Classroom interaction in teaching English First Additional Language learners in the Intermediate Phase

by

MARGARET MALEWANENG MAJA

submitted in accordance with the requirements

for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

In the subject

CURRICULUM STUDIES

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

SUPERVISOR: PROFESSOR MM VAN WYK

NOVEMBER 2015

DECLARATION

I, Margaret Malewaneng Maja (student number 31368891) declare that this thesis (Classroom interaction in teaching English First Additional Language learners in the Intermediate Phase) has not been submitted by me before at any other university. It is my original work and I have acknowledged all the sources referred and cited in the references.

MARGARET MALEWANENG MAJA
November 2015

DEDICATION

To my mom, Lydia Moshidi and my late dad, Mackay Madulatšatšing Dibakwane, you always wanted us to get educated. You have been such an inspiration throughout this research. I also dedicate this work to all EFAL teachers who construct environments conducive for target language learning under challenging and diverse conditions. May your commitment last forever to persuade others to follow in your footsteps. Likewise, EFAL learners, may your commitment to learning the language continue to motivate other language learners.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to design components that should be included in a framework for the use of a classroom interaction approach as a strategy in teaching English as First Additional Language to enhance learners' communicative competence in the primary schools. The previous research advocates that classroom interaction activities can provide opportunities for the facilitation of the additional language, as they encourage meaningful interaction in the target language and active learner participation. Moreover, a classroom interaction approach helps learners to construct their own learning while expressing themselves in the additional language. In the English First Additional Language (EFAL) settings, where it is an ongoing challenge to provide learners with practical learning and interactive learning opportunities, interaction activities such as discussion, storytelling, role-play, reading aloud and debate are seen as promising strategies, though there is superficial implementation of some of these activities in the Intermediate Phase EFAL classrooms.

This multiple case study investigated the nature and scope of classroom interaction in teaching EFAL to enhance learners' communicative competence. The study explored the teachers' understanding of classroom interaction, teachers and learners' beliefs and attitudes and the strategies used by the teachers in teaching EFAL in the classrooms. The research was undertaken at two public primary schools, but the focus was on the Intermediate Phase at Ekurhuleni North District of Gauteng Province. It was found that most of the teachers understood the classroom interaction approach but it was not implemented in some EFAL classrooms as teachers still use the teacher-centred method while learners remain passive receivers. The study recommends that EFAL teachers should be trained to implement the classroom interaction using the interactive activities in additional language and create a conducive teaching and learning environment that permits the learners' participation; the schools should have a parental involvement policy as a means of encouraging parents to be involved in their children's learning; policy makers should include debate as an interactive activity in the CAPS document teaching plans in order for the teachers to fully implement it; and parents should be trained on how to assist with homework tasks and take responsibility for their children's learning.

KEY TERMS

Classroom interaction   Communicative competence

English First Additional Language   Learning opportunities

Teacher   Framework

Learner   Learning environment

Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement   Bricoleur

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ANA	Annual National Assessment
CAPS	Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement
DBE	Department of Basic Education
DIY	Do-it-yourself
DoE	Department of Education
EFAL	English as First Additional Language
GPLMS	Gauteng Primary Literacy and Mathematics Strategy
LoLT	Language of Learning and Teaching
NCAPS	National Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement
NCS	National Curriculum Statement
NCTE	National Council of Teachers and English in the USA
News Letter	Fall News Letter
PIRLS	Progress in International Reading Study
Quick Guide	Transnational Teaching Quick Guide
RNCS	Revised National Curriculum Statement
Saskatchewan Ministry	Saskatchewan Ministry of Education

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

CHAPTER 4

TEACHING METHODS AND CLASSROOM INTERACTION ACTIVITIES ACROSS THE CURRICULUM AND ASSESSMENT POLICY STATEMENT

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODLOGY

CHAPTER 8

FRAMEWORK FOR THE USE OF CLASSROOM INTERACTION IN EFAL IN THE INTERMEDIATE PHASE

TABLES

FIGURES

CHAPTER 1
ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

South Africa is a rapidly growing country with many developments in technology and fast growing business markets. The country has to attain certain standards in order to match the competitive international environment. Therefore, meeting the standards of the escalating business markets, a shift from the home language and an increasing competitive international environment are some factors that make proficiency in English necessary for learners. The latest research by Barnard (2010:1) maintains that a solid knowledge of English opens definite social and economic doors for South African learners. Additionally, Taylor and Coetzee (2013:2) indicate that the need to become fluent in an additional language is essential for gaining meaningful access to education, the labour market and broader social functioning. The authors maintain that in most of Africa, parts of East Asia and for Spanish-speaking people in the United States, the question of how best to develop additional language fluency amongst large parts of the population becomes critically important and a central matter for education planning. The similar question asked in this study is: How best can the Intermediate Phase teachers facilitate classroom interaction in teaching English as First Additional Language (EFAL) to enhance communicative competence?

The early study of Hymes (1972:282) defines communicative competence as the ability to convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meaning with other speakers in a specific context. Alternatively, Richards and Rodgers (2000 cited in Zhang & Wang 2012:111) emphasise that communicative competence is the ability not only to apply the grammatical rules of a language in order to form grammatically correct sentences but also to know when and where to use these sentences and to whom. Accordingly, in my opinion, the descriptions above demonstrate that to be competent does not mean that you have to be perfect in your utterances. Hence, competence comes through practise, passion and guidance.

Gomez-Rodriguez (2010:327) expresses the notion that communicative competence centres primarily on negotiation of meaning in real situational contexts. Gomez-Rodriguez insists that learners need to acquire a general communicative ability, which will enable them to cope with everyday situations. Alternatively, Hymes (1972:283) shows that learners should possess communicative competence in order to know whether or not something is formally possible, understandable to human beings is in line with social norms, and/or whether something is in fact done.

However, to participate fully in the classroom activities, Wilkins (1982:19) asserts that competence is required in both social and interactional aspects of classroom language, in other words, classroom communicative competence. So, to obtain classroom communicative competence, rehearsing the relevant activities that will enhance the communication skills is imperative. By rehearsing these activities, Wilkinson claims that learners will be able to understand more of their communication through experience. Similarly, Canale and Swain (1980; Hymes 1974) declare that communicative competence is considered to be essential for additional language learners to participate in the target language culture, and Johnson (1995:6) explains that classroom communicative competence is essential for additional language classroom experiences.

In view of the fact that there is acknowledgement that communicative competence is seen as the aim and the incentive for language learning, Cajkler and Addelman (1992:40) emphasise that communication competence depends on a balanced fusion of four language skills: understanding when listening, making oneself understood when speaking, understanding meaning when reading (not just reading to learn the language), and writing with purpose.

In fact, Johnson (1995:5) argues that to understand the communicative demands placed on the additional language learner, teachers must recognise that the dynamics of classroom communication are shaped by the classroom context and the norms for participation in that context. Therefore, communicative competence in the target language does not just happen, the point the researcher is making is it takes an effort to acquire competence in the target language.

For this reason, opportunities to practise the target language are essential. Then again, the practise should be monitored in order to accomplish the targeted outcomes, in this case, communicative competence. So, the activities assigned to the learners have to be those that inculcate the culture of talking and listening, for instance role play, dialogue, group or class discussions, debates and reading aloud. In short, communication competence should not only aim at participating in classroom activities only, but also to entrench communicative competence in the additional language.

The National capital language resource centre (2003-2007:2) concludes that additional language teaching across the globe is based on the idea that the goal of language acquisition is communicative competence, meaning the ability to use the language correctly and appropriately to accomplish communicative goals. Therefore, the desired outcome of the target language learning process is the ability to communicate competently, not the ability to use the language exactly as a native speaker does. Finally, for the learner to acquire communicative competence, all the components illustrated in the framework (Figure 8.1) should work in collaboration to cultivate learner self- efficacy in order to achieve the competency level in the target language.

Thus, considering the above facts, learning English, the global first additional language, becomes unavoidable in the South African education system. The Department of Basic Education (DBE) (2011:9) states that the cognitive level of EFAL should be such that it may be used as a language of learning and teaching. Furthermore, Rudham (2005:105) indicates that language is the principal medium of learning in school and every teacher needs to cultivate it as a tool for learning in their subjects. Hence, the four interrelated and interdependent language skills which contribute to competency are: listening and speaking skills, reading and viewing skills, writing and presenting skills and language structures and conventions (DBE 2011:9). The DBE further explains these skills as follows:

- Listening and Speaking Skills - These skills are central to learning in all subjects as learners collect and synthesise information, construct knowledge, solve problems, and express ideas and opinions.

- Reading and Viewing Skills - Learners develop proficiency in reading and viewing a wide range of literary and non-literary texts, including visual text and become critical and creative thinkers.

- Writing and Presenting Skills – Writing allows learners to construct and communicate thoughts and ideas coherently, and enables learners to communicate functionally and creatively.

- Language Structures and Conventions – Learners develop a shared language for talking about language (a metalanguage), so that they can evaluate their own and others texts critically in terms of meaning, effectiveness and accuracy.

This study seeks to explore the Intermediate Phase teachers' understanding of the classroom interaction when teaching English as First Additional Language. The knowledge produced from this study may be vital in understanding the complexities that are encountered in the Intermediate Phase when teaching EFAL. The findings of this study may contribute towards the teachers' understanding of the particular "classroom interaction that can be implemented to enhance the learners communicative competence in EFAL".

1.2   RATIONALE

Teaching EFAL in the Intermediate Phase has been the researcher's first choice since she started teaching in the rural higher primary school some years ago. The school the researcher used to teach at was isolated as it was built between two villages in order to equalise the distance for learners from those two villages. The school was poorly resourced as most of rural schools in South Africa are in these conditions. As an English teacher, the researcher was compelled to improvise the strategies that could enable the learners to understand the target language. When the researcher moved to the other primary school in the township, and teaching EFAL in the same phase as in the previous school, similar conditions were encountered.

As a consequence of the experiences the researcher had gone through during the EFAL teaching, the researcher was prompted to examine the way teachers interact with learners in the Intermediate Phase. The researcher realised that learners need to interact and practice the English language so that they can be able to communicate freely inside and outside the classroom. Therefore, as English is an additional language to most of the South African learners and the target language for international markets, the researcher decided to focus on classroom interaction as a communication strategy to enhance learners' communicative competence. Moreover, the DBE (2011:9) states that the teacher needs to make sure that all the learners get the opportunity to speak English. Communicating in the additional language helps to lay a strong foundation for oral language. In fact, the main purpose of classroom interaction is the development of the two very important language skills, which are speaking and listening. The researcher realised that learners have to be given an ample opportunity to use English as their additional language and the language of learning across various subjects in the curriculum besides their home language. Once more, the researcher realised that verbal interaction in EFAL is necessary for additional language attainment. For this study, the term *additional language* was interchangeably used with *target language*.

1.3   CONTEXT

This study involved three public primary schools as an in-depth multiple case study on how the teachers facilitate the classroom interaction. One school was sampled in a pilot study and the findings were excluded from the main research study. Both schools are situated in Tembisa Township, Ekurhuleni North District in Gauteng Province and catered to Grade R to 7. The researcher purposely selected the three schools as the researcher used to attend the workshops with the EFAL teachers of those schools and knowing that they have experience in teaching the English language. The researcher assumed that they could provide the information the researcher was seeking.

The researcher referred to the school where the pilot study was conducted as School C and to the two schools where the actual research took place as School A and School B. In short, to gain access to both schools, the researcher filled in the

Gauteng Department of Basic Education research request form indicating the sampled schools and handed it for approval at the Department of Education Head Office at number 111 Commissioner Street in Johannesburg. The researcher was granted approval after four days and approached the Ekurhuleni North District to grant permission to conduct the research in the selected schools (*cf.* Appendix A).

1.4   THE PROBLEM STATEMENT

Verbal communicative competence in EFAL has become a major problem in most of the Intermediate Phases of South African primary schools. Learners in this phase, struggle to communicate competently in EFAL during the verbal activities, the case being that English is not their mother tongue. Actually, before the introduction of the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) in 2012, learners began learning English as language of learning and teaching (LoLT) in Grade 4, the first year of the Intermediate Phase. Therefore, from the experience the researcher had in teaching EFAL in this phase as a former teacher, the researcher's view is that most of learners in this phase, still cannot express themselves in the target language, cannot read well, cannot pronounce words properly, cannot spell words correctly, and the teacher has to teach the basic sounds as intervention. In contrast, the DBE (2011:9) expects the Intermediate Phase learners to be reasonably proficient in their First Additional Language with regard to both interpersonal and cognitive academic skills by the time the learners enter the Senior Phase. As a result, alternative ways should be found to uphold the policy set by the Department of Basic Education of reaching the expected proficiency.

Secondly, the teachers themselves are not native speakers of the English language. The most obvious explanation is that of Nel and Müller (2010:635) who recognise that South African learners are challenged by being taught by teachers whose own English proficiency is limited. This perspective was confirmed by the recent research reported by Howie, van Staden, Tshele, Dowsie & Zimmerman (2012:35) that shows that according to the *Progress in International Reading Study* (PIRLS) South African learners are ranked the lowest in literacy assessment around the globe. However, both participants (teachers and learners) have no choice as English in South Africa has become the preferred language of learning and teaching. In view of the latter,

the very same position also exists in the other parts of the world. The early work by Chuang (2001 cited in Lockett 2011:8) shows that despite efforts to improve teaching English as a foreign language in Taiwan schools, individuals still have difficulties in speaking, understanding spoken English and using English proficiently as a means of communication. Furthermore, Chuang argues that unfortunately most of the graduates (from university), cannot speak English fluently. In addition, Lockett (2011:8) anticipates that it is possible that a simple additional tool added to the skills and training of Taiwan's already capable teachers could help them to do a more effective job of improving learners' comprehension of and speaking English in their daily lives.

Therefore, the acquisition and development of EFAL is necessary for learners' effective participation in the classroom, society and higher education. Yet, there should be a way to facilitate the participation amongst the teacher and the learners and the learners amongst themselves. Many studies have shown that the purpose of classroom interaction is to improve the learners' knowledge of the target language as well as how to use the language appropriately in a given social context (Wong 2012; Kavanagh 2012). Additionally, modern classroom interaction differs from traditional teaching methods in that learners acquire English through interacting with others rather than through memorisation. In fact, without English practise, it is more likely for individuals not to accomplish their long-term goal which is proficiency in the target language.

Hence, the argument that underpins this study is that for learners to learn the target language, they have to practice and learn from their mistakes. Therefore learners should be encouraged to use the language and learn from their errors while the teacher serves as a model for the language usage. Likewise, Vanderwoude (2012:2) asserts that modelling is an excellent way to ensure language support receives sufficient attention within a single 30-minute lesson. Vanderwoude further shows that, as language teachers, we constantly serve as models by illustrating appropriate language usage, demonstrating activities as we give instructions, and showing learners how to complete assignments. Therefore, the teacher has to create an environment conducive for EFAL learning. Indeed, the inspiring expression says "Practice makes perfect." Hence, by conducting this study the researcher hopes that

the investigation, findings and recommendations will add to the growing body of knowledge and will assist policy makers, teachers, practitioners, and academics to emphasise and encourage verbal communication in EFAL in the classrooms. Subsequently, the purpose of this study is to design a framework for the implementation of classroom interaction as a teaching approach for EFAL teachers in the Intermediate Phase of South African primary schools.

1.5   RESEARCH PURPOSE AND QUESTIONS

1.5.1   Purpose of the study

This study was based on the following grounds: Firstly, in our daily lives, most of us communicate orally more than we write. According to British Columbia Ministry of Education (2006:8), learners use oral language to comprehend, talk about, and think about ideas and information. Again, learners also use oral language to interact and communicate with others in informal and formal groups for various purposes. Therefore, Nurmasitah (2010:22) declares that classroom interaction comprises all the ways in which participants in classrooms interact with one another, including oral interaction, non-verbal interaction and shared activity. Markee and Kasper (2004:492) assert that classroom interaction is a speech exchange system which is locally managed but cooperatively constructed. The recent study of Whitmer (2011:1) also refers to classroom interaction as the verbal exchanges among learners and between learners and teachers. Whitmer adds that classroom interaction is part of the collaborative learning process involving discussions and class participation, and that talking and listening are primary components of the interaction.

In actual fact, Choudhury (2005:77) declares that the best way to learn to interact is through interaction itself since the participants (teacher and learners) have to be involved in the interaction process in order to understand what interaction is. Rivers (1987:4) adds that through interaction learners can increase their language store as they listen to reading and authentic linguistic material, or even the production of their fellow learners; they also learn from discussion, joint problem-solving tasks, or dialogue journals. Rivers further affirms that in interaction, learners can use all they

possess of the language and all they have learned or absorbed in real life exchanges, where expressing their real meaning is important to them.

