To determine if the use of the lecture method as a complement to the discussion method has any positive, negative or no effects to the academic achievement / performance of the grade 7 learners in English language as a school subject.
- b) To prove the validity of the combination of the discussion and lecture methods in the didactic situation.
- c) To prove that, the discussion method is not adequate enough on its own, it needs a supplement although it is learner-centred.

1.4.2 OBJECTIVES

- a) To investigate whether there is any need to include other instructional methods and the lecture method during teaching and learning situations at primary school level, particularly in grade 7, in English language.
- b) To find out if the lecture method should complement or supplement other teaching methods (discussion) to have better academic results from and for the learners at primary school level, grade 7.
- c) To investigate whether there is any need to include the lecture method during teaching and learning at primary school level, particularly in grade 7 English language.

1.5 DELIMITATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

1.5.1 DELIMITATIONS

The study was delimited to only one school district in the Midlands province. It was conducted in Shurugwi district, Midlands Province, Zimbabwe. Twenty alphabetically assembled primary schools from the district of sixty-two primary schools were considered. Twenty alphabetically chosen learners from attendance registers from each alphabetically assembled or chosen school were used either as part of the control groups or experimental groups. Only grade 7

learners from each “A” class were used, from each school. Both boys and girls were included according to their alphabetical order in their attendance registers at school.

1.5.2. LIMITATIONS

Due to limiting factors that are explained below, the research study had to be done in a small area to meet the available resources. The limiting factors were:

Transport problems:

The area has serious transport problems, people in the area walk from one place to another, over distances of more than twenty kilometers apart. The roads are bad and fuel is very expensive. This situation made it very difficult for the researcher and his assistants to travel regularly to these schools.

Organising with concerned schools:

It was difficult to get school management members such as headmasters on a single day. The researcher and his assistants had to visit a school more than twice to get permission to conduct his research. Several unfruitful journeys were made which cost time and money. If more schools were involved, this would have meant more journeys, more money and more time. Even when headmasters were present at their schools, they tended to delay a lot before they gave the researcher and his assistants, permission to work with their learners.

Considering the above hurdles, it was better to limit the study to the confines of a small area manageable and within limits (Shurugwi district in particular).

1.6. DEFINITION OF TERMS. (OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS)

Proper descriptions of terminologies which are going to be used in the investigation are explained in terms of the context of the research.

Teaching method: a teaching method can be defined as a planned procedure intended to achieve a specific aim or objective. In the school context, it is defined as the various classroom activities planned by the teacher which must always take the main components of the didactic situation (learner, teacher, content) into consideration (Fraser et al. 1992:153). To Jacobs, Vakalisa and Gawe (2004:175), “a teaching method is a particular technique a teacher uses to help learners gain the knowledge which they need to achieve a desired outcome”. This method can be teacher-centred (ostensive) or learner-centred (heuristic) approach to learning. In the ostensive approach to teaching the teacher supplies (transmits) all the information and learning content is communicated to the learners (Lasley & Matczynski, 2005:240). In this research, the word ‘ostensive’ literally means to supply, show, demonstrate and tell. The lecture method of instruction is also an ostensive method.

Lecture method (sometimes called narrative, expository or ostensive) is a direct instructional method of teaching and learning (Fox, 2005:12). In most textbooks it is referred to as a teacher-centred method and \ or 'receptive activity' teaching method. According to Borich (1998:143) and Killen (2007:126) expository teaching method is also known as "direct instruction, demonstration teaching, competency-based instruction, presentation, explicit instruction, deductive or didactic teaching and teacher-directed instruction". It is when the teacher silences everyone in the class and let everyone in the class listens to him or her talking. The teacher may be instructing, introducing something, guiding learners, summarizing facts or directing learners towards a point, to achieve desired outcomes. The lecture method is teacher-centred, highly structured and activity directed. Moore (2009:145) and Curzon (2005:306) also share the same explanations with the above authors when they say, "a lecture involves a continuous oral and formal exposition of, or discourse on, some topic". The definition of Kirschner, Sweller and Clark (2006:75) summarises the lecture method as "providing information that fully explains the concepts and procedures that students are required to learn as well as learning strategy support that is compatible with human cognitive architecture".

Learner-centred methods are those teaching methods that favour self-activity like the discussion, problem solving and co-operative learning methods. Learner-centred methods allow very high learner participation and the learners would determine the progress of their learning according to how they understand (Nash, 2009: xiv-xv, and Jacobs, Vakalisa & Gawe, 2004:175-176).

Discussion, a learner-centred method, is defined by Killen (2007:155) as "an orderly process of group interaction in which learners are exchanging ideas listening to a variety of points of view, expressing and exploring their own views, applying their knowledge and reflecting their own attitudes and values". To Killen (2007:155) and Moore (2009:170), all forms of discussions are associated with a high level of verbal interaction among the learners themselves. Therefore communication is the key to success. During discussion, more emphasis will be on helping one another to reach a common and better understanding of the issues involved, rather than being involved in arguments and propaganda.

Complementary: In this research context, complementary means, something that is added to something else to make it complete. In this case, the lecture method is used together with other methods to try to get the desired goals. The lecture method tries trying to complement the learner-centred method (discussion).

1.7. ASSUMPTIONS

The assumptions were as follows:-

7.1. The seventh graders to be tested will not be repeaters of the seventh grade. Secondly they have not done the topics to be done in their classes with their teachers. (Schemes of work used as evidence).

7.2. The learners are going to be kept as natural as they always are at their schools.

7.3. The learners can write, read and understand English as their media of communication. At times English is mixed with their mother language for better communication. Learners can take instructions in English verbally (orally) and in written form.

1.8. IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

The study wanted to determine the effectiveness and the importance of teaching and learning English at primary school level using the lecture method as complementary method to discussion method. The study tried to determine the effects of the lecture method on the academic performance of the learners after being subjected to the lecture method, complementing child-centred method (discussion).

The data which was collected, interpreted and analysed would support or not supported the use of the lecture method of instruction as a complement to the discussion method. The research results may be of assistance to teachers when preparing, planning and executing their lessons, especially in the subject English, at primary school level grade 7. The results would also help the educators to improve English of the learners at school, hence, improve learner-results in examinations. The learners would get better secondary school places for Form 1 because of better examination results in English language.

1.9. LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature study is aiming at showing the readers what the lecture method of instruction can do and cannot do, according to what authors and theorists have proved. In other words, the literature study is trying to show the strengths and the weaknesses of the lecture method when working alone, that demand it to work with other methods. The literature study also must show that, the discussion method has its own weaknesses that need other methods like the lecture method to remedy them. Theoretically, the literature study is aiming at how best the gaps left by the discussion method can be covered by the rejected and denounced lecture method of instruction. The aim is to show clearly how the lecture method of instruction can be utilized together with the learner-centred methods without any dangers in the didactic situation. The literature study must show how good or bad are the lecture and discussion methods especially when they are combined, supplementing each other.

1.10 THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

According to Cohen and Manion (1994:9-11), in the social sciences, two main approaches to research are distinguished. These are postpositivist research (qualitative research) and positivist research (quantitative research). The researcher has the choice to choose either one of the approaches or to have the combination of the two. To Mouton and Marais (1990:20) and Cohen and Manion (1994:9-11) a decision to follow one or a combination of these methodologies, does of course, entail further more specific choices regarding the various methods of data collection, data analysis and inference.

De Vos (1998:15) agrees with Mouton and Marais (1990:150) when they state that, qualitative research involves the study of cases and makes very little use of numerical data or statistics, but rely heavily on verbal data and subjective analysis. Quantitative research involves the study of samples and populations, and relies heavily on numerical data and statistical analysis.

For Leedy (1993:139), all research methodology rests upon a bedrock axiom: "The nature of the data and the problem for research dictate the research methodology". Data, factual information and human knowledge must reach the researcher either as words or numbers. De Vos (1998:15) sees qualitative research methodologies as dealing with data that are basically verbal, and quantitative research methodologies as dealing with data that are principally numerical.

For Mouton and Marais (1990:150), the quantitative approach is that approach to research in the social sciences that is more highly formalised as well as more explicitly controlled, with a range that is more exactly defined and which in terms of the methods used, is relatively close to the physical sciences. In contradistinction, qualitative approaches are those approaches in which the procedures are not as strictly formalised, while the scope is more likely to be undefined and a more philosophical mode of operation is adopted.

Researches seem to involve diverse approaches. Philosophers, therefore, when investigating the nature of scientific inquiry, developed different schools of thought. Social science researchers have been influenced by these schools of thought, such as positivism, empiricism, phenomenology, postpositivism, and they have staked out their own epistemological positions about how research in their respective disciplines (education, psychology, sociology) should be done. Mouton and Marais (1990) see epistemology as the branch of philosophy that studies the nature of knowledge and the process by which knowledge is acquired and validated.

Positivism as an epistemological doctrine believes that the physical and social reality is independent of those who observe it, and that observation of this reality, if unbiased, constitute scientific knowledge. Wisker (2008:65) went further explaining positivistic research methodology as “based on the belief that the world is describable and provable, measurable and deductive, because the research tests a hypothesis or assumption and typically would use quantitative methods to collect the data, because large amount or vehicle, or methods, are reliable for future use”. Positivists are behaviourist in nature, basing on observable behaviour. The work of B. F. Skinner, Pavlov and that of Bandura Albert exemplifies the work of behaviourism, a positivistic approach. Positivist research is grounded in the assumption that features of the social environment constitute an independent reality and are relatively constant across time and settings. Positivist researchers develop knowledge by collecting numerical data on observable behaviours of samples and then subjecting these data to numerical analysis (Gall et al., 1996:767). To Gall et al., behavioural researchers in education and psychology exemplify an approach to scientific inquiry that is grounded in positivist epistemology. Researchers who subscribe to positivist epistemology believe that features of the social environment retain a high degree of constancy across time and space, just as physicists believe that neutron and protons have objective features that do not vary from one laboratory setting to another or from one day to the next.

The process of generalisation according to Gall et al, (1996:23) goes like this: The researcher starts by defining a population of interest. The population includes too many members to study all of them, so the researcher attempts to select a manageable sample as one that is representative of the population. The researcher then attempts to generalise the findings obtained from studying the sample to the larger population. Statistical techniques are available to determine the likelihood that sample findings are likely to apply to the population.

Logical positivism has its own critics and weaknesses noticed by philosophers of science. It has been faulted for placing undue value on quantitative approaches, experimental designs, objective measurement and statistical analysis. To De Vos (1998:16) the critics contend further that social science research has borrowed from the methods of the physical sciences that are often ill-suited for studying the ever-changing and elusive complexities of social phenomena. The critics see a place for “hard science” methods in social sciences but argue that these methods have been wrongly equated with “good science” (De Vos, 1998:16).

Postpositivism as an opposing epistemological position to positivism is based on the assumption that social reality is constructed by the individuals who participate in it (Gall et al., 1996:18). This epistemological doctrine (postpositivism) or school of thought believes that social reality is constructed differently by different individuals (Wisker, 2008:66). These constructions take the form of interpretations, that is, the ascription of meanings to the social

environment. The assumption is that, these interpretations tend to be transitory and situational. Features of the social environment are not considered to have any existence apart from the meanings that individuals construct for them (Gall et al., 1996:18). Postpositivist researchers develop knowledge by collecting primarily verbal data through the intensive study of cases and then subjecting these data to analytical induction (Gall et al., 1996:767).

This view of social reality, explained above, is consistent with the constructivism movement in cognitive psychology, which posits that individuals gradually build their own understanding of the world through experience and maturation. Piaget's theory of intellectual development in children exemplifies the constructivist movement in cognitive psychology (Gall et al., 1996:19).

These terms (positivist and postpositivism) emphasise the fact that the two types of research differ in the nature of the data that are collected. The epistemological assumptions that lead to the study of cases or populations also have implications of how findings of a particular research study are generalised.

According to Gall et al, (1996:29) and Wisker (2008:68-69), some researchers believe that qualitative research is best used to discover themes and relationships at the case level. Quantitative research is best used to validate those themes and relationships in samples and populations. In this view, qualitative research plays a discovery role and quantitative research plays a confirmatory role. They seem to have different purposes, therefore it is inappropriate to compare the relative efficacy of these two. They complement each other. These (qualitative and quantitative research) are the generations of insights on the one hand and the testing of hypotheses on the other. Biddle and Anderson in Gall et al, (1996:29) have this to say, "Although advocates for discovery (qualitative researchers) decry the arid tautologies of confirmationists (quantitative researchers), and the latter express disdain for the sloppy subjectivism of discovery research, the two perspectives complementary goals. We need both".

Biddle and Anderson in Gall et al, (1996:16) have the idea that; where it is necessary, a combination of these approaches should be used. However, each and every research should have one broad framework that is supposed to be used. Of course, that broad framework is going to be assisted by other approaches where necessary.

De Vos (1998:358) disagrees with the above idea of combining the two, when saying that combining the two approaches is highly problematic. Cresswell (1994:7) is also of the opinion that a researcher must identify a single research paradigm (approach) for the overall design of the study. Cresswell's objections to a combined study are:-

- (a). To use both paradigms adequately and accurately consumes more pages than journal editors are willing to allow.
- (b). The combination extends postgraduate studies beyond normal limits of size and scope.
- (c). Using both paradigms in a single study can be expensive, time-consuming and lengthy.
- (d) Researchers are seldom trained in the skills necessary to conduct studies from more than one paradigm.

Mouton and Marais (1990:169) and Wisker (2008:75-76) supported the use of both approaches, when they state that the phenomena which are investigated in the social sciences are so enmeshed that a single approach can most certainly not succeed in encompassing human beings in their full complexity. In support of Mouton and Marais (1996:169), De Vos (1998:359) adds that "It would therefore be futile to behave as though one approach should be canonized and another excommunicated". Posavac and Carey (1989:242) also contend that although purists from both camps would object, the best approach is to mix qualitative and quantitative evaluation methods.

After having noticed all the strengths and weaknesses of the approaches, the research topic and data to be collected dictate the best approach /es to use to investigate. For this research, the main approach used is positivism (quantitative approach) and joined with a little bit of postpositivism (qualitative approach) to validate the data collected.

The main research design used is grounded in the positivistic paradigm (positivism), founded by such great philosophers like Auguste Comte (1798-1857) and Emile Durkheim (1858-1917). To them, positivism refers to a set of epistemological perspectives and philosophies of science which hold that the scientific method is the best approach to uncovering the process by which both physical and human events occur (Wisker, 2008:78-84). Epistemology is the branch of philosophy that studies the nature of knowledge and the process by which knowledge is acquired and validated. It is knowledge, most particularly of the ways in which different disciplines construct, interpret and represent knowledge in the world (Wisker, 2008:66:69). Many philosophers have investigated the nature of scientific inquiry over a period of many centuries. They developed different schools of thought. Social science researchers were influenced by positivism, empiricism and phenomenology, for instance. The positivism's perspective is that science (knowledge) is only those things that can be positively observed and proved. Positivism paradigm is a system of philosophy based on things that can be seen or proved rather than on speculation (Cowie, 1989:964). Positivism as an epistemological (valid and reliable) doctrine believes that the physical and social reality is independent of those who observe it. Observation of this reality, if not biased, constitutes scientific knowledge (Wisker, 2008:78-84).

According to Wisker (2008:69-84), positivism asserts that the only authentic knowledge is that which is based on sense experience and positive verification. Positivism says that scientific methods replace metaphysics. The fundamental of positivistic paradigm is: Objective reality exists that can be known only by objective means. Human behavior is studied as a natural type of behavior via the empirical method in order to control and predict human social behavior.

In the social sciences such as education, two main approaches to research are also distinguished. These are positivist research/ quantitative and qualitative approaches to research. The approach used by the researcher for his research is positivist research/ quantitative. Quantitative research involves the study of samples and populations, and relies heavily on numerical data and statistical analysis (Wisker, 2008:68-69). Qualitative approach did not suit this research study because it relies heavily on verbal data and subjective analysis. However, qualitative research methods were used at the end of the research to validate the data collected. In this instance telephonic interviews were used.

When conducting a research in positivism, the following were noted:

The researcher starts by defining a population of interest. The population is too big to be studied. A reasonable sample is taken to represent the whole population. The researcher then attempts to generalise the findings obtained from studying the sample to the larger population. When dealing with quantitative research, statistical techniques are available to determine the likelihood that sample findings are likely to apply to the population (Gall et al., 1996:23).

The paradigm used for this research study is positivism and the main research approach is quantitative. Wisker (2008:66) has this to say, "The choice of methodology and the methods for your research follows on naturally from your world view and philosophy and from the clear definition of a title and of the research questions that underpin your research". All the factors mentioned dictate the choice of the methodology to be followed.

1.11. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1.11.1 Research Design

The purpose of this research study was to determine the effectiveness of the instructional methods used in Grade 7 in Shurugwi district, Zimbabwe, on the academic performance of learners, especially in the English language as a school subject.

A quantitative approach was used in this study. According to Mouton and Marais (1990) in Vermeulen (1998:10) the quantitative approach is a research approach in the social sciences

that is more formalised as well as more explicitly controlled. For Vermeulen (1998:10) quantitative research methods involve the study of samples and populations, and rely heavily on numerical data and statistical analyses. The experimental research method chosen here falls under this approach and is called the quasi-experimental research method. According to Borg and Gall et al, (1983:680) 'Experimental designs, where natural groups are used to get participants to use during experiments are named quasi-experimental designs'. An example of a natural group is an existing class at school.

Experimental research methods are designed to test cause-effect hypothesis (Vermeulen 1998:20). Hypothesis testing is done. Some tentative hypothesis is established and the experimental treatment is used to test the validity of the hypothesis (Gary 1990:127-129). In this research, the research questions were used instead of the hypothesis since the questions were more suitable in this particular research. The experimental group received some treatment and the control group, used for comparative purposes, did not receive some treatment. In this research, the independent variable (method) was the suspected cause and the dependent variable (performance) was the effect.

The quasi-experimental design that was used is the pretest-posttest non-equivalent control groups design. Two groups of subjects were used, which matched in all aspects in respect of intelligence and other characteristics that had a bearing on the experiment, like teacher experience and demographic characteristics. In quasi-experiments, the researcher works with already existing groups, such as classes of learners at school. To Lankshear and Knobel (2004:152-154), the candidates are not randomly assigned into groups and the researcher does not have full control over the study procedures. A quasi-experiment occurs when a researcher 'treats a given situation as an experiment even though it is not wholly by design' (Lankshear and Knobel, 2004:152-154). According to Lankshear and Knobel (2004:152-154); Gary 1990:127-129) and Borg and Gall et al, (1983:680), quasi-experimental designs are often the only option available to researchers in educational settings. However, quasi-experimental designs have lower internal validity due to lack of randomisation.

In experimental research, the researcher creates a new situation in which he can manipulate most of the factors that need to be investigated. This allows the researcher to conduct observations under carefully designed circumstances. Two sample groups of individuals were used, namely, an experimental group and control group. Those two groups were then divided into comparable variables such as age and socio-economic factors. These could have a bearing on the experiment. Older learners are likely to perform better than younger ones if given the same task, if they live in the same environment and are of the same gender.

The two groups of subjects (experimental group and control group), which were assembled using no randomisation, were used. Each group was given a pre-test. Thereafter, the

experimental group was subjected to teaching and learning using the lecture method plus group discussion method. The control group was subjected to the discussion method only, learning the same topic or concept done by the experimental group.

Both groups were given the same post-test on the same day, at their own schools. Individual scores were recorded for each candidate who participated in the test, forming a table of scores. The mean differences in performance were then calculated for each group. The differences of means were obtained by subtracting the pre-test mean from the post-test mean of each group. In analyzing the data from the pre-test post-test control group design, the researcher compared the actual scores and gained scores from the two groups. That is, comparing the post-test mean for the control group (M1) and the post test mean for the experimental group (M2). Then, the researcher compared the pre-test mean for the control group (m1) and pre-test mean for the experimental group (m2), and finally, the difference of M2 and m2 was compared to the difference of M1 and m1 in order to determine whether the treatment had a differential effect on the groups. At first, the pre-test means (m2 and m1) were also compared to see if the groups were equivalent, to some degree. Again the post-test means were compared to evaluate the treatment. That was done at each and every school involved in the research study.

Table 10.1 below shows the quasi-experimental design used: “The pre-test post-test non-equivalent groups design”.

GROUP	NUMBER	PRE-TEST	Treatment	POST-TEST	DIFFERENCE
		MEAN		MEAN	
EXPERIMENTAL	10	m2	X	M2	M2-m2
CONTROL	10	m1	-	M1	M1-m1

Key to the table

X= treatment, - = no treatment
 m1 and m2 = pre-test results (mean),
 M1 and M2 =post test results (mean)

1.12. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The criteria by which problem areas are assessed can also be applied to research questions. Research question must meet five criterions. These are relevancy, researchability, feasibility, specificity and ethical acceptability (ethical consideration). According to Wisker (2008:86-97), when researchers conduct research, especially where people are involved they must consider the ethics and confidentiality of their subjects. This view is also supported by Bak (2004:26) when saying that, “demonstrate, where necessary, that you are taking ethical considerations into account. When planning to have human subjects or vertebrate animals in your research, you must consult the ethical principles that govern research in your discipline”. When looking at the ethical acceptability of a research question, we look at whether the research is of value or not to the community. Coulson (1960:45) argues that researchers and scientists of all disciplines have a moral responsibility for the nature and consequences of their research projects. The research must be accepted by the community where it is supposed to be carried out and served. The research must have positive development to the society. Some research questions have negative impact or results on or for the community and the participants (Vermeulen, 1998:16). Hence, they can not meet the ethical considerations. For the research to meet this ethical acceptability, it must satisfy the community's values, morals, beliefs, attitudes and behaviour of the people in that community it is supposed to serve. Research used for unacceptable purposes is ethically unacceptable and should not be done. Acceptance or rejection of a research question by a community can only be seen when the community is enlightened about that research study and made to sign agreement forms. Vermeulen (1998:16) has this to say, “The world is currently very sensitive about the effect that research procedures may have on people, animals and on the earth's ecosystems”. Madsen (1993:61-62) states further that ethical considerations are there to avoid risks. The risks here include a lot of things that encompasses plagiarism and failure to follow the international guidelines when writing theses. To Madsen (1993:61-62) risk goes beyond physical danger, stress, discomfort embarrassment, invasion of privacy, and potential threat to reputation. Risk includes certain experimental procedures, the completion of some kind of personality inventories, questionnaires or protocols. Madsen (1993:61-62) and Bak (2004:28-29) agree that risk also includes the use of certain films, recordings, documents, photographs and tapes. To these writers above, an activity that could involve coercion or produce embarrassment is risk.

As researchers, we were responsible for the well being of our subjects/ participants during the investigation time. Subjects were not ill treated. Therefore, the researchers kept these ethical considerations in mind especially when dealing with people during chapter 4 (experimenting with human being). The researcher and his team explained the rights of participants to the learners and gave the following to the participants/ subjects, parents and teachers:-

The rights of the learners were explained to all the parties mentioned above. Some of the rights as mentioned by Tuckman (1978:16), Wisker (2008:86-97), Bak (2004:28-29) and Madsen (1993:61-62) are: - (which are fully explained on the addenda)

- The right to privacy or non-participation.
- The right to remain anonymous.
- The right to confidentiality.
- The right to experimenter responsibility. The assurance that the participants will not be harmed in any way by their participation in the research.
- The right to equivalence. To show that there is no benefiting group. The two groups (experimental and control) from each school will exchange roles during the next topic (topic two). The former experimental group becomes the control group, and the former control group becomes the experimental group.

The Nuremberg Code of 1947 was to be followed closely to protect the young learners in grade 7. This Code of 1947 was made in Nuremberg City after the Second World War. The horrors inflicted upon concentration inmates during the Second World War in the name of research led to some of the earliest legislation concerning scientific research (Vermeulen, 1998). According to Dane (1990:56), the Code gives rights to the candidates involved in the research to quit the research (terminate his or her participation) even before or during the research if anything negative is observed or anticipated. At each school, the researcher, together with the administration of each school, elected committees that would talk to the learners time and again, secretly. Each learner could cease his / her participation if anything negative was observed.

The form to be filled upon acceptance was signed by the concerned parties. (See addenda)

1.13. EXPOSITION OF THE STUDY

The research study has five chapters. Chapter one contains the introduction to the investigation, statement of the problem, the hypothesis, objectives, delimitations, definition of terms, assumptions, importance of the study, a description of the methods of investigation and exposition of the study.

Chapter two looked at the literature about the study. It provides theoretical background about the research study. Several sources were consulted to provide the literature needed.

Chapter three looked at the research methodology. The chapter explained the research design used. The experimental research method used is explained fully in detailed form.

Chapter four dealt with the work done by the learners and their performances, illustrated in tables and figures.