Ghosh (2010:1) describes the advantages and aims of classroom interaction as follows:

- classroom interaction helps the learners to identify their own learning methods;
- the interaction guides the learners to communicate easily with their peers and gives them exposure to the genres of language learning;
- it helps a learner to come face to face with the various types of interaction that can take place inside the classroom;
- it aims at meaningful communication among the learners in their target language;
- it also aims at probing into learner's prior learning ability and the learner's way of conceptualising facts and ideas;
- this practice helps the teacher to make a detailed study of the nature and the frequency of learners' interaction inside the classroom.

What is not known and the question that needs to be answered is: What do the Intermediate Phase teachers understand about classroom interaction when teaching English as first additional language?

Secondly, as a consequence of seeking a better way to equip learners with operational knowledge, the South African government moved from one curriculum to the next in a quest of an improved curriculum that would be suitable for its citizens. The curriculum change process emanated from the Outcomes-Based (OBE) Education and the Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS). Then the ongoing implementation challenges led to another amendment to the National Curriculum Statement (NCS). As the implementation of the NCS progressed, the additional curriculum updates took place and the *Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement* became a policy document of the (NCS)*.* Chapter 4 deals with this section in detail.

Thirdly, to achieve the objectives of teaching and learning, teachers need to develop learners' confidence by using effective strategies and techniques. Consequently the teacher has to prepare activities that build learners' confidence during their daily interaction. Alternatively, Lalljee (1998:1) indicates that it is the teacher's task to create opportunities for this development by taking into account the different types of speech and by encouraging discussion of how these can be employed in different areas of the curriculum. Moreover, Herrell and Jordan (2012:17) further state that English learners are most successful when they are:

- supported by language that is contextualised (connected to real objects, visuals, actions);
- able to see and experience connections between new English vocabulary and their past experiences;
- actively involved in an authentic learning situation;
- participating in classroom situations without fear of embarrassment; and
- given opportunities to participate in classroom activities at their individual language levels.

As the researcher is committed to the teaching of EFAL, she wants to make a contribution towards implementing a classroom interaction approach that will enhance communicative competence in the target language.

1.5.2   Primary research question

What do the Intermediate Phase teachers understand about the classroom interaction when teaching English as First Additional Language?

1.5.3   Research sub questions

- What are the teachers' experiences when using classroom interaction as an approach to teaching English First Additional Language according to the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS)?

- What beliefs and attitudes are held by Intermediate Phase teachers and learners when a classroom interaction strategy is used in teaching and learning English First Additional Language?
- What strategies do Intermediate Phase teachers employ in a classroom to enhance the communicative competence of learners in English First Additional Language?

1.5.4   The aim of the study

The overall aim of this study was to identify components that should be included in a framework teachers could use for classroom interaction as a teaching strategy in teaching English as First Additional Language to enhance learners' communicative competence in the Intermediate Phase. There is some primary evidence demonstrating that classroom interaction in EFAL improves the learners' efficiency in additional language acquisition.

However, more research is needed on empowering teachers to fully implement the framework suggested in this study (*cf.* Figure 8.1); the use of the interactive activities to enhance communicative competence in EFAL; the implementation of programmes that can encourage and assist parents to be involved in their children's learning; and follow-up with the policy makers on the inclusion of debate as an interactive activity in the Intermediate Phase. Thus, to achieve the primary aim, the following secondary objectives are formulated:

1.5.5   The objectives of the study

The objectives of the study are to:

- examine the Intermediate Phase teachers' understanding of classroom interaction when teaching English as First Additional Language;
- write a critical literature review on the philosophical paradigms which underpin classroom interaction as a teaching strategy;

- explore the Intermediate Phase teachers' experiences when using a classroom interaction approach in English First Additional Language in the CAPS;
- explore beliefs and attitudes held by Intermediate Phase teachers and learners about a classroom interaction strategy used in teaching EFAL;
- investigate the strategies employed by Intermediate Phase teachers in enhancing learners' communicative competence in EFAL.

1.6 RESEARCH ASSUMPTIONS

In conducting this research my assumptions were as follows: The Intermediate Phase EFAL teachers are challenged when they have to provide support for learners at the same time as enabling the learners to meet the standards required by the higher grades while they face the crises of language competence. Moreover, where English is learned as an additional language, teachers are very important because they are the main source of English language and particularly verbal contact for most learners. Tulung (2008:4) states that learners are dependent on the teachers' language production and their explanation of the language as a model. It is teachers' responsibility to provide understandable language, with whatever supports that are necessary for the learners to understand the messages. Herrell and Jordan (2012:2) also assert that using approaches and materials that add context to the language – props, gestures, and pictures – contribute to the learner's language acquisition and eventually to the production of new language. Since learners learn by experience, demonstration and engagement, teachers are compelled to follow approaches that create real-life situations in their teaching. In addition, teachers must engage learners in examining their own language by comparing it to given models.

In addition, Herrell and Jordan (2012:1) further explain that the ongoing quest for ways to foster and sustain proficient bilingual students in schools can only be achieved by teachers who understand the value of good teaching. These are teachers who produce academically successful learners who stay in school and make use of the opportunity to participate fully and equitably.

Likewise Rivers (1987:19) claims that real interaction in a classroom requires the teacher to step out of the limelight, to cede a full role to learners in developing and carrying through activities, and be tolerant of errors the learners make while attempting to communicate. Consequently, the teacher as a facilitator focuses on the principle of intrinsic motivation by allowing learners to discover language through using it in context rather than telling them about language. This means that when teachers are helpful to learners whom they support or scaffold, learners attempt tasks that they are unable to complete on their own. In short, these teachers use language as a tool Mercer (1995:1) and employ particular interactional techniques that can support learners as they construct understanding. Mercer also adds that the teacher in effect, guides the construction of knowledge through his or her language and interaction with the learners.

Again, the Intermediate Phase learners' achievement in EFAL based on the annual national assessment (ANA) is appalling. As a consequence of poor results, on 5 December 2013, the Minister of Basic Education Ms. Angie Motshekga (eTV 19:00 news) announced that literacy and numeracy competency has declined in South African schools (Intermediate and Senior Phases). According to the 2013 annual national assessment (ANA), results have shown that learners of the above-mentioned phases lack literacy competence. Again, on 21 January 2015 the Minister reiterated on the 11:00 o'clock Radio Metro news that most learners in these phases excelled in number sums and failed the word sums that need language competence. As teachers, and as the former teacher, we do not know whether classroom interaction plays a role in this performance.

Classroom interaction strategy may be viewed as a technique for getting learners to communicate with one another, or more broadly. Although there were numerous professional development initiatives to support this technique, these have had little material or lasting effect on the quality of teaching and learning in the subject. The researcher assumes that the kind of interaction with learners may be unsuitable for the improvement of communication competence. As a result, the researcher's assumption is that if verbal skills are thoroughly practiced in the classroom, then writing will be less complicated as learners will understand what to write.

The researcher also assumes that the relevant classroom interaction strategy will improve the teaching and learning of EFAL in the Intermediate Phase in order to enhance learners' communicative competence since studies have shown that when learners participate actively in the class, their academic achievement seem to be higher than those who are passive in class. Krupa-Kwiatkowski (1998:133) summarises in her study that interaction involves participation, personal engagement, and the taking of initiative in some way, activities that in turn are thought to trigger cognitive process conducive to language learning. Subsequently, the learners enjoy, benefit, and allow the learning process to influence their language acquisition. Kharaghan (2013:859) concludes that, composed of interactions between teacher and learners and among learners, classroom interaction is one of the platforms where any reality about classroom phenomena is produced and can be observed at the same time.

From the perspective of social-cultural theory, teaching and learning are regarded as a culturally sensitive, interactive process in which both the teacher and learner play significant and critical roles. Malock (2008:97) adds that, rather than learning through the transmission of information, learners' appropriate skills and understanding are guided through participation in cultural activities. Thus, the development of learners' knowledge and understanding is shaped by their interactions and relationships with others, both peers and adults.

With reference to these studies and the researcher's own experience, the researcher decided that, to gain direct knowledge of classroom interaction as a teaching approach, the researcher needed to explore the experiences, beliefs and attitudes of EFAL teachers and learners by interacting with them. The researcher decided that by conducting in-depth interviews, she would be able to collect rich and descriptive data from EFAL learners and their teachers on their lived experiences. Intermediate Phase teachers and learners described the reality of their classroom interaction experiences in their EFAL classroom.

1.7   RESEARCH PARADIGMS

The study focuses on the Intermediate Phase teachers' understanding of the classroom interaction when teaching English as First Additional Language. The interpretive/constructivism paradigm stance was taken in this study as it interprets human behaviour and is characterised by concerns for individuals. According to Nieuwenhuis (2007:47), a paradigm is a set of assumptions or beliefs about fundamental aspects of reality which gives rise to a particular world view. Nieuwenhuis further states that a paradigm addresses fundamental assumptions taken on faith, such as beliefs about nature of reality (ontology), the relationship between the knower and known (epistemology) and assumptions about methodology. In fact, Scotland (2012:9) declares that a paradigm consists of ontology, epistemology, methodology and methods. Hence in the researcher's understanding, every paradigm has its own assumptions. The following diagram shows how this study is widely spread:

Ontology
The reality lenses perceived for this study (grounding of the study in EFAL classroom interaction)

↓

Epistemology
How knowledge can be created, acquired and communicated in investigating classroom interaction in EFAL

↓

Methodology
How to find out what can be known in qualitative research design - an interpretative-constructivist paradigm

↓

Methods
Multiple data collection tools as techniques used to collect and analyse the data

Figure 1.1: The unfolding of the study

Researcher's drawing

15

In summary: the researcher embarked on the quest for seeking what is related to truth, so; this study is underpinned by fundamental philosophical assumptions. The researcher explained each component (ontology, epistemology, methodology and methods) and the relationship among them were explored.

1.7.1   Ontology

Nieuwenhuis (2007:53) describes ontology as the study of the nature and form of reality (that which is or can be known).There are different perspectives of looking at this reality. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000; Scotland 2012) the ontological position of positivism is one of realism, and the interpretivist position is that of relativism. The authors show that the positivist argues that objects have an independent existence and are not dependent for it on the knower. In contrast, the relativism contends that reality is subjective and differs from person to person (Cohen *et al.* 2000:6). Therefore, interpretive/constructive ontology focuses on people and how they interact with each other. Actually, people are created as active creatures in this world. They are given mental abilities to identify the entities that exist in their external vision and make meaning out of these objects. Furthermore, they utilise and implement these entities for their benefit as they are given mental cognition as they interact with each other. Created as unique, they have different ideas and thoughts to construct practical or abstract ideas that can be meaningful to them. Scotland (2012:12) confirms that the interpretive paradigm does not question ideologies, it accepts them. As people observe their environment, interpreting and making a meaning out of it, more ideas develop and they consider these entities as reality. In the teaching and learning environment, teachers are persistently interpreting and occupied with their classrooms setting in seeking knowledge of how to facilitate learning, whereas learners observe the environment with the intention of learning. The ontological view of this study is thoroughly illustrated in Chapter 2.

1.7.2   Epistemology

Cohen *et al.* (2000:6) demonstrate that epistemology is concerned with the nature and forms of knowledge, how it can be acquired and how it is communicated to other human beings. Epistemology therefore looks at how one knows reality or how one

comes to know reality. In this study, on one hand, the researcher explored how the teachers interact with their learners when teaching EFAL: on the other hand, she probed learners to tell their experiences when learning EFAL. In this way, the researcher wanted to find out how Intermediate Phase EFAL teachers communicate the content of EFAL and how learners acquire the knowledge of the subject. Therefore the researcher investigated how the teachers know the reality of classroom interaction and how learners come to know the reality of classroom interaction and encouraged them to tell about their experiences during the implementation of this knowledge. According to this perspective, there is relationship between the knower and the known. Therefore interpretive epistemology believes that the way of knowing reality is by the experiences of others regarding a specific phenomenon. Freeman (1996:89) verifies that teachers are constantly involved in interpreting their worlds since they interpret their classrooms context and learners in the classrooms. Then these interpretations become central to their thinking and their actions.

1.7.3   Methodology

Since the researcher investigated probable approaches to this research study, it became obvious that a single qualitative method cannot meet the demands of the investigation. Subsequently, bricolage came as a heuristic aid to equally match the researcher's curiosity and individuality as a researcher. The researcher took advantage of bricolage as it symbolises the nature of a qualitative researcher who employs supplementary approaches to intensely investigate the phenomenon under study. Lise (2013:8) points out that bricolage involves multi-perspectival approaches to research, combining diverse theoretical traditions as needed to lead to insight into sociological and educational phenomena. As a bricoleur researcher working from an interpretive/constructive perspective, the researcher assumes that people's subjective experiences are real and should be taken seriously. Therefore, Chapter 5 elucidates the researcher's approach as a qualitative bricoleur in this doctoral study. Furthermore, Nieuwenhuis (2007:70) pronounces that research design is a plan or strategy which moves from the underlying philosophical assumptions to specifying the selection of participants, the data gathering techniques to be used and the data analysis to be done. The purpose of this doctoral study had determined the multiple-

case study to be employed because the researcher had designed a framework for the implementation of classroom interaction as a teaching approach for EFAL teachers. Employing the multiple-case study technique was advantageous as the researcher was able to work as a bricoleur and use multiple sources of evidence such as interviews, observation, documents, audio-visual materials and photographs in collecting the data. This method also enhanced the credibility of this study. Creswell (1998:61) indicates that a case study is an exploration of a "bounded system" or a case (or multiple cases) over time through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information rich in context. Creswell further affirms that this system is bounded by time and place, and it is the case being studied – a programme, an event, an activity or individuals. The rationale for employing the multiple-case study was because the empirical data of this study was collected in a three months period and focused on Intermediate Phase EFAL classrooms at Ekurhuleni North District of Gauteng Province. It is unreasonable to expect the researcher to look at all Intermediate Phase in Gauteng schools because the researcher was interested in rich data not in numbers. In addition, large numbers of data might have led to oversimplification or exaggeration.

Since three public primary schools were sampled at different sites, a multiple-case study was suitable. Baxter and Jack (2008:55) verify that multiple-case study allows the researcher to examine several cases to understand the similarities and differences between the cases. From the three schools, one school was sampled as a pilot study. The outcomes of the pilot study were excluded from the main research study. The researcher was aware of the disadvantage of multiple-case study as it is labour intensive and might be time consuming, but the approach was followed to collect the rich and reliable data.

1.7.4   Methods

According to Terre Blanche and Kelly (2002:124), interpretive research relies on first-hand accounts, tries to describe what it sees in detail and presents its 'findings' in engaging and sometimes evocative language. The above-mentioned researchers add that qualitative research techniques are best suited to this task. As a qualitative researcher, the researcher was the primary instrument in collecting the data. One-

on-one open-ended semi-structured Interviews, focus group interviews, observation, documents analysis, photographs and audio-visual materials were utilised to collect the data from the research sites. Moreover, a reflective journal was kept to facilitate reflexivity. The data collection session took place during the third quarter of the school phase and lasted towards the end of the term.

Immediately after the first interview, the researcher started with the data interpretation making use of the understanding of all the information ranging from what the researcher saw, heard and felt on the research site. The researcher transcribed the data and read them several times to get the gist of the verbatim transcriptions. Terre Blanche and Kelly (2002:139) stress that the key principle of interpretive analysis is to stay close to the data and to interpret it from a position of empathic understanding. According to Creswell (1994:154) data analysis involves reducing and interpreting data. A very large amount of information was reduced and interpreted. As the interviews had been video recorded, it was straightforward to track down the participants' reactions to assist in data interpretation and transcribing. Non-verbal cues were included in the transcriptions and verbatim transcriptions were provided. The transcribed data were open coded. McMillan and Schumacher (2010:371) explain that a code is a word or a phrase that is used to provide meaning to the segment. Co-occurring codes were considered if they occurred in segments. In the axial coding stage related codes were grouped together into categories and given names. The final selective coding stage also followed wherein emergent themes from the broad categories were developed into more themes. Finally, themes were minimised accordingly and data analysis was done. Chapter 5, 6 and 7 described the process in detail.

1.8   SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study was delimited to a purposeful selection of three primary schools and three groups of nine learners in the Intermediate Phase. The sample did not represent all primary schools in Gauteng Province and, as Nieuwenhuis (2007:55-56) writes, because of the specific social, political economic and cultural experiences underpinning each study, the findings cannot be generalised. They do, however, bring us greater clarity on how people make meaning of phenomena in a specific

context, thus adding to greater understanding of the human condition. This study was restricted by the fact that only Intermediate Phase EFAL teachers were purposely chosen because of their experiences in their teaching in order to collect rich data. A pilot study was only conducted in one of the sampled primary schools before the actual empirical study could take place.

1.9   THE TRUSTWORTHINESS AND CREDIBILITY OF THE STUDY

Schwandt (2001:299) defines the trustworthiness as the quality of an investigation that makes it noteworthy to audiences. In this study, trustworthiness was established by applying four criteria for naturalistic inquirers as proposed by Lincoln and Guba (1985:296-300), namely credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability.

According to Yeasmin and Rahman (2012:155), social realities are inherently too complex to be grasped in their entirety with one method of investigation. Therefore, to enhance the credibility of the findings of this study, the researcher triangulated data collection methods by sampling the three primary schools, particularly the Intermediate Phase EFAL classrooms where the data was gathered from the EFAL teachers and learners. The researcher asked teachers to discuss their strategies of interacting with the learners (*cf.* Appendix K) and learners to tell about their experiences of interaction in their EFAL classrooms (*cf.* Appendix L). Teachers and learners shared their beliefs and attitudes during the EFAL classroom interaction. The researcher also employed theoretical triangulation where the researcher used theoretical positions in interpreting the data. Discussion was undertaken throughout the study of how these theories underpinned this study. The broad discussion has been done in Chapter 2.

Another form of triangulation used in this study was methodological triangulation. The researcher used more data collection instruments, i.e. interviews during which teachers and learners were interviewed to get their views concerning the classroom interaction. I kept my reflections in a reflective journal, lessons were observed to explore the strategies used for interaction, literature based on the topic was reviewed as documents were analysed. In addition there was photographing of classroom seating arrangement with no learners to confirm or question the classroom

20

interaction indicated by the teachers. Maree (2007:80) concurs that engaging multiple methods, as indicated in particular for this study, will enhance trustworthiness and credibility.

Lincoln and Guba (1985:45) are among the authors who suggest that it is the responsibility of the investigator to ensure that sufficient contextual information about the fieldwork sites is provided to enable the reader to make such a transfer. In this study, a detailed description of the context of the study and of the participants is provided to depict the phenomena and that would enable the reader to make such a transfer of the research findings to their own setting. In addition, a thick description of the study is provided as the data collection and data analysis procedures are clearly stated to confirm the finding of the study.

Furthermore, to ensure the dependability of this study, the steps taken to confirm the credibility of this study, overlapped with this criterion, as Lincoln and Guba (1985:63) suggest that there are close ties between credibility and dependability. In fact, Shenton (2004:72) indicates that steps must be taken to ensure, as far as possible, that the work's findings are the result of the experiences of the informants, rather than the characteristics and the preferences of the researcher. Hence, to achieve this criterion, data analysis and interpretation was an interactive process with participants (*cf.* Figure 5.1). Interpreted data was taken back to the participants to substantiate whether the researcher's understanding of the information concurred with theirs. The trustworthiness of this study is extensively dealt with in Chapter 5.

1.10   ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

After obtaining the permission from the Ekurhuleni North District to conduct research in the selected schools, the researcher sent the ethical clearance application with all the documents specified on the application form by the University of South Africa Ethical Review Committee to my supervisor. The researcher's supervisor checked it and sent it to Ethical Review Committee of the University. After the thorough examination by the committee, the application was sent back to the researcher for corrections. The researcher corrected it and sent it back to the supervisor who sent it

back to the committee. The application was approved and the researcher obtained the Ethical Clearance Certificate after the second submission.

Since the selected schools' names were attached on the approval letter, it was easier for me to write the letters to the school principals and the school governing bodies for permission to conduct the research in their schools. As this study involved teachers and learners, the ethical concerns that pertained to the researcher dealt with children below the age of 18 as the University of South Africa Policy on Research Ethics (Policy on Research) (2014:14) consider them vulnerable participants. In addition, the Policy on Research indicates that research with children under the age of 18 may be conducted if it is in the best interests of the child, and if assent of the child (if he or she is capable of understanding) and the consent of his or her parent or guardian have been obtained. Accordingly, the researcher first requested permission from the teachers (*cf.* Appendix D). The teachers assisted in selecting learners according to their diverse learning abilities and presented letters to them to give to their parents. Learners were also given letters for assent to participate in the research (*cf.* Appendix H). The researcher assured the participants that the process would be confidential and pseudonyms would be used to protect their identity (*cf.* Chapter 5).

1.11   STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

CHAPTER 1: Orientation to the study

An introduction and overview of the study is provided. The chapter includes the background, rationale of the study, the context of the three schools, problem statement and research questions are presented. Furthermore, the assumptions on which the study is grounded and the paradigmatic perspectives are discussed. The criteria for confirming the trustworthiness of the study and the ethical considerations are concisely presented.

CHAPTER 2: Conceptual framework underpinning a classroom interaction approach

The concepts that guided this study, all the components and their relation to the study are presented in this chapter. The first figure in Chapter 2 illustrates in detail

how the study is grounded. The motivation of using the interpretivist/constructivism perspective is also highlighted.

CHAPTER 3: The nature and scope of a classroom interaction approach

The chapter discusses the interactive learning that is suggested by this study. In addition, the nature of the classroom environment that permits the interaction to take place is described. The classroom interaction activities as well as their benefits and challenges as to enhance the learners' communicative competence in EFAL, which is the focal point of the study, are discussed.

CHAPTER 4: Teaching methods and classroom interaction activities across the curriculum

Diverse teaching methods were investigated in quest of techniques and strategies suitable for classroom interaction. In addition, the CAPS in the Intermediate Phase was studied as to find out whether it accommodates the classroom interaction in teaching EFAL that can enhance communicative competence.

CHAPTER 5: Research paradigm, methodology and design of the study

This chapter reports on the research design of the study in preparation for an empirical study comprising qualitative aspects. This section reports on the research paradigms followed in this study. The analysis of the data collected is conducted in this section.

CHAPTER 6: Data analysis and interpretation

This chapter presents the background of the participants, analysis and interpretation of the study. Themes were developed based on the questions in Chapter 1.

CHAPTER 7: Summary, discussions recommendations

The chapter summarises the findings of this study and compares them with similar studies undertaken previously. The limitations and recommendations of the future research are also indicated in this chapter.

CHAPTER 8: Designing of framework

The last chapter of this study outlines the framework to be used by EFAL teachers in the implementation of classroom interaction in teaching EFAL in the Intermediate Phase of Gauteng schools. This framework is based on the literature study, the theories underpinning the study, the researcher's personal experiences as an EFAL teacher, and the empirical research conducted.

1.12   SUMMARY

It seems that there is a deficiency in classroom interaction when EFAL is taught. As a result, there is a need to address this to ensure the learners' communicative competence in EFAL in the Intermediate Phase. The teachers in this interaction are expected to fill the need as they are the ones who construct environments conducive to learners' learning. Nevertheless, what is not clearly known is the Intermediate Phase teachers' understanding of the classroom interaction in teaching EFAL. The aim of this study is to identify components that should be included in a framework to be used by teachers for classroom interaction as a teaching strategy in teaching English as First Additional Language to enhance learners' communicative competence in Intermediate Phase classrooms. The researcher used the interpretive/constructivism and the approach as Scotland (2012: 12) states that interpretive/constructivism research cannot be judged by the same criteria as the scientific paradigm as reality is subjective and differs from person to person.

In Chapter 2, the researcher presents the conceptual framework underpinning the classroom interaction approach of this study.

CHAPTER 2
CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK UNDERPINNING A CLASSROOM INTERACTION APPROACH

2.1   INTRODUCTION

The latest research by Sinclair (2007:39) explains that when planning a journey in unfamiliar country; people seek as much knowledge as possible about the best way to travel, using previous experience and the accounts of others who have been on similar trips. Subsequently, survival advice and top tips enable them to ascertain the abilities, expectations and tools that may help them to have a successful journey with good outcomes, to achieve their objectives and return to the base safely. In the same vein Sinclair explains that a conceptual framework can be thought of as a map or travel plan since research is a journey toward an end-point and a conceptual map provides a guide. The journey the researcher has travelled in this study, has been undertaken by several other scholars, and due to their pointers and information they provided, the researcher tried to follow the conceptual map given in order to survive and reach the destination planned for.

The early work of Miles and Huberman (1994:18) define a conceptual frame work as a visual or written product, one that explains either graphically or in narrative form, the main subject to be studied and the key factors, concepts and presumed relationships among them. In this chapter the graphical illustration of the concepts to be studied and narrative discussion of their relationships and how they guide the study is outlined. Furthermore, Marshal and Rossman (2006 cited in Ravitch & Riggan 2012:8) assert that the conceptual work has two primary elements. Firstly, it is an argument for the study's significance in convincing a reader that the study is significant and should be conducted; furthermore it entails building an argument that links research to important theoretical perspectives, policy issues, concerns of practice, or social issues that affect people's everyday lives. Regarding this study, since classroom interaction is the daily activity that influences the teaching and learning in the EFAL classroom, therefore it is of value to observe how Intermediate Phase teachers employ the interaction to enhance communicative competence. Secondly, the conceptual framework reflects the important intellectual traditions that

guide the study. In fact, to determine the concepts and components to guide the study, a careful and thorough review of literature related to the topic of the study was engaged with.

Furthermore, authors such as Maxwell (2005; Jabareen 2009; Ravitch & Riggan 2012) make an important point that the conceptual framework of a research study is something that is constructed, not found. The authors demonstrate that it incorporates pieces that are borrowed from elsewhere, but the structure, the overall coherence, is something that you build, not something that exists ready-made. Due to the understanding of the authors' argument, the conceptual framework that appears in this chapter was constructed according to the researcher's understanding so that it can provide the perspective of this study.

Ravitch and Riggan (2012:12) give as example the *Oxford English Dictionary* that defines a framework as 'a structure composed of parts framed together, *esp*ecially one designed for inclosing or supporting anything; a frame or skeleton.' In the case of *theoretical frameworks*, the 'parts' referred to in this definition are *theories*, and what is being supported are the relationships embedded in the conceptual framework. More specifically, Ravitch and Riggan argue that the parts are formal theories; those that emerge from and have been explored using empirical work. Therefore, a theoretical framework represents a combination of formal theories to clarify some aspects of this work. Likewise Maxwell (2005 cited in Ravitch & Riggan 2012:9) makes a critical point about the importance of conceptual frameworks in clarifying, explaining, and justifying methodological decisions by asserting that the most important thing to understand about a conceptual framework is that it is primarily a conception or model of what is out there that you plan to study, and of what is happening with these things and a tentative theory of the phenomena that you are investigating.

With reference to the above definitions and verifications of conceptual framework, it became clear that a research study without the latter lacks a solid foundation on which it has to firmly position itself. So, such a study easily loses its value and the trustworthiness. The point the researcher makes is that a conceptual framework is the pillar and strength of the research study. Furthermore Ravitch and Riggan

(2012:9) indicate that the function of theory is to inform the rest of your design; to help you to assess and refine your goals, develop realistic and relevant research questions, select appropriate methods, and identify potential validity threats to your conclusions and also to justify your research. The most obvious explanation is, writing a research study without conceptual work is like building a house without a foundation. Subsequently, a study without reinforcement lacks explicit and cohesive relationships throughout the research and is likely to collapse. In actual fact, Leshem and Trafford (2007:93) assert that doctoral candidates are expected to provide scholarship that contributes to the body of knowledge and that a thesis which has no conceptual framework is unlikely to succeed.

The researcher concurs with Ravitch and Riggan's (2012:8) view that a theoretical framework as a component of conceptual framework consists of concepts that include the components for the study. Sinclair (2007:39) also stresses that at the start of any research study, it is important to consider relevant theory underpinning the knowledge base of the phenomenon to be researched. In addition to what the above authors indicate, the researcher argues that the bricolage approach provides opportunities to complement the theories underpinning this study to broaden the research perspective of classroom interaction as a teaching strategy to enhance learners' communicative competence in EFAL. Therefore, the researcher began to develop a loosely-structured conceptual framework (*cf.* Figure 2.1) to guide this study by addressing the simple questions that followed, adapted from Slevin and Basford (1999 cited in Sinclair 2007:39).

- What do I know about the phenomenon that I want to study?
- What types of knowledge are available to me (empirical, non-empirical, tacit, intuitive, moral or ethical)?
- What theory will best guide my classroom interaction approach practice?
- Is this theory proven through theory-linked research?
- What other theories are relevant to this practice?
- How can I apply these theories and findings in practice?

Hence, the framework that follows had to have a clear practice outcome, if it was to be of relevance to a classroom interaction approach. For a research into classroom interaction to be efficacious and effective, Sinclair (2007:39) argues that its contribution must be made visibly well researched, underpinned by sound theories and leading to demonstrable effects on practice. For this study, the conceptual framework is a mind map of what has to be studied, the concepts are the elements included in the framework (personal interests, topical research and theories), whereas components are the multiple theories applied (constructivism, social cognitive, teacher-efficacy and self-efficacy theories). See the conceptual framework below.

2.1.1   Defining a "concept"

The work of Jabareen (2009) concurs with the study of Deleuze and Guattori (1991) that every concept has components and is defined by them. These components, or what defines the consistency of the concept, its endo-consistency, are distinct, heterogeneous, and yet, not separable. The authors further confirm that it is a multiplicity but not every multiplicity is conceptual, and there is no concept with only one component. Thus, using this definition, a number of aspects of the term *concept* identified by the above authors were listed as follows:

- every concept has an irregular contour defined by its components;
- every concept has a history;
- every concept usually contains 'bits' or components originating from other concepts;
- all concepts relate back to other concepts;
- a concept is always created by something (and cannot be created from nothing);
- every concept is considered as the point of coincidence, condensation, or accumulation of its own components; and
- every concept must be understood 'relative to its own components, to other concepts, to the plane on which it is defined, and to the problem it is supposed to resolve.

Hence the concepts illustrated in this framework include the above-mentioned aspects.

2.1.2   Definition of a component

The *Oxford Dictionary* (2001:172) explains a component as a part of a larger whole. From the above definition of a concept, it shows that a component originates from the concept. Therefore, this definition takes us back to Ravitch and Riggan's (2012) idea of a theoretical framework as a component of a conceptual framework. Hence, for the premise of this study, the researcher will begin by introducing concepts (assumptions, expectations and beliefs) and components that supported and informed this research by presenting the following conceptual framework.

2.2   AN OUTLINE OF THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The following figure shows the paradigms that underpin this study.
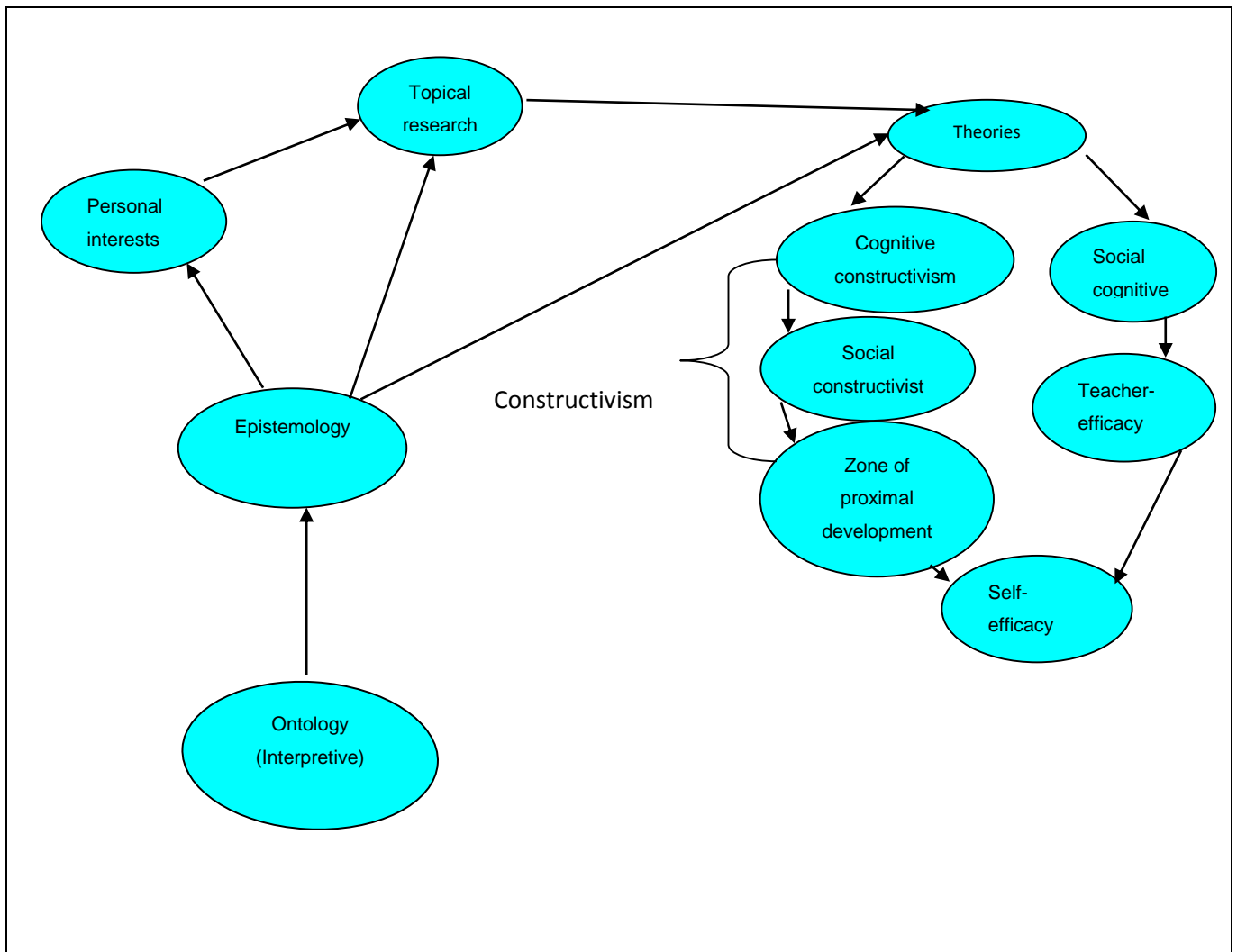
Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework underpinning the study

Researcher's illustration

Each concept and component of the framework is defined, and its contribution and relationships towards classroom interaction in EFAL was evaluated. Therefore, the figure above suggests that all the concepts and components contribute to the learner' self-efficacy that can create practical classroom interaction if demonstrated. Their relationships to create productive classroom interaction are specified in this study.