Chapter five dealt with the summary of results, conclusion, suggestions and recommendations. Room for further investigation was given.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE STUDY

The literature study is made up of the introduction to the literature related to the study (how teaching or instructional methods are used in general), the explanation of how, why and when are the lecture and discussion methods of instruction used. Also some analyses of these methods of instructions are included to see clearly how they work. Strengths and weaknesses of both the lecture and discussion methods are noted within the document. The question, "Why is it necessary to have a combination of the two methods?" is being answered theoretically.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Good teachers always use the best methods available for each and every lesson. Jacobs and Gawe (1998:233), supported by Killen (2007:125-153), say that best methods of teaching produce the best results for pupils regardless of their labels. The use of good available teaching and learning methods allows optimum understanding of concepts. A good teaching and learning method produces better results than other teaching methods (Moore, 2009:142-168). Didactically speaking, learners will perform at their best when good methods are in use. This research looks at the literature study on the lecture and discussion methods, the usefulness and the short-coming of these methods, didactically. Authors like Moore (2009), Steyn, Badenhorst and Yule (1988), Curzon (2005), Fraser, Loubser and Van Rooy (1992), Jarvis (2006), Nash (2009), Jacobs, Vakalisa and Gawe (2004), Jacobs and Gawe (1998), Killen (2007) and Duminy and Sohnge (1983) were consulted in conducting the literature study. The merits and demerits of the teaching methods in question clearly stated and analysed.

2.2. PERTINENT LITERATURE

2.2.1. Outcomes Based Education (OBE).

In Outcomes Based Education (OBE), the focus is on achieving measurable outcomes and not focusing on completing a syllabus. Outcomes are the things a learner is expected to be able to do, understand and demonstrate at the end of the learning process (Shuter & Shooter Booklet, 2005:4). According to Shuter and Shooter Booklet (2005:4), individual teachers can decide on the way in which learners work towards achieving the outcomes. Although OBE is activity based and learner-centred, the teacher will remain in the class as a mediator to guide and facilitate the learners. During guidance and facilitation, the teacher will tell the learners what is expected of them, how some of the tasks are done and what they should look for; if

lost, give them direction and so on (Nash, 2009: xiv). Time should be shared between listening and doing activities. The teacher will remain an important figure in the class for successful learning to take place (Shuter & Shooter Booklet, 2005:7). For OBE to succeed, Jacobs, Vakalisa and Gawe (2004:175-176) contend that the teacher should remain in the class talking to the learners who would be doing their tasks with direction.

According to Shuter and Shooter Booklet (2005:7), the teacher should pay particular attention to the following hints even though he is employing learner-centred activities or methods (these hints support the use of the telling methods as complementary to learner-centred methods):-

Activity based methods like group work will be noisier than teacher centred lessons. The teacher must constantly check and talk to the learners as a way to control the noise. Research studies in Freiberg and Driscoll (2000:194-195) found that direct instruction or supervision by a teacher is related to higher engagement of students than students working independently. Therefore, learners that do have a teacher with them are likely to have better results because of higher engagement. Many learners need to be taught how to work in groups. The teacher should talk to the learners on how to do group work and how they should organize their work.

Group work requires the teacher to be active and be involved all the time. It is essential that the teacher moves around and listens to the discussion of the various groups. This also provides the teacher with an assessment opportunity. Informal conversations with the groups can help to keep learners task-focused, but care should be taken to avoid unnecessary interruptions (Shuter & Shooter Booklet, 2005:7). This means that the teacher must not interrupt his learners unnecessarily when the learners are in the right direction.

There is no way the voice of the teacher can be taken away from the class. Shuter and Shooter Booklet (2005:7) state that, when employing other activity based methods, the teacher will be there talking to the learners, setting time limits for activities, and remind learners of the limits during the activity. This helps to keep learners task-focused. OBE seems to support the talking teacher to remain in the class for complementary purposes.

2.2.2. About Teaching Methods

Jarvis (2006:28-32), Fraser, Loubser and Van Rooy (1992:139) agree with Steyn, Badenhorst and Yule (1988:29) when they say that the teacher, didactically, must select a method or methods of teaching according to what is to be achieved. Methods can be complemented by others. The teaching method must suit the content as well as the aim of the lesson. However, the personality, talents and ability of the teacher play an important part in the selection of the methods. It is clear that different teaching methods are suited to different situation, subjects,

schools and institution, or that a combination of methods could be best in certain situations (Fraser et al 1992:139). The view is also supported by Shipley, et al (2006:16) when they noted that “there is no single way to teach a class”. There are many methods of teaching that can be employed to teach one lesson. Secondly, a method which fails with one learner may be helpful to another learner in the same lesson. The teacher should do the selection of the most appropriate methods to get the best results. This, however, means that a good knowledge of appropriate methods is therefore very valuable to the teacher to be. Shipley, et al (2006:16) say that “experience has indicated that the most effective initial teaching includes several methods, all employed during a single lesson or period”.

2.2.3. The Lecture Method

The lecture method of instruction as defined earlier in the previous chapter is a teacher-centred method, an expository method, a direct instructional method, a narrative, an ostensive and a telling method of teaching and learning, widely used by most teachers/educators throughout the world. The lecture method of instruction can be regarded as either a poor or a good method of instruction depending on how and when it is used (appropriately or inappropriately use of the method).

Freiberg and Driscoll (2000:184-185) have the same view with Steyn et al (1988:29) when supporting the lecture method. They maintain that the spoken word remains indispensable in the primary school but warns that it should act as an introduction to other forms of activity. They warned that the teacher should not talk for the whole duration of the lesson. By means of telling, the teacher should introduce the learners to the new subject matter by self discovery (Fox, 2005:12). Steyn et al (1988:30) are also supported by Forsyth et al (1999:61-68) when they look at what the teacher must fulfill when applying the lecture method:

It is essential that the teacher be well prepared. This will help the teacher to explain the work logically to have the attention of the learners. A well prepared teacher is likely to deliver his lesson well because he knows his content. A well prepared teacher has confidence in whatever he teaches. He knows what to say and ask, and when to do these actions.

The teacher should consider the developmental level of the learners. The teacher should not dictate to the learners, but by getting down to their developmental level, tell them about the subject matter. This tends to be more informal than lecturing (Steyn et al, 1988:29). The vocabulary used by the teacher should not be too simple or difficult to the learners. Too difficult or simple content tends to take away the interest of the learners. The learners would end up being noisier. Freiberg and Driscoll (2000:192) also said that the time of the lecture should be ten to fifteen minutes segments interspersed by other strategies. Other strategies can include questioning, discussions and stimulus variations.

Nash (2009: xv) supports Steyn et al (1988:30) when they suggest that the teacher may use stories when making use of the lecture method. At the primary school level, especially the junior classes, the subject matter representing new knowledge may be recast in the story form. Suitable interesting stories can be utilized to their fullest extent. Nash (2009: xv) has this to say, “---a tale well told has the capacity to transport us to another place, another time, and engage us in a way that few other things can do”. However, Steyn et al (1988:30) insist that the teacher must be very original because learners will only listen attentively when the story appeals to them. Secondly, when using methods like the lecture method, learners must be taught to listen intelligently (Steyn et al 1988:30). Learners need to be taught to look out for importance parts of the story. Key facts should be noted.

Steyn et al (1988:30) and, Freiberg and Driscoll (2000:178) agree with Fraser et al (1992:139) when they state that suitability of the subject matter as regard content and linguistic ability of the learner should be considered when using narrative (lecture) method. Facts of the subject matter should not be hidden by the story, but should be emphasized. The learner can enjoy excitement and action in the story but the teacher must not forget that the learner must also be intrigued by the information transmitted to them through the story. The presentation of content (data) according to Freiberg and Driscoll (2000:178) and Steyn et al (1988:30) should be simple, clear, absorbing and convincing.

“The living voice of the teacher has a formative influence on the child which no text book can achieve,” (Steyn et al 1988:31). This shows that narrative or lecture method is not a way to entertain the class. It is purposeful and aims at encouraging learners to learn. Narration is more than the communication of knowledge. It results in emotional experience (Nash: 2009: xv). Attention should be given to the level of the language used, the intonation and control of the teacher’s voice.

In short, Nash (2009: xiv) in line with Steyn et al (1988:31) believes that the lecture method, when used by a competent teacher, can be profitably used to establish self-activity in the learners. When using the lecture method as an introductory method to introduce the learner to new knowledge and to initiate exploration of new subject matter through self-activity, the teacher can apply it with good results in his class.

Moore (2009:147) and Bligh (1998:223) agree with Jacobsen et al (1993:282-284), when they say that “the inherent defects of the lecture method mean that, on its own, it is rarely adequate”. The lecture method is not enough. It needs to be combined with other suitable methods in some way in order to correct these defects. The lecture method has its own defects just like any other methods. Combining methods compensate where others are inadequate (Freiberg & Driscoll, 2000:197). Bligh (1998:224) suggests situations during

teaching, when the learner-centred method (discussion) should be used to cover the gaps left by the lecture method. The following situations are:- Feedback is needed by the students and lecturer for either continuation or re-teaching. During the lecture, the lecturer must stop lecturing and permits some form of responses from the learners. This is a very good teaching technique because it encourages feedback, expression, involvement, criticism, insight and high levels of thinking.

Rehearsals, since they consolidate learner memory traces, develop concepts, relate different items of information and obtain a view of the whole topic being considered. Learners should be given time to review lecture notes in groups. Learners can extract, elaborate and restructure information better when they work in groups than as individuals.

Avoid interference and negative transfer. Bligh (1998:224) and Killen (2009:126-127) suggest that learners should be given time to clarify what they have heard during lecturing. The learners must correct their misunderstandings, get what they missed from their peers, join what they got as pieces to form whole and make strong bases for future use. Least, it would be difficult to de-educate the wrong concepts if grasped now. To Bligh (1998:223) 'Longer periods of lecturing will be periods damaged by retroactive interference'. It is highly recommended to correct the mistakes early when they are few than later, when they are many (Killen, 2009:128). Deep processing is necessary in classes. Lecturing alone can not allow deep processing of information. If the learners are not given time to digest what the lecturer teaches them, they are likely to have what is called information overload. Because of information overload some of the information would be lost and deep processing is impossible (Bligh (1998:225). To reduce information overload of the lecture method and facilitate re-organisation of material, advance organizers can be used. Short buzz groups can be considered before a lecture is given. Secondly, to promote critical thinking at higher levels, lectures can be interrupted by asking questions, debating issues, introducing controversy, devising test instruments and integrating knowledge across the curriculum (Bligh (1998:225).

Reduce the intensity with self- pacing. Too fast lecturers cause psychological interference on the learners. Short discussions may reduce the intensity of learning demanded. Therefore, a mixture of the two is the best for the learners. Put discussions inside lectures to moderate the process of learning and remove confusion and boredom. Variety is the spice of life (Freiberg and Driscoll, 2000:192).

Activity based learning is always better than passive learning. The lecture method is generally passive, on the part of the learner. Experiments done by Bane and other in 1931 quoted in Bligh (1998:225) showed that retention of information is better when the information is taught through active methods than when taught through lecturing or telling method only. To combat

this weakness, a combination of methods is the best way. Methods must complement each other (Shipley, et al., 2006:16).

Lectures, though refined and well planned at times, need pauses for brief learner demonstrations, feedback, debates, role-play, problem solving and upgrade written exercises as precursors to discussions. The pauses are also needed for students to consolidate their notes. Mastery of present information or concepts is important for future development and progression. To Freiberg and Driscoll, (2000:192) the pauses can also work as stimulus variation that can help the learners to have learner-learner interaction and learner-teacher interaction. These interactions are very important for better concept understanding:-

Maintain high levels of attention all the time if possible. The lecture method alone can not keep the learners' attention all the time. Variations in teaching methods would usually provide greater novelty, more arousing auditory stimuli and changes in posture (Bligh, 1998:227 and Freiberg and Driscoll, 2000:192). Learners want to talk to their lecturers and peers. Learners, at times, want also to ask questions not only to be asked and answered. By having that friendly interaction in the lecture, attention is being harnessed.

Promote motivation by activity. Learners need to be involved in activities directly in order to be motivated. According to Bligh (1998:227) 'Involvement motivate; passive learning does not'. Involved learners are motivated. Motivation enhances learning. The lecture method does not have a lot of involvement on the part of the learners. Therefore, the lecture method needs to be supplemented or supplement other methods of teaching in order for the learner to use most, if not all, of his senses during involvement.

Accept and use human nature. Take nature as the best environment a person can live, as God created it. When God created 'men', there were no restrictions on interaction, communication and discussion among men. To Bligh (1998:227) 'the lecture method stifles the desire for self-expression - - - disregards the natural desire for social interaction, especially with one's peers'. People live in groups and it is natural. A man is a gregarious animal. Man lives with men, and not alone. People are born and live in families and groups, talking and socialising. The lecture method is artificial and not natural. On the other hand, the lecturer is an expert, who must deliver refined and authentic information within a lecture. Therefore, if that is the case, in order to progress, a mixed form of methods is needed mostly to accommodate both sides. Kruger and Muller (1989:79) and Duminy and Sohng (1986:79) emphasise that, one approach is not necessarily better than the other. The continuum of Kruger and Muller (1989:79) comes in as a better solution to teaching problems as far as the selection of methods and strategies are concerned. The educator has to move freely on the continuum, from one end to another, depending on the demands of the lesson and the type of the learners' learning styles. Good teachers know their learners and the lesson content.

Discussions can effectively teach thought and feelings. Lecture method teaches the acquisition of information and facts mostly. For Bligh (1998:227), education is not merely filling learner heads with information and facts. Education is about teaching feeling and thought through methods like the discussion method. Consider the following cognitive skills that require active learning in order to get them: - ability to apply principles, to analyse or synthesize complex data, to take decisions or to make fine judgments. How can these be taught if other methods are left out? The best way is to include other teaching methods that are at disposal. Hypothetical-deductive procedural reasoning can tell that the lecture method must be complemented or complement other learner centred methods to cover the inadequacy of one method.

Information and facts can also be taught with other methods, not lecturing method alone. Many teaching methods entail varied stimuli. Varied stimuli maintain arousal levels, high attention and interest than continuous lectures that are likely to cause boredom.

Learner learning styles differ from one learner to another. Why not matching the mix of the learners' learning styles? Some of the learners are highly talented, have high ability, skilful, very fast to catch, good listeners, slow understanding and so on. These differences alone push good educators to mix the styles of teaching and learning. This means that the educators should adapt to the differences learners have by using different styles that suit the different learners. A variety of teaching methods would try to help the learners achieve better academic results although it is not easy to do so.

After having noticed that the methods like the lecture method need to be combined with other methods, there is also a general educational argument for the use of varied teaching methods within a period of teaching (Moore 2009:152). The argument put forward by Bligh (1998:228) and Jacobs et al 2004:175-176) is that "Different kinds of objectives are best achieved by different methods". One method can be very good to achieve a certain objective but can not achieve another objective of a different nature. A method, for example, that can be used to achieve a 'measurement' objective can not be used to achieve 'an attitude' objective. It is clear that methods used should suit objectives to be achieved. There is no way one can say this method should be out of the didactic situation. All the methods are important including the lecture method, because it is needed somewhere, where it is vital depending on the objective to be done.

Bligh (1998:229) sees from both psychological reasons and the educational argument that discussion methods provide important combination when used with lectures. The author observes that better teaching is as a result of a combination of methods. Bligh (1998:10) and other cited authors are of the same opinion that lectures are relatively ineffective to inspire

interest in a subject to teach values associated with subject matter and for personal and social adjustment. Reasoning should direct educators towards the combination of methods or the use of the most appropriate method where one method is insufficient or not effective.

Combining teaching methods makes lessons more interesting, catch learner attention and promote learner arousal (Nash 2009:xiv). The following methods are recommended by Bligh (1998:231) to combine with the lecture method for better academic results for the learners:- buzz groups, horseshoe groups, controlled discussion, lecture discussion method, the case study method (case discussion), short talks by learners, audiotapes and reading, and computer facilities in the lecture rooms. These methods are among the best especially when the teacher and the learners are involved. The methods to be combined in any one lesson could be more than two in order to have that variation needed to arouse the interest of the learners. These combinations could be:-

- a) Lecture-Buzz groups-horseshoe-controlled discussion.
- b) Buzz group-lecture-Practical-horse-shoe groups.
- c) Step-by-step lecture (that is alternating lecture-discussion).
- d) Lecture-Individual problem solving-reading.

Killen (2007:125) agrees with Jarvis (2006:28) when they emphasise that the teacher must organise the situation for the learner to get the best out of the didactic situation. There is no way a teacher can be left out of the didactic system. It is the duty of the teacher to select the most suitable teaching methods (Bligh (1998:257). However, there are a number of factors that can influence the selection of these methods. Some of the factors are the limitation of the teacher, the quality of learners to be taught and the physical conditions. Some good methods can not work well because the teacher could not have been well versed with the methods or the learners could be handicapped somehow. The teacher's expertise in teaching methods must play a vital role, hand-and-glove with the objective to be achieved. Poor knowledge of methods on the part of the teacher, deductively, means that the learners can not perform well, academically. However, the knowledgeable teacher must be there since the department of education in a country must educate and employ teachers who are qualified to teach using these methods. Another assumption is that, the teachers are taught about all the teaching methods at colleges and universities during their training periods/ years. Therefore, teachers ought to use all the suitable teaching methods, in lessons, where appropriate and suitable to meet the lesson demands.

For Moore (2009:147) and Fraser et al (1992:140), the narrative method (lecture) is most probably the most common teaching method. Moore (2009:147) has this to say, "Virtually, every teacher employs it to some degree--- and posses some unique strengths". However, Fraser et al (1992:140) agree that in most normal lessons a combination of methods is used from one stage to another. Stoep (1981) in Fraser et al (1992:140) follows the same trend of

thought when explaining that the narrative method is the method used from preprimary to tertiary education (Freiberg and Driscoll, 2000:194-195). The writers above content that, in practice the lecture method is not a particularly rigid method. It is often used to introduce other topics, methods, or as the forerunner of other teaching methods such as the question-and-answer method. Freiberg and Driscoll (2000:197) continue supporting the blending of the lecture method with other universal teaching strategies by saying that this would add to the variability and effectiveness of the presentation.

Facilitator/Lecturer requirements

In order for this method to be effective and efficient, the narrator/ lecturer, however, must fulfill a number of requirements. Some requirements according to Killen (2007:126-130) and Moore (2009:147), are:

- a) The narrator must be in full control of his learners. He must strengthen his position of authority. This would help him to capture the attention of his learners. However, this does not suggest that the teacher must be cruel to his learners. The teacher must remain an authority in the class, a mediator, leader and facilitator of learning.
- b) At times, the narrator must be a lively speaker who can contribute to the discussion from his own experience. In most cases, lively speakers will always attract their listeners with actions, good expressions; clear and straight forward sentences that are easy to understand.
- c) For effective teaching to happen, planning must be done thoroughly (Fraser et al (1992:140). Thorough planning will make the teacher an expert in his subject, in that particular planned lesson. Well planned content is easy to deliver and to use. It is also easy to suit the level of understanding of the learners.
- d) Stuart (1985:71) in Fraser et al (1992:140) maintains that the narrator must be purposeful and conclude the discussion within the context of the discussion. The teacher must avoid going outside the discussion, or the learners will get confused and lost.

The lecture method (direct instructional method), for Jarvis (2006:73-81) and Fraser et al (1992:140), is suitable for a wide range of learners, from the preprimary child to the adult. Preschool learners in particular love stories, while adults sometimes prefer to listen passively; the lecture method often uses story telling. Preprimary and young learners in particular benefit from stories, since they perceive moral messages carried in stories very readily (Fraser et al 1992:141). In support of Fraser et al (1992), Jacobs and Gawe (1998:208-214) state that the teacher is the chief component in the didactic system and the master of them all. The teacher must organize the whole didactic situation. The teacher should manipulate all the other components for the good of the learners. To Jarvis (2006:73) the teacher is not 'dead' but

alive, in the classroom for effective teaching and learning. Even when the teacher applies child-centred methods like the discussion method, he/ she should talk to the learners on how that discussion should be done (Jacobs and Gawe, 1998:208-214). Things like rules and regulations governing the discussion should be given. Otherwise, the discussion can be a sheer waste of time, because of noise and confusion, disorder among the learners.

Jarvis (2006:73) in line with Jacobs and Gawe (1998:233), says that, the teacher is a fountain of knowledge and torch-bearer. Facts, concepts, generalizations and others, are expounded by the teacher either verbally or in written form. The teacher has the duty to explain, describe, define, demonstrate or tell while learners listen, observe, repeat, write and take instructions from the teacher. The teacher is responsible for the transmission of the content to the learner, the planning and the organization of the classroom activities. This means, there is no way a teacher can be substituted.

Jacobs and Gawe (1998:233) contend that, although the focal point is the teacher, and the pupils being passive recipients, expository methods can not be discredited completely. The best methods of teaching produce the best results for pupils, regardless of their labels. A classical example is given here. A lecture method can be used successfully when the teacher uses appropriate facilitating material like films, in advance, which prepare the learners to be receptive during the lesson (Freiberg and Driscoll, 2000:192).

For Jacobs and Gawe (1998:208-234), Nash (2009: xiv-xv) and Jacobs, Vakalisa and Gawe (2004:175-206) there is no teaching method that can work alone without being assisted by other methods. In order for a teacher to achieve an objective or a lesson to be successfully done, the teacher, at one time or another has to talk to the learners, either to introduce something, to guide the learners, to redirect the learners towards a point, to make conclusions, to summarise, analyse, interpret or even to tell the learners what is expected of them. The teacher can also give demonstrations while the learners watch attentively. As the lesson develops, pupils must be given chances to be active participants revealing their understanding of that particular concept. Learner-learner interaction and learner-teacher interaction must take place in the class. Jacobs and Gawe (1998:208-234), did not discard the expository methods, but only warn the teachers not to use them alone. Teachers are urged to combine teaching methods where necessary to get the best academic results in schools. The lecture method should be combined with other methods to have the best academic results in the schools.

Sharing the same view with Jacobs and Gawe (1998:208-234), Fraser et al (1992:139) and Duminy and Sohng (1983:59) are of the opinion that teaching methods supplement one another during teaching and learning. They say that there is no single way to teach a class. There are many good ways and they are used to supplement each other. Even during the

same lesson, a number of methods are considered necessary. The teacher considers the didactic situations when choosing which methods to use. During teacher training, teachers should be equipped with several teaching methods from which they will choose the best for each lesson, to be successfully done.

Nash (2009: xiv-xv), Moore (2009:145-152) and Duminy and Sohng (1983:60) clearly support learner-centred methods and tend to demise teacher-centred methods when working alone. They say, as a general rule it can be stated that, where possible, methods which are child-centred and which claim the active participation of the learner are to be preferred. Duminy and Sohng (1983:60) go on saying that, since the beginning of this century, revolutionary changes have taken place in the field of education. Teacher-centred methods, like the lecture method and recitation have been pushed out and replaced them with problem solving methods like the discussion method. It seems, however, as if a reaction against the complete negation and condemnation of the lecture method is already beginning to set in. Jarvis (2006:73) quoted a website of Oxford Brooks University reproducing an old paper called "Twenty terrible reasons for Lecturing". This is a clear indication that the lecture method should have gone, if it was not a valuable method of instruction.

Learner-centred methods (discussions) are highly supported by almost all the authors cited in this report as good methods of instruction especially when it comes to the teaching and learning of the following:

1. Change of attitudes, values and behaviour.
2. Discussions are more effective when debating issues like AIDS, poverty and hunger. These types of discussions can lead to the formation and establishment of such attitudes as civic duty, patriotism and public health concerns (Moore, 2009:170).
3. Discussion can be used to solve a problem, answer social and political questions, enhance learners' knowledge, develop understanding and reach a decision.
4. Discussions can promote and develop deeper thinking than lectures. The work done by the group is far much better than the work done by an individual. Group work is more refined than individual work (Killen 2007:155 and Fox 2006:14).

According to the Ministry of Education and Culture (1992:49), discussion is a technique which is central to participatory education. It allows members of a group to openly express their opinions on a subject and listen to the opinion of others. Discussions can be conducted with a whole class, but reducing the number of participants in a discussion creates a more informal atmosphere and promotes participation by all.

The Ministry further supports group discussions when saying that discussions allow shy learners and those unaccustomed to express themselves, to have a say and participate in a topic. Small group discussions allow everyone in the group to get a chance to speak and feel

able to contribute. The discussions promote good interaction among group members and stimulate free exchange of ideas. The intimacy created when a small group of peers discusses an issue helps remove inhibition. After hearing others' views and opinions, individuals can clarify their own ideas, values and attitudes (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1992:50). Participatory methods facilitate a process for the learner who begins with what he /she already knows and believes, facilitates critical analysis of practical experience and introduces new information and ideas to make changes. The Ministry of Education and Culture (1992:36) further acknowledges that the other important aspect of participatory methods is that the process of learning through dialogue fosters a sense of common experience. Learners will discover ideas and opinions on their own. Learners will share their own private fears and problems with others. Then, learners can look for solutions to their problems.

The Ministry of Education and Culture (1992:36) says that "In the traditional classroom, the learner is the passive receptor of the teachers' knowledge. The assumption is that the learner does not know, and the teacher knows all. Learning is achieved by paying attention and memorisation." This is against current methods of teaching and learning which promotes group discussion method.

Participatory methods recognise that when people form groups; they become stronger and develop the capacity to act. Participation in the learning process helps to foster a sense of responsibility among learners for their own education and for their own actions. It is only through such responsible participation that results become meaningful (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1992:38).

However, the Ministry acknowledges that discussions can be difficult and even chaotic. One of the most difficult things to achieve in group discussion is participation from all members. Some group members have the tendency to monopolise at the expense of others.

Duminy and Sohng (1983:61) and many websites did not completely do away with the lecture or telling method. They, however, say that the lecture method (narrative, story telling or teacher talk) when properly executed, has a place in every class. They admitted that it is difficult to see how the lecture method can ever be done away with in any classroom. The lecture method, according to Duminy and Sohng (1983:61) is needed at all levels from the infant school right through to the university. According to these authors, the word of the teacher can never be replaced altogether (Duminy & Sohng, 1983:60). Pre-primary and young learners in particular benefit from stories, since they perceive moral messages carried in stories very readily (Nash 2009: xv and Fraser et al 1992:141). Young learners like story telling methods than other methods when learning. Stories teach learners to be good listeners. Listening is one of the best skills needed in learners. Even if learners work in

groups, they need to listen to one another to get different views from others. In real life situation, say at work places, rallies and meetings, not all people talk. Only a few people talk and the rest listen. The lecture method is the best method to teach good listeners skills. However, learners also need time to show their skills by being involved in the activities which are learner based.

Fraser et al (1992:139) and Moore (2009:145) have another view when using the lecture method as a teaching method. They say, it is not suitable for teaching the deaf. They recommend the lecture method to be used to teach reading, writing, grammar, factual parts of History, languages or Religious and Moral Education lessons. Normally, in most societies, religious stories and moral values are given by senior members of the family (teachers). Learners are told what is culturally good and accepted by the community. At times no discussions are needed. There is no reason to argue against the statement which reads "God is righteous, holy and just". Biblically, it is true and correct, and no debate is needed here, except when one is evil and unholy. The teacher should tell his learners those holy statements without any fear.

Fraser et al (1992:139-140) and Freiberg and Driscoll (2000:178) noted that, in a didactic situation, the narrator is the instructor who teaches certain content to learners. The instructor takes the centre stage and dominates the talk. Fraser et al (1992:139-140) support the dominance of the instructor by saying that the instructor has more information to convey to the learners. This is because the instructor knows more about the content than the learners. One example is when a History teacher narrates about the battle that took place between the British and the Ndebele in 1896 (Anglo-Ndebele war 1896) in an interesting way. The narrator knows a great deal about what happened. The narrator has appropriate historical language that can make the learners like History and be historians of the future. A second example is when a science teacher explains how Eureka used his water-can to discover how to get the volume of a shapeless solid using the can, later known as the Eureka-can. The teacher would then give the learners time to go to the library to read more about how the Eureka-can can be used to measure the volume of shapeless solids. The school may not have enough textbooks for the learners to use during lessons. In that situation, the knowledgeable teacher is the text book. A teacher is a text book that learners can ask and get immediate explanations and answers from. A talking textbook is by far better than a hard paper copy in that instance.

Considering the typical examples given above, the talking teacher plays a vital role, didactically. The teacher sets the inquisitiveness, the readiness and the travelling gear of learners into action. The learners will be ready to find out more about something because the introduction is interesting. A teacher introduces his lesson by talking to the learners and setting limits. A learner is given work to do with boundaries around the work. The lecture and

learner-centred methods help one another to make the learner progress academically. A combination of methods is employed for better academic results on the part of the learner.

Fraser et al (1992:140) strongly argue for the lecture method by saying that the lecture method is linked up with a number of didactic principles. Therefore, the lecture method qualifies as an important didactic method. Here is another good illustration where the lecture method works profitably: - A religious education teacher can divide his class into small groups to discuss the topic "Prayer". The leaders of each group can give feed backs to the class by telling what his group feels. Obviously, the lecture method is shining, and operating very effective and efficiently to the success of the lesson objective set.

Moore (2009:147) has the same idea as Nash (2009: xv) and Fraser et al (1992:141), as they see guest speakers as narrators or tellers too. According to them, a guest speaker is an expert invited to address a group of people about a specific topic. This also is a classic example of the narrative method in practice. Teaching takes place in one direction in most cases. Teaching is reduced to the transfer of information by an expert (guest speaker). Questions usually are given attention at the end of the speech to enable the audience to participate in the discussion. A practical situation is when a National road safety council officer is teaching primary school learners about the dangers pedestrians can cause on roads. The officer tells the learners all what they must do and avoid. Questions are attended at the end. A discussion is welcome at that end. Time is wasted if the officer allows everyone to talk, suggest and judge. Least, the objective of the lesson will fail to be achieved within time. In real life situations, the educator telling the learners about road rules must save learners' lives by instructing the learners what to do and avoid discussions. The educator must tell the learners what the learners must do without any compromise, whatsoever. Rules that save life must be given to the learner and no discovery or discussion methods are wanted. Another good example is that learners must not be given chances to discover or debate how dangerous is the live wire on the electric circuit. By trying to investigate or discover the learner can be electrocuted. The teacher should not let his learners try to test how dangerous is the sulphuric acid. The teacher should emphatically tell his learners before the experiment that the acid is extremely dangerous to life. The lecture method should work first before the experiment is done. The lecture method works as a good complementary and life saving method to the learners.

A familiar and practical example of the lecture method, in most classes today, is the report back system. Learners can use the project method or other learner-centred methods to get facts or data about something. When learners report back on a project, in the form of a discussion, it can be described as an oral report. The report is given to the class which listens to it. Report backs are done using the lecture method (Fraser et al 1992:142).

When teachers teach by giving examples, they explain how mathematical formulas work to find all the answers for similar questions. The teachers will tell their learners how these formulas or generalisations work. At the end, other learner-centred methods can be used easily because the learners have been given direction by the talking teacher.

Oral discussions with classroom practitioners and researchers in Shurugwi district revealed that teachers have other reasons why they like to use the lecture method together with other activity based methods in classes. The classroom practitioners claimed that they do not have all the time under the sun to give learners to discover all the formulas, generalisations, principles and concepts already discovered by others. The teachers should give learners what must be used to find solutions to problems. A convincing example given by science teachers is Newton's Laws of Motion that can not be re-discovered today but applied by learners after the teacher has explained the laws to the learners. However, the learners should be given time to develop their understanding of the laws in the library. Fraser et al (1992:140) have this to say; after all, almost all the formulas, laws and generalisations in use were discovered by people way back. The teachers can tell the learners about the laws and let the learners go to the library to further up their understanding about these laws. The telling method plays a vital role as a complementary method to learner-centred methods. Each and every method needs the teacher to talk (tell) to the learners about what to do, how to do it and at times what to investigate. The teacher's voice is irreplaceable in the classroom. Didactically speaking, teaching can not take place without that component (teacher) as Fraser et al (1992:139-149) declare.

Jacobs and Gawe (1998:233) went further explaining that teachers with creative skills to express ideas clearly and logically can encourage pupils to be receptive, but listening attentively. The thinking is supported by Callahan and Clark (1982:143) quoted in Jacobs and Gawe (1998:233) when they argue that experienced and skillful teachers can use the lecture method to arouse pupils' interest, set pupils' thinking and wondering, open new vistas, tie together loose facts or ideas, summarise or synthesize and review. The authors above show us that the telling method is useful especially at the beginning and end of the lesson. These sections of the lesson are difficult to deal with when applying other methods other than the telling method. Then, in between, the other learner centred methods are used to make the learners own their learning, thereby, combining the methods of teaching and learning.

Teachers who can select media properly that will help them to explain content effectively, can make their learners receptive but following every stage and step of what is happening (Jacobs & Gawe 1998:233). They argue that for learners to be engaged in active reception learning, they ought to be interested in classroom activities, open themselves to learning opportunities and have an inquiring attitude. The teacher has the duty to achieve this on the part of his learners, when using expository teaching methods. Activities can only be interesting when

they are thoroughly planned, meet the developmental level of the learners and meaningful to the learners.

However, Jacobs and Gawe (1998:234) clearly stated that, few teachers can hold pupils' interest for an entire period when they use the lecture, the textbook or the story telling method. They agreed that these telling methods can be used in conjunction with other teaching methods which involve pupils more actively (Nash 2009: xiv, Killen 2007:155 and Moore 2009:170). Teachers are argued to be flexible and move easily from teacher-centred to pupil-centred methods. Effective use of teaching methods is one way in which the teacher can ensure that pupils grasp the learning content and convert it to life content. Therefore, in every lesson, pupils should be actively involved, while the teacher is offering guidance and support. The teacher can also give demonstrations while the learners are watching attentively. But as the lesson develops, pupils must be given chances to be active participants revealing that understanding and interacting with their peers and the teacher. The teacher acts as a compass and the explorer is the learner who gets direction from the teacher. The learner would never be lost in his exploration because he/ she has all the guidance needed for a successful journey.

Even when using the project method, the teacher has to talk. Jacobs and Gawe (1998:229) give the project method as a method where learners are assigned to do a project but the teacher has the duty to explain what the learners should do stage by stage. The teacher explains at the start of the project and guides the learners throughout the stages. He also gives the summary and conclusion of what the learners have seen, discovered and done. The teacher is responsible for the success of the project, least the whole exercise becomes chaotic and a sheer waste of time and resources.

For Jacobs and Gawe (1998:208-234), there is no teaching method that can work alone without being assisted by other methods. In order for a teacher to achieve an objective or a lesson to be successfully done, the teacher, at one time or another has to talk to the learners, either to introduce something, to guide the learners, to redirect the learners towards a point, to make conclusions, to summarise, analyse, interpret or even to tell the learners what is expected to be done (Killen 2007:128). The teacher can also give demonstrations while the learners are watching attentively. As the lesson develops, pupils must be given chances to be active participants revealing their understanding of that particular concept. Learner-learner interaction and learner-teacher interaction must take place in class.

Furthermore, there are many other chief proponents of interactive pedagogy that do not like the use of the telling methods in today's classes. Some of these proponents are Young (1979:2), Bruce and Marsha (1986:219) and Stunkel (1999:66). They do not see the value of the telling methods in the didactic situation. The teacher should have time to talk to his class.

This is because the general mistakes or difficulties must receive attention. The main points of a completed task need to be summarised. The team spirit of the whole class should be mobilised or confusing and conflicting evidence put into perspective (Duminy & Sohng, 1983:61). Again, the teacher has to introduce new fields of knowledge. There is no alternative but to tell learners what they have to know and how they have to tackle new problems. By doing so, the teacher is involved in the teaching and learning situation using the telling method as a complementary method to other methods.

Didactic research work done by Professor Ned. A. Flanders of San Francisco published in 1970 in Duminy and Sohng (1983:61) revealed that the talking teacher exercises by far the greatest influence on the chains of events in the classroom. The teacher influences the way learners solve problems, how they organize the work and themselves. The talking teacher also influences how the learners think, how long the learners take to solve issues and other didactic activities. The work done by Professor Ned A. Flanders of San Francisco shows that the teacher in his role of communicator or informer is constantly in the foreground. However, this does not mean that the learner is passive. The learner sits down, quiet, the material is presented and the learner follows the teacher. The learner must use his imagination, judges for himself, accepts or repudiates what he hears. Obviously, the preconditions to the learner must be interest and a certain inquiring disposition (Duminy & Sohng 1983:61). Thorough concentration needs deep quietness and, it is an individual effort and not a group work. At higher institutions of learning, like colleges and universities, the lecture or telling method is normally used and learners listen attentively as active participants.

According to Duminy and Sohng (1983:61-62), supported by Moore (2009:147) and Jarvis (2006:74), it seems as though learners now fail academically because teachers want learners to work alone rediscovering discovered concepts and centering everything on the learner (too much learner-centred approach). The learner-centred approaches seem to be very slow and sometimes unsuccessful especially when the learners are undisciplined. Examination targets cannot be met because of the divergence of the learner-centred approach. Discovery has no limits in terms of time and what to discuss. The lecture method looks at the core of the syllabus (content) that is going to be tested at the end of the year. Although discovery learning is more real life oriented, the examinations have specific items to be done. This means, by using a lot of learner-centred methods without telling the learners what to do, the learners are likely to fail at the end of the year, academically. The lecture method is the director of all operations in the class. Then, how can educators leave the lecture method in the didactic situation? The lecture method needs to be combined with other methods for better academic results.

Nash (2009: xv) in line with Duminy and Sohng (1983:61-62) urge teachers to be good story tellers especially at primary school level. They went on saying that teachers should learn to

tell one gripping story after the other in order to truly captivate the hearts of the youngsters. They see a primary school, where no stories are told, as a miserable place for the learners. At primary school level, learners want to enjoy their learning through interesting stories from active, friendly and skillful teachers. According to Duminy and Sohng (1983:61-62), supported by Jacobs and Gawe (1998:208-233), the teachers should have knowledge about the following points if the lecture method is to be used successfully and effectively as a complementary method to activity-based methods in the class:-

Although some teachers are not good story tellers, it is important to realize that with careful practice every teacher can qualify as a quite competent story-teller. All teachers can apply the telling method effectively and efficiently. During training years, trainee teachers must collect a lot of suitable stories that will help them during their teaching years at school. Stories that must be given to learners must be within the comprehension of the learners of that particular level or grade. When teaching using stories, the teacher must make it a point that the story is within the developmental level of the learners, cognitively.

Telling good and relevant stories to the learners serves as a foundation for all later language teaching. Proficiency in the knowledge of the mother tongue, especially, is directly promoted by the narrative art of the good story teller. Good story tellers make learners benefit a lot from their lessons. The teacher must make it a point that his learners follow every step of the story in order for them to understand what the story intends to deliver. In the upper primary and secondary schools, the lecture method helps to clarify or explain certain problems arising from the subject matter of tuition. Where learners are confused, it is obvious that the teacher must chime in to clear all the confusing matters. Before using this lecture method, careful and thorough preparation on the part of the teacher is highly needed. The teacher should never attempt a lesson of this kind unprepared, least, he forgets some of the important stages or facts during the lesson. Have your clear objectives in mind all the time. Planning will always help the teacher because he will constantly refer to his plan to keep himself within the objective boundaries.

Lesson steps should be arranged logically. One step should be linked to the other step clearly and systematically. Sequence of events should be seen clearly and logically. Keep the perceptual background of the learners in mind. Make use of any natural interests of the learners. Knowing their ability, interest and knowledge of the learners helps a lot when using the story telling method. Best stories are always interesting and eye catching. Start a lesson by posing a problem. Stimulate this problematic and inquisitive attitude throughout the presentation. A good start will always attract the learners' interest and attention. The teacher should talk to the learners in a warm conversational way. Avoid the monotonous drone which leaves learners with the feeling that they are not being talked to personally. The teacher must make the learners feel that they are being talked to not as a group but individually, on a one to one basis. The learner's emotions must be touched by the story. Allow all your learners to

ask questions, discuss and feel free to air their views. The free atmosphere must not end the story without questions. Questions and answers must come from other learners and the friendly teacher. A teacher making use of the telling method should consolidate his lessons with a written summary. 'Such a summary is indispensable for the sharp engraving of the main points, as well as for revision, either the same night or at the end of the term', (Duminy & Sohng 1983:65).

Steyn et al (1988:29-30), Fraser et al (1992:139-149) and Duminy and Sohng (1983:65) share the same sentiment that the teacher is not forced to use one single method per lesson but a series of appropriate methods that make the lesson successfully done. During the lessons, shorter lectures are done, usually consisting of expositions, they supply additional information, demonstrations and completed with explanations. During lessons, these lectures should be kept short and seldom longer than ten minutes. These short lectures can interrupt at any time the learners' independent working programme, and leave learners to be free again to achieve their goals. It is the teacher who should decide if he can assist the learners after seeing what the learners are doing. This interruption, determined by the teacher who is the master of the subject matter concerned, should be done in order to ensure more profound understanding and the gaining of insight (Duminy & Sohng 1983:66). Only the teacher who works in full co-operation with his learners will be able to determine exactly when he should interrupt the working programme of his learners. When learners are quiet and in deep concentration, interruptions are not encouraged since they destroy the deep concentration of hard working learners and promote laziness among the learners.

According to Jacobsen et al (1993:2) the role of the teacher is to 'disseminate information, demonstrate desired behaviors, model appropriate behaviors and facilitate student achievement'. When doing his mentioned roles, the teacher has to talk to the learners. The talking teacher has a lot of influence to his learners. Facilitation of student achievement involves a lot of organization, planning and talking, on the part of the teacher. However, teacher talk must be combined with other activity based methods to have a complete learner.

Freiberg and Driscoll (2000:192) and Jacobsen et al (1993:4) see humour as an indispensable tool in promoting a positive relationship between the teacher and his learners. Humour reduces negative feelings and improves student perception of the teacher. Positive feelings and good attitude towards the teacher improves attention, retention and learning. Laughter in classes by learners tends to make learners quick thinkers, retain more and have fewer problems in class. Teachers who have skills to cause this laughter have better chances to achieve better results with his learners academically.

Learners need to be motivated in class. Motivation from the class teacher is critical to thinking and reasoning on the part of the learners. The teacher plays a vital role in motivating learners

in class (Jacobsen et al 1993:4). The talking teacher must provide the following to the learners to get that motivation:-

Provide constructive encouragement to the learner so that the learner is not afraid of anything new. The teacher must recognise the effort put by the learner. He must echo good sentiments. The teacher must show and communicate his confidence to the learner.

It is the task of the teacher to help the learner to pay attention to the task at hand. His encouraging words, confidence towards the learner and general assistance must be seen. If learners make mistakes, the teacher must not discourage them. Instead, the teacher ought to emphasize that mistakes are common. The learners are at school to learn, and when learning they make mistakes. Mistakes are common to learners. There is no offence in making mistakes.

It is clear that the physically talking teacher can only give these types of comments that result in good motivation. The teacher is there to 'provide a knowledge base regarding operation; and provide appropriate, sufficient, and supportive practical experiences' (Jacobsen et al (1993:4-5). A talking teacher is needed to provide these things to the learners during the lessons.

To Jacobsen et al (1993:173) teaching strategies or methods are separated in textbooks only to identify them, for clarity and the development of our understanding when discussing them academically. They are interwoven and have a lot of similarities among them. "They aren't exclusive of one another. As a teacher, you will incorporate features from more than one," (Jacobsen et al 1993:173). This goes to one point of saying that methods must complement each other for the best academic results at school. Secondly, the teacher must be there as the major component of the didactic system, manipulating other components for better achievement on the part of the learners. The best methods must always work together helping each other in that particular lesson where necessary and suitable.

In both expository and learner-centred methods, Killen (2007:126), Moore (2009:147) and Nash (2009: xiv) noted that the teacher can interact with his class. Interaction is critical for increasing student involvement and learning. When using expository method, the interaction is facilitated by the questioning skills from the teacher. Through his questioning skills and techniques, the teacher can create a climate of support and promote success. The talking teacher can give psychological safety to his class. Motivation, extrinsic and intrinsic, which is vital to learning atmosphere is present when the talking teacher is there (Jacobsen et al (1993:179-180).

According to Jacobsen et al (1993:180) the lecture method has two big advantages. These are:-

1. Time and control. Convergent questioning technique used by the telling method tends to be more time-efficient and covers a great deal of content per allocated time per that topic or lesson. The teacher controls the direction of learning, what to cover or leave (Moore 2009:147).
2. Novice teachers who are not sure of their skills in leading classroom interaction would be helped by lesson focus and act as a source of security. They will not deal with divergent responses which are likely to come from the learners if discovery or discussion methods are used.

Jacobsen et al (1993:180) also noticed some disadvantages associated with the telling method. These are:- Teachers 'commonly slide into lecture monologues that are deadly for maintaining student attention and motivation'. By taking too much time using the lecture method, the learner's attention and interest are taken away. The learner's listening span is limited, especially to preprimary and primary learners. Learners need to be involved and actively participate during the lesson. Learners need to own their own learning. Obviously, the teacher should be there interrupting learners whenever necessary but not all the time. This situation means, in order to avoid lecture monologues, the teacher has to use a variety of methods that are appropriate and best for that particular lesson. Learner-centred methods emphasize on observation, comparisons and explanations which are more conducive to the development of thinking skills than are telling method techniques. Learners need learner centred-methods too. However, they also need the teacher to help them to explain, make comparisons and observations properly.

According to Jacobsen et al (1993:181), although teaching methods like guided discovery and discussion methods promote motivation, thinking skills and incidental learning, "teachers who use them often complain that they do not have enough time to get in all the content required by their curriculum guides or published lists of objectives". If the teacher of an examinable subject uses only the learner-centred methods which take a lot of time, the learners will not finish the required work at the end of the year. The learners are likely to meet what they did not learn in their exams. Hence, the learners would fail their examination. Coverage of content is very important for the success of the learners to proceed to the next grade or further education.

Even when using guided discovery techniques, the teacher must have the skills to decide when to begin channeling the divergent responses, when and how to narrow the responses, prompt when necessary and monitoring the students' responses. This would help the teacher to formulate good follow-up questions. This means that the combination of methods can give better teaching. The teacher must be there playing his talking part and the learners participating fully. A teacher with a large repertoire of skills is needed in the class for better academic performances on the part of the learners. For Jacobsen et al (1993:181) sharing the

same sentiment with Freiberg and Driscoll (2000:192), "This variety in procedures results in increased interest and achievement". This means that a lesson constituted by more than one method of instruction is more interesting to learners than a lesson done using only one method. A combination of methods, that involves the teacher, didactically, is the best solution for better academic performance in class by the learners.

Hewit and Whittier (2009:279) support the expository method when they say that it is the best method to use when presenting basic facts like geographic features or safety tips. The learners benefit a lot from this approach when there is need for precise step-by-step presentation. The method has a historical background since the times of Greek philosophers like Socrates, Plato and Aristotle. Familiarity and efficiency of the telling method makes it very popular. Its time efficiency and control features make it very famous in the teaching field. It is used both at elementary and secondary levels.

Expository method, to Jacobsen et al (1993:281), is a multifaceted presentation. It involves verbal lecture and teacher-student interaction. It involves questions and answers, review and practice and the correction of student errors. This makes it very powerful and useful in classes of today. The emphasis is on knowledge acquisition, understanding new concepts or generalisations. When using this method; there is very little learner-learner interaction. What dominates is teacher-learner interaction. With the combination of other methods like discussion, this makes a complete and efficient didactic situation if done properly.

Direct instruction can help to review previous learning, organise and present new material to the learners. It provides adequate time for both monitored or guided student practice (which includes constructive feedback and re-teaching) and additional independent practice (Jacobsen et al 1993:182). If so, how can the lecture method be deleted from the list of useful teaching methods. A teacher should know when to use the expository method in conjunction with other methods. A few situations are given by Jacobsen et al (1993:282) when trying to answer the question 'When expository teaching can be used?'

The following situations are given:-When giving information not sufficiently presented in textbooks or other printed material accessible to the learners. The educator will put the material into manageable sources and make it accessible to the learners, through him. The educator must deliver the content to the learners who are deprived from getting that content.

When the educator want to add vitality and personalized interpretations of the educator if he thinks that learners cannot see it or learners have no interest of reading it. "Talented educators will provide both a humane version of, and a practical rationale for, text materials that students view as irrelevant or useless (Jacobsen et al (1993:282). It is the duty of the educator to show the value of what is to be learnt by the learners. Here the validity of the

information will depend upon the teacher's explanations. When the educator wants to assess or determine students' level of mastery, the method can be a good tool. Because expository teaching teaches learners to master facts, rules, sequential information, describe, recall, list, demonstrate, using, summarizing and others, teachers use it.

Jacobsen et al (1993:282) also gave situations where teachers misuse or inappropriately use the expository teaching method in their classes. These bad situations are:- To teach at more complex level of thinking: the writer discovered that students performed less when subjected to direct instructional model when the tasks required creative and problem solving behavior. To teach large amounts of new material over a long period of time using the expository method. In this case, more than one approach to learning are needed. Learners need variation in order to be kept interested in learning.

Research conducted by Lemlech (1994) in Jacobsen et al (1993:283) revealed that higher ability students may sometimes have difficulties to be subjected to expository teaching because of their strong task orientation and inclination towards higher, more complex levels of thinking. This kind of learners need a bit of lecture method before being subjected to methods that need them to think hard for themselves. The teacher is needed only when the learners are lost or confused.

Wright and DuCette (1976) quoted in Jacobsen et al (1993:283) discovered that "students with more developed internal locus of control, who believe that they control their successes and failures are actually often frustrated by the heavily teacher-directed expository approach". The learners of this type need to put their own effort when learning and not to receive from the teacher passively, although the information is refined information. These learners need to find information for themselves. Other methods, together with expository method, need to come in.