2.2.1   Ontology – The reality of the classroom interaction

Figure 2.1 illustrates ontology as the grounding basis of the conceptual framework. As a foundation of the framework it grounds the study on an interpretive perspective

so the participants in this viewpoint interpret what they practice as reality and hold on the reality constructed. Then, the insights from the interpretivist and constructivist paradigms were blended because the two paradigms focus on the process of interpreting and creating meaning from the participants' unique lived experiences as the researcher believes they share the same beliefs and goals. In fact, Nieuwenhuis (2007:54) articulates that interpretive researchers can therefore say 'the external world is real because that is how we have constructed it to be and how we experience it'. From this perspective, teachers and learners in the classroom are the ones who experience the reality of what happens in the classroom during the teaching and learning interaction. The point is: this study reports the empirical data from the field by interacting with the participants to explore classroom interaction as a teaching strategy in the Intermediate Phase in teaching EFAL to enhance learners' communicative competence. Scotland (2012:12) confirms that meaning is not discovered, it is constructed through the interaction between consciousness and the world.

2.2.2   Epistemology – How is classroom interaction knowledge generated?

Since the study is based on the interpretive/constructive ontology, there is knowledge that is constructed between the knower and the unknown. Hence, Figure 2.1 shows how knowledge (epistemology) within the reality can be acquired and communicated. The study of Flowers (2009:2) concurs with Hatch and Cunliffe's (2006) idea that epistemology is knowing how you can know and expanding this by asking how knowledge is generated, what criteria discriminate between good knowledge from bad knowledge, and how reality should be represented or described. In this study, to obtain in-depth knowledge, the distance between the researcher and the participants was minimised by directly interacting with participants through interviews and observation in order to get their views concerning classroom interaction in EFAL. During the data analysis process, the participants' verbatim responses were utilised, the reason being to retain their interpretation.

2.2.3   Personal interests in the classroom interaction

In Chapter 1, the researcher briefly highlighted personal interests for undertaking this research. The researcher believes that audiences need research that is focused and contributes to a particular field of work or study. Undertaking this research, the belief was that the findings should lead to recommendations that should be put into practice in the classrooms. The experiences of the researcher as an EFAL teacher motivated her to seek ways that could facilitate classroom interaction that will enhance communicative competence in EFAL teaching. Although classroom interaction is not a new phenomenon in the field of scientific and social research, the researcher hopes this study will add some contribution to the existing body of knowledge. Indeed, Ravitch and Riggan (2012:10) assert that *personal interests* include your own curiosities, biases, and ideological commitments (what you think is interesting or important), theories of action (why you think things happen), and epistemological assumptions (what constitutes useful or valuable knowledge), all of which are profoundly influenced by your social location (race, ethnicity, social class, gender, sexual identification, nationality and other social identities), institutional position, and life experience. Nevertheless, qualitative research is subjective and is influenced by personal interests though the researcher had to guard against bias.

2.2.4   Topical research concerning classroom interaction

Throughout the study, the researcher consulted other scholars' work to find out what had been researched and to identify unstudied fields in the literature on classroom interaction in EFAL teaching. Additionally, empirical studies assisted not only to repeat the same study that has been undertaken, but also how to frame and understand the theories that guided this study. Miles and Huberman (1994) affirm that topical research refers to work (most often empirical) that is focused on the subject in which you are interested, understanding the interrelationships and the purpose of conceptual framework.

2.2.5　Theories for classroom interaction

This section discusses the theories that inform and guide this study, i.e. constructivism as an umbrella term, cognitive constructivism (Piaget 1953) and social constructivism (Vygotsky 1978), as well as social cognitive theory, teacher-efficacy and self-efficacy (Bandura 1986). These are the theoretical conceptualisations used to explore the teachers' understanding of classroom interaction and how it is employed at the selected Intermediate Phase EFAL classrooms in Ekurhuleni District in Tembisa Township. Cognitive constructivism focuses on how an individual constructs knowledge while social constructivism sees learning as an active process involving others. These theories are supplemented by social cognitive theory which is based on learning through a social environment and observation of the others. From social cognitive theory stems teacher efficacy which is vital in the social environment where learners learn from efficacious teachers and become efficacious too.

2.2.5.1　Constructivism perspective on the classroom interaction

Researchers (Brooks & Brooks 1993; Davidson 1999; Powel & Kalina 2009; Surgenor 2010) maintain that constructivism is an umbrella term that includes a number of learning theories. Despite their differences, they share core assumptions. There are many other constructivists who propound constructivism ideas, but the researcher concentrated on cognitive constructivism Piaget (1953) and social constructivism (Vygotsky 1978). Constructivists like Dillenbourg, Barker, Blaye and O'Malley (1996:191) acknowledge that the construction of knowledge emerges on the social level without denying the constitutive role of the individual. In fact, constructivism theories are based on the idea that learners construct their own meaning by building on their previous knowledge and experience. So, new ideas and experience are matched against existing knowledge, and the learner incorporates these to make sense of the world. Thus, in such an environment the teacher cannot be in charge of the learners' learning, since everyone's view of reality is different and the learners come to learning already possessing their own constructs of the world. In fact, according to Komar and Mozetic (2004:129-130) in constructivist classroom,

participants are teacher to learners, teacher to learner/a group of learners, learner to learner, and learners to learners.

In accordance with the opinions shown above, this study is based on classroom interaction in teaching and learning EFAL to enhance communicative competence. Since the focus is the understanding of classroom interaction and how it takes place in the classroom, the above explanation also acknowledges that the construction of knowledge emerges on the social level without denying the constitutive role of the individual, so in this perspective Piaget's theory of cognitive constructivism comes into play.

Based on the above continuum, the two categories, namely, cognitive and social constructivism theories under the broad theory constructivism paradigm are illustrated below:
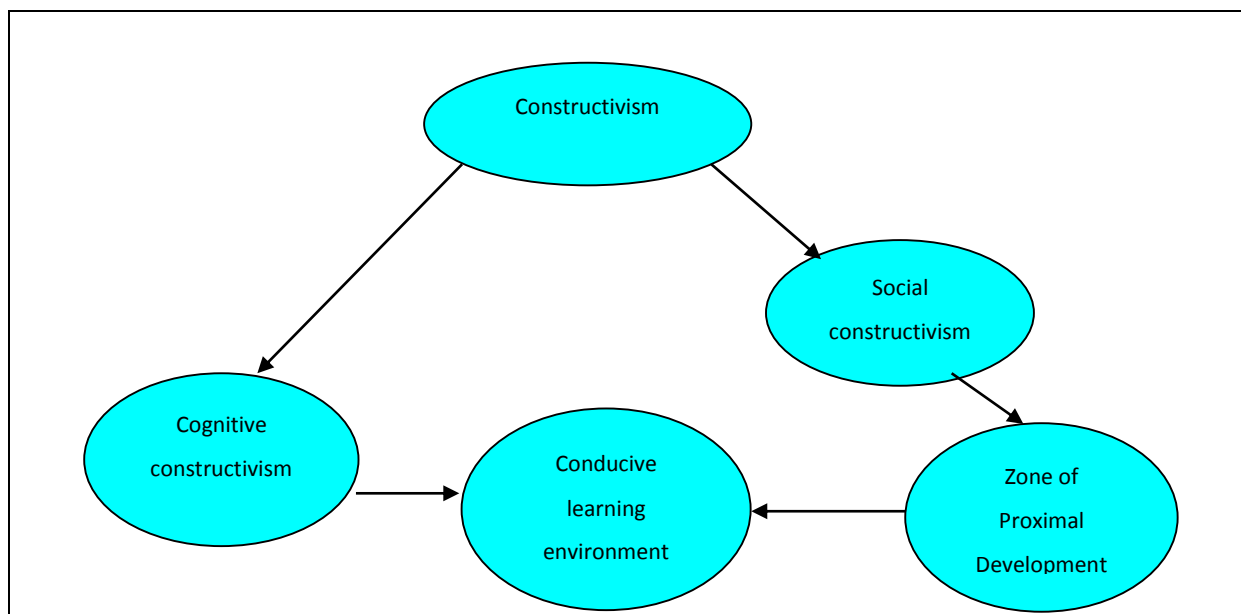
Figure 2.2: Constructivism Paradigm with its components

Researcher's illustration

Figure 2.2 shows the constructivism paradigm embracing the two perspectives since they are entrenched and embedded in this paradigm. In fact, cognitive constructivism and social constructivism originate from the constructivism paradigm. The two theories share the same belief though they have some differences. Therefore, for the

purpose of this study, cognitive constructivism and social constructivism theories were fused and interwoven throughout the study while constructivism served as the foundation of these theories. The researcher's intention to merge these theories in this study is that both theories complement each other and the researcher took the advantage of the rich sources of social learning environments that they can provide in order to attain effective classroom interaction to enhance communicative competence in the target language. Hence, these theories have played a positive role in teaching EFAL ever since the researcher practiced the strategies of the above-mentioned theories in classrooms.

- **Cognitive constructivism**

In line with Ültanir's (2012) interpretation, Piaget's basis of perception is composed of cognitive configuration and how knowledge is developed in a person. Additionally, Ültanir shows that Piaget perceives a child's view of the world and decisions about reality as different from an adult's. Therefore, Piaget's basic theory of constructivism focuses on the individual and how the individual constructs knowledge. Powel and Kalina (2009:243) assert that Piaget (1954) incorporates the importance of understanding each individual's needs to obtain knowledge and learn at his or her own pace. So, it is important for teachers to observe the level of each learner in order to provide necessary assistance that prepares and allows effective classroom interaction in the target language to take place. Ültanir (2012:202) also emphasises that Piaget's (1952) theory of cognitive constructivism proposes that humans cannot be given information which they immediately understand and use; instead humans must construct their own knowledge. It is obvious that the individual learner has to be assisted in constructing his or her own understanding in order to build on what he or she understands during the classroom interaction.

In addition, Ültanir (2012:202) interprets Piaget (1971) and states that essential functions of the mind are formed by laying a foundation consisting of understanding and innovation and constructing reality. As this means that the learner has to understand the learning materials in order to take part in the classroom interaction. From this perspective, teachers have to provide the environment and activities that enable the individual learning. Moreover, the Intermediate Phase learner is at the

concrete operational stage (seven to eleven years old) according to Piaget (1954:75) when children begin to replace intuitive thought with their own logical reasoning, so the learner has to have own understanding before he or she grasps others' ideas. Recognising that this process occurs within each individual learner at a different rate helps the teacher to facilitate constructivist learning by implementing different strategies for diverse understanding of learners in the interaction.

- **Social constructivism**

The theorist mostly commonly associated with social constructivism is Vygotsky, the founder of social constructivism who believes in social interaction and that it is an integral part of learning. Though Piaget believes in individual understanding, Vygotsky's theory is based on social interaction. As a result, this study embraces the two perspectives as the Intermediate Phase is comprised of diverse learners who learn diversely and the two approaches complement each other in the constructivist teaching and learning environment. Similarly, Borich and Tombari (1997:144) define social constructivism as an approach to learning in which learners are provided the opportunity to construct their own sense of what is being learned by building internal connections or relationships between the ideas and facts being taught. Eggan and Kauchak (2007:62) consider social constructivism as a view of learning that says learners use their experiences to actively construct understanding that make sense to them, rather than have understanding delivered to them in an already organised form. So therefore, understanding social constructivism theory and creating a classroom where interaction is substantial help to develop effective classroom interaction as learners share ideas and learn from each other.

Regarding social interaction, Vygotsky (1978) declares that language forms the foundation of an individual's conceptual ecology as well as the means of growth. Furthermore, Vygotsky (1978 cited in Wertsch, 1979) attests that language serves to mediate the higher order thinking of the learner. This suggests that for effective classroom interaction, learners have to exercise their language proficiency in the additional language. Thus, Powel and Kalina (2009:243) argue that social constructivism has challenged teachers to reconsider the critical role of language in the teaching-learning process. The most obvious explanation, the researcher

believes, is that without additional language proficiency the classroom interaction would not be effective as learners would be scared to make mistakes whenever the approach is employed. This point is the other rationale that resulted in the conducting of this study to find out how the Intermediate Phase EFAL teachers enhance communicative competence. In addition, Jones and Brades-Araje (2000:4) concurs with the studies of Vygotsky (1978) and Wertsch (1985) that language serves as a psychological tool that causes a fundamental change in mental functions since signalling, social, individual, communicative, intellectual, nominative, and indicative aspects are all functions of spoken language.

As a consequence of social constructivism, Vygotsky (cited in Jones & Brader-Araje 2000:4) demonstrates that the role of others, or social context, in learning has led teachers to re-examine the extent to which learning is an individual process. Learning, according to Vygotsky, is best understood in the light of others within an individual's world. This continual interplay between the individual and others is described by Vygotsky (1978) as a zone of proximal development (ZPD) (Jones & Brader-Araje 2000:4).

- **Zone of Proximal Development**

Researchers such as Gauvain and Cole (1997; Palincsar 1998; Turuk 2008; Yu 2008; Powel & Kalina 2009; Surgenor 2010; Allahyar & Nazari 2012; Scott & Palincsar 2013) support Vygotsky's theory of ZDP as it illustrates that the ability level learners can attain on their own can be exceeded with support and guidance from more advance peers or adults. In fact, the teacher as a coach and facilitator of learners' learning or a peer who has more developed knowledge concerning the material being learnt during the classroom interaction delivers a huge impact on the learners' knowledge development as he or she has more capabilities than the learner. Accordingly, those peers who have the potential to grasp the learning matter promptly can also assist the others who still lag behind by interacting and sharing their understanding with them. The presence of the teacher in this zone means that the outstanding issues that might obstruct the learners' learning can be clarified.

Furthermore, Powell and Kalina (2009:244) insist that by assisting learners in learning, many theorists and educators have proven that Vygotsky's theory works in practice. Powell and Kalina also assert that learners will learn easier within this ZPD when others are involved. Once the learners achieve the goal of the initial activity their zone expands and they can do more. Thus, to ensure development in ZPD, Surgenor (2010:5) suggests the following features to be displayed when assistance and guidance is received:

Table 2.1: Features essential for development in ZDP

Intersubjectivity	Scaffolding	Guided participation
The process whereby two participants who begin a task with different understanding arrive at a shared understanding (Newson & Newson 1975 cited in Surgenor 2010:5). This creates a common ground for communication as each partner adjusts to the perspective of the other.	Adjusting the support offered during a teaching session to fit the child's current level of performance. This captures the form of teaching interaction that occurs as individuals work on tasks such as puzzles and academic assignments.	Broader concept than scaffolding that refers to shared endeavours between more experts and less expert participants, without specifying the precise features of communication.