The answer to all these problems is to combine methods of teaching. The methods of teaching must complement one another. Teacher centred methods must complement learner-centred methods to have good and effective teaching. Jacobsen et al (1993:283) also noticed that feedback is very immediate when using the expository approach. Questions are directed at students and all the answers are given to the educator who refines moderates or corrects them immediately.

Bellon, Bellon and Blank (1992) quoted in Jacobsen et al (1993:284) pointed out that "different types of content will require variation in instructional processes as well as presentation skills". Methods of teaching should complement one another depending on what content is to be taught. The expository method will have its share as well as other learner centred methods. If the lesson needs facts and application of facts, the expository teaching

method will expose the facts and the learner centred methods will make the learners active during the application of those facts.

Other significant areas where the expository approach is clearly shown at school are the weekly and monthly reviews (Jacobsen et al (1993:284). These include tests, revision exercises and other oral work. These ensure that all materials related to successful learning in future lessons have been taught. These reviews would also help the educators to identify the areas that need to be redone. Strengths, weaknesses and suggestions about the learners and the educator can be seen. Without these reviews, educators can not see what their learners have retained.

For Jacobsen et al (1993:282-284), even if the educator is a disciple of the learner-centred or activity based approach, the expository methods are also needed. This means the expository method can not be put away but can be used as a complementary method to other methods either in every lesson, daily, weekly or monthly as per educator's assessment. The needs of the objectives, learner needs, material availability and demands of the whole lesson or objectives should determine when, what and how to use the teaching methods. There is no single method or approach that is a panacea for all ills. This leaves the lecture method as one of the teaching method with its advantages and disadvantages just like any other.

Bligh (1998:223) agrees with Jacobsen et al (1993:282-284), when he says that "the inherent defects of the lecture method mean that, on its own, it is rarely adequate". The lecture method is not enough. It needs to be combined with other suitable methods in some way in order to correct these defects. The lecture method has its own defects just like any other methods. Combining methods compensate where others are inadequate. Bligh (1998:224) suggests situations during teaching, when the other learner centred method should be used to cover the gaps left by the lecture method. The following situations are:-

Feedback is needed by the students and lecturer for either continuation or re-teaching. During the lecture, the lecturer must stop lecturing and permits some form of responses from the learners. This is a very good teaching technique because it encourages feedback, expression, involvement, criticism, insight and high levels of thinking.

Rehearsals. Rehearsals consolidate learner memory traces, develop concepts, relate different items of information and obtain a view of the whole topic being considered. Learners should be given time to review lecture notes in groups. Learners can extract, elaborate and restructure information better when they work in groups than as individuals.

Avoid interference and negative transfer. Bligh (1998:224) suggests that learners should be given time to clarify what they have heard during lecturing. The learners must correct their misunderstandings, get what they missed from their peers, join what they got as pieces to

form whole and make strong bases for future use. Least it would be difficult to de-educate the wrong concepts if grasped now. To Bligh (1998:223) 'Longer periods of lecturing will be periods damaged by retroactive interference'. It is highly recommended to correct the mistakes early when they are few than later, when they are many.

2.2.4. Merits and Demerits of the Lecture method

The two major objections (demerits) are that:-

1. The teacher is the final authority on a topic in question. The teacher is the master and expert. No one is above him. The method is promoting dictatorship on the part of the teacher and the dogmatic papal infallibility on the part of the learners if the environment is not free and friendly. The tendency that is likely to grow is, 'the teacher is always right and he knows all'.
2. Individual differences are not considered. It is merely a pumping-in of knowledge, with a total disregard for the importance of self-activity, initiative and problem solving approach (Duminy & Sohng 1983:66). The method alone can not be right except when combined with other teaching methods, complementing each other.

The situations explained above happen when the lecture method is used alone without complementing other methods. The success of the lesson depends greatly on who uses the method, how it is used and the kind of results sought.

To Duminy and Sohng (1983:66-67) the advantages are seen where the subject matter is not readily accessible to learners, as is very often the case. The direct pedagogic value of the lecture method is obvious. The schools may not have textbooks and a library. Technologically, the school can also be backward, especially when it is situated in a rural area, in third world or developing countries like Zimbabwe.

Typical classical examples are given in Duminy and Sohng (1983:67) and in Fraser et al (1992:139), where the lecture methods dominate successfully. One example is:- No other method except the teacher's voice to echo the Word of God. The lecture method is indispensable for molding the religious and moral character of the learners. There is no other method of teaching that can touch the emotions of learners, the heart and the will, to the same degree as the lecture method. Duminy and Sohng (1983:67) assert that the admiration of what is good, true and holy can be aroused while the will to do deeds of virtue, devoutness, and integrity can be stirred to an extent hardly possible with other methods, except the lecture method.

Considering the situations explained above, we can not foresee how the lecture method could ever be replaced by any other problem solving or self-activity based methods. Let us remember that, problem-solving methods benefit only those who are highly gifted and can work independently. The less gifted learners need to receive more assistance from the teacher. The less gifted can not go alone, they are hesitant, afraid and they need the assistance of the teacher. The less gifted need the approval of the teacher in order for them to proceed to the next stage in whatever they are doing.

Various educationists and theorists like Ausubel and Gagne point out that the problem solving method can sometimes be very time consuming. A lot of time is needed to rediscover certain truths and solutions to problems on their own. Duminy and Sohng (1983:88) seem to be in support of the lecture methods. They say, results can be obtained very fast when the teacher gives strong and purposeful guidance and leads learners directly to the essential core of the problem at hand. The role of the teacher is emphasized here. The teacher's voice can not be replaced in any way in the classroom, didactically speaking.

2.2.5. Group discussion versus good lecturing

The group discussion method seems to have immense support from different theorists and supporters. Stunkel (1999:66) has this to say, in the rhetoric and practice of higher education these days, "the group is in the individual out". This means that learners should work in groups and not as individuals for better performance. However, people like Stunkel (1999) and other proponents of interactive group learning, neglected "good lecturing". These proponents should not forget that authentic learning demands individual concentration and labour that cannot be shared. In higher education, no interactive model can substitute a well-organised lecture that structures a mass of information that illuminates basic concepts and suggests applications. These proponents take group discussion as the only solution to all teaching and learning problems. Another view which works against the view of the interactive model is that of Ausubel, a well known American psychologist and educationist. Ausubel supports narrative method and sees it as reception learning that is, learning where the content is presented to the learner rather than left open to be discovered by the learner himself. Ausubel sees this as better learning than trying to rediscover what was discovered. Ausubel sees discovery learning as a waste of time looking for solutions to problems that already have solutions. The best way to teach, therefore, is to combine both ends, that is, to mix the teaching methods where necessary.

2.2.6. Summary of the literature study

The summary of the literature study is made up of the following, in summative form:-

- The advantages and/ or the strengths of the lecture method of instruction.

- The disadvantages and/ or the weaknesses associated with the lecture method of instruction.
- The advantages and/ or the strengths of the discussion method of instruction.
- The disadvantages and/ or the weaknesses associated with the discussion method of instruction.
- The major strengths of combining the lecture and discussion methods to have the lecture-discussion variation, during teaching and learning situations, in order to cover the weaknesses of both the lecture and discussion methods.

2.2.6.1 Advantages and disadvantages of both lecture and discussion methods

2.2.6.1.1 The lecture method

(i) Advantages/ strengths

It is a widely accepted instructional method (Moore 2009:145); Good for teaching specific facts and basic skills (Killen 2007:128); Factual material is presented in a direct, logical manner (Killen 2007:128); It is good to introduce a new subject or topic to the learners (Freiberg and Driscoll 2000:194); It is used to present new material not yet available in print or books (Killen 2007:128); It is regarded as an efficient method to transmit content to a large group of learners. Lectures can also present large amounts of information to that large group (Freiberg and Driscoll (2000:194; The best method to use when the facts or problems are conflicting or confusing in nature; When there is shortage of time, the lecture method is the best to use (Freiberg and Driscoll 2000:194 and Moore 2009:147); When the best way to understand a topic is through oral presentation, the lecture method is the best; When change of pace is needed, the lecture method is the best method to use (Moore:147); When the experience of the speaker will contribute to clarification of the issue, the lecture method shines; Lectures explain, clarify and organize difficult concepts; Lectures challenge beliefs and habits of learning; Lecture breeds enthusiasm and motivation for further study; The lecturer has full control of whatever is happening in the lecture. The lecture presents little risk to students who are not very creative and innovative. The lectures appeal to those learners who learn by listening (Killen 2007:127).

(ii) Disadvantages/ weaknesses of the lecture method:-

May not be effective for higher order thinking skills, depending on the knowledge base and skill of the teacher (Moore 2009:147); The lecture method can stifle teacher creativity (Killen 2007:129-130); Learners are often passive (Freiberg and Driscoll (2000:195-196); Learning is very difficult to judge. There is little check of learner understanding (Killen 2007:129-130; Pure lecture fail to give feedback to both the teacher and the learners; Proficient oral skills are necessary. Lectures require effective speakers; Not appropriate to young learners at school; Lectures cannot keep student attention for a long time or for the whole lesson; Information tends to be forgotten quickly if taught through the lecture method; Lectures assume that all

learners have the same learning styles. Learners have different learning styles, against the assumption of the lecture method (Killen 2007:130); Lectures can not teach motor skills, influence attitudes and values, teach application, analysis, synthesis or evaluation (Jarvis 2006:73-81); Lectures provide one teacher's interpretation of the subject matter; In its purest form, it is a passive method of learning. It lacks learner participation. Encourages learner passiveness; If used badly, the lecture method can give poor results; The lecture method of instruction needs thorough preparation and planning on the part of the teacher. The teacher works harder than the learners. He learns more than the learners (Killen 2007:125).

2.2.6.1.2 Discussion Method

(i) Advantages/ strengths

Socialisation: Barker (2004:102) sees the principle of socialisation as the most important teaching principle. The principle of socialisation encourages the discussion method. It claims that social adaptability is an important factor in the formation of character and personality. Socialisation as a didactic principle is vital, because learners learn effectively and successfully when they are supported and accepted by the people around them. The principle of socialisation claims that individuals perform better when they are part of a group than when they work alone. Socialisation, communication and co-operation are supported in such class activities.

Thinking along the lines of the socialisation principle, a number of advantages emerged as stated by Barker (2004:102-103): Involvement and participation develops creative thinking, improves skills and better reasoning. Socialisation develops tolerance and awareness to accept other people's views, ideas, opinions and suggestions on particular topics. Socialisation during discussions produces good citizens in the larger community. It develops skills, which are necessary for community life. Examples are communication, arguing and debating problems related to life.

Group decision which is synonymous to democracy of today is highly developed during discussions. Problems will have different ways of being solved after discussing them. All members will be responsible for the work as a group. The result, whether bad or good, is for the group and not for an individual. Discussions prevent boredom in the class and in groups. Discussions encourage natural interaction between and among learners, just as we do in real life situations. Schools should not be divorced from real life situations.

Social settings such as group discussions provide occasions for modelling defective thinking strategies, and feedback regarding one's performance. Provides Bruner's scaffolding that

permits one to participate beyond his maximum: Discussions develop leadership potential, encouragement and social support. Stunkel (1999:66) and Siann and Ugwuegbu (2000:17-19) support group discussion method during teaching and learning situations, at any level of education. They gave several advantages of the group discussion method over the telling methods. All of them see learning at its best as an interactive group phenomenon. Moore (2009:170) and Killen (2007:155) strongly support the discussion method of instruction when compared to the lecture method alone. They see discussion as an orderly process of group interaction in which learners exchange ideas, listen to a variety of points of view, expressing and exploring their own views, applying their knowledge and reflecting their own attitudes and value. To them, discussions can be used to teach any level and any subject of education. However, they both supported the blending of the two methods (lecture and discussion) as the best variation. The potential of the collective mind is vastly superior to that of its individuals. Group work is more refined than individual work.

Pitout *et al.* (1992) in Barker (2004:38), see discussion or conversation as the intermingling or mixing of two or more people of different experiences that would lead first, to gaining the insight and understanding of the concept under discussion. This is because all the group members will give their understanding about the concept. Different types of explanations about a concept are going to be given by various members of the group. Second, developing a critical reasoning capacity. Third, providing individuals with support in the classroom, learners support their group members by proving various answers to problems under discussion. Fourth, encouraging attentive listening, when one member of the group explains concepts, other members would be listening well in order to grasp the concepts well. They only talk when they ask questions seeking further explanations and understanding. Fifth, developing leadership potential, everyone has the chance to lead the group when explaining what he or she knows best. All the members of the group would listen during the explanations. Lastly, encouraging natural interaction, learners interact naturally during group discussions. They also understand one another better during discussions because the interaction is natural. Discussions prevent boredom in the class and in the group.

The observations made by Pitout *et al.* (1992) in Barker (2004:38) and Mbudzi (2001:3), are similar to those of Barker (2004:39). They heavily support the group discussion method as a good teaching and learning method. When giving the steps of the direct instructional model, Gunter *et al.* (1995) in Mbudzi (2001:5) include group work as a lesson step. The duty of the teacher is to monitor the practice of the group and individuals within the group, then give guidance. Discussion is one of the fundamental didactic forms and has a central place in good classroom teaching. Discussions are designed for learning by taking ownership, to give learners a way to generate their own ideas and thus to process them, to make them their own once and forever (Gunter *et al.* 1995 in Mbudzi, 2001:6).

The cited authors above note the following good things about the group discussion method, if done properly: Positive interdependence among the learners. The learners depend on others as a group when discussing concepts. Heterogeneity, i.e. Different ideas are likely to come out from each group as all members of the group are encouraged to participate freely. Shared leadership and responsibility. The one who understands particular issue/concept better is given the responsibility by the group, there by acting as leader of the group. Task and maintenance are emphasized. When learners work in groups, each group wants to produce the best work. Hard working is likely to be emphasized. Social skills are directly taught. Social skills such as listening, sharing ideas and basically communication are taught and developed. The teacher observes and intervenes. The teacher can only join the group when needed by the group or when he sees that the group is wrong or struggling. The groups process their effectiveness. Concepts are refined because they are looked at from different views.

The Ministry of Education and Culture (1992:40-42) says that once learners have the sense of interdependence and teamwork, this increases achievement for most learners. It has the added benefit of providing opportunities for the learners to work together to solve common problems. Learners can learn with or without the teacher when subjected to this group learning method. Learners would find it easy to do tasks like home-work and projects. Gifted learners would help their peers in the areas they are talented in and knowledgeable. Group learning may be stressed in communities, which are dependent on all the individuals in the community.

- (ii) Disadvantages/ weaknesses of the discussion method:- To be successfully implemented in the classrooms, the discussion method needs a lot of time and resources to be used. The discussion method seems not to be good when the information is not accessible from the library, textbooks, internet and other print materials. Discussions can be done successfully by mature learners, least, it can generate into a noisy classroom. Discussions need careful planning and they are a threat to learners who are slow or less intelligent learners. Aggressive learners try to take over. Bright learners tend to act superior. Other learners can end up not taking part. Discussions are difficult if the teacher-pupil ratio is too high. During discussions students can get off the track or the discussion can be endless. Discussions are very poor when introducing a new topic or content.
- (iii) Lecture-discussion variation: Notice that the strengths and weaknesses for both methods are exposed. The weaknesses of the discussion method are well covered by the strengths of the lecture method, and the opposite is true. If these methods are combined to form the lecture-discussion method, they would cover the weaknesses caused by both methods. A solid and powerful method is born, that will have very few weaknesses as

compared to the weaknesses of any one of them. The new method (lecture-discussion), theoretically on paper, seems to be a solution for the problems our teachers and learners encounter in today's classes. The lecture-discussion variation makes use of all the variations of the lecture method and of the discussion method.

Killen (2007:155), Broadwell (1980:18-19), Freiberg and Driscoll (2000:192), Moore (2009:147-152), Curzon (2005:308-309) and Nash (2009:xiv) concur that the lecture-discussion variation as a method of instruction is one of the best method of teaching and learning since it involves most of what is being done in all other variations/ methods. The advantages outnumber any disadvantages. The educator presents the new content to the learners using the lecture method. Learners are given time to discuss the content or new material to strengthen the bonding. Learners are involved in thought and response. Both the learners and the lecturer get feedback. This is because the lecturer outlines the presentation in such a way that there is time allotted for learners to listen and for learner-participation.

The lecture-discussion method allows the lecturers to ask questions, accept answers, reflect them back to the class for more discussions, repudiate and modify answers. The students are also allowed to answer questions, ask questions, explain concepts as they understand them, accept some explanations, evaluate themselves, share their views with the class, modify their answers, think deeply, handle issues with care, and above all their cognitive and affective domains are used fully. The learners are free to express their feelings, attitudes, values and thoughts, during a fair lecture-discussion. The authors cited above also note that, during the lecture-discussion questions from the learners or the lecturer may be answered or reflected back to the class to get better understanding and assessment of the learners.

Furthermore, the biggest advantage of the lecture-discussion is that, the educator can control the discussion so easily in order to achieve the objectives of the lecture within the time allocated for the subject. There are no chances of missing the targeted objectives. Varied learner-learning styles and learner differences are catered for. Theoretically, achievement is certain.

2.3. CONCLUSION

Whilst all the authors cited in the literature study are not against the use of the learner-centred methods, the authors also do not discard the lecture method. They see all methods as valuable assets for the achievement of the set objectives. Educators must bear in mind that, methods must not be underrated or overrated before making thorough analysis and assessment. This means thorough planning is needed before attempting to execute any lesson. Above all, the educator is an authority in authority that must organise everything in the didactic system. The confusion or orderliness of the educator is reflected in his class. The

confusion is likely to be worse if the educator is absent from the class. The educator must remain in class attending to learners.

Authors like Duminy and Sohng (1983:67), and Jacobs and Gawe (1998:208-234), chief proponents of learner-centred methods, support what the above mentioned authors say about how the lecture method should be used during teaching and learning situation. Didactically speaking, most of the authors above support the use of the lecture method as a complementary method to other teaching methods, for better understanding of concepts, by the learners. Fraser et al (1992:139) cite the lecture method as one of the best methods when teaching subjects like languages, Religious and Moral Education, and History.

The authors used above to compile this literature study seem to agree on the following things:- The teacher must remain in the class as a mediator for facilitation and guidance. For the learners to be kept task focused, the teacher should be there talking to the learners. Methods of teaching, in most cases, must complement each other during teaching and learning situation in order to get the best academic results. In most cases the lecture method is good for introducing new knowledge, giving summaries and it is good when teaching art subjects like English, Religious and Moral education, etcetera. The lecture method can be used across all age groups of learners, from preprimary to tertiary institutions. However, stories must be appropriate to the developmental levels of the learners. Whatever method the teacher is going to employ, the teacher should have enough knowledge of how to use that method successfully for effective teaching and learning. There is no author cited above who totally discarded the use of the lecture method. The authors only suggest the combination of the lecture methods and other activity based methods. These methods should complement each other in a single lesson, in most cases, for better understanding on the part of the learners. The lecture method can be very unsuccessful and sometimes dangerous if the teacher tries to use it without enough preparation and planning. The teacher is highly encouraged to do thorough preparation and planning before executing his lessons. It seems, according to the cited authors, there is no lesson that can be executed well and successfully without the teacher's voice. The teacher is needed in the class for the benefit of the learners to simplify learning. However, that can not be said until supported by practical research done in the next chapters. Above all, the authors agree that learner-centred methods are very important, effective and efficient at times and valuable, but they need to be assisted by the expository methods for the best academic results to come out from the learners.

Methods are not nationally prescribed, so the above authors note. However, the cited authors above go on saying that methods must always be appropriate and suitable to the following basic aspects of the teaching situation:- Specific learning outcomes to be mastered. Ability and needs of the learners. Prior knowledge and entry level of learners. Questions to be answered are like, 'Do the learners meet the concepts or content for the first or the second

time? What grade is being taught? And so on'. The learning styles of the learners. The specific characteristics of the class. Characteristics of the class include the size of the class and others. The learning content to be delivered. The educator would look at, 'How difficult or easy is the content? Is the content made up of facts, information, reasoning or does it need deduction or inductions and so on?' The training, abilities, preferences and talents of the teacher. The teacher could be another limiting factor depending on how good he is as far as his expertise in teaching methods and being resourceful. The teacher's wide base of knowledge on the teaching methods means that he has a wide choice of good and suitable methods to use. Didactic factors such as timetables, available time, number of learners in the class, available resources (laboratories, media centres and others). At the end of each year or term, learners are given termly or yearly assessment tests. If a learner passes the tests, it is assumed that the learner is doing well and the teacher is also doing the right teaching. The school administration and parents are pleased if learners pass their tests. The topics that are going to be used in the tests are programmed such that they are supposed to be taught within stipulated time. If the time is not enough to teach all the topics that are supposed to be taught during that term or year, the teacher is likely to use the lecture method which is faster than the learner-centred methods.

Considering the range of objectives that should be done at school (attitudinal to fact or information objectives) there is no way one can say one method is a solution to all the problems. The lecture method is likely to have more factors favouring it to complement other teaching methods. For instance, time, resources and size of classes are always a problem in today's schools in third world countries or developing countries where resources are few. The answer is the teacher must tell, demonstrate, explain, illustrate and show how things are done.

On the other side, Duminy and Sohng (1986:57) are of the opinion that, methods, where child-activity predominates are preferred. Methods that promote child participation and thinking must dominate in the classrooms.

Kruger and Muller (1989:79) and Duminy and Sohng (1986:79) emphasise the following:- One approach is not necessarily better than the other. The necessary teaching factors should be considered not just to pick approaches for the sake of picking an approach. The teacher's knowledge on teaching methods plays a vital role. The teacher has to be heurostentically flexible during each lesson presentation, meaning that one should be skilful in moving freely on the continuum between the two poles ((dominantly ostensive and dominantly heuristic).

Considering both sides of the continuum (teacher-centred dominance and learner-centred dominance), the situation forces the educator to switch from one end to the other depending on factors that influence more during that period. Proper and effective teaching needs

teachers who are free to adjust their methods of teaching according to demands and necessity after proper analysis and assessment of the didactic situation. This automatically means that the educator should be there and the learner must participate fully during lessons. Teacher talk and learner participation are key points to success. Theoretically, the lecture method is supported by various authors to complement other teaching methods for the better academic results at schools.

2.4 THEORATICAL FRAMEWORK

According to Cohen and Manion (1994:9-11), in the social sciences, two main approaches to research are distinguished. These are postpositivist research (qualitative research) and positivist research (quantitative research). The researcher has the choice to choose either one of the approaches or to have the combination of the two. To Mouton and Marais (1990:20) and Cohen and Manion (1994:9-11) a decision to follow one or a combination of these methodologies, does of course, entail further more specific choices regarding the various methods of data collection, data analysis and inference.

De Vos (1998:15) agrees with Mouton and Marais (1990:150) when they say that, qualitative research involves the study of cases and make very little use of numerical data or statistics, but rely heavily on verbal data and subjective analysis. Quantitative research involves the study of samples and populations, and relies heavily on numerical data and statistical analysis.

For Leedy (1993:139), all research methodology rests upon a bedrock axiom: "The nature of the data and the problem for research dictate the research methodology". Data, factual information and human knowledge must reach the researcher either as words or numbers. De Vos (1998:15) sees qualitative research methodologies as dealing with data that are basically verbal, and quantitative research methodologies as dealing with data that are principally numerical.

For Mouton and Marais (1990:150), the quantitative approach is that approach to research in the social sciences that is more highly formalised as well as more explicitly controlled, with a range that is more exactly defined and which in terms of the methods used, is relatively close to the physical sciences. In contradistinction, qualitative approaches are those approaches in which the procedures are not as strictly formalised, while the scope is more likely to be undefined and a more philosophical mode of operation is adopted.

Researches seem to involve diverse approaches. Philosophers, therefore, when investigating the nature of scientific inquiry, developed different schools of thought. Social science researchers have been influenced by these schools of thought, such as positivism,

empiricism, phenomenology, postpositivism, and they have staked out their own epistemological positions about how research in their respective disciplines (education, psychology, sociology) should be done. Mouton and Marais (1990) see epistemology as the branch of philosophy that studies the nature of knowledge and the process by which knowledge is acquired and validated.

Positivism as an epistemological doctrine believes that the physical and social reality is independent of those who observe it, and that observation of this reality, if unbiased, constitute scientific knowledge. Wisker (2008:65) went further explaining positivistic research methodology as “based on the belief that the world is describable and provable, measurable and deductive, because the research tests a hypothesis or assumption and typically would use quantitative methods to collect the data, because large amount or vehicle, or methods, are reliable for future use”. Positivists are behaviourist in nature, basing on observable behaviour. The work of B. F. Skinner, Pavlov and that of Bandura Albert exemplifies the work of behaviourism, a positivistic approach. Positivist research is grounded in the assumption that features of the social environment constitute an independent reality and are relatively constant across time and settings. Positivist researchers develop knowledge by collecting numerical data on observable behaviours of samples and then subjecting these data to numerical analysis (Gall et al., 1996:767). To Gall et al., behavioural researchers in education and psychology exemplify an approach to scientific inquiry that is grounded in positivist epistemology. Researchers who subscribe to positivist epistemology believe that features of the social environment retain a high degree of constancy across time and space, just as physicists believe that neutron and protons have objective features that do not vary from one laboratory setting to another or from one day to the next.