Source: Surgenor (2010:5)

Vygotsky also uses scaffolding in his theory to understand that children learn more effectively when the others assist them. As a result, scaffolding is discussed in detail later in this study as a strategy of social constructivist learning that enhances learning (*cf.* 4.5.1).

2.2.5.2   Social cognitive theory on classroom interaction

Social cognitive theory emerged from the work of Bandura (1977, 1986). It describes learning through a social environment and is rooted in a view of human agency in which individuals are agents engaged in their own development and can make things happen by their actions. As the learner is assisted in the ZPD, for instance, the acquired knowledge is boosted by the interaction with the adult or advanced peers; therefore it is possible for autonomous development to occur. As a result, the knowledge developed can increase the learner's self-efficacy to do and make things happen on his or her own. In his study, Bandura (1986:25) demonstrates that the key to this agency is the fact that among other personal factors, individuals possess self-beliefs that enable them to exercise a measure of control over their thoughts, feelings and actions, and that what people think, believe, and feel affects how they behave.

Moreover, the definition of Drolet (2012:2) reflects that social cognitive theory is a theory that focuses on cognition and the learner's mental involvement as an essential component of social learning. Likewise Burney (2008:130) stresses that social cognitive theory emphasises a dynamic interactive process among environmental, behavioural, and personal factors to explain human functioning.

The background the learners have to be provided with is that to achieve your goal as a learner depends on your actions. It should be mentioned to the learner at this age that the harder you work the more positive results you will get. Also, the creation of an environment that allows positive learning to take place assists learners to have courage to achieve what is expected from them or what the learner wants to achieve on his or her own.

Indeed, several researchers (Bandura 1989; Pajares 2002; Burney 2008; Drolet 2012; Denler, Wolters & Benzon 2013) show that Bandura (1986) maintains that the key factors that influence learning begins with the observation of others. Through observation of modelled behaviours, attitudes, and emotions the learner makes decisions about how to act. Drolet (2012:2) elucidates that this learning does not happen through a stimulus/response approach such as an exact replication of

observed behaviour. Therefore, live demonstrations of a behaviour or skill by a teacher or peers typify the notion of modelling, according to Drolet. In addition, Drolet explains that verbal or written description, video or audio recordings, and other less direct forms of performance are also considered forms of modelling.

In relation to the Intermediate Phase learning environment, learners would observe and imitate the teacher or the advanced peer's target language usage. Hence, it is necessary for the teacher to model the additional language in order to enhance the learners' attempts in communicating in EFAL.

Within social cognitive theory Bandura developed the concepts of teacher-efficacy and self-efficacy. According to Bandura (2001:10) self-efficacy forms the foundation of human agency since, unless people believe they can produce desired results and forestall detrimental ones by their actions, they have little incentive to act or to persevere in the face of difficulties. The most obvious explanation is, whatever other factors may operate as guides and motivators, they are rooted in the core belief that one has the power to produce effects by one's actions.

Furthermore, perceived self-efficacy plays a pivotal role in the causal structure of social cognitive theory because efficacy affects adaptations and change not only in its own right, but through its impact on other determinants (Maddux 1995; Bandura 1997; Schwarzer 1992 cited in Bandura 2001:10). Consequently, such beliefs influence whether people think pessimistically or optimistically and in ways that are self-enhancing or self-hindering.

Bandura (2001:10) explains that efficacy plays a central role in the self-regulation of motivation through goal challenges and outcome expectations. Therefore, it is partly on the basis of efficacy that people choose what challenges to undertake, how much effort to expand in the endeavour, how long to persevere in the face of obstacles and failures, and whether failures are motivating or demoralising. Furthermore, the probability that people will act on the outcomes they expect prospective performances to produce depends on their beliefs about whether or not they can produce those performances. So, a strong sense of coping efficacy reduces

vulnerability to stress and depression in taxing situations and strengthens resiliency to diversity.

The figure below shows how teacher-efficacy and self-efficacy are rooted in social cognitive theory.
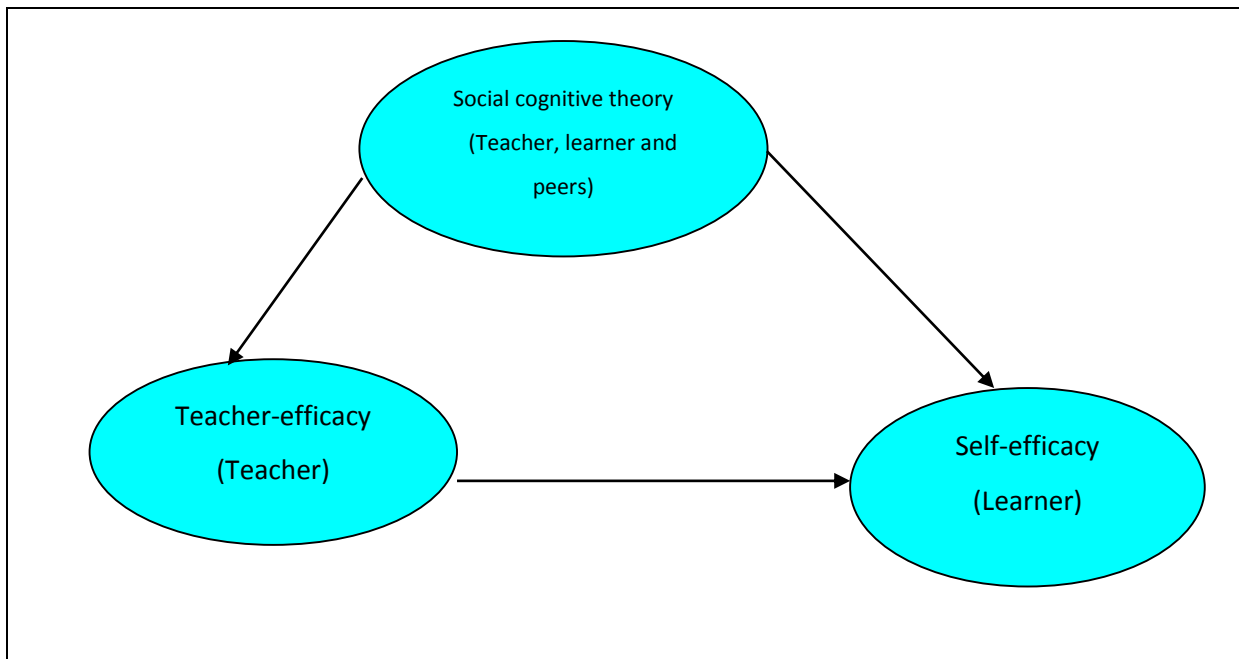
Figure 2.3: Social cognitive theory and its components

Researcher's illustration

Figure 2.3 illustrates that the teacher is accountable for learner-efficacy development. It is indicated below in the teacher-efficacy theory that by using a social cognitive theory framework, teachers can correct learners' faulty self-beliefs. The theory also indicates that learners benefit more from a teacher with high teacher-efficacy and learn less from the teacher with low teacher-efficacy. Therefore, it is important for the teacher to be hopeful about the learners' learning and optimistically foster self-beliefs with the intention of achieving the communicative competence in the target language.

In short Pajares (2002:1) concludes that using social cognitive theory as a framework; teachers can work to improve their learners' emotional states and to correct their faulty self-beliefs and habits of thinking, improve their academic skills

and self-regulatory practices and alter the school and classroom structures that may work to undermine learners' success. This point brings us to the theory of teacher self-efficacy which stems from social cognitive theory.

2.2.5.3 Teacher-efficacy

Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk, Hoy and Hoy (1998 cited in Jamil, Downer & Pianta 2012:120) define teacher self-efficacy as a teacher's belief in his or her ability to complete the steps required to accomplish a particular teaching task in a given context. Gibson and Dembo (1984; Ashton & Webb 1986; Bandura 1989) concur that the task of creating learning environments that are conducive to development of cognitive skills rest heavily on the talents and self-efficacy of teachers. Therefore, the teacher is perceived as a catalyst in the classroom that brings the transformation in the teaching and learning environment by skilfully facilitating or encouraging the learners to participate in the interaction that would achieve the communicative competence in the EFAL.

As a consequence of the above perspective, researchers interested in the construct teacher efficacy distinguished two types of efficacy. Hoy (2000; Protheroe 2008) illustrate that the first kind of personal teaching efficacy relates to a teacher's own feeling of confidence in regard to his or her teaching abilities. The second, often called general teaching efficacy appears to reflect a general belief about the power of teaching to reach difficult learners. Protheroe (2008:45) affirms that researchers have also found that these two constructs are independent. Thus, a teacher may have faith generally in the ability to reach difficult learners, while lacking confidence in his or her personal teaching ability.

Those who are well-versed in their subject matter and have a high sense of their teaching capabilities can motivate low achievers and enhance their cognitive development. In his study, Burney (2008:131) states that, using the teacher-efficacy model, motivation would be seen as depending upon one's perception of self-efficacy and agency. Others in the environment would also be influential through observation of their behaviour, interaction with them, and the reflection about these experiences.

Again, there is concurrence among authors such like Midgley, Feldlaufer and Eccless (1989 cited in Narvaez, Vaydich, Turner & Khmelkou 2008:4) that in classrooms with teachers of high self-efficacy, learners are more academically motivated. Anderson, Greene and Loewen (1988 cited in Narvaez *et al.* 2008) declare that learners in that case are more likely to have self-efficacy themselves. Armor, Conroy-Oseguera, Cox, McDonnel and Pascal (1976; Aston & Webb 1986; Moore & Esselman 1992; Ross 1992 cited in Narvaez *et al.* 2008) conclude that such learners are more likely to achieve success. The most obvious explanation is given by Jennings and Greenberg (2009:501) who assert that supportive relationships of teachers can promote feelings of safety and connectedness among learners.

This highlights the belief that in a classroom with a teacher who possesses high teacher-efficacy, there is a sense of a secure atmosphere and trust between the learners and the teacher. This kind of mood is the one needed for classroom interaction as learners will freely learn with no anxiety about making mistakes as there will be assistance from the teacher and peers as a harmonious bond has been cultivated.

This theory declares that teachers with high self-efficacy use positive interventions such as praise and reinforcement (Gibson & Dembo 1984; Gebbie, Ceglowski, Taylor & Miels 2012:36). Thus, higher teacher self-efficacy is associated with more constructivist learning environments (Weber & Omotami 1994:37), and teachers with higher teacher self-efficacy are less likely to support the use of controlling or custodial discipline practices (Woolfolk, Rosoff & Hoy 1990, Jamil *et al.* 2012:123). In particular Driescoll and Pianta (2010; Jamil *et al.* 2012) agree that teachers with more progressive learner-centred beliefs about learner's learning tend to share more positive emotional experiences with their learners than teachers with more traditional views. Therefore, learners in their classrooms tend to display greater motivation to learn, lower anxiety, and higher competence in language problem-solving than their peers in more authoritative classroom setting (Stipek, Feiler, Daniels & Milburn 1995; Hart *et al.* 1998 cited in Jamil *et al.* 2012:123). Finally, teachers with higher teacher self-efficacy provide students with the guidance they need to succeed (Gibson & Dembo 1984 cited in Bandura 1989:66), are more likely to develop classrooms with

mastery goal structures and focus on learning and improvement (Wolters & Daugherty 2007 cited in Gebbie, et al. 2012:36).

In the researcher's opinion, high teacher-efficacy is a notion that can be cultivated by practicing effectiveness. Also, efficacy can be drawn from the intentions of implementing the multidimensional role of the teacher that were highlighted in the teacher as an aspect of classroom interaction (*cf*. Chapter 8). Jennings and Greenberg (2009:501) confirm that The New Teacher Centres submitted public comments to the United States of America Department of Education on 29 August 2009 which sees an effective teacher as someone whose learners achieve acceptable rates of learners' growth.

On the same matter, Pianta *(*2005 cited in Jamil *et al.* 2012:124) believes that it is possible that teachers with more democratic or developmentally-oriented beliefs provide higher quality learning opportunities in their classrooms, and they elicit higher achievement from their learners, which makes the teachers in turn feel more efficacious. Additionally, it is also possible that because teachers with more learner-centred views see learners as partners in the creation of knowledge, they are less likely to consider learners' difficulties in the classroom as their own personal failures (Jamil *et al.* 2012:124).

The study of Gibson and Dembo (1984 cited in Onafowora 2005:35) found that teachers who demonstrate a high sense of teacher efficacy devote more class time on academic activities and focus less on discipline as a prerequisite to learners' learning. Moreover, teachers with strong personal efficacy attributes were able to reach learners having difficulty and create mastery experiences to encourage them. Bandura (1993 cited in Onafowora 2005:35) states that teachers' beliefs in their personal efficacy to motivate and promote learning affect the types of learning environments they create and the level of academic progress their learners achieve. According to Onafowora (2005:35) Bandura found that efficacious teachers felt self-empowered to create learning environments that allowed them to motivate and promote learners' learning. Therefore, self-efficacy is not actual measure of competence, but a sense of confidence in, or future-oriented perception of, the

competence one might expect to display given a certain set of circumstances (Hoy & Spero 2005 cited in Jamil *et al.* 2012:120).

In addition, teachers' self-efficacy can influence learners' efforts and persistence in learning. Learners in turn can model the efficacy that the teacher displays and become efficacious too, since (Bandura 1997:1) indicates that individuals exercise agency, or control, over their lives through their own perceptions of self-efficacy. Accordingly, teachers are the catalyst in modelling efficacy in the community in which they operate.

In addition, Brophy and McCaslin (1992; Jordan 1993) assert that studies have shown that teachers with low self-efficacy use more authoritarian or restrictive methods when dealing with challenging behaviours (Narvaez *et al.* 2008:5), devote more time to non-academic matters, criticising learners for their failures and giving up on learners who do not succeed quickly.

An early study of Blase (1986 cited in Jennings & Greenberg 2009:501) contributes that teachers who are overwhelmed by negative emotions express lack of enthusiasm for cultivating positive relationships with their learners and report becoming less involved, less tolerant, and less caring. Furthermore, Woolfolk and Hoy (1990; Woolfolk, Rosoff & Hoy 1990; Melby 1995) find that teachers with low self-efficacy are more likely to report higher levels of anger and stress, express pessimistic views of learners motivation, and more frequently use extrinsic inducements and negative reinforcement. Teachers' negative attitudes may have long-term effects on learners. According to Jennings and Greenberg (2009), as well as Hamre and Pianta (2001), kindergarten teachers' negative reports about a learner were meaningful predictors of the learner's social and academic outcomes through at least fourth grade. Bandura (1993 cited in Jamil *et al.* 2012:120) suggests that people with a low sense of efficacy in a given situation easily become victims of stress and depression because they take difficult tasks and their perceived mobility to deal with them personally. On the other hand, people with high self-efficacy treat difficult tasks as an opportunity for mastery, attributing failure to a lack of effort and skills, both of which are in their hands to correct.

To summarise, this indicates that teachers have to strive to avoid negative emotions since it becomes hard to stay eager and achieve the aim of being a good teacher when experiencing a negative mood. According to my understanding, a teacher is someone who cuts the darkness that covers the nation and mushrooms a golden light that lightens up the society as a whole. So, teachers have to try to stay positive and create a harmonious relationship with learners in order to achieve the aim which is educating the nation.

2.2.5.4 Self-efficacy

Studies of Bandura (1997; Burney 2008; Wolters & Benzon 2013) provide a description of self-efficacy as reflecting individuals' belief about whether they can achieve a given level or success at a particular task. Bandura (1989:67) further indicates that learners with greater self-efficacy are more confident in their ability to be successful, are better equipped to educate themselves when they have to rely on their own initiatives when compared to their peers with lower self-efficacy. In that case, self-efficacy has proven useful for understanding learners' motivation and achievement in academic contexts. In these researchers' view Pajares (1996 cited in Wolters & Benzon 2013:1) the higher levels of perceived self-efficacy have been associated with greater choice, persistence, and with more effective strategy use.

For this study, the self-efficacy theory is applied to the Intermediate Phase learners' learning in the classroom interaction. The theory shows that academic achievement depends on the learner's self-efficacy. Therefore, the classroom interaction strategy employed should stimulate the learners' self-efficacy as to be confident and believe that they have the abilities to be successful in their learning.