The process of generalisation according to Gall et al, (1996:23) goes like this: The researcher starts by defining a population of interest. The population includes too many members to study all of them, so the researcher attempts to select a manageable sample as one that is representative of the population. The researcher then attempts to generalise the findings obtained from studying the sample to the larger population. Statistical techniques are available to determine the likelihood that sample findings are likely to apply to the population.

Logical positivism has its own critics and weaknesses noticed by philosophers of science. It has been faulted for placing undue value on quantitative approaches, experimental designs, objective measurement and statistical analysis. To De Vos (1998:16) the critics contend further that social science research has borrowed from the methods of the physical sciences that are often ill-suited for studying the ever-changing and elusive complexities of social phenomena. The critics see a place for “hard science” methods in social sciences but argue that these methods have been wrongly equated with “good science” (De Vos, 1998:16).

Postpositivism as an opposing epistemological position to positivism is based on the assumption that social reality is constructed by the individuals who participate in it (Gall et al., 1996:18). This epistemological doctrine (postpositivism) or school of thought believes that social reality is constructed differently by different individuals (Wisker, 2008:66). These constructions take the form of interpretations, that is, the ascription of meanings to the social environment. The assumption is that, these interpretations tend to be transitory and situational. Features of the social environment are not considered to have any existence apart from the meanings that individuals construct for them (Gall et al., 1996:18). Postpositivist researchers develop knowledge by collecting primarily verbal data through the intensive study of cases and then subjecting these data to analytical induction (Gall et al., 1996:767).

This view of social reality, explained above, is consistent with the constructivism movement in cognitive psychology, which posits that individuals gradually build their own understanding of the world through experience and maturation. Piaget's theory of intellectual development in children exemplifies the constructivist movement in cognitive psychology (Gall et al., 1996:19).

These terms (positivist and postpositivism) emphasise the fact that the two types of research differ in the nature of the data that are collected. The epistemological assumptions that lead to the study of cases or populations also have implications of how findings of a particular research study are generalised.

According to Gall et al, (1996:29) and Wisker (2008:68-69), some researchers believe that qualitative research is best used to discover themes and relationships at the case level. Quantitative research is best used to validate those themes and relationships in samples and populations. In this view, qualitative research plays a discovery role and quantitative research plays a confirmatory role. They seem to have different purposes, therefore it is inappropriate to compare the relative efficacy of these two. They complement each other. These (qualitative and quantitative research) are the generations of insights on the one hand and the testing of hypotheses on the other. Biddle and Anderson in Gall et al, (1996:29) have this to say, "Although advocates for discovery (qualitative researchers) decry the arid tautologies of confirmationists (quantitative researchers), and the latter express disdain for the sloppy subjectivism of discovery research, the two perspectives complementary goals. We need both".

Biddle and Anderson in Gall et al, (1996:16) have the idea that ; where it is necessary, a combination of these approaches should be used. However, each and every research should have one broad framework that is supposed to be used. Of course, that broad framework is going to be assisted by other approaches, where necessary.

De Vos (1998:358) disagrees with the above idea of combining the two, arguing that combining the two approaches is highly problematic. Cresswell (1994:7) is also of the opinion that a researcher must identify a single research paradigm (approach) for the overall design of the study. Cresswell's objections to a combined study are:-

- (a). To use both paradigms adequately and accurately consumes more pages than journal editors are willing to allow.
- (b). The combination extends postgraduate studies beyond normal limits of size and scope.
- (c). Using both paradigms in a single study can be expensive, time-consuming and lengthy.
- (d) Researchers are seldom trained in the skills necessary to conduct studies from more than one paradigm.

Mouton and Marais (1990:169) and Wisker (2008:75-76) support the use of both approaches, when they state that the phenomena which are investigated in the social sciences are so enmeshed that a single approach can most certainly not succeed in encompassing human beings in their full complexity. In support of Mouton and Marais (1996:169), De Vos (1998:359) adds that "It would therefore be futile to behave as though one approach should be canonized and another excommunicated". Posavac and Carey (1989:242) also say that although purists from both camps would object the best approach is to mix qualitative and quantitative evaluation methods.

After having noticed all the strengths and weaknesses of the approaches, the research topic and data to be collected dictate the best approach /es to use to investigate. For this research, the main approach used is positivism (quantitative approach) and joined with a little bit of postpositivism (qualitative approach) to validate the data collected.

The main research design used is grounded in the positivistic paradigm (positivism), founded by such great philosophers like Auguste Comte (1798-1857) and Emile Durkheim (1858-1917). To them, positivism refers to a set of epistemological perspectives and philosophies of science which hold that the scientific method is the best approach to uncovering the process by which both physical and human events occur (Wisker, 2008:78-84). Epistemology is the branch of philosophy that studies the nature of knowledge and the process by which knowledge is acquired and validated. It is knowledge, most particularly of the ways in which different disciplines construct, interpret and represent knowledge in the world (Wisker, 2008:66:69). Many philosophers have investigated the nature of scientific inquiry over a period of many centuries. They developed different schools of thought. Social science researchers were influenced by positivism, empiricism and phenomenology, for instance. The positivism's perspective is that science (knowledge) is only those things that can be positively observed and proved. Positivism paradigm is a system of philosophy based on things that can be seen or proved rather than on speculation (Cowie, 1989:964). Positivism as an epistemological (valid and reliable) doctrine believes that the physical and social reality is

independent of those who observe it. Observation of this reality, if not biased, constitutes scientific knowledge (Wisker, 2008:78-84).

According to Wisker (2008:69-84), positivism asserts that the only authentic knowledge is that which is based on sense experience and positive verification. Positivism says that scientific methods replace metaphysics. The fundamental of positivistic paradigm is: Objective reality exists that can be known only by objective means. Human behavior is studied as a natural type of behavior via the empirical method in order to control and predict human social behavior.

In the social sciences such as education, two main approaches to research are also distinguished. These are positivist research/ quantitative and qualitative approaches to research. The approach used by the researcher for his research is positivist research/ quantitative. Quantitative research involves the study of samples and populations, and relies heavily on numerical data and statistical analysis (Wisker, 2008:68-69). Qualitative approach did not suit this research study because it relies heavily on verbal data and subjective analysis. However, qualitative research methods were used at the end of the research to validate the data collected. In this instance telephonic interviews were used.

When conducting a research in positivism, the following were noted: The researcher starts by defining a population of interest. The population is too big to be studied. A reasonable sample is taken to represent the whole population. The researcher then attempts to generalise the findings obtained from studying the sample to the larger population. When dealing with quantitative research, statistical techniques are available to determine the likelihood that sample findings are likely to apply to the population (Gall et al., 1996:23).

The paradigm used for this research study is positivism and the main research approach is quantitative. Wisker (2008:66) has this to say, "The choice of methodology and the methods for your research follow on naturally from your world view and philosophy and from the clear definition of a title and of the research questions that underpin your research". All the factors mentioned dictate the choice of the methodology to be followed.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. RESEARCH DESIGN

The purpose of this research study is to determine the effectiveness of the instructional methods used in Shurugwi district, Zimbabwe, particularly, the lecture method of instruction as supplement to the discussion method, on the academic performance of learners on primary school level, grade 7, especially in English language as a school subject.

A quantitative approach was mainly used in this study. A qualitative approach (telephonic interviews) was only used to validate the results got through quantitative means, after the last posttest was written, marked and recorded on the tables. According to Mouton and Marais (1990) in Vermeulen (1998:10) the quantitative approach is a research approach in the social sciences that is more formalised as well as more explicitly controlled. For Vermeulen (1998:10) quantitative research methods involve the study of samples and populations, and rely heavily on numerical data and statistical analyses. The experimental research method chosen here falls under quantitative approach and is called the quasi-experimental research method. According to Borg and Gall (1983:680) 'Experimental designs, where natural groups are used to get participants to use during experiments are named quasi-experimental designs'. An example of a natural group is an existing class at school.

Experimental research methods are designed to test cause-effect hypothesis (Vermeulen 1998:20). Hypothesis testing is done. Some tentative hypothesis is established and the experimental treatment is used to test the validity of the hypothesis (Gary 1990:127-129). In this research, the research questions were used instead of the hypothesis since the questions are more suitable in this particular research. The experimental group received some treatment and the control group, used for comparative purposes, did not receive some treatment. In this research, the independent variable (method) was the suspected cause and the dependent variable (performance) was the effect.

The quasi-experimental design that was used is the pretest-posttest non-equivalent control groups design. Two groups of subjects were used, which must be matched in all aspects in respect of intelligence and other characteristics that have a bearing on the experiment, like teacher experience and demographic characteristics. In quasi-experiments, the researcher works with already existing groups, such as classes of learners at school. To Lankshear and Knobel (2004:152-154), the candidates are not randomly assigned into groups and the researcher does not have full control over the study procedures. A quasi-experiment occurs when a researcher 'treats a given situation as an experiment even though it is not wholly by

design' (Lankshear and Knobel, 2004:152-154). According to Lankshear and Knobel (2004:152-154), Gary 1990:127-129) and Borg and Gall (1983:680), quasi-experimental designs are often the only option available to researchers in educational settings. However, quasi-experimental designs have lower internal validity due to lack of randomisation.

In experimental research, the researcher creates a new situation in which he can manipulate most of the factors that need to be investigated. According to Walliman (2001:117) "The researcher strives to isolate and control every relevant condition which determines the events investigated". This allows the researcher to conduct observations under carefully designed circumstances. To Cohen and Manion (1994:164), the simplest experiment involves making a change in the value of one variable (independent variable) and observing the effect of that change on another variable (dependent variable). Two sample groups of individuals were used, namely, an experimental and control groups.

The two groups of subjects (experimental group and control group), which were assembled using no randomisation, were used. Each group was given a pre-test. Thereafter, the experimental group was subjected to teaching and learning using the lecture method plus group discussion method (lecture-discussion method). The control group was subjected to the discussion method only, learning the same topic or concept done by the experimental group.

Both groups were given the same post-test on the same day, at their own schools. Individual scores were recorded for each candidate who participated in the test, forming a table of scores. The means were calculated for each group. The differences of means were obtained by subtracting the pre-test mean from the post-test mean of each group. In analyzing the data from the pre-test post-test control group design, the researcher would compare the actual scores and gained scores from the two groups. That is, comparing the post-test mean for the control group (M1) and the post test mean for the experimental group (M2). Then, the researcher compared the pre-test mean for the control group (m1) and pre-test mean for the experimental group (m2), and finally, the difference of M2 and m2 was compared to the difference of M1 and m1 in order to determine whether the treatment had a differential effect on the groups. At first, the pre-test means (m2 and m1) were also compared to see if the groups were equivalent, to some degree. Again the post-test means were compared to evaluate the treatment. That was done at each and every school involved in the research.

The t-test assesses whether the means of two groups are statistically different from each other. This analysis is appropriate whenever you want to compare the means of two groups, and especially appropriate as the analysis for the post-test-only two-group randomised experimental design (Chasakara, 2010:33). To Chasakara (2010:33-35), if the means for the two groups for posttest are the same, then the t-test can be used to see how the scores are spread and the difference can be seen. In our research, the mean and their differences for the

post tests were not the same. That means, the t-test is not exactly suitable for our research that does have the pre-test and the posttest. Again, the samples used in our experiment were not randomly assembled since it is a quasi-experimental method that uses natural groups. In most cases our means are different and not the same.

Table 3.1 below is showing the quasi-experimental design used: “The pre-test post-test non-equivalent groups design”.

GROUP	NUMBER	PRE-TEST	X or -	POST-TEST	DIFFERENCE
		MEAN		MEAN	
EXPERIMENTAL	10	m2	X	M2	M2-m2
CONTROL	10	m1	-	M1	M1-m1

Key to the table

X= treatment, - = no treatment
 m1 and m2 = pre-test results (mean),
 M1 and M2 =post test results (mean)

3.1.1. Internal validity

According to Dane (1990:148), internal validity is ‘--- the extent to which a research procedure enables one to draw reasonable conclusions’. A study has internal validity when the results have not been influenced by other factor other than the treatment variable. Walliman (2001:294-295) agrees with Dane (1990:148) when saying that “the level of sophistication of the design and the extent of control determines the internal validity of the experimental design”. Extraneous variables should be controlled. An extraneous variable (non-experimental variable) is any variable other than the treatment variable (experimental variable) that if not controlled, can affect the experimental outcome. Failure to control the extraneous variables would result in us failing to judge whether the results got from the experiment are due to treatment or to these extraneous variables (Gall et al, 1996 in Nyasha, 2005:18).

The following factors that are a threat to or influence internal validity, according to Gary (1990:134-135), Best and Kahn (1993:141-144) and Neuman (2006:260-262), were considered and controlled:-

- History.

The measured outcomes may have been influenced by the external historic event that could have happened during or before the experiment. The uses of the control group that can be expected to have the same external historical experiences during the course of the experiment as those of the experimental group improve the internal validity. The learners that were used came from the same rural area and had covered the same topics in grade 7. No repeaters were used in the experiment and only new grade 7 learners were used. Learners who transferred from other schools were also not used because they could lie to the researcher that they are newcomers to the grade 7 in order to be used in the research. If one learner is a repeater, he or she would have done the concept during the previous year in the same grade. Secondly, learners normally do not want to be known as repeaters because repeaters are well known to be slow learners. Slow learners are shy to be known as slow learners because they do not like to be labelled as weak in class. Yet they may be very good at other concepts done during the research study. Repeaters have very high chances of scoring higher scores because it would be their second time of doing the same concept in the same grade. Thirdly, most of the learners used in the experiments were from grade 7As. Most grade 7As have no repeaters according to their school regulations that repeaters will be accommodated in the last classes.

- Differential selection.

In quasi-experimental designs, research participants will not form equivalent groups because there is no random assignment of candidates into the groups. The bias could occur when more subjects in one group have a characteristic that affects the dependent variable. The results could have been caused by other factors relating to selection and not treatment. The researcher does not know whether the differential selection, rather than the experimental variable, caused the observed differences between groups on the post-measures (Gall et al, 1996 in Nyasha 2005:30). Reactions and behavior of individuals making the group can influence the results. The learners were put into groups according to their first pretest marks. The learners were arranged according to their scores, from position one to twenty. Those who occupy even positions (2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18 and 20) form one group and those occupying odd positions (1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15, 17, and 19) form another group. This tends to average their group performances. Secondly, when comparing the group performance, the researchers used the group differences in means of pretest and post-test. The researchers also interchanged the groups after each post testing.

- Maturation.

The researchers took the participants from the same grade 7 level and the participants have similar maturational and developmental experiences. Their age range was twelve to fourteen years according to their age registration at their schools. The learners were from the same rural areas and most of them having started their primary education at their schools where they were studied at.

- Instrumentation.

It refers to changes that may occur in the measurement or observation procedures during an experiment. If the researcher becomes aware of the purpose of the experiment the researcher is likely to support the hypothesis by changing his or her recording and manner of collecting data. Both the measuring instruments and the data collectors should remain constant across time as well as constant across groups or conditions. Walliman (2001:295) has this to say, "Faulty or inappropriate measuring instruments and shortcomings in the performance of human observers lead to inaccurate data". The researcher did not change his recording system. The researcher remained constant in the manner of collecting data. Learners were not punished for wrong spellings throughout the tests at all the schools. Secondly, the same marking schemes were used at all the schools for both experimental and control groups. The researcher did not appoint any one to assist him to moderate the scripts. The researcher did the moderation of all the scripts by himself.

- Experimental mortality or attrition:

This happens when some participants fail to continue with the experiment (withdrawal). If many participants or subjects leave the experiment midway, the researcher can not know whether the results from the few remaining participants are genuine or not. Otherwise the results would have changed if the entire participants were there. No withdrawals were recorded. All the exact participants were present at all the schools.

- Statistical regression:

It is a problem of extreme values or a tendency for random errors to move group results towards the average. Marking was strictly according to the marking scheme. The participants also interchanged the groups. Subsequent testing can also make learners/ participants perform better with or without treatment. However, for this study only four pretests and four post-tests were administered.

- Diffusion of treatment or contamination:

This happens when the experimental and control group members talk to each other about the treatment given to the experimental group. During the experiment day, the participants were kept separate from each other immediately after the pretest was written. Secondly, both groups were told not to talk to the other opposing group about what they were doing when

they were separated by the researchers. The participants promised the researchers that they were not going to disclose anything related to that information.

- **Compensatory behavior:**

This happens when the participants modify their behavior to cover up for not getting the treatment. The participants can work harder and get even better marks than their counter experimental group. The groups were not told about their group tags. This means the participants did not know whether they were the experimental or control group members.

- **Experimenter expectancy:**

Indirectly or unknowingly, the researcher can communicate experimenter expectancy to the participants. The researcher may be highly committed to the research questions or hypotheses and indirectly communicate desired findings to the participants. The researcher can do this non-verbally. The actions can threaten the internal validity. To solve this problem, the double-blind experiment was designed to control researcher expectancy. Double-blind experiment is a type of an experimental research in which neither the subjects nor the experimenter knows the specifics of the experiment. The three assistant experimenters knew very little about the specifics of the research and they were used to solve this problem. They knew only how to teach according to the plan.

- **Testing:**

Pre-test affects post-test. Pre-test can inadvertently alter the original properties of the subject of the experiment (Walliman, 2001:295). The participants were not given time to rest and discuss what they wrote during pretesting. From pretesting they went straight to learner either as control or experimental group. There were enough assistant researchers to do that at the same time. The researchers were taught how to do the teaching according to the plans, but not the objectives of the plans (what the plans are trying to investigate or determine). The tests were moderated by the researcher alone and the moderation was done on each and every script, to make sure that things had been done according to plan. The marking scheme had to be followed without changing anything listed on it or governing it.

3.2. POPULATION AND SAMPLING.

3.2.1. Population.

Walliman (2001:276) defines population as a collective term used to describe the total quantity of cases of the type which are the subjects of the study. De Vos (1998) in the Teacher in Zimbabwe (2003:33) has a more detailed explanation of the term population when he/she sees it as “the totality of persons, events, organization units, case records or other sampling units with which our research problem is concerned “. In this research the

population comprises all the learners in grade 7 in Shurugwi District, Zimbabwe. The district is made up of 62 primary schools. Each school has two or three grade 7 classes, for example, 7A, 7B and/ or 7C. On average, each school had 80 grade 7 learners. The 20 alphabetically selected schools constitute about a third of the total number of all the primary schools in the district of 62 primary schools. The 20 selected learners (alphabetically according to the school attendance registers) from each school constitute one quarter of the population of all the alphabetically selected 20 primary schools. The area of research study was limited to Shurugwi rural district in particular, in the Midlands province, Zimbabwe.

3.2.2. Sampling

To Grinnell (1993:154) "Sampling is the selection of some units to represent the entire set from which the units were drawn". Walliman (2001:276) went further explaining that a sample is a selected number of cases in a population. If sampling is properly done according to the requirement, the sample should represent the whole population. The sample is a representative portion of the population that is selected for investigation (Vermeulen 1998:7).

Twenty (25% of the population) alphabetically selected learners from each school were used in this research study. Non-randomisation was used to choose the candidates for the research. The allocation into groups was done after pre-testing the candidates to avoid a situation where more capable learners were put into one group. This was done to avoid the sampling error and increase reliability and validity of the method.

The 20 learners were arranged according to their pre-test scores starting with the one with the highest score to the lowest one. Candidates taking even number-positions according to the score arrangement formed the experimental group, and control group was made by the odd numbers, during lesson one before interchanging them for lesson two.

3.3. DATA COLLECTION AND DATA ANALYSIS.

Basically, there are three data-gathering techniques, namely, tests, interviews and questionnaire. In this research, the candidates were tested. Testing was the research instrument used. Tests are standardised examinations given to an individual or a group of individuals. A test is also defined as systematic procedure in which the testee is presented with a set of constructed stimuli to which he responds, the responses enabling the tester to assign the testee a numeral or set of numerals from which inferences can be made about the testee's possession of whatever the test is support to measure.

The purpose of a test can be seen as the discovery of what a person can do, and the usual method is to get him or her to answer questions or perform tasks, and then assess the degree of success with which he does so.

The researchers visited each school to select the learners, put them into groups, pretest all, teach all and give treatment to the experimental group, and post test all the groups. The tests were marked according to the mark scheme by all the researchers and moderated by the team leader. The scores were recorded on the mark sheets.

The data collected was tabled and processed. The means were calculated for each group per each test and tabled per school indicating group performances. The means were compared, differences and similarities noted. The differences in means were calculated and the general trends noted at each selected school in the district. The results were analysed in line with the assertion. The assertion was that, the use of the lecture method as complementary method to discussion method improves the academic performance of learners at primary level, in grade 7, in English language as a school subject. If the results / scores failed to favour the assertion, then the lecture method had no positive effect in teaching English or there was no difference between using and not using the lecture method as a complementary teaching method to the discussion method. If the results favoured the use of the lecture method as complementary to discussion method (lead to better academic performance of learners), then the questions set in line with hypothesis predicted are answered positively.

3.3.1. Before the research

The twenty schools involved in the research were visited by the senior researcher (team leader) to obtain permission from the headmasters and their school management teams, and to make arrangements with class teachers. These schools were assured that all ethical considerations would be adhered to. An informed consent was signed by the participants, headmasters, class teachers, learners and parents of the participants of the research. (See addenda at the end of the research project.)

All twenty schools were given their own timetables indicating when the researchers would be around at their schools conducting research. This was done to avoid inconveniences that may be caused by the researchers in the normal running of the schools. Furthermore, an internal arrangement was made between the researchers and the teachers concerned not to teach the topics to be done by the researchers. These topics were listed and given to the grade seven teachers. The teachers were requested not to tell their learners since this was something that has to do with the learners' future education. The teachers at all the schools agreed.

3.3.2. During the research.

The lessons were conducted at the schools concerned. The researchers had to move from one school to another, at times on foot because of the poor rural roads that are difficult to move on with cars. The researchers had to start lessons at eight o'clock in the morning. Twenty learners (groups 1 and 2) from each school were pretested together in the same room. After writing that pretest, the learners were not given any time to discuss their pretest. They were sent to their teachers to be taught other subjects like Shona, Mathematics and others, while the researchers marked and moderated their scripts. The learners were allocated into the groups:- experimental and control groups according to their first pretest marks/ scores.

At nine o'clock, the researchers started teaching lesson one to the experimental group using the lecture method plus child-centred method (the discussion method) to complement each other (see Addendum 1. Lesson plans). Learners ended the lesson by writing a post test exercise. During teaching the experimental group, the teacher tells learners some of the major key concepts, explains some, demonstrates others and gives guidance to the learners throughout the lesson. The learners discussed some of the related and similar questions to the ones they were going to write, in twos and as a class of ten before writing. At 09.45 hrs the experimental group lesson ended and the control group lesson started. That was done to avoid the meeting of the two groups. The control groups were taught using the discussion method only, without using the lecture method. The learners were not told anything but given time to discuss and discover how the work should be done. The examples were given on chalkboard for the learners to see, discuss and discover on their own. The learners were given a post test to write. The post test counted out of ten. The results for each school per group were tabulated as shown in chapter 4.

3.3.3. Reliability

Wisker (2008:322) sees reliability as relating to "how well you have carried out your research". The research is reliable when it can be replicated by another researcher using the same activities and same kind of groups, and gets almost the same findings. However, the findings may not be identical but similar. Reliability, therefore, is the degree to which scores obtained with an instrument are consistent.

The groups interchanged the tasks after a month had passed. Since characteristics of a "true" experiment are difficult to reach, the researcher used 'The Rotating Groups Experiment' under quasi-experimental design. Using the 'The Rotating Groups Experiment' simply means the experimental group during lesson one changes the tag (label) during lesson two, to be the control group (Nyasha, 2005:34). The same happens to the control group of lesson one. That

control group becomes the experimental group and works under the conditions of the assumed tag. This minimises the influence of other variables such as moderator variables (researcher's qualifications and experience), control variables (learner's previous knowledge, IQ, age and others) and intervening variables. The investigation was carried out by rotating the groups after a month had passed. That was done to avoid the sampling error and increase reliability and validity of the method. Four sessions were conducted using "The Rotating Group Experiment" and that means, four post tests and four pre-tests were conducted during the research.

3.3.4. Testing

All the learners were pre-tested and their results were recorded. Learners were allocated into the groups according to how they performed in the first pre-test. Those learners who took odd positions formed one group and those who occupied even positions formed another group. The two groups were named experimental and control groups. No teaching took place before the pre-tests were completed for each lesson. During pre-testing, all 20 learners per school sat in the same room and wrote their test. Then, the first experiment started. During the first experiment, group 'A' named experimental group, received its treatment of being taught using the lecture-discussion method. Group 'B' named the control group, was taught using the discussion method only without telling them but letting them discover on their own. Learners were post-tested the same day after a short break to avoid further discussions among learners, and other staff members at the school. Post-test results were recorded.