Additionally, Bandura (1989:64) asserts that during the crucial formative period of learners' lives, the school functions as the primary setting for the cultivation and social validation of cognitive competencies. This means that the school is the place where learners develop cognitive competencies and acquire knowledge and problem-solving skills essential for participating effectively in society. The school is seen as the place that plays an important role in building the learners' self-efficacy on the road to becoming adults. This implies that the school as zone of learning has

the responsibility of modelling the learners' self-efficacy to the point of believing in their eventual success in a self-assured spirit. So, this view depends on how the classroom interaction is enhanced to achieve one's goal as Bandura demonstrates that at this point, their knowledge and thinking skills are continuously tested, evaluated, and socially compared. Bandura affirms that as learners master cognitive skills, they develop a growing sense of their intellectual efficacy. Schunk (1984, 1987; Bandura 1989) affirm that despite the fact that many social factors, apart from formal instruction, also affect learners' judgements of their intellectual efficacy. These are peer modelling of cognitive skills, social comparison with the performances of other learners, motivational enhancement through proximal goals and positive incentives, and instructors' interpretations of learners' success and failures in ways that reflect favourably or unfavourably on their ability. Subsequently, enhanced perceived self-efficacy fosters persistence in seeking solutions, cognitive skill development and intrinsic interest in academic subject matters (Bandura & Schunk 1981; Schunk 1984; Relich, Debus & Walker 1986, Bandura 1989).

Furthermore, it has been noted by several researchers that peers serve several important efficacy functions. Bandura (1989:64) declares that it is in peer relationships that learners broaden and particularise self-knowledge of their capabilities. Burney (2008:132) also expands Bandura's view that the peer group itself can influence learner's self-efficacy and be a motivating force if the learner views those peers as similar to him or her. Accordingly, those who are most experienced and competent provide models of efficacious styles of thinking. As a result, a vast amount of social learning occurs among peers. In addition, age-mates provide the most informative points of reference for comparative efficacy appraisal and verification. Learners are, therefore, sensitive to their relative standing among the peers with whom they affiliate in activities that determine prestige and popularity (Bandura 1989:64).The most obvious explanation to increase the learners' self-efficacy, is for the teacher to skilfully act on how to pair or group the learners in order to learn modelling from the peers the learners regard as advanced or competent to learn from.

Wolters and Benzon (2013:1) quote Bandura (1997) who suggests that self-efficacy is the foundations of what people think how they feel, how they make choices, and

how they motivate themselves. Therefore, scholars acknowledge that those with high self-efficacy are likely to set high goals for themselves, develop strong cognitive strategies for acquiring skills and knowledge, seek academic challenge, and persist in the face of difficulty (Pajares 1997; Bandura 1997; Bouffard & Couture 2003; Valentine Du Boise & Cooper 2004).

Additionally, Pintrich (2003:671) declares that positive self-efficacy is built upon a strong base of knowledge and skills. The knowledge the learners already have when coming to school and the other knowledge gathered during the classroom interaction can give the learners grounds for efficacy. Teachers as mediators and given the ultimatum to develop the learners are the ones who can make a difference in changing the learners' attitude for the better. There is greater resilience if a person has confidence in his/her coping strategies. In addition, Pintrich claims that these self-regulatory skills are teachable and can lead to increases in learners' motivation and achievement. Concluding the argument, Pintrich shows that motivation is stronger the more one believes one can be successful. So, it is the responsibility of the teacher to assure the learners that they are good and can achieve better in their learning. As a coach and a facilitator, the teacher has to play a supportive and nurturing role for the learners to understand and find their strengths and concentrate on them and focus less on their weaknesses.

The researcher put the above-mentioned theories into practice and they were her living experiences. As early as seven o'clock, the researcher was at school. The researcher checked the lesson plan she had prepared the previous day for the next day, wrote the activities for the day on the chalkboard. Learners were used to finding their teacher in the classroom. The researcher used to encourage them to come early in the morning before the school started. So, they came as early as they could to practice their reading with the class teacher. To encourage them, the researcher used to tell them that small beginnings make great endings. Subsequently, every learner took out the reading book of his or her level, and then read the stories they had read at home and let the researcher sign their reading records.

Underneath is a sample of the reading record the researcher drew for the learners. The record was planned in such a way that it covered the whole term and the learner

was given a reading book to read to the parent or anyone at home. Then in the morning they read and told stories to the researcher and to their peers. The researcher attached a signature and wrote positive remarks to encourage their reading. Therefore, even those who struggled in reading, were motivated to read due to positive remarks.

Table 2.2: Sample of a reading record

Date	Title	Page	Parent signature	Teacher signature & remarks
21.01.2013	Little Red Hen	1-12		Good start!
22.01.2013	Little Red Hen	13-20		Wonderful!
23.01.2013	African Animals	1-10		Keep reading, you'll make it!
24.01.2013	African Animals	11-20		Your reading has improved. Proud of you.
25.01.2013	Lazy Mandla	1-8		You are such a good reader. Keep it up!

Researcher's illustration

Thus, most of the learners, who moved to the next grades, were used to come early and sat down in their classes and read and tell stories. Sometimes they came back to the class and boast about their reading improvements by telling the stories they had read then the researcher also gave them positive remarks.

In this way, as a target language teacher, the researcher believed in modelling a high standard of verbal communication (listening, talking and reading) and then writing was inspired by those aforementioned skills. The researcher believed that when learners had acquired verbal skills, they would be ready to learn other subjects in the target language. So therefore, learners learnt through observation since those

learners observed that the teacher was there for them and appreciated what they were doing by praising them. They made a decision to come early so that they could show their capabilities by reading and telling stories to the researcher and to their peers.

In this learning zone, low achievers were not left behind. The researcher used to group them in a group of four to five. Then, the researcher together with the learners suggested a topic related to the lesson that would be dealt with during the day. They talked about anything concerning the topic and expressed their views. Among the group, there was an aspirant who inspired them to talk and instil an efficacious attitude. If there was something they did not understand they were encouraged to ask the teacher or their peers questions.

In fact, to cultivate a positive attitude was not easy. It needed commitment and the researcher was consistent so that the learners could trust her and notice the benefit of adopting their modeller's stance. Hence, what happens in ZPD requires a teacher with high self-efficacy in order to motivate the learners to construct their own self-efficacy. As was previously stated in this study, learners learn more from a teacher with high self-efficacy.

Consistent with these paradigms and epistemological stance, the researcher embraced the interpretivist/constructivist perspective as appropriate for this study as the researcher intended to design a classroom interaction framework grounded on the multiple realities of the experiences of Intermediate Phase EFAL teachers and their learners.

In short, learners' involvement and participation in school depend on how the school environment contributes to their perceptions of autonomy and relatedness, which in turn influences self-efficacy and academic achievement (Schunk & Pajares 2001:7). Thus, self-efficacy is enhanced when learners perceive they are performing well or are becoming more skilful.

2.3 MOTIVATION FOR USING THE INTERPRETIVE/CONSTRUCTIVISM PHILOSOPHIES

The information discussed above compelled the researcher to create a conceptual framework that was relevant for guiding this study. Miles and Huberman (1994:18) indicate that the conceptual framework explains the main thing to be studied – the key factors, concepts and presumed relationships among them. So the direct presentations of the study were a full clarification of how this study unfolded and the narrative presentation was to give a clear perspective of this study.

Figure 2.1 suggests how an interpretivist/constructivist classroom can be established. The establishment commences by adopting the constructivism perspective supplemented by social cognitive points of view to enhance the credibility of this study. Powel and Kalina (2009:243) maintain that social constructivism is a highly effective method of teaching from which all learners can benefit, since collaboration and social interaction are incorporated. On one hand, a constructivism perspective assumes that learners construct knowledge through social interaction and that the nature of these interactions affects collaborative learning. On the other hand, a social cognitive viewpoint also acknowledges learning through observation. Thus, the researcher believes that these theories can reciprocally enhance classroom interaction as a teaching strategy.

On account of the learner's involvement in the classroom interaction process, teacher-efficacy and self-efficacy grounded in a larger theoretical framework of social cognitive theory were also relevant for this doctoral study. Compared with learners who doubt their learning capabilities, those who feel efficacious when learning or performing a task participate more readily, work harder, persist longer when they encounter difficulties, and achieve at a higher level (Schunk & Pajares 2001:2). According to these authors, self-efficacy is concerned with judgements about capabilities.

2.4   SUMMARY

Chapter 2 presents the conceptual framework of this study as the pillar of the research process. It was indicated that research without a conceptual framework is like a house with no solid foundation. Thus, all the components of the conceptual framework were discussed and illustrated the vast contribution to learners' self-efficacy in the classroom interaction.

A constructivist viewpoint supplemented by a social cognitive theory perspective served as the lenses of this study. The constructivism perspective demonstrates that learners have to construct their own knowledge individually and collectively, whereas the social cognitive theory viewpoint exemplifies learners learning through observing others and making decision through the modelled behaviours and attitudes of their modellers.

In fact, constructivism is regarded as an umbrella term that includes a number of theories. It is revealed that constructivist classrooms create an atmosphere of ownership, dedication, and trust to attain better outcomes while collaboration is one of the key elements that exists in these environments for attainment of communicative competence in EFAL.

In Chapter 3, the researcher presents the nature and scope of classroom interaction for this study.

CHAPTER 3
THE NATURE AND SCOPE OF CLASSROOM INTERACTION

3.1   INTRODUCTION

A broad scholarly review is extensively dealt with in this chapter in order to provide further insight into this study. The study of Henning (2004:27) indicates that the literature review is often a separate chapter in the research in which the researcher synthesises the literature on the topic and engages critically with it. She further clarifies that this is a second phase of the literature in the research. In fact, Creswell (2005:79) demonstrates why this review is necessary. Firstly, Creswell affirms that you conduct a literature review to document how your study adds to the existing literature. Secondly, the literature review serves to convince the graduate committee that the researcher knows the literature on the topic and can summarise it. Thirdly, the review reveals new ideas and shares the latest findings with others. Fourthly, the review also builds research skills of using a library and being an investigator. Lastly, the review is used to find useful examples and models for the researcher's own research. This chapter is therefore the demonstration of the epistemological view of classroom interaction and interactive activities accumulated in literature perusal for this study.

3.2   CLASSROM INTERACTION AND INTERACTIVE LEARNING

3.2.1   Classroom interaction

The study of Allwright (n.d:2) defines classroom interaction as the methodology that contributes to language development simply by providing target language practice opportunities. Therefore, the main contributing factor to the classroom interaction standpoint is the creation of opportunities for practicing the target language. In fact, the teacher as a facilitator of the interaction has the responsibility to provide approaches that urge learners to practice the additional language.

3.2.1.1 Participants in the classroom interaction

There are regular ways of organising the interaction in the classroom. Komar and Mozetić (2004:129-130) demonstrate that participants in the classroom are teacher to learners, teacher to learner/a group of learners, learner to learner, and learners to learners. They also provide the explanation, roles, and times when these forms of participation can take place during the interaction in the classroom.

- **Teacher to learners**

According to Komar and Mozetić (2004:129-130), this form of interaction is established when a teacher talks to the whole class. Then the teacher plays the role of a leader or controller and decides about the type and process of the activity. Hence, the primary function of such interaction is controlled and practicing of language structures or structures modelled on the teacher. This type of practice is also referred as 'drill'.

- **Teacher to learner or a group of learners**

This form is conducted when the teacher refers to the whole class, but expects only one learner or a group of learners to answer. Normally it is often used for evaluation of individual learners. This arrangement can also be used for an informal conversation at the beginning of the lesson or for leading learners into guided activity (Komar & Mozetić 2004:129-130).

- **Learner to learner**

This is called 'pair work' according to Komar and Mozetić (2004:129-130). Learners get an assignment which they have to finish in pairs. In this case, the teacher plays the role of a consultant or adviser, helping when necessary. Then, after the activity, the teacher puts the pairs into a whole group and each pair reports on their work.

- **Learners to learners**

This is called 'group work' and functions in the same way as pair work. Komar and Mozetić (2004:130) confirm that learner to learner and learner to learners are particularly useful for encouraging interaction among learners. As a result, such work encourages independent learning and passes on some responsibility for learning to learners since it approaches real life communication where learners talk to their peers in small groups or pairs.

3.2.1.2 Teacher and learners talk

Allwright and Bailey (1996:67) maintain that talk is one of the major ways in which teachers convey information to learners, and it is also one of the primary means of controlling learner behaviour. Similarly Nunan (1991:189) states that teacher talk is of crucial importance, not only for the process of the classroom but also for the process of language acquisition. Certainly it is important because it serves as a model learners have to build on for interaction to take place. Kennedy (1996:30) also agrees that whatever the classroom context, teacher talk in the additional language serves as an important linguistic model for learners as the teacher guides them through classroom process and activities, and provides explanation and feedback or corrections.

For that reason, learners' talk across the curriculum is about enabling learners to use spoken language in a variety of contexts within the classroom environment. This involves giving them the opportunity to extend their vocabulary in different subjects as well as the means to reason and to present information clearly and effectively.

In fact, learners have to be made aware that there is a difference between talking and writing but that they are of equal value. Along these lines, Armitage (1998:81) suggests that to see the interdependence of talk and writing the learners can be asked the following questions:

- How can you record what you have just discussed so you won't forget it?

- What questions do you need to ask?
- Where can you put answers to your questions?
- How can you show others what you have just talked about?
- How will you show your work to others?

With reference of the above, Rudham (2005:35) insists that teachers should not become preoccupied with written texts because they are tangible, measurable and more convenient. Although speaking and listening lessons require more of teachers, these skills develop the learners' reading and writing capabilities. Thus, the ability to clarify thoughts, to tailor the structure of an argument, to sequence ideas, to listen and recall main points, to answer questions all arise from speaking and listening. Rudham maintains that allowing learners to tussle with language in more learner-centred, active way, through role play, debate or discussion, gives learners time to think for themselves and fosters confidence.

- **The role of the teacher**

A study on the topic by Holderness (1998:157) indicates that the first step to successful EFAL teaching is to appreciate the nature and importance of the role of the teacher, especially the teachers' attitude to the target language learners, and the readiness to support, serve as a model to the rest of the learners.

In fact Gosh (2010:2) argues that the role of the teacher during the classroom interaction is passive yet very crucial. It is the responsibility of the teacher to create a learning atmosphere inside the classroom. Gosh further points out that it is through these interactive sessions that the teacher can extract responses from learners and motivate them to come up with new ideas related to the topic. Gosh adds that the teacher is an observer who helps the learners to construct an innovative learning process through group discussions, debates and many more. Hence, the teacher defines himself or herself as a planner who plans the best of the modes of interaction that would be effective to invite the learners to join in classroom interaction.

Likewise, Littlewood (1981:92) comments that in the classroom interaction environment, the teacher is a facilitator of learning and the teacher's roles include the following:

- a general overseer of learning, who coordinates the activities so that they form a coherent progression from lesser to greater ability;

- a manager, who is responsible for grouping activities into lessons and for their overall organisation;

- a language instructor, who presents new language, controls, evaluates and corrects learners' performance;

- a consultant or adviser in free communicative activities helping where necessary. So the teacher may move around the classroom and monitor learners' progress, strengths and weaknesses; and

- a co-communicator who sometimes participates in an activity with the learners, encouraging the learners without playing the main role.

Littlewood (1981:92) further shows that the teacher can focus on learning instead of teaching by:

- preparing learners to find out their inner self;

- inspiring learners to work hard to receive information through various sources;

- hunting for novel ideas;

- creating new trends and tendencies;

- supporting the carrying out of project proposals suitable to core subject; and

- facilitating learning in a practical way as is highly recommended for cross-cultural growth.

Finally, De Vimeenakshi and Meheswari (2012:179) concur with Brown (1980) that the teacher's role is to be a facilitator and guide who provides a nurturing context for learning.

3.2.1.3 Types of classroom interaction activities

Allwright (n.d:2) asserts that through careful design of classroom interaction activities, involving various forms of more or less 'realistic' practice, learners become skilled at actually doing the things they have been taught about (turning 'knowledge that' into 'knowledge how'). Ghosh (2010:1) proposes that the classroom interaction can be categorised under five main heading. Choosing between several types of classroom interaction activities, in this study the researcher concentrated on the suggestions of Gosh because, being practically involved in the learning and teaching interaction, the researcher had come to realise that these five activities fit well in different language genres. They are:

- discussion;
- story telling;
- role-play;
- reading aloud; and
- debates.

According to Wisener (2008:26) classrooms are communities in which most learning takes place in the context of social interaction. Therefore, establishing a good relationship with learners and creating an active classroom conducive for learning is extremely important. Accordingly, the role of classroom environment in supporting learners' language acquisition cannot be ignored. Meaningful exposure to language is not enough; learners need more opportunities for language interaction. Swain and Lapkin (1998:328) propose that a classroom in which learners work together to solve problems and produce projects, supports their language development in several ways. They add that such a classroom gives learners authentic reasons to communicate and aids in refining their language production. Moreover, it provides learners with the realisation that their verbal communication is not always understood by the others. Herrell and Jordan (2012:4) emphasise that this realisation helps to move learners from receptive semantic processing (listening to understand) to expressive syntactic processing (using information of words and sentences to communicate). Herrell and Jordan further explain that if learners are simply left to

listen and observe without the opportunity or necessity to communicate, they remain in the productive stage for an extended period of time.