After a month (approximately 30 days) had passed, group 'A' was renamed the control group and was taught using the discussion method only, while group 'B' worked as the experimental group and was taught using the lecture-discussion method. That same day learners were post-tested and, the scripts marked and results recorded. Post-test results were averaged per group.

The results were tabulated and processed. Mean scores were calculated per school, per each lesson per group. The scores were analysed and observations were noted. Generalisations per each school were noted and written down.

The same procedures were done during the second, third and fourth lessons per every school for the twenty alphabetically assembled schools.

The candidates involved in the research were not changed throughout the research study. This was done in order to control some of the extraneous variables such as age. The researcher tried to keep them constant. Fortunately, no participant died or transferred from his/ her school to any other place, during the research period (4 months).

All the results favoured those with the tag 'experimental' group when compared with those labeled 'control' groups (see tables of results on chapter 4).

3.3.5. Telephonic interviews

In addition to the quantitative research approach, the qualitative research approach was also used at the end of the last posttest. Qualitative research refers to research that produces descriptive data (words) such as a person's own written or spoken words and observable behaviour (C.A.C.C. 2007:73). The researcher does not merely gather data but approaches the empirical world in a specific manner. Qualitative research has been described as naturalistic. That is, researchers interact with informants in a natural and unobtrusive manner. Whereas qualitative researchers emphasise validity, quantitative researchers emphasise reliability and replicability in research.

The interview, as one of the research instruments in qualitative research approach was used after post testing all the learners at all the schools. C.A.C.C. (2007:100) sees the interview as a direct method of gathering data/ information from the informants. The purpose of the interview is to obtain valid and reliable data through the interviewee's responses to questions, directly and orally, in most cases. It is the duty of the researcher to organise and process the data to information. The flexibility of approach which is inherent in the interview technique is particularly valuable when information is sought from children or illiterates (C.A.C.C. 2007:101). In this research project, the interview was used to supplement other findings.

A qualitative research approach was used at the end of the final research test to validate the results got and see the weaknesses and strengths of the way the lessons were done, that influenced the good or poor performance of the learners. Telephonic interviews were used to get direct information from the learners that were involved in the investigation. Learners were free to express their views through the telephone although face to face interview was also applicable. The telephonic interview was more appropriate especially for the learners who were shy to say what was not good about some of the encountered lesson situations. Telephonically, learners could say whatever they wished to say, without fear or favour. Facial expressions of the researcher could have hampered the freedom of the learners to pronounce their displeasure or discomfort with one method of instruction or the other. The telephonic interview was chosen because of the strength mentioned above.

After the final posttest, before the researchers left the schools, they promised the learners that they would phone them within two weeks. The learners gave their telephone numbers to the researchers. Most of the learners were contacted after school or during weekends at their homes. The learners were also told to inform their parents or caretakers about the coming

calls from the researchers. Both parties knew their roles as per signed agreement forms (see addenda). The calls were for interviewing the learners to get the information/ data direct from the learners in oral form. The information wanted by the researchers was specifically on the following:-

1. What the learners saw during the lessons (experienced and gained).
2. The learners' feelings and thoughts about how things happened during the lessons and tests.
3. The learners' treatment during the research processes. Fairness or unfairness during the lessons, if any.
4. Why the learners performed well or badly during the lessons. The learners were directly involved, that is why the researchers wanted to know the response of the learners.

(See the addenda).

Only five learners from each of the selected schools were telephonically interviewed. The selection of the learners was according to the order of how they registered their contact telephone numbers to the researchers. If the learner could not be found, then the next learner according to the register order is phoned. This situation happened to several learners, but five learners out of those registered with contact numbers were found and interviewed telephonically, at each and every school. The sample of five per school is equal to 25% (one quarter) of those who participated in the research project per school.

3.4. RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

During pretesting and post testing, learners wrote the tests individually bearing their name tags, for instance, 1A,1AA, 2A, 2AA 3A, 3AA, 4A, 4AA and others (see chapter 4). Four pretest and four post test exercises were administered to 400 grade 7 learners from the 20 alphabetically assembled primary schools in the district of Shurugwi, Zimbabwe. One pretest and one post test were based on one topic. Each test required ten answers and each answer carried only one mark. Learners were not punished for spelling mistakes. Only the objectives of the lessons were assessed. The ten questions were taken from their textbooks and senior researcher, following the Ministry of Education syllabi requirements, of that particular grade 7 level.

3.5. DATA ANALYSIS

The data collected (scores) was tabled and processed. The means were calculated for each group per each test or exercise. The differences between the means or gained scores were compared for the two groups at the same school. These gained scores for exercises done, were put on figures showing all the schools. Similar figures were drawn after following the same procedures for lesson 1 and lesson 2 (See *chapter four*). That is, the mean of M2-m2

compared with the mean of $M_1 - m_1$ in order to determine whether the treatment 'X' had a differential effect on the groups. Pre-test means [m_2 and m_1] were also compared to see if the groups were equivalent or almost equivalent, if total identity can not be achieved.

The assertion is that the use of the lecture-discussion method will lead to better academic performance of learners. If the results shown on the figures fail to favour the assertion, then the lecture-discussion method had no positive effects in teaching English lessons, or there was no difference between using the lecture-discussion method and not using the lecture-discussion method. But if the results favour the use of the lecture-discussion method (leads to better academic performance of learners), then the assertion set is true and supported.

3.6. CONCLUSION

Chapter three gives the research methodology that was used by the researcher to fulfil the problem under investigation. The quantitative approach was used and assisted by the qualitative approach (telephonic interview) at the end of the research to validate the found results. The chosen quantitative research method used is the quasi-experimental research method. Alphabetical arrangement of names in the school attendance registers was used as the sampling method at all the twenty alphabetically assembled schools to get the experimental and control groups needed. Testing, research instruments and how the data is analysed, are explained. And, finally, a qualitative approach was used to see the validity of the results through interviews.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

4.1. INTRODUCTION

Chapter four contains the results obtained by all the selected learners (sample), presented in tabulated form, table of real scores of lesson one school one, and tables and figures of all the means at all the schools, lesson one and two. Real scores are used in table 4.2.1 and 4.2.2 just to illustrate how the means were got. The comparison and interpretation of numbers become quite easy when they are put on the tables and figures that is why both tables and figures were used.

Below these tables and figures, explanations of the observations (interpretations) are given and, differences and similarities are noted. At the end of the chapter, tables and figures were analysed and explained in line with the set hypothesis (that was used to set the questions), for and against.

Descriptive research, as earlier mentioned in chapter three, include calculating descriptive statistics concerning central tendencies or averages, that is, the mean, mode and median or concerning dispersion of scores, such as range, inter-quartile range, and standard deviation. T-tests and variance enable one to determine whether the two groups have equivalent or different mean scores (Vermeulen, 1998:80). Descriptive research involves trying to determine whether two groups differ according to some quality, such as, one instructional method produces better academic results than the other. To Vermeulen (1998:80) "Such research involves comparing the central tendency of one group with the central tendency of another". T-tests (for two groups) and analyses of variance (for more than two groups) are the appropriate statistics to use. C.A.C.C. (2000:20) states that, "The principle underlying t-tests and analysis of variance is the assumption that both groups represent samples from the same population". Experimental and control groups, for example, represent two different samples from the same population. If that assumption is correct, then the two samples should have the same central tendency, - the same mean. To Vermeulen (1998:80) "A T-test determines whether an observed difference in the means of two groups is sufficiently large to be attributed to a change in some variance or if it merely could have taken place to chance". In other words we are trying to see if the observations are due to experimental design or due to accidental, incidental and/ or coincidental random changes.

During this research the participants interchanged the roles or exchanged the labels (the experimental group during lesson one taking the label of the control group during lesson two and the control group taking the label of the experimental group during lesson two). The means were compared and the general trends noted. The basis for all inferential statistics is a mathematical principle known as the central limit theorem which states simply that regardless

of the distribution of the parent population, the distribution of the means of samples closely approximates the normal distribution, if N is sufficiently large (Vermeulen, 1998:80).

4.2. TABLES AND FIGURES

Table 4.2.1: Test scores: School 1, lesson 1, Experimental group.

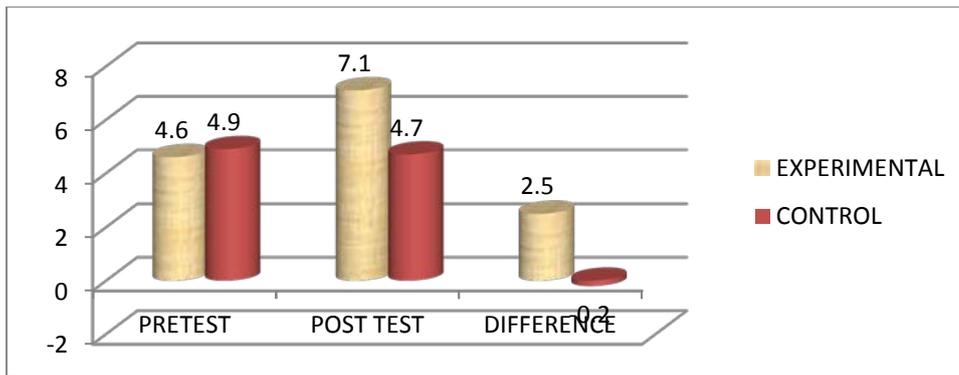
<u>Learner</u>	<u>Pretest</u>	<u>Post test</u>
1A	3	6
2A	3	7
3A	4	7
4A	4	6
5A	4	7
6A	4	8
7A	5	6
8A	5	7
9A	6	8
10A	8	9
<u>MEAN</u>	<u>4.6</u>	<u>7.1</u>

Table 4.2.2: Test scores: School 1, lesson 1, Control group.

<u>Learner</u>	<u>Pretest</u>	<u>Post test</u>
1AA	3	3
2AA	3	4
3AA	4	4
4AA	4	3
5AA	4	5
6AA	5	5
7AA	5	4
8AA	5	6
9AA	8	7
10AA	8	6
<u>MEAN</u>	<u>4.9</u>	<u>4.7</u>

Table and Figure 4.2.3: Test average scores: School 1, lesson 1, Experimental and control group averages (means).

<u>GROUP</u>	<u>PRETEST MEAN</u>	<u>POST TEST MEAN</u>	<u>DIFFERENCE</u>
Experimental	4.6	7.1	2.5
Control	4.9	4.7	-0.2



There is no big difference between pre-test average scores of the experimental and control groups since they were systematically allocated into the groups according to their scores. This was done to avoid a situation where one group, by chance, was going to have only the more capable learners than the other group. There is significant difference between the post test average scores of the two groups in favour of the experimental group. Group one, the experimental group, has a higher average post test score (7.1) and group two, the control group has the lower average score (4.7).

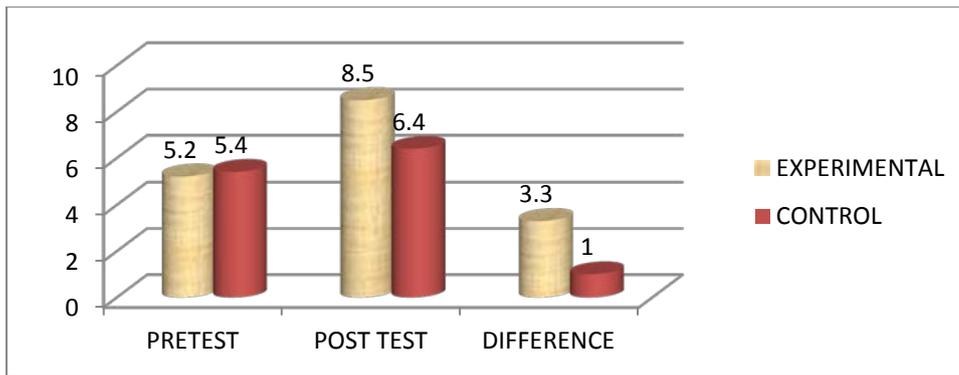
The group that received the treatment got a higher average score than their control group. The experimental group performed better academically than their control group when post tested.

The experimental group rose by 2.5 from pretesting to post testing, while the control group dropped by -0.2. The group with the bigger positive difference performed better than its counter group. In this case the experimental group has the bigger difference than the control group (See figure above).

NOTE: From Table and figure 4.2.4 to Table and figure 4.2.19 only the group means and differences of means were used to make the tables and figures. The group means explain clearly what the group indicates better than individual scores. Hence, the individual scores were only recorded and used to calculate what each group of ten learners got on average. Furthermore, generalisations apply to groups and not to individuals.

Table and figure 4.2.4: Test average scores: School 2, lesson 1, Experimental and control groups

GROUP	PRETEST	POST TEST	DIFFERENCE
Experimental	5.2	8.5	3.3
Control group	5.4	6.4	1.0



After recording the real scores according to how each learner performed during the conducted tests, the above averages (means) were calculated.

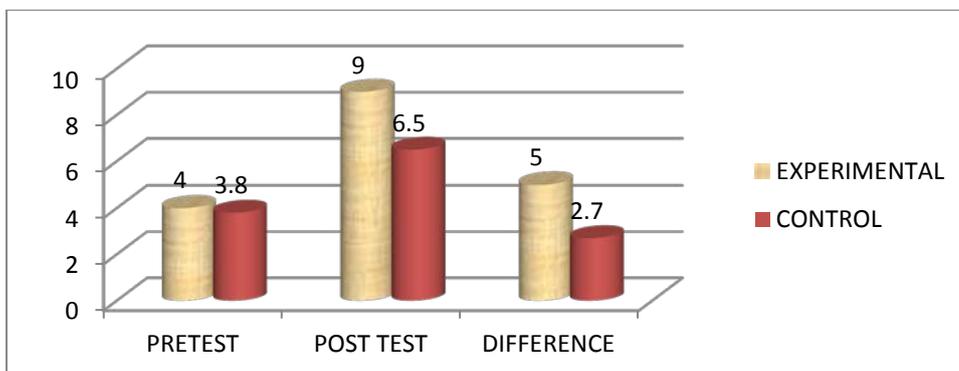
Pretest means:- The difference is too little. There is no big difference between the experimental and control groups when pretested. The difference is 0.2 in favour of the control group. When the difference is too little between pretest means, this means that the sampling done was fair.

Post test means: - There is significant difference between the experimental and control groups when post tested. The difference in means is 2.1. Group one (the experimental group) got the higher average (mean) and the control group got the lower mean. The experimental group performed better than their control group on average. The experimental group performed better academically than their counter control group when post tested.

The experimental group rose by 3.3 and the control group by 1.0. The experimental group has a larger increment than its counter control group.

Table and figure 4.2.5: Test average scores: School 3, lesson 1, Experimental and control groups.

GROUP	PRETEST	POST TEST	DIFFERENCE
Experimental	4.0	9.0	5.0
Control	3.8	6.5	2.7



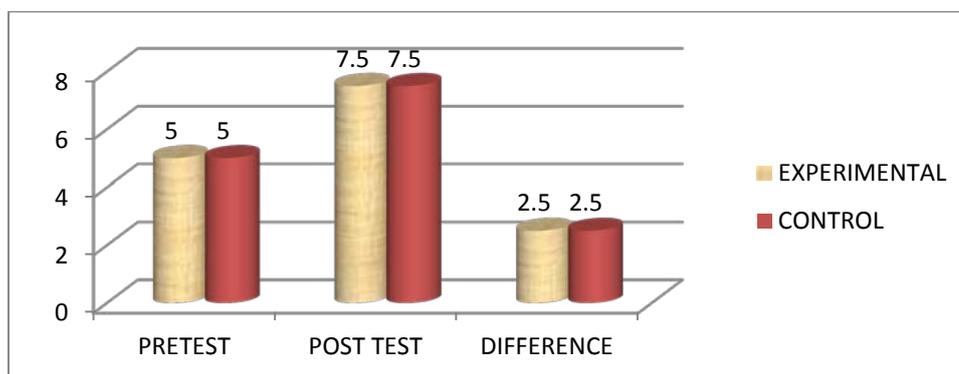
Pretest means:- The difference in means between the experimental and control groups is too small. The difference is 0.2.

Post test means:- The difference in means between the experimental and control groups is 2.5 when post tested. The difference is significant. The experimental group got the higher mean, and the control group got the lower mean. The control group got lower means than the experimental. The experimental group performed better academically than their counter control group when post tested.

The experimental group rose by 5.0 from 4.0 while the control group rose by 2.7 from 3.8. The experimental group has a bigger rise than its counter control group.

Table and figure 4.2.6: Test average scores: School 4, lesson 1, experimental and control groups

GROUP	PRETEST	POST TEST	DIFFERENCE
Experimental	5.0	7.5	2.5
Control	5.0	7.5	2.5



The results for school 4 are difficult to note differences and easy to see similarities.

Pretest means:- there is no difference noted between the experimental and control groups in means when pretested. Both groups, experimental and control groups got 5 marks as their mean. The level of operation academically is almost the same on average.

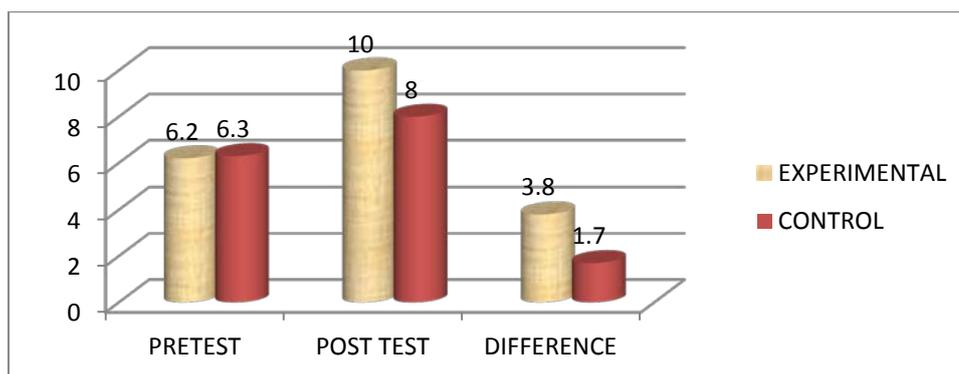
Post test means:- The same groups, experimental and control groups, when post tested, showed no differences in means. Both groups got 7.5 as their average scores. The treatment did not show any effects but there is a rise in average for both groups when post tested.

There is a rise of 2.5 for both the experimental and control groups when post tested. The difference, however, is zero. At this school, the experimental group and the control group

performed the same. School 4 is unique and its results can not give any support to any side. The results seem to have no effect to treatment or any treatment but neutral.

Table and figure 4.2.7: Test average scores: School 5, lesson 1, Experimental and control groups

GROUP	PRETEST	POST TEST	DIFFERENCE
Experimental	6.2	10.0	3.8
Control	6.3	8.0	1.7

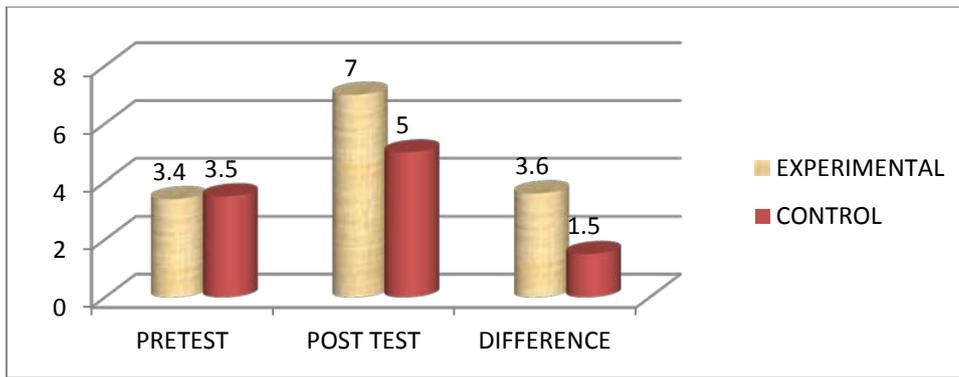


Pretest means:- There is no significant difference between the pretest means of the experimental and control groups. This means that, on average, the learners operate at the same level, academically. The sampling was fairly good.

Post test means:- The difference in post test means between the experimental and control groups is 2. This difference is significant. The experimental group got a higher mean than its counter control group. Note that, at this school 5, any kind of teaching was very influential and effective, when looking at the average scores. Experimental group rose by 3.8 while its counter group also rose by 1.7. However, the experimental group did better than the control group.

Table and figure 4.2.8: Test average scores: School 6, lesson 1, Experimental and control groups

GROUP	PRETEST	POST TEST	DIFFERENCE
Experimental	3.4	7.0	3.6
Control	3.5	5.0	1.5

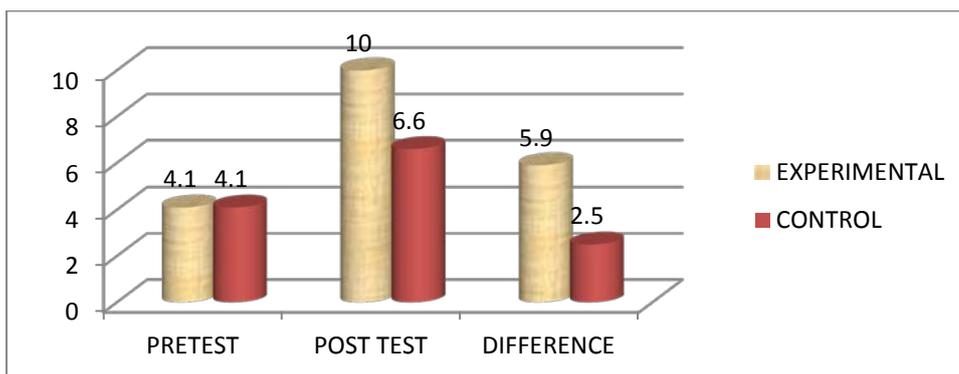


Pretest means:- There is no significant difference between experimental and control groups in means, when pretesting. The difference is 0.1 in favour of the control group. Still we can say the groups operate at the same level because the difference is not significant.

Post test means:- Experimental group got 7 and control group got 5. Their difference in mean is 2. There is a significant difference between the groups when post tested, in means. The experimental group got the higher marks than their control group. However, both experimental group and their counter control group, when post tested improved their marks. The experimental group average rose by 3.6 , while the control group average by 1.5. However, the rise done by the experimental group is more significant than that of the control group.

Table and figure 4.2.9: Test average scores: School 7, lesson1, Experimental and control groups.

GROUP	PRETEST	POST TEST	DIFFERENCE
Experimental	4.1	10.0	5.9
Control	4.1	6.6	2.5



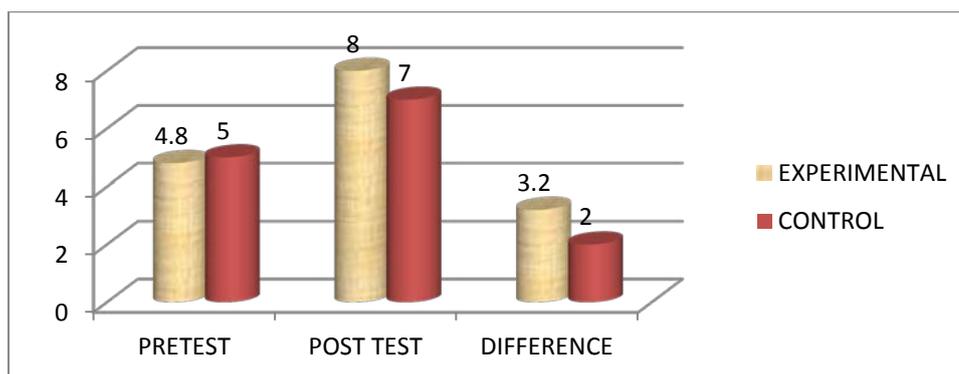
Pre-test means: - The experimental and control groups scored the same average because they were shared equally according to their marks. This was done to try to equate the groups according to performance since the learners were taken alphabetically from their school attendance registers. No randomisation was used.

Post testing:- When post tested, the experimental group got 10 and control group got 6.6. Both groups increased their means. This means that the performance of both groups

improved. However, the experimental group got a higher average than their counter control group. The experimental group increased by 5.9 and the control group by 2.5 respectively.

Table and figure 4.2.10: Test average scores: School 8, lesson 1, Experimental and control groups

GROUP	PRETEST	POST TEST	DIFFERENCE
Experimental	4.8	8.0	3.2
Control	5.0	7.0	2.0

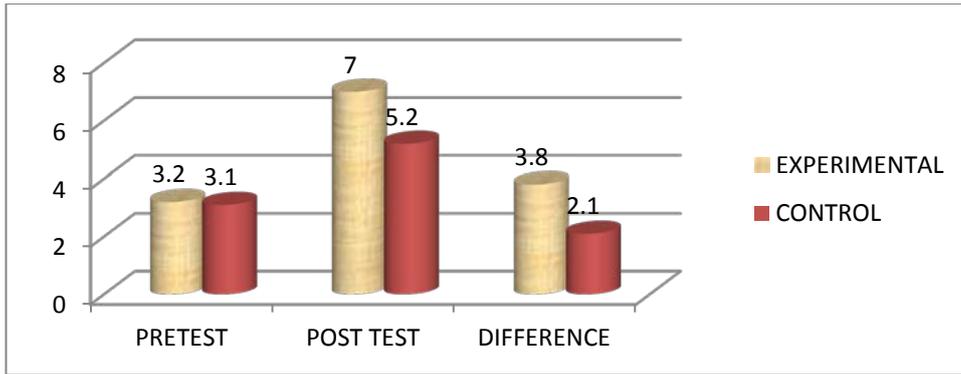


Pretest means:- Group two performed better than group one when pretested. Group two got the mean 5 and group one got 4.8. Their difference in mean is 0.2. The control group scored a higher mean than their counter experimental group when pretested by 0.2. This was by chance of arrangement of marks by the researcher when grouping the respondents. The type of sampling looked a bit fair.

Post testing:- the experimental group got 8 as their average while the control group got 7. The major difference can not be seen except if the rise is looked at. The experimental group had an increase of 3.2 and the control group had 2.0, from their pretest means to their post test means respectively.

Table and figure 4.2.11: Test average scores: School 9, lesson 1, Experimental and control groups

GROUP	PRETEST	POST TEST	DIFFERENCE
Experimental	3.2	7.0	3.8
Control	3.1	5.2	2.1

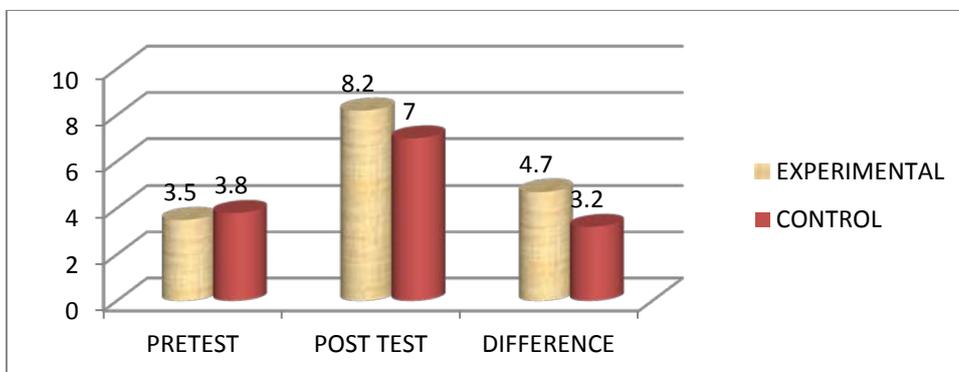


Pretest means:- When pretested, there is no significant difference in means between the two groups. The experimental group got 3.2 and its control group got 3.1. Their difference is 0.1 which is not significant. When pretested, their average performance is almost the same. The experimental group and control group perform almost the same. By arrangement, comparatively it means the sampling done was fairly good.

Post test means:- When post testing, the experimental group got 7 as its mean and its control group scored 5.2. The experimental group scored higher than their control group by 1.8. There is a significant difference in means of 1.8 points in favour of the experimental group. The experimental group had an increase of 3.8 from 3.2 to 7.0 while its counter control group increased by 2.1 from 3.1 to 5.2. the increase of the experimental group is bigger than that of the control group. This means that the treatment had an effect on the experimental group, if there are no other variables influencing that change.

Table and figure 4.2.12: Test average scores: School 10, lesson 1, Experimental and control groups.

GROUP	PRETEST	POST TEST	DIFFERENCE
Experimental	3.5	8.2	4.7
Control	3.8	7.0	3.2

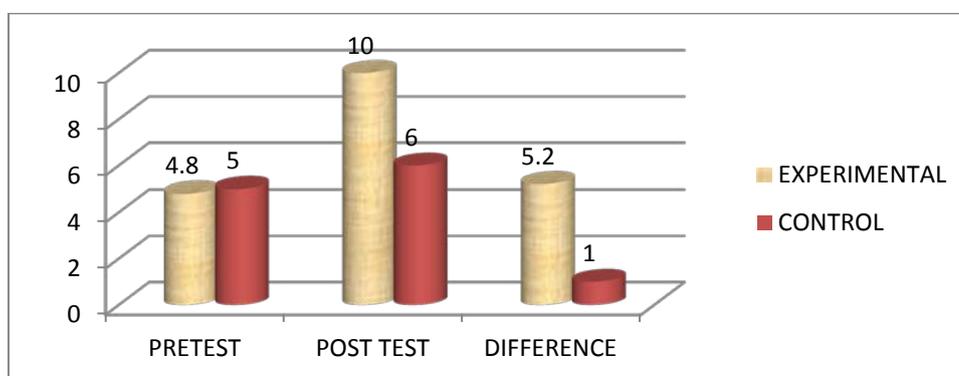


Pretest means:- The experimental group scored 3.5 and the control group scored 3.8. The difference in means is 0.3 points in favour of the control group when pretested. The control group had a higher mean than their experimental group one. The difference is not significant. Relatively, this means that the sampling error, if any, is very limited and minimised. On average performance the groups look similar.

Post test means:- The experimental group scored 8.2 and its control group scored 7. The difference in means between the control group and the experimental group is 1.2 points, in favour of the experimental group one. The difference is significant. The experimental group average rose from 3.5 pretest mean to 8.2 post test mean, which interprets to 4.7 increment. The control group also rose from 3.8 pretest mean to 7.0 post test mean, which gave an increment of 3.2 points. The experimental group had a bigger rise than its counter control group. This means that the treatment affected the experimental group to perform better than the control group.

Table and figure 4.2.13: Test average scores: School 11, lesson 1, Experimental and control groups.

GROUP	PRETEST	POST TEST	DIFFERENCE
Experimental	4.8	10.0	5.2
Control	5.0	6.0	1.0



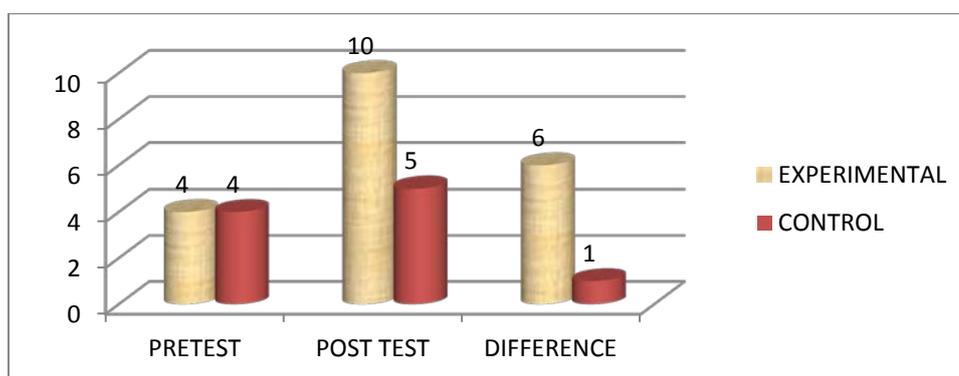
Pretest means:- The experimental group scored slightly less than their control group when pretested. The experimental group scored 4.8 and its counter control group scored 5. Their difference in mean is 0.2 in favour of the control group. The control group seemed to be slightly better academically than their experimental group when pretested. The arrangement of the learners into the groups was as a result of their pretest marks to try to fairly equalise the groups academically.

Post test means:- The experimental group got 10 and its control group got 6. The experimental group got 4 points more than their control group. Their difference is very significant. The experimental group rose from 4.8 pretest mean to 10.0 post test mean, while

its counter control group rose from 5.0 to 6.0 pretest and post test respectively. The experimental group has a bigger rise. The experimental group performed better than its counter control group when post tested. This is because the experimental group rise is 5.2 and for the control group is 1.0.

Table and figure 4.2.14: Test average scores: School 12, lesson 1, Experimental and control groups

GROUP	PRETEST	POST TEST	DIFFERENCE
Experimental	4	10	6
Control	4	5	1



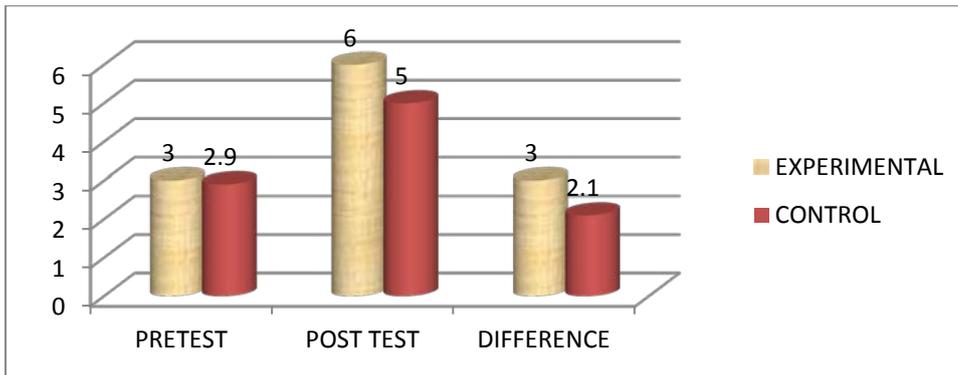
Pretest means:- When pretested, the experimental and control group showed no difference at all. Both groups got 4 points as their means. This shows that the two groups performed more or less at the same on average, before the treatment was given to the experimental group. Comparatively, the sampling done was fairly good.

Post test means:- The experimental group got 10 points and control group got 5 points as their means, respectively. The experimental group got a higher mean than their counter control group. Their difference in means between the experimental group and control group is 5 points in favour of the experimental group. Their difference is very significant.

The experimental group mean rose from 4.0 to 10.0 which is a rise of 6.0 points up the ladder. The control group mean also rose from 4.0 to 5.0 which is a slight rise of 1. The experimental group was heavily influenced by the treatment it received, assuming that the other non-experimental variables were controlled well.

Table and figure 4.2.15: Test average scores: School 13, lesson 1, Experimental and control groups.

GROUP	PRETEST	POST TEST	DIFFERENCE
Experimental	3.0	6.0	3.0
Control	2.9	5.0	2.1

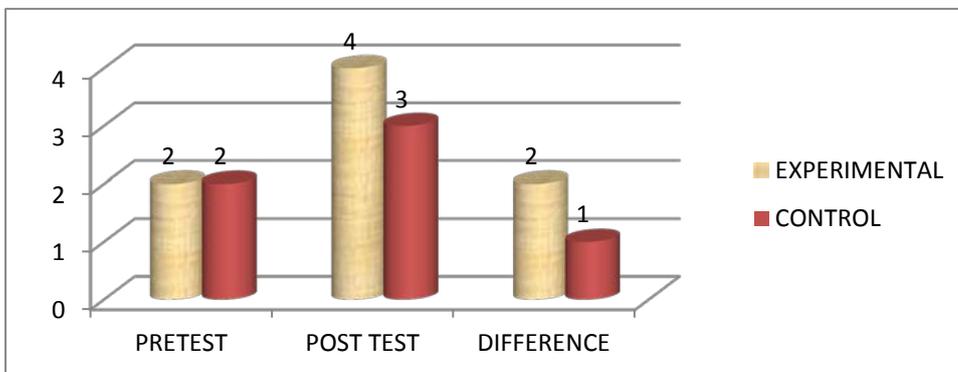


Pretest means:- The experimental group scored 3 and the control group scored 2.9 on average, when pretested. Their difference in means is 0,1 in favour of the experimental group. The experimental group seemed to perform better than the control group when pretested. However, their difference is not significant. If the difference is significant, this would be revealed during lesson 2 to 4.

Post test means:- The experimental group scored 6 points and the control group scored 5 points when post tested, on average. Their difference in means is 1 in favour of the experimental group. The experimental group mean increased from pretest mean 3.0 to 6.0 to give an increase of 3.0. The control group mean rose from 2.7 pretest to 5 post test mean which calculates to an increase of 2.3 difference. An increment of 3.0 is greater than that of 2.3. This means that the experimental group performed better than their counter control group, academically.

Table and figure 4.2.16: Test average scores: School 14, lesson 1, Experimental and control groups.

GROUP	PRETEST	POST TEST	DIFERENCE
Experimental	2	4	2
Control	2	3	1



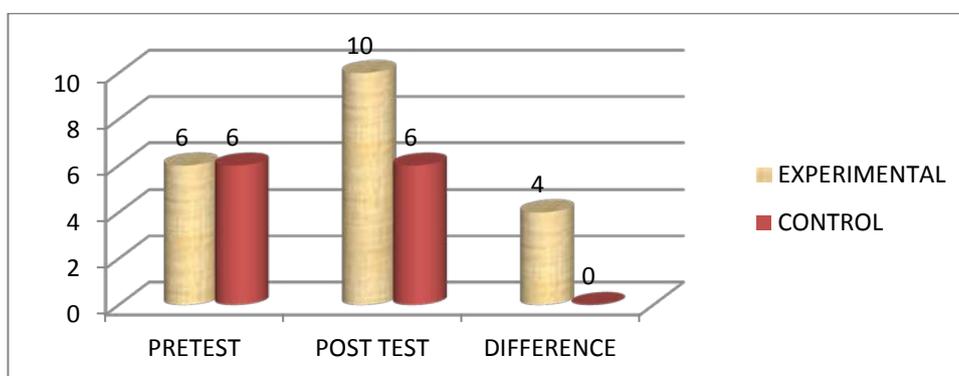
Pretest means:- Both experimental group and control group got 2 as their mean when pretested. There is no difference in mean, which means that the two groups are more or less equal in performance, on average, when pretested. The sharing of the candidates into the groups, as a sampling way seemed more neutral and fair for both groups on average.

Post test means:- Experimental group got 4 points and control group got 3 points on average when post tested. The experimental group got a higher mean than its control group. Their difference in mean is 1. That 1 has a significant difference after post testing, if the change is not due to any chances.

The experimental group mean rose from pretest mean 2 to post test mean of 4 and the rise is 2. The control group also rise from pretest mean 2 to a post test mean of 3 and the rise is 1. The mean difference of 2 and 1 is equal to 1 in favour of the experimental group. This means that the experimental group performed better than the control group when post tested.

Table and figure 4.2.17: Test average scores: School 15, lesson 1, Experimental and control groups.

GROUP	PRETEST	POST TEST	DIFFERENCE
Experimental	6.0	10.0	4.0
Control	6.0	6.0	0.0



Pretest means:- The experimental group and the control group scored the same mean 6. There is no difference in means between the two groups. The sampling appeared to have no bias towards any side.

Post test means:- The experimental group got 10 points and the counter control group got 6 points when post tested, on average. The experimental group got a higher mean than its control group by 4 points. Their difference in mean is 4 in favour of the experimental group. The experimental group mean rose from pretest mean 6 to post test mean 10 while the control group mean did not rise. The experimental group performed better than the control group when post tested. The treatment was assumed to have caused that change in the

positive direction. Yes, other factors, other than the experimental variable could have caused the change, but they were not noticed.

Results for schools 16, 17, 18 and 20 are not tabulated because they are similar to those of the schools already tabulated. Secondly, their results support the same trend of those already tabulated. Both experimental groups got higher means than their control groups at all the schools 16, 17, 18 and 20 when post tested, from lesson one to four.

School 19 results differ from all the results got from all other schools, during lesson 1. The control group got higher mean scores than the experimental group during lesson 1 when post tested. (see the next table and figure 4.2.17). However, during lesson 2, the results of the same school 19 (their means) favoured the experimental group by having the bigger mean than their control group. This was in line with other schools' trends.

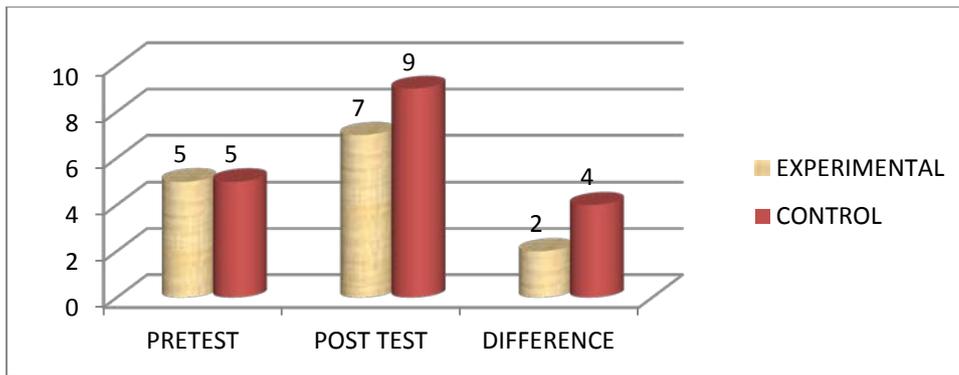
During lessons 2, 3 and 4, at all the twenty primary schools, the results seem to favour the experimental groups. The experimental groups at all the schools got higher mean scores than their counter control groups, including at school 19.

Pre-test means for lessons 2, 3 and 4 did not show any major differences between the groups labeled experimental and their counter control groups at all the twenty selected primary schools. This happened simply because the groups were systematically arranged according to their first pre-test scores. The differences in means were noted after post testing the learners. The experimental group at each and every school performed better than their counter control group. The treatment, at all the schools, positively affected the experimental groups. The experimental groups, on average, scored higher means than their control groups.

School 19 results for lessons 1 and 2 are included on Tables and figures 4.2.18 and 4.2.19 respectively, to help with a clear demonstration, illustration, explanations and, analysis and interpretation of what happened.

Table and figure 4.2.18: Test average scores: School 19, lesson 1, Experimental and control groups.

GROUP	PRETEST	POST TEST	DIFFERENCE
Experimental	5	7	2
Control	5	9	4



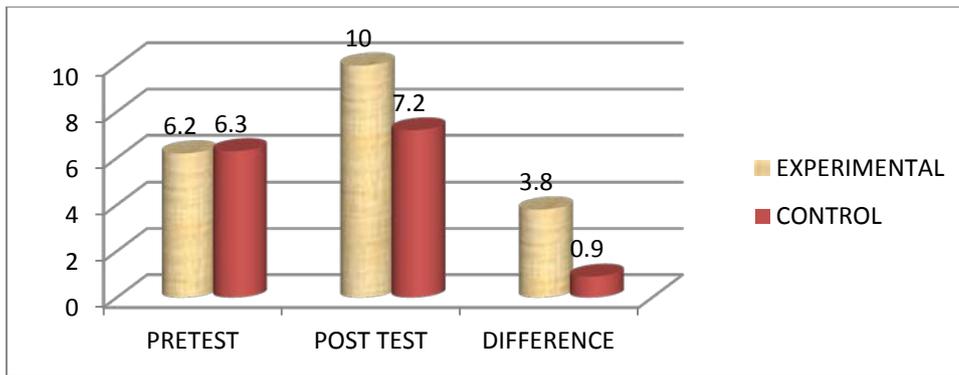
Pretest means:- There is no difference in means between the experimental group and the control group when pretesting them. Both groups got 5 as their mean. The groups seem to be operating at the same level. Moderately, sampling seem to be fairly done.

Post testing means:- The experimental group got 7 as their mean and the control group got 9. There is a significant difference in means between the experimental group and control group when post testing them. The experimental group got less mean than the control group by 2 points on average. The experimental group mean rose from pretest mean 5 to post test mean of 7, which is an increment of 2 points. The control group mean increase from pretest mean 5 to post test mean of 9, which is a increment of 4 points. The control group gained more than the experimental group by 2 points.

The treatment seemed to have worked negatively to the experimental group because they performed less than their control group. However, on closer observation and analysis, it is clear that both groups (experimental and control groups) increased the mean from 5 of pretesting to 7 and 9 respectively, for post testing. Positive learning took place between pretesting and post testing time. The control group performed better than its experimental group at this school. This was odd because the participants at this school produced results quite different from all other schools during lesson 1.

Table and figure 4.2.19: Test average scores: School 19, lesson 2, Experimental and control groups.

GROUP	PRETEST	POST TEST	DIFFERENCE
Experimental	6.2	10.0	3.8
Control	6.3	7.2	0.9



Pretest means:- When pretested, on average, the experimental group and control group got 6.2 and 6.3 as their mean scores, respectively. They seemed to perform averagely the same. Their mean difference is 0.1. This is not significant. Sampling seemed to be a fair arrangement.

Post test means:- The experimental group scored 10 and the control group scored 7.2 on average, when post tested. Their difference in means is 2.8 points. There is a significant difference between the post mean scores of the two groups. The experimental group mean went up from 6.2 pretest mean to 10.0 post test mean while its counter control group mean went up from 6.3 pretest mean to 7.2 post test mean. The difference in increase for the two groups is 2.9 (ie. 3.8 minus 0.9) in favour of the experimental group.

The experimental group performed better than their counter control group. The treatment was assumed to have caused that difference by assisting the experimental group.

4.3 CONCLUSION

One of the purposes of descriptive research is to generalise, that is, to relate the findings gathered from the research situation to other situations. Generalisations require the use of inferential statistics. When one attempts to generalise results, an inference (conclusion) about the relationship between the research participants and the target of our generalisation is made. An inferential statistic is a value associated with the sample (Vermeulen, 1998:75). Inferential statistics uses data obtained in samples to estimate the statistics of the parent population.

Except for the results of Table and figure 4.2.18: Test average scores: School 19, lesson 1, (that showed outstanding results) all the other results support the use of the lecture method as complementary method to discussion method during teaching and learning English language at grade 7 level. The learners performed better academically when the lecture method was used to supplement the discussion method. The tables of results showed in support of the lecture method, at all the twenty alphabetically assembled schools and for the four lessons at

each school (excluding the results of Table and figure 4.2.18: Test average scores: School 19, lesson 1).

After lesson one, the twenty alphabetically assembled learners at each school, interchanged the groups. The interchanging of the learners into groups per each lesson validates the results. Only the treatment should change the results and not any other factors that were likely to have any influence. No new learners were included in the research study. Only those who were selected on the first day of selection were used throughout the research. The number of lessons (4) also validates the results and improves reliability. Fortunately, no learner pulled out of the investigation during lessons 2, 3 or 4. All the learners that were used during lesson 1 came for lessons 2, 3 and 4 at all the twenty selected schools. Again, the researchers remained the same and the way of marking and recording was not changed per each lesson. Marking schemes were used. The learners did not know that they were under such an investigation and their privacy was to be kept secret. The ethical considerations were closely followed as explained in chapter one under Ethical considerations. The learners took the exercise as an ordinary learning exercise done to grade 7 learners who are just fortunate to be chosen for the advancement of education in the country.

After gathering all the statistical data, five learners from each school, among the selected learners, were interviewed telephonically (qualitative research approach) to validate the results got through quantitative means. The questions that were asked by the interviewer and the responses that were supplied by the interviewees (respondents or participants) are on the addenda.

CHAPTER FIVE: RESULTS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

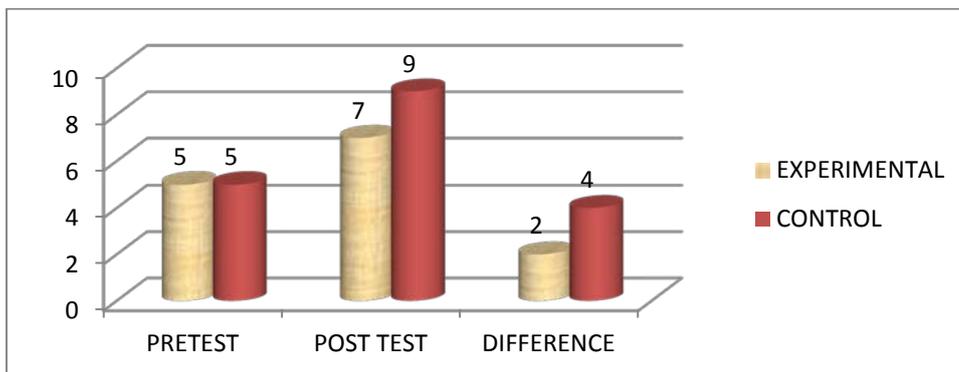
The research was done in Shurugwi district in particular, which encompasses 62 primary schools, in the Midlands province, Zimbabwe. Only 400 assembled grade 7 learners were involved, twenty from each of the twenty alphabetically selected primary schools. The research looked at determining the effectiveness of the instructional methods used in grade 7, particularly the lecture method of instruction as a complementary method to the discussion method, during teaching and learning situations, in Shurugwi district. The questions were set and the literature study was done. The practical part of the research was carried out. The research results were tabulated and used to draw the tables and figures on chapter four comparing two groups that were used. The two groups were, one with the tag 'experimental group' and the other one labeled 'control group'.