Furthermore, Bertrand and Stice (2002:86) emphasise that the classrooms that establish non-threatening, no-directive, cooperative environments have the best chance for encouraging continued oral development in general and the development of standard language pattern in particular; for instance, Huff (1991:87) reports that in a classroom in which the environment was favourable and purposeful talk was encouraged, one teacher recorded twenty different types of problem-solving talk naturally employed by the learners. Huff found that when the learners were genuinely interested in the problem being discussed, both highly verbal and quiet learners participated successfully. Huff concluded that learners who believe their ideas have value to both peers and teachers willingly share and participate in classroom events. When they engage in authentic speaking and listening; they take risks and acquire self-confidence. Then they find their own voices and take greater control over their self-expressions and over their own learning.

In the above-mentioned classroom the atmosphere was warm and relaxed and children were inclined to participate. Subsequently, learners had confidence because they were encouraged and assured that the school is a place of learning. Certainly if learners are allowed to say anything, they believe that they can contribute to the learning environment. As a result, when learners are told that there is no wrong answer, they try to participate to their level best and present whatever they think can add towards their interaction. Their interest is aroused and gradually their confidence is built. Thus, this kind of class needs a teacher who smiles and allows learners to laugh. According to Komar and Mozetić (2004) effective classroom interaction has two characteristics. The first one concerns a pleasant atmosphere in the classroom with friendly relationships among the participants in the learning process. The second one encourages learners to become effective communicators in a target language. Komar and Mozetić add that this can be achieved through implementing different learner and teacher roles: by exposing learners to a varied classroom organisation; by employing a variety of activities; by helping learners to express themselves and by encouraging their use of communication strategies. Additionally,

Komar and Mozetić believe that if the two characteristics are joined, we get a pleasant classroom atmosphere when learners communicate in the target language.

The main component of effective teaching is the creation of a relatively relaxed learning environment in the learning and teaching process. The arrangement of the classroom setting is one of the ways to create a relaxed atmosphere. Therefore, the teacher has to be on the learners' level and not seated on a high chair sitting at the front to show who the leader in the class is. Nurmasitah (2010:39) confirms that a positive atmosphere can make a classroom a more pleasant place to learn. Nurmasitah declares that it is simple to create, and it can show positive results in the achievement of learners. Moreover, when the teacher creates a positive classroom atmosphere, learners learn better. Undeniably every learner must feel safe and important in the class in order for maximum learning to take place. Nonetheless, a positive classroom environment does not just happen, the teacher creates it. However, what is not known and the question that needs to be addressed is: What do the Intermediate Phase teachers understand about the classroom interaction when teaching English as First Additional Language? Teachers have to build on their teaching strategies constantly to create a conducive and non-threatening atmosphere in the learning environment.

According to Applefield, Huber and Moallem (2001:35) paradigm shifts bring new perspectives, new conceptualisations and new ways of thinking about a topic large or small. Pattanpichet (2011:1) asserts that speaking activities aiming to promote oral proficiency are sometimes assumed as face-threatening and nerve-wracking for learners. As a consequence of these negative feelings, learners' performance, self-esteem, and confidence can deteriorate.

Another study on the topic by Teaching and Learning (n.d:3) demonstrates that social view of interaction also means considering the participants in different ways as it involves interactions between teachers and learners and between learners and teachers between learners. This suggests that interactions need to bring opportunities to learners to explore their ideas, interpretations and reactions of others. So therefore, this happens once learners are given assurance that they have capabilities to achieve what they wish accomplishing in life.

Yet again, Teaching and Learning (n.d:3) perceives that more recent understanding of interaction, and its roles and purpose in teaching and learning, as more than just the exchange of talk. Interaction is seen as fundamentally a social process of meaning-making and interpreting, and the educational value of interaction grows out of developing and elaborating interaction as a social process. Furthermore, the study justifies that it is through interaction that learners engage with ideas, concepts and the diverse interpretations and understandings of their interlocutors. This indicates that in classrooms, the social purpose of interaction is related to learning, through the discussion of ideas, insights and interpretations. Consequently, classroom interaction is more than a simulation of everyday interaction: it is interaction with learning as its central concern.

3.2.2   Interactive learning

As a teacher and a learner in secondary and tertiary institutions, I have come to realise that working with peers and knowledgeable adults results in the development of skills and advanced knowledge. This is because sharing of ideas, views and opinions arouse the inner character that has been internally hidden and not realised by oneself. In support of this view, Little (1998:16) explains that the natural mode of development and experiential learning is interaction with other people, and our capacity to learn on our own derives from our experience of learning with and from the others. Little further confirms that such view has profound implications for our understanding of language and cognition as well as learning, and beyond that, of what it is to be human. Gauvain and Cole (1997:35) expand on Little's point of view by asserting that an essential feature of learning is that learning creates the ZPD suggested by Vygotsky, that is, learning awakens a variety of internal developmental processes that are able to operate only when the learner is interacting with people in his or her environment and in cooperation with his peers.

It becomes obvious that learning an additional language for academic and communication purposes requires interaction with individuals who have knowledge in that particular target language for assistance and practice. Therefore, the classroom becomes a place where interaction opportunities in EFAL should be carefully created and planned in order to enable the learners to construct their own learning in an

enjoyable manner. Moreover, one of the most important things that the EFAL teachers can do for learners is to give them the conviction that they can use the additional language to influence the world around them. Hence, learners benefit a lot from a teacher with self-efficacy since they observe efficacious strategies and in turn, utilise them and grow to be efficacious learners too. In fact, Backlund (1988:177) argues that if the learners develop that belief, they will attempt to use language to attain goals more readily, they will be less reluctant to participate in classroom activities, and they improve their behaviour in other aspects of their education and in aspects of their social life. Hence, teachers can better the situation in the classrooms by implementing language tools or activities that equip learners with the practice of English as their additional language.

The most obvious step is, when implementing the classroom interactive activities mentioned by Gosh (2010:1), firstly to ensure the environment is appropriate to permit the interaction to take place. Teachers should strive to create an atmosphere of excitement and curiosity before the commencement of each learning activity. Atta-Alla (2012:1) maintains that the school environment for learning must be safe and structured, with ample opportunities for long periods of reading, writing, and carrying on task- or topic-oriented conversations in the classroom. According to the Transnational Teaching Quick Guide (2014:1), teachers can create a dynamic learning environment that accommodates individual learning needs by using interactive activities. In addition, The Quick Guide upholds that such activities should provide learners with opportunities to share ideas, test their thinking, and examine different perspectives on issues. In these environments, teachers can serve as models by engaging in all of the activities with their learners, concludes Atta-Alla.

Secondly, the teacher should be prepared to facilitate the learning construction and give guidance wherever possible. Moreover, Roof and Kreutter (2010:5) note that giving learners clear expectations and modelling, and reinforcing their expectations may effectively influence learning in the classroom. They also assert that by providing learners with ample opportunities to respond to the lesson, the teacher may positively impact learner engagement and lesson effectiveness. Likewise, the recent guide of Saskatchewan Ministry of Education (2013:1) advises that, as teachers guide learners' learning, they must consider the goals and outcomes of the

curriculum, the background, abilities, interests, and learning styles of individual learners, and the learning resources available.

Thirdly, the activities and learning and teaching materials should be of appropriate nature for the effective learning to occur. In addition, the Florida Department of Education (2012:1) claims that healthy learning occurs when the learner is meaningfully engaged in the activity. The researcher also confirms that a learner's attention span tends to be longer during activities and with topics that are of interest of him or her. Likewise, the Quick Guide (2014:1) confirms that the quality of teaching relies on the teacher's ability to structure and design class activities that are engaging and support learning. Furthermore, the Transnational Teaching Quick Guide states that the range of activities the teacher uses should accommodate all learning styles and encourage learners to assume responsibility for their learning. It is also important that the teacher integrates local content and examples that will be relevant to and meet the needs and interests of local learners. Consistent with constructivist perspective, the learners base their learning on the background knowledge of their real life as to construct their own knowledge in understanding what is learnt.

With reference to learning materials, Saskatchewan Ministry of Education (2013:1) maintains that the provision and effective use of high-quality learning resources facilitates learners' construction of understanding through inquiry so they are better able to explore, question, identify, organise, analyse, synthesise, and evaluate information. The Saskatchewan Ministry of Education therefore continues justifying these resources to enhance deeper understanding of the subject matter and promote information literacy and lifelong learning.

Additionally, Saskatchewan Ministry of Education indicates that if learners are to become lifelong learners, they must have the ability to access information in real and virtual environments, and the critical thinking skills to use that information ethically, creatively, and wisely. In this way learners will become confident, capable learners who achieve the learning outcomes described in the curriculum. In order to realise this, it is essential that learners have access to a wide range of high-quality resources that complement the curriculum.

It should be clear now that according to the Saskatchewan Ministry of Education (2013:4), learning resources play a significant role in shaping learners' views about themselves and the world. Therefore, it is important that these resources portray respect and dignity for both genders, for those in specific cultural groups, for people with varying physical and intellectual abilities, for people of various ages, and for people of differing sexual orientation.

In fact, classroom interaction is an essential part of enhancing communication competence. Therefore, verbal practice should be encouraged in order to enrich learners' vocabulary to enable them to communicate in the target language. In reality there are several challenges such as limited exposure, lack of practice opportunities, and lack of confidence. The early work by Dam (1998:31) suggests the following that facilitate effective classroom interaction activities:

3.2.2.1   The organisation of the classroom

The classroom seating should be organised in a way that learners can face each other and allow them to feel that they are on the same level. The seating should also enable the learners to take part in the activities in a collaborative and cooperative manner. In fact, Nunan (1999:83) affirms that learners seated in groups become skilled at cooperating with others, and express their own opinions, ideas, and feelings guided by the teacher. They also learn how to solve language problems in a systematic way and decide what language to use in the different situations that their teacher presents in the class, according to Nunan. Likewise, Dam (1998:31) suggests that learners are seated in groups of four to six, which means that each learner faces three to five peers and all of them face the teacher. This has a number of advantages, like quick discussions and exchange of views within a group; learner activity and peer tutoring; individual learner involvement and support as it is less threatening to talk in a small group than in an open forum; and the possibility of transferring focus from the teacher (traditionally, 'the entertainer') to the participants, and thus facilitates learner-learner interpretation. The lesson plan should be designed in the way to suit the organisation of the classroom that has been discussed above.

3.2.2.2 The structure of a lesson plan

The lesson plan, according to Dam (1998:33), should encourage the development of pair, group, and whole class interaction. It should explicitly issue unambiguous instructions to the learners. In summing up, Dam (1998) further points out that the lesson plan should clearly indicate: the teacher's responsibility, the learner's responsibility and should allow the opportunity for a joint session where learners can share their experiences and the knowledge they have gained. So therefore, the lesson plan should also give the teacher an opportunity to reflect back on what needs to be clarified as learners share their experiences concerning the lesson. Furthermore, the lesson plan should specify the resources to be utilised during the lesson, as has been indicated in the preceding part of this chapter, so that learners could have access to high-quality resources that complement the curriculum; therefore, the selection of resources should be authentic for interaction to take place.

3.3   INTERACTIVE ACTIVITIES

Gosh (2010:1) describes interactive activities as discussion, storytelling, role play, reading aloud and debates. Having been in class and having experienced these daily activities that stimulate classroom interaction in EFAL it can be stated that these activities could cover most of the EFAL curriculum. Furthermore, the researcher's observations were that learners attempt to speak the target language spontaneously as the activities allow them to interact freely with their peers as they construct their own ideas.

Firstly, the discussion becomes a key to introduce the lesson. Secondly, during the lesson if possible or necessary, discussion also has an effect of probing whether the learners do follow the lesson. Finally, in concluding the lesson, discussion also can occur to clarify what has been learnt during the lesson.

3.3.1   Discussion

3.3.1.1   Introduction

Buchanan (2011:19) is of the same idea as Parker (2003), stating that discussion is classroom discourse which is shared between two or more individuals; it may include multiple perspectives and may not include the teacher. Buchanan furthers the idea that discussion creates a unique location for learners to develop their own ideas and learn from each other.

3.3.1.2   Discussion at the beginning of the lesson

In the researcher's opinion, it is crucial to begin each interactive activity, if possible, with a discussion because learners have inner knowledge which needs to be activated by being given opportunities to expose it. In doing so, the teacher would be examining what the learners already know about the lesson to be introduced and also to encourage the learners to play an active role in the forthcoming lesson. The study of Bolgaz (2005 cited in Buchanan 2011:19) upholds the above argument by stating that classroom discussion includes assessing what the learners know. Hess (2009; Buchanan 2011) add that discussion also scaffolds the skills that learners need to enter and share.

3.3.1.3   Discussion during the lesson

Again, during the course of the lesson, depending on the type of the activity that takes place in the lesson, the teacher might invite discussion again to reinforce the learners' knowledge. For instance, during reading aloud, a pause can be introduced to discuss the learners' feelings about a certain idea that occurred while the reading took place. In fact, Tereblanche (2002 cited in Queini, Bhous & Nabhani 2008:142) declare that involving learners actively while reading the story aloud helps improve comprehension and engagement.

3.3.1.4 Discussion at the end of the lesson

At the end of the lesson a brief discussion of what has been learnt can take place also to reassess whether it has been understood or to clarify, or to correct some issues which cropped up during the lesson. Sipe (n.d:1) also presents her views of concluding a lesson by a quick review to remind learners what they have learnt or what they should have learnt. Sipe illustrates that closure allows learners to summarise main ideas, evaluate the class processes, answer questions posed at the beginning of the lesson, and link to both past and future. She also adds that closure helps the teacher to decide if additional practice is needed, whether the teacher needs to re-teach, and whether the teacher can move to the next part of the lesson. Tereblanche (2002; Queini *et al.* 2008) adds that post-reading discussions encourage learners to link the story events with their own experiences. Thus, discussion is an interactive activity that can enhance communicative competence in the additional language.

3.3.1.5 Concluding remarks

It has been shown that discussion at the beginning of the lesson is of vital importance for classroom interaction in EFAL as it assesses what the learners already know and during the lesson, discussion reinforces the learners' knowledge. At the end of the lesson, discussion clarifies what has been taught or learnt.

3.3.2 Storytelling

3.3.2.1 Introduction

Every day we hear, tell, read and write stories. These stories are categorised according to our understanding. Some hurt and some bring joy. After hearing a story, you think deeply about it and get another perspective of life depending on your interpretation. We are surrounded by these stories and we cannot live without listening, telling, reading and writing them. Stories are the source of conversation because whatever you say comes from the imagination based on what you have seen, heard, read and even written.

Learners also hear stories from their teachers and peers in every day as they attend school. They also tell stories to their teachers and peers. Early work by Prentice (1998:97) affirms that telling stories to and with children can help them to discover themselves. He therefore argues that learners can rehearse feelings and situations, and indirectly prepare for the challenges and conflicts which lie ahead and which, invariably, feature in good stories. Prentice adds that children can experience alien and hostile worlds within the safety of being a listener or reader. They can discover people, times and places that differ from their familiar contexts and thereby broaden their understanding and their imagination. As stories are learners' daily experiences, so telling stories in the target language could increase their vocabulary and prepares them for communicative competence in their additional language.

- **Etymology**

The word 'story' is defined by Brotchie (2002:4) as it comes from the Anglo-French *estorie*, which is related to Greek *historia* which means 'learning by inquiry, history, and itself derives from *history*, a person who knows or sees'. Brotchie adds that this etymology reveals a basic function of storytelling, that is to learn, and not by rote, but by engaging the audience so that questions can be raised in the audience's mind and subsequently answered by them through telling the story. Therefore, we learn by inquiry as opposed to learning by rote. In this study, learning by inquiry comprises interacting with others in the learning environment to achieve the learning goal. Furthermore, Brotchie clarifies that during story time, the audience is able to have an experience that expands their horizons and potentially enables them to learn and grow.

Similarly, Ma (1994 cited in Fitzgibbon & Wilhelm 1998:25) describes storytelling pedagogy as multi-vocal and interactive between teacher and learner. The author emphasises that classroom learning is viewed as a process of continual recreation of stories by the instructor and learners, rather than the injection of conventional knowledge into learners' minds. Finally, the author advances that storytelling is a pedagogy that promotes pluralistic thinking amongst learners and teachers.