5.2. RESULTS

Generally, all the tables showed that the average scores, for the experimental groups during post testing, are higher than their counter control groups, at almost all the schools except at school 19 lesson 1.

Table and figure 4.2.18: Test average scores: School 19, lesson 1, Experimental and control groups.

GROUP	PRETEST	POST TEST	DIFFERENCE
Experimental	5	7	2
Control	5	9	4



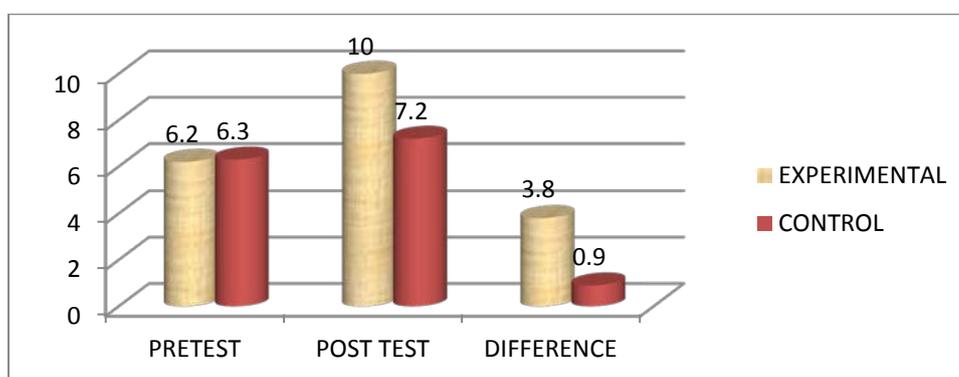
A closer look and analysis on the tables also showed that the experimental groups gained higher scores during post testing than their counter control groups at each and every school. The treatment seems to have influenced the changes. The questions set in line with hypothesis had been answered. The inclusion of the lecture method as complementary

method improves the academic performance of learners in the teaching and learning of English at grade 7 level.

The results showed that only one school (school 19) produced outstanding results during lesson 1. School 19 experimental group during lesson 1 post testing, got less mean score than their counter control group. (see table and figure above 4.2.18). The treatment was not effective or it affected the results negatively. However, during lesson 2, 3 and 4, at the same school during post testing, it was noted that the experimental group means were higher than those of their control group means. The control group performed less than their counter experimental group. (see table and figure below 4.2.19)

Table and figure 4.2.19: Test average scores: School 19, lesson 2, Experimental and control groups.

GROUP	PRETEST	POST TEST	DIFFERENCE
Experimental	6.2	10.0	3.8
Control	6.3	7.2	0.9



At all the schools, the pretest means are lower than the post test means, during lesson 1, 2, 3 and 4. This was significant because learning was conducted when either using the lecture method as complementary or using child-centred methods only. This means that learners should be tested after receiving some teaching and not before teaching. Some kind of teaching and learning should take place before any testing is done for better academic achievement / results.

There is no significant difference in pretest mean scores between the experimental groups and the control groups when observing at all the schools during lesson 1, 2, 3 and 4. This may indicate that the sampling done had no bias or this could have resulted because of the techniques that were used by the researchers to assemble the groups. The control groups improved slightly in performance in their post test means but they still did not do better than their experimental groups. This means that teaching and learning took place, and learners benefited, though in smaller quantities. The discussion method (learner-centred) had an impact on the learners' performance, to some degree, but not better than their experimental group method (lecture-discussion).

The control groups performed less than the experimental groups during post testing, may be, because of the following possible reasons:-

1. Some of the control group learners did not complete the exercises because they needed a lot of time to do the work. Lessons are programmed and have fixed times.
2. Discussions and discoveries need a lot of time. At times, the discussions were a sheer waste of time because of the noise and disorder caused by other learners within the groups.
3. It was very difficult for some learners to discover how some of the work should be done within that limited lesson time. Average and slow learners needed the teacher's voice but it was not there for the control groups.
4. The teacher was always there for the experimental groups whenever a need or barrier was there, to clear all the confusion by giving clear explanations, to give super demonstrations and put everything into perspective.
5. Learners want to talk to adults for approval before doing any kind of activity, such as writing (Ministry of Education and Culture 1992:36-50). In Shona homes around the schools used in the research study, learners' family members give learners approval before they do or display any activity.
6. Learners live with more capable members at home whom they depend on, whenever challenging situations arise. Learners depend upon others who are more capable. Bruner, a cognitive psychologist, agrees with this saying when explaining the concept 'scaffolding'. Learners need help from adults who are more capable than them in certain areas. In our case, the teacher is the adult who must always be there helping and supporting the learners in order to proceed or go through the challenging situations.
7. Separation / Breaking up of groups into smaller ones often affected the control groups negatively and positively to the experimental groups. The experimental groups were given support to understand the concepts. The control groups seemed hesitant enough in whatever they were doing.

The lecture method, as a complementary teaching method to learner centred method (discussion) produced better academic results than what the discussion method did alone. The results on the tables (chapter four) showed that the learners that received the treatment performed better than their control groups academically.

5.3. CONCLUSION

The researcher discovered that the lecture method can be used during teaching and learning situations provided that the following conditions are adhered to:-

1. In most cases, the lecture method can be used as a complementary method to other methods which are learner-centred (Fraser et al 1992:139 & Jacobs & Gawe 1998:208-234).
2. The lecture method can be effective, profitable and efficient when teaching art subjects like English and Religious and Moral Education (Fraser et al 1992:139).
3. This telling method (lecture) needs thorough preparation and planning on the part of the teacher. Adequate preparation helps the teacher to explain the work logically and have the attention of the learners.
4. The teacher should act as a mediator giving guidance and facilitation to the learners. In order to keep the learners task focused, informal conversations with the groups are needed but care should be taken to avoid unnecessary interruptions.
5. The teacher must have good knowledge of appropriate methods to combine and use together with the lecture method.
6. The developmental level of the learners plays a vital role. Suitable interesting stories can be utilised to their fullest extent. Linguistic ability of the learner should be considered also when telling stories to the learners (Steyn et al 1988:29).
7. The narrator (lecturer) must strengthen his position of authority to be in full control of his learners. He must be a lively speaker and be purposeful.
8. When there is less time to teach and learn something, the lecture method is the answer to that situation. Secondly, when there are no text books, internet or no library at the institution, the only answer to the situation is the lecture method.

The telephonic interviews showed that most learners were more comfortable and interested in lecture-discussion variation than any other single method. The teacher's presents and help gave courage, confidence and interest to the learners to attack any given problem. The teacher helped the learners to focus on the work to be done.

For the learners to reason and argue convincingly, they need to be subjected to well planned discussions, guided and facilitated by the talking teachers. It is important to guide learners during discussions because these facilitated discussions are important avenues to developing the intellect of the learners. The research is supported by Gwata (1992:10) in Barker (2000:56) who states that teaching of the group discussion skill at its most basic level involves the teacher who guides learners into discussions and thinking that leads them to make correct responses to issues raised during discussions.

During discussions, the general mistakes or difficulties must receive attention. The main points of a completed task are going to be summarised. The team spirit of the whole class is going to be mobilised and the confusing and conflicting evidence is going to be put into perspective. The telling teacher does the work. Steyn et al (1988:31) has this to say, "The

living voice of the teacher has a formative influence on the child which no textbook can achieve". The teacher's voice is irreplaceable in the class.

Above all, the research supported that learners perform better academically when subjected to the lecture method plus the discussion method than when subjected to the discussion method alone, at primary school level , grade 7 English, during teaching and learning situation. The study revealed that , assumptions made earlier in the study were, to some extend, correct.

5.4. RECOMMENDATIONS

After having done the research theoratically and practically, making careful analyses and observations, sythesising the information and making use of hypothetico-deductive and inductive procedural reasoning, the researcher made his recommendations. The following are recommendations put forward by the researcher:-

1. Classroom practitioners should be well knowledgeable about teaching methods and the whole didactic situation before attempting to execute lessons. This should be done in order to avoid the wrong use of the methods. A didactically knowledgeable teacher is likely to choose the best teaching methods to achieve the desired goals. Be knowledgeable about the teaching methods.
2. It is highly recommended that when using the lecture method, care must be taken that the learners are actively involved and be focused on the lesson. This means that, a combination of teaching methods, which are appropriate and effective must be used together with the lecture method. The lecture method should not take the whole lesson but part of the lessons (stages) where necessary.
3. The lecture method will always work as a bridge in order to proceed to the next stage in a lesson. It will always open new vistas to learning, introduce new concepts, unblock the blocked knowledge, summarise key issues or concepts, guide the learners and remove the confusion that can rise within the didactic situation. The lecture method is an extra ingredient that cannot be left out during teaching and learning situation. Steyn et al (1988:29) put it this way, '- -the spoken word remains indispensable in the primary school- - -'.
4. Education facilitators must use this telling method from preprimary to tertiary level. However, they must have done enough preparation and planning in order to be successful and effective. Again, the level of interllectual development of the learners must

be put into consideration. An interesting story at pre-primary level cannot be interesting at tertiary level. A very good story at tertiary level cannot be understood by pre-primary learners too.

5. Best methods of teaching produce the best results for pupils, academically, regardless of their labels (Jacobs & Gawe 1998:233). Any method can be successful, can achieve good results, can be of benefit to the learners, provided that the key person (teacher) in the didactic situation has done enough preparation and planning, and is well organised. Although the teacher is not the learner, he is the chief organiser and expert in the didactic situation. The teacher is the chief of operations in the didactic environment. The success or failure of any didactic situation depends upon the teacher's knowledge of the teaching methods.

There is no method that can replace the lecture method. The lecture method qualifies as a didactic method and there is no substitute for it. The role played or done by the lecture method cannot be done by any other discovery or learner centred method. The lecture method has to be there. This narrative method qualifies as an important didactic method (Fraser et al 1992:140). The lecture method is highly recommended to be used in the class.

The professional foundations departments at each teachers' college or university ought to make sure that each teacher has a resource file with various and adequate materials likely to be used in the field. This will alleviate the problem of shortage of the teaching material related to the teaching methods and necessary knowledge related to the field of didactics. Equip the teacher before leaving the training institution for better implementation at the sites (schools).

Teachers and student teachers should be allowed to go for staff development so that they do not rely on learner-centred methods only and leave out other important methods like the lecture method. Teachers from different colleges should meet time and again with teachers in the field to share problems encountered during teaching practice. Those meetings would make the novice teachers understand the methods of teaching fully.

The research results revealed that the task of education is necessarily a partnership between and among teachers and learners, making an interactive circle. This means that each participant must be prepared to co-operate with the other in a shared enterprise of learning if problems relating to failure of learners in class are to be solved.

The researcher's opinion is that the rate of failure can be vastly reduced at primary school level if teachers work hand-in-glove with their learners making use of all the necessary and

appropriate teaching methods, either as a combination of methods or as single methods depending on the objectives to be achieved.

Teachers should take the roles of the facilitators, and the learners doing the learning themselves. The teachers must give guidance and give help only when learners seem uncertain.

The teacher must always make sure that all learners are involved in class activities which are well guided and conducted by the talking teacher (him). Hence, the teacher's aim must be to help learners to understand and grasp the concepts under investigation, whether in class or outside the room (facilitating learning).

The use of the lecture method is valid. Although the lecture method is one of the oldest teaching methods, the chief proponents of the interactive model did not see how the lecture method is becoming more fashionable and new. The lecture method is being modernised by being used appropriately when necessary together with other methods, thereby complementing each other for better academic results. Teachers need to be flexible when using the lecture method and other methods. The switching off from one method to the other needs to be smooth. The dominance of the teacher when using that lecture method should not be seen or felt, but taken as help necessary to be given by the facilitator who should be there. Teacher talk is needed, necessary, valid and helpful, for the success of the learners, didactically speaking.

In a didactic situation, the teacher, learner, content, media, objectives, methods and activities are all interwoven and heterogeneously mixed, forming a uniform mixture of events that are systematically done by the two living didactic components (the teacher and learner). However, the teacher must see that all the other components must agree, especially when it comes to relating them to the methods to be used. The methods used must make it a point that the objectives are achieved, the learner has understood the content, the media used is useful to the comprehension of the learner, the learner does all the relevant activities and the teacher makes use of all the other didactic components, to make the learners understand concepts well. Obviously, the teacher must be knowledgeable about the methods he uses during lesson execution. The teacher's expertise is of vital importance as far as methods are concerned.

This research study is not an end but a beginning of another research. The research done here encompassed a very small area, hence, it cannot be used to make generalisations and final conclusions for all areas in Zimbabwe. Further researches can be started from here. Research results are seldom conclusive. Aiken (1994) cited in Nyasha (2005:60) has this to say, "In the behavioral science –there has rarely been such a thing as an experimentum

crucis. The question that stipulated a particular investigation is rarely answered to everyone's satisfaction. More likely, the research findings simply lead to other questions, and the matter becomes more and more confusing and complicated”.

5.5 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The following are suggestions given for further research concerning the lecture method as a complementary method to learner-centred methods: Enough preparation should be done before the research is started. The researchers should be well versed with skills and knowledge of research methods and techniques to be used. The question of paradigm comes into the researcher's mind. Enough finance and transport should be available if advanced and further researches are to be done effectively, efficiently, and successfully.

The research should cover the whole country in order to make a meaningful conclusion. The population should include all concerned learners in the country. However, random sampling should be used to minimise sampling errors and bias, although quasi-experimental designs do not have randomisation.

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7.0. ADDENDA

This chapter contains the two lesson plans, the pre-tests and post-tests that were written by the sampled learners at the twenty primary schools involved in the research. The addenda also contain the form of agreement that was signed by the parties concerned when looking at ethical considerations and the rights of learners that were considered when the research was done, before, during and after the research. The addenda also have the questions that were asked to the grade 7 learners telephonically to validate the results got. These questions tried to bring out what the learners were thinking and feeling about being involved in the research and how they were treated. Another important area was to get the information about how and why the learners performed the way they did.

ADDENDUM 1: Lesson plans and tests.

Lesson plan one.

Grade 7

Subject: English

Topic: Punctuation

Source: Primary English syllabus grade 6 and seven, page 4-5.

OBJECTIVES:- By the end of the lesson, learners are expected to be able to –

Name several punctuation marks and identify them.

Use the named and identified punctuation marks to punctuate given sentences.

MEDIA TO USE: Punctuation marks on charts, textbooks to look for punctuation marks, sentences on chalkboard.

INTRODUCTION: - The teacher is going to show the learners the punctuation marks and name them. For instance, he will show them a full stop, comma, question mark, exclamation mark, open and close inverted commas, and others.

LESSON DEVELOPMENT

Step 1 for control group:-

The teacher is going to let the learners discuss in groups after seeing one or two examples on chalkboard

Step 2 for control group:-

The learners are going to write the test individually in their exercise books for marking.

Step 1 for experimental group:

The teacher is going to write two examples on chalkboard and explain them thoroughly to the group members. The teacher will ask the learners to go through some English text books looking for places and situations where these punctuation marks are used. The teacher will

explain further giving situation where these marks (? , ! . “ and “) are used. Learners are also asked to give their own situations where they think these punctuation marks are used. Demonstration and examples are illustrated and explained fully.

Step 2 for experimental group:-

The learners are given work to write in their exercise books, in pairs for marking. Since the teacher is there, he will move around the class checking for common errors and confusions. If any, these will be attended to as a class, by giving further examples related to the situation but not the real ones. After report backs of some kind, the learners are given individual work to write in their exercise books for marking. The ten post test questions are given to the learners.

CONCLUSION

The teacher will collect the answer sheets (learner scripts) for marking after step two for both groups. The learners will be informed about when they will get their average mark for the group of ten learners.

PRETEST ONE FOR LESSON ONE

TOPIC:- Punctuation

Punctuate the following sentences correctly.

- john is my friend. (1)
How do you wash your face (1)
James Annah and Mary are in grade seven B. (1)
I am a boy aged ten years (1)
The name of our school is walmer primary. (1)
My father is a mr moyo. (1)
What is the name of your teacher (1)
Peter said, I am a boy. (1)
The teacher asked, Are you a boy (1)
Stupid shouted the teacher. (1)

TOTAL MARKS = 10

POST TEST ONE FOR LESSON ONE

TOPIC: Punctuation

Punctuate these sentences correctly.

- I am not well today said Jones to his mother. (1)
She was excited and said come come (1)
Mr. Moyo said I am an old man. (1)
Jesus said Peter James and John follow me (1)
Mary Learn and Annah are three friends (1)

Are you related to mary (1)
How old are you mary asked the teacher (1)
Mac exclaimed Come on Come on (1)
rats cows dogs and cats are common animals. (1)
Robert Mugabe said mr blair keep your England I will keep my Zimbabwe.

LESSON PLAN TWO

Grade 7

Subject: English

Topic: Adjectives (comparative and superlatives)

Source: Primary English syllabus, grade 6 and 7 pages 4-5.

Objectives: By the end of the lesson learners are expected to be able to-

- (a). Use adjectives, comparatives and superlatives correctly and appropriately.
- (b). Note the differences between comparatives and superlatives when being used in sentences.

Media to use:- adjectives, comparatives and superlatives on chalkboard. Three learners to compare height using tall, taller and tallest, and age using young, younger and youngest.

Introduction: - The teacher will tell the learners what adjectives are and their uses (to describe things).

Step 1 control group: The learners are going to be shown the two sentences on chalkboard and two adjectives with their comparatives and superlative form. The learners will discuss in groups those sentences and adjectives.

Step 2 control group: the teacher will give the learners the ten sentences to write individually as their post test work for marking and recording. Learner-learner discussion is done only during the first step and not during writing the post test work (step 2). The teacher will act as an invigilator only.

Step 1 experimental group: The teacher is going to use two sentences to explain and demonstrate to the class how the comparatives and superlatives are used. Clear illustration and situation are given to the class by the teacher. The learners are also given chances to give their own examples and ask their own questions for better understanding. The teacher will correct errors and misunderstandings on the side of the learners before they write their post test work individually.

Step 2 experimental group: the learners are going to write the ten questions as their post test work. They will write this post test individually for marking and recording of marks/ scores.

Conclusion: The teacher is going to promise the learners that he is going to bring the average marks for the groups not for individuals.

PRETEST 2 FOR LESSON 2

TOPIC: Comparatives and superlatives

Use the best word/s to complete the sentences given below. The word in brackets is a cue/clue.

John is the boy in our class. (big)

Mary is . (short)

Anton is than Emma. (generous)

When you look at numbers 3, 4 and 5, 3 is the number. (little)

Walmer is a school. (small)

Mr. Chirinda is the teacher at our school. (old)

AIDS is than TB. (bad)

I am thin, but Mary is than me. (thin)

N1 is the road in South Africa. (wide)

Mussina to Cape Town is the distance I travelled on road. (long)

TOTAL MARKS = 10

POST TEST 2 FOR LESSON 2

TOPIC: Comparatives and superlatives

Complete the following sentences correctly. Each sentence carries one mark.

Amos is arguably the boy in our class. (short)

Peter has number of years than John. (little)

Yellow was the colour in the shop. (blight)

Sister Anto is . (beautiful)

Davis is the boy in the camp. (handsome)

Cape Town is the of them all. (far)

NMB Stadia is than Mbombela stadium. (big)

Port Elizabeth city is situated than Nelspruit. (good)

I am having the number of teeth in this class. (less)

Mary arrived at school than her sister today. (early)

ADDENDUM 2: Information sheet:- “Rights of learners and Agreement Form”

Walliman (2001:354) quoted the Oxford Brookes University, ethical Standards for Research Involving Human Participants: Code of practice, 2003, as saying that the research should not cause harm to the participants but instead benefit the participants. Participants or those who intend to participate have the right to be communicated all the necessary information about the research from the researcher well in advance. The information sheet must be given to the participants or their representatives in case of vulnerable people such as children. The information sheet must be detailed and containing such information as the rights of the participants and the laws that protect them and the contact details of the Schools' Research

Ethics Officer so that participants can report any procedures that seem to violate the participants' welfare. Enough time should be given to the participants to study thoroughly and have deeper understanding of the information sheet, before getting into the research (Walliman, 2001:355).

Walliman (2001:356) also mentions about the researcher's honesty practice as central to the relationship between researcher, participant and institutional representatives. Researchers should take precautions to protect confidentiality of participants and data. The Data Protection Act 1998 should be followed closely. "Researchers should follow the University's Data Protection policy and Guidelines and be aware of the risks to anonymity, privacy and confidentiality posed by all kinds of personal information storage and processing" (Walliman, 2001:357).

These are some of the rights that were given and followed before, during and after the research:-

The right to privacy or non-participation. However, no parents, institutions or participants refused to give me their support.

The right to remain anonymous. No names were used in the exercise. Learners were given tags, for example, 1A, 2B, etc.

The right to confidentiality. All the information was kept secret and confidentially. Nothing was released to anyone outside the research study.

The right to experimenter responsibility. The assurance that the participants will not be harmed in any way by their participation in the research was given.

The right to equivalence. To show that there is no benefiting group. The two groups (experimental and control) from each school exchanged roles during the next topic (topic two). The former experimental group became the control group, and the former control group became the experimental group.

And lastly, the Nuremberg Code of 1947 was to be followed closely to protect the young learners in grade 7. This Code of 1947 was made in Nuremberg City after the Second World War. The horrors inflicted upon concentration inmates during the Second World War in the name of research led to some of the earliest legislation concerning scientific research (Vermeulen, 1998). According to Dane (1990:56), the Code gives rights to the candidates involved in the research to quit the research (terminate his or her participation) even before or during the research if anything negative is observed or anticipated. At each school, the researcher, together with the administration of each school, elected committees that would talk to the learners time and again, secretly. Each learner would cease his / her participation if anything negative is observed.

The form to be filled upon acceptance:

AGREEMENT FORM TO BE SIGNED

LEARNER PART

I (name) Birth certificate number/ ID: have agreed to participate in the research to be done at our school. The information to be collected is going to be used only for educational purposes and not for any other use. My real name is going to be kept secret. I have the right to withdraw from the exercise before or during the research if anything bad is seen or anticipated.

SIGNATURE OF LEARNER:

DATE:

PARENT/S OR CARETAKER PART

I (name in full) ID. Number: agreed that (name of learner) should take part in the educational research study to be done at their school, provided that the work is done for the development of education only, in our country. The rights of the learner should be adhered to and followed according to our country laws/ constitution.

SIGNATURE OF PARENT/S OR CARETAKER:

DATE SIGNED:

CLASS TEACHER/ HEADMASTER PART

I (state name) the headmaster/ class teacher of the learner (name) in grade 7, agreed on behalf of the school that our learner should participate in the educational research programme that is going to be carried out at our school by researchers. However, I am going to make it a point that the rights of the learners are kept and adhered to. I will advise my learner/s to leave the research programme (not to be a participant) if anything outside law of education is happening or is likely to happen. I will see that safety and secrecy of the learner/s are kept properly. I will continuously assess the proceedings in order to see that everything is well from the beginning to the end. No actual names of the learners are going to be used.

SIGNATURE OF TEACHER/ HEADMASTER:

DATE SIGNED:

SCHOOL STAMP:

ADDENDUM 3: Telephonic interview

During the interview, the respondents/ learners were asked to answer the following questions orally as they saw and experienced the research lessons and tests:-

Do you like to be involved in research processes like the one you participated in, next time? If 'yes or no', give the reason for saying so.

Which method of teaching was more comfortable with you? (where the teacher was involved all the time or where the learners had to do the work alone without the teacher's assistance?)

Why did you fail some of the items during testing, especially when post tested?

Give some of the problems you faced during the lessons or lesson execution.

How do you want to learn at your school? (the way you must be taught especially in your grade 7, in order to pass your final examination?)

Do you see any need to have a teacher all the time in class? Why so?

How and when should the teacher come in during your learning?

The interview results or responses were categorised and put into ten groups by the researchers. The following were the common responses or observations given by the learners when telephonically responded:-

Most of the learners enjoyed learning when the teacher was always there pivoting them when they are weak (J. Brunner's scaffolding method).

The learners said that they hated situations where the teacher left them alone without guidance and encouragement.

The learners said that they failed some of the thing because they lacked confidence when the teacher is not there.

Learners seemed to support the lecture-discussion method and not any one of these methods alone. They want a combination of the two or more if possible. The learners liked and saw variation as more interesting and a better method of teaching and learning.

The learners' answers seem to be saying that they need the teachers to introduce them to new work, leave them to try it, assess them, intervene when they are confused, encourage them and give immediate feedback.

The learners want the teacher's expertise, their participation and discussions, teacher's support and encouragement, and own their learning by solving issues themselves.

Learners hate situations where they are fed with all the information, but they need help.

In order to have focus, stop making noise and wasting time, the teacher should be around all the time, as an authority in authority and not as an authoritarian leader but a democratic leader.

The learners' responses showed that although the teacher is not the learner, he is the leader of the learners, who must at all times give direction to the learners for better academic achievement.

Teaching and learning happens at the same time, the teacher does his teaching and the learners do their learning. No one can separate the two opposite sides of the same coin. Their value is the same.