In fact, pluralistic, interactive, collaborative classrooms are defined by Fitzgibbon and Wilhelm (1998:26) as reflecting a teaching/learning philosophy which values learner control and positive feelings of worth. Then furthering this view, Fitzgibbon and Wilhelm (1998) conclude that storytelling is thought to be beneficial in part because it fosters teacher-learner collaboration, learner-centred models, and more pluralistic approaches to instruction. In addition, Ma (1994 cited in Fitzgibbon & Wilhelm 1998) agrees that the benefit of storytelling is to enhance pluralistic instruction in learners since a lesson centres on learner interaction, stories and thoughts.

Since the learning is centred on the learners, subsequently the learner's belief leads to his or her own interpretation and personalising of the story. Fitzgibbon and Wilhelm (1998:26) substantiates that the personalised learning style of each learner may be more readily accommodated when using stories during learning as storytelling allows for personalised interpretations and visualisations of the content.

3.3.2.2   Background knowledge

In teaching, background knowledge is an important factor when introducing a new matter to learners. The researcher used to find out the extent of learners knowledge about what was about to be introduced. Then the discussion would lead her towards the introduction by linking the information the learners already have about the new subject. Certainly, from Fitzgibbon and Wilhelm (1998)'s viewpoint, storytelling is regarded as an effective means by which to activate and build upon learner background knowledge and experiences, or schemata. Vacca and Vacca (1989 cited in Fitzgibbon & Wilhelm 1998:28) believe that comprehension involves the linking of what the reader already knows to a new message. They further explain that if new ideas and concepts are taught within the context of a story, the chance of a learner understanding the material will likely be improved since the learner can experience an array of familiar details while also being introduced to a new concept.

According to Liston (1994:8) learning is based on previous learning and that unless new information is related to pre-existing learner interest and knowledge, there will be no point of entry, no previously established neural network onto which learners can connect or hang new extensions. Alternatively, accessing the internal state

allows the learner to more readily interact with the new or external material being presented. Liston further concludes that a story can thus promote learner interaction and reaction to the concepts being taught.

The researchers, Cortazzi and Jin (2007 cited in Nguyen, Stanley & Stanley 2014:30), tracked the progress of a group of young additional language learners who were using keyboards and story maps to tell and retell simple stories, both in their first and additional language. They concluded that the additional language learners benefited from telling their personal stories. Likewise, scholars like Essig (2005; Nguyen *et al.* 2014) report that the sharing of personal stories can have a positive impact on language learning.

Learners like it when they are given an opportunity to voice their own stories. The researcher used to watch her learners' reaction during story time. They could not wait for the researcher to finish the story as they wanted to tell theirs. The researcher's realisation was that most of learners like telling stories have self-confidence and their language improved as they repeatedly told their own stories. They would tell stories they heard, things that had happened to them, and retell familiar stories such as *Cinderella*. In most cases their stories just came quite naturally. Bertrand and Stice (2002:91) assert that enhancing learners' sense of story and their self-confidence as performers, aid in developing the whole child. They further explain that those two areas are simultaneously supported when children are encouraged to tell stories.

A need to develop learners' communicative competence in EFAL for the market place has challenged teachers to cultivate knowledge of the target language and bring the practice of the real world into the classroom. Storytelling is one of authentic methods that can promote and foster natural communication, allowing learners to experience authentic language contributions. Pesola (1991 cited in Fitzgibbon & Wilhelm 1998) describes storytelling in additional language classrooms as one of the most powerful tools for surrounding the young learner with language.

Authentic material, as described by Little, Devitt and Singleton (1988:27) and supported by Quariento and Morley (2001:347) is material created to fulfil some

social purpose in the language community in which it is produced. Exposing learners to the language of the real world might help them to acquire communication competence in the target language. Wilkins (1976 cited in Quariento and Morley 2001:347) elucidates the above-mentioned statement by indicating that the use of authentic texts, embracing both written and spoken word, helps to bridge the gap between classroom knowledge and a learners' capacity in real world events.

According to Quariento and Morley's (2001) point of view, the use of authentic texts is now considered to be one way of maintaining or increasing learners' motivation for learning. Additionally, the use of authentic texts give the learner the feeling that he or she is learning the real language, that they are in touch with a living entity, the target language, as it is used by the community which speaks it. Quariento and Morley (2001) support that a task might be said to be authentic if it has a clear relationship with world needs.

As a result, storytelling in the classroom is about making stories alive through the interaction between teacher and the learners and between learners and learners. Prentice (1998:97) mentions that the more teachers tell stories to learners, the better they become at learning how to capture the learners' attention with the tone of voice, facial expressions and body language. In addition, Prentice states that learners are constantly making sense of their world through stories, or relating their own experiences or fears to those found in stories. Holderness (1998:158) adds to the above by stating that we need to provide reality and visual support during stories or whole class sessions. It is important to use voice, facial expression and mime, but mostly important are visual supports, for instance, cutting out pictures and pasting them on the flannel board.

Proponents of storytelling such as Fitzgibbon and Wilhelm (1998) and Rinvolucri (2008) appreciate storytelling as an old and respected technique in additional language that helps provide a rich source of materials for language classrooms. Krashen (1982 cited in Fitzgibbon & Wilhelm 1998:25) substantiates that learners develop both fluency and accuracy in an additional language as a result of a large amount of comprehensible material. Quariento and Morley (2001:348) are in support of Fitzgibbon and Wilhelm (1998) that demonstrates that learners' own stories are a

rich source of authentic material, which provides a genuine purpose, emphasises real world goals, fosters classroom interaction, and promotes engagement. They claim that the authenticity of the material increases learners' motivation and desire to learn in education.

3.3.2.3   Organising storytelling in the classroom

The suggestion made by Hinds (1995 cited in Fitzgibbon & Wilhelm 1998:21) is that teachers first select and introduce the story, then encourage learners to create their own interpretations, working in small groups to perform the story. Learners thus communicate and work together to accomplish their task. As telling stories or narrating is human being's nature, it becomes easy for learners to freely share their experience in the form of storytelling. The stories presented should always be in line with the theme of that particular period in order to encompass the ideas that will be constructed to have productive understanding of a particular focus.

Overall, if there is enough space in the classroom, teachers may establish a place for storytelling where the visualisation will not be distracted or can be assisted by some artefact. It also relaxes the learners' minds when they are in an environment that supports their learning.

3.3.2.4   Benefits of storytelling

According to Brotchie (2002:4) stories can have a variety of functions: These functions include escapism and entertainment, the forging of personal or cultural identity and self-confidence, personal growth and development, and inculcating values or morals or political propaganda. Therefore, Duff and Maley (1990; Lockett 2011) maintain that stories are open to multiple interpretations and opinions bringing about genuine interaction and participation in the classroom.

Teachers should be storytellers, as advocated by Pedersen (1995 cited in Fitzgibbon & Wilhelm 1998), and storytelling is a pedagogical method, especially when working with EFAL learners. Therefore, Morgan and Rinvolucri (1983 cited in Fitzgibbon & Wilhelm 1998:21) support the teacher's use of stories as introduction to listening

comprehension activities and prompts for written comprehension questions. Fitzgibbon and Wilhelm (1998:21) also advise that after stories are told by the teacher, learners should be asked to retell the story to practice speaking or to recall details and sequence. Consequently, learners' recognition and understanding of a story enhances their abilities to comprehend and recall information, as well as helping them in their own efforts as readers and writers of the target language.

Furthermore, Lockett (2011:5) contributes that teachers who use storytelling in the classroom can also introduce children to great literature they otherwise might miss. Learners may be inspired to read the book relating the story they were told or read the books of the same author. Troutdale (1990 cited in Lockett 2011:5) also shows that storytelling offers learners many opportunities to write and provides scaffolding on which learners can build their own stories.

Storytelling in the EFAL classes has been shown to enhance the four language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing according to Atta-Alla (2012; Nguyen *et al.* 2014). Thus, the learner is developed in totality when stories are told. Advocates of storytelling such as Carrell (1984; Livo & Rietz 1987; Tsou 2012) claim that storytelling in teaching and studying additional language includes increased development of language skills, improved comprehension and classroom interaction. Woodhouse (2008 cited in Duveskog, Tedre, Sedano & Sutinen 2012) assert that learners can use storytelling to explore personal roles and make sense of their lives.

The activation of prior knowledge and experiences (schemata) through storytelling has been found by Fitzgibbon and Wilhelm (1998:27) to enhance language comprehension and improve retention of information and concepts. They further conclude that learners' recognition and understanding of a story similarly enhances their abilities to comprehend and recall information, as well as helping them in their own efforts as readers and writers of the target language. In addition, storytelling when used effectively requires that learners draw upon their abilities to organise, evaluate, and interpret information.

Using storytelling increases learners' interests, which allows learners to become engaged with the use of the additional language. Personal engagement is increased

when learners relate their own stories in meaningful ways. Learners and teachers always find the process enjoyable and entertaining since storytelling provides variety as an instruction activity (Nguyen *et al.* 2014:29).

Cooper (1993 cited in Fitzgibbon & Wilhelm 1998:21) claims that the educational advantages of storytelling are both affective and linguistic. Likewise Morgan and Rinvolucri (1983 cited in Fitzgibbon & Wilhelm 1998:21) concur that as stories are told, affective filters come down and language acquisition takes place more naturally. In that respect, Fitzgibbon and Wilhelm (1998:21) add that affective benefits include helping the learners to develop emotionally and socially. Cooper (1993 cited in Fitzgibbon & Wilhelm 1998:23) concludes that the affective benefit of learners sharing stories is the generation of intergroup trust, which in turn fosters greater freedom to learn.

Linguistic benefits proposed by Cooper (1983 cited in Fitzgibbon & Wilhelm 1998) are that learners who regularly hear and share stories become more intimate with the language, developing, expanding, and increasing language skills while interacting and communicating. Furthermore, Morgan and Rinvollucri (1983 cited in Fitzgibbon & Wilhelm 1998:23) mention linguistic benefits such as improved listening comprehension, grammar presented in true-to-life contexts, and numerous opportunities to encourage oral production. The benefits Petersen (1995 cited in Fitzgibbon & Wilhelm 1998:23) found in telling EFAL learners stories were that listening skills were developed and more natural and complete language input was possible.

According to Nguyen *et al.* (2014:29), storytelling helps learners to develop and improve their living skills, leads to community building, a harmonious atmosphere, creativity, and multicultural understanding among learners in the classroom. Woodhouse (2008 cited in Duveskog *et al.* 2012) believes that learners can use the storytelling to share stories of success and develop a sense of community. Hemenover (2003 cited in Nguyen *et al.* 2014:29) found that learners' psychological stress can be decreased and a resilient self-image can also be fostered by sharing personal stories in a safe and trusting environment in the classroom.

Overall, we live in a multicultural environment. Teachers are faced with the challenge sensitively handling the doctrines of different cultures. As a remedy, Holt and Mooney (1994 cited in Fitzgibbon & Wilhelm 1998:24) indicate the importance of stories to teach multiculturalism: stories of our similarities and differences, our strengths and weaknesses, our hopes and dreams. The authors illustrate that stories have power to teach us tolerance. Hinds (1995 cited in Fitzgibbon & Wilhelm 1998:23) also found that the storytelling helped as a means to connect natural experiences. Common experiences in different cultures were often discovered as learners worked with multicultural stories. Hinds reiterated Campbell's (1987 cited in Fitzgibbon & Wilhelm 1998:23) observation that universal themes are exposed in the myths and legends from all cultures.

The researcher also used storytelling as a means of helping diverse cultural learners to better understand other cultures during her teaching era. The researcher remembers two Chinese learners in her class who had very limited English. It was time for storytelling and learners told stories of their countries and the way they celebrate their holidays. These two learners were excited to tell what happens in their country and as they got stuck speaking the target language, they used gestures and drew symbols on the board to try to explain their story. They became excited when telling stories about their country and compared their holidays with those of South Africans. Pedersen (1995 cited in Fitzgibbon & Wilhelm 1998:23) implies that stories help to communicate literary and cultural heritage while also helping better develop a sense of rhetorical structure which assists in the study of literature. Pedersen further explains that stories enable EFAL learners to experience the power of real language of personal communication; unlike the usual 'teacherese' of the additional language classroom, the full range of language is present in stories.

Researchers like Maley and Wright (1995; Fitzgibbon & Wilhelm 1998; Wojciechowicz 2003; Nicholas, Rossiter & Abbott 2011; Yang 2011; Nguyen *et al.* 2014) believe that stories can be used to teach different contents: English vocabulary, oral English, and grammar. Fitzgibbon and Wilhelm (1998:25) proceed telling that stories allow the natural and enjoyable repetition of words and phrases. As repetition occurs, learners are able to grasp the correct grammatical usage of the language.

Storytelling and reading aloud to learners are good tools to help learners improve their vocabulary. Along with the increase of vocabulary comes an increase in the ability to comprehend the meaning of the spoken word and improvement in reading comprehension. In their position paper on teaching storytelling, the National Council of Teachers and English in the USA (NCTE) (1992 cited in Lockett 2011:3) state that listeners encounter both familiar and new language patterns through a story. When young learners hear stories, their language skills and comprehension improves. The findings of Isbell, Sobol, Lindauer and Lawrence (2004 cited in Lockett 2011:3) show that children ages three to five benefited both by being read to and through being told stories. They also assert that the group who heard the stories however, experienced greater comprehension as demonstrated in their retelling of the stories.

Cliatt and Shaw (1988 cited in Lockett 2011:4) argue that the relationship of storytelling and successful children's literacy development is well established while NCTE (1992 cited in Lockett 2011:4) also asserts that learners learn new words or new contexts, and that storytelling provides an opportunity for learners to expand their vocabulary as they decode the meaning of words, based on the context of the story they hear or read. Stories are valued as providing comprehensible input that facilitates language acquisition, according to Hendrickson (1992 cited in Fitzgibbon & Wilhelm 1998:21).

The acknowledgement of Lockett (2011:4) is that in many instances the learners do not have good role models at home or in the community where they can hear language being used properly. So, storytelling offers them the chance to hear language patterns to which they may not have previously encountered. In Strategies for Increasing Achievement in reading and Educating Everybody's Children (1995 cited in Lockett 2011:4), the authors tell how sharing stories aloud to young people provides good reading models that serve to improve learners' reading accuracy, fluency and comprehension. Additionally, the two documents approve this form of modelling because it is particularly important for young people with limited knowledge of English and for those who have heard little or no experience listening to written English.

In fact, the excitement of storytelling can make reading and learning fun and can instil a sense of wonder about life and learning, according to Bendt and Bowe (2000 cited in Lockett 2011:4). This has led to the conclusions that storytelling has a demonstrable, measurable, positive, and irreplaceable value in teaching. Woodhouse (2008 cited in Duveskog *et al.* 2012) is of the opinion that the use of imagination in stories can help to enhance recall, retention, application of concepts in new situations, creative imagination and concentrates the mind. In addition, Hanson (2004 cited in Lockett 2011:3) mentions that storytelling is at least as effective as reading aloud for language art development. When the learner is able to use the language artistically, he or she has the advantage of attaining communicative competence in the target language.

Coles (1989 cited in Lockett 2011:2) adds that storytelling raises enthusiasm for learning new subject matter. At the same time, studies have shown that reading aloud and storytelling to learners for a minimum of 15 minutes each day can help at-risk learners progress in listening and reading comprehension, and in Mathematics application (solving story problems).

Craig, Hull, Haggard and Crowder (2001:47) state that oral stories help children acquire the context of literacy, while Woodhouse (2008; Duveskog *et al.* 2012) uphold that storytelling maintains the oral tradition. Bendt and Bowe (2000 cited in Lockett 2011:2) found that oral storytelling provides learners with a means to improve speaking and listening skills.

Simmon (1983 cited in Lockett 2011:2) stresses that storytelling helps to expand children's curiosity and extends their language and communication skills. Additionally, storytelling can provide direct instruction in sequencing, cause and effect. Lockett agrees with Simmon by further indicating that teachers can use appropriate pauses during the telling to encourage learners to make predictions and allow the learners to verify their predictions as the story continues.

Youth Educators and Storytellers (2006 cited in Lockett 2011:6) agree that storytelling can be used for content area instruction. In all academic areas, storytelling enlivens the delivery of curriculum, accelerates and enhances curriculum

learning and engages learners. In conclusion, Shanahan (1997; Fitzgibbon & Wilhelm 1998) pronounces that the effective loading inherent in language can be turned to learners' advantage by building on learner success.

3.3.2.5 Drawbacks of storytelling

Despite the benefits, the drawbacks of storytelling have been highlighted by several researchers and for this study the opinion of Woodhouse (2008; Duveskog *et al.* 2012; Nguyen *et al.* 2014) has been summarised as follows:

The preparation for storytelling takes time; learners require a safe environment and may feel uncomfortable to share their stories; topics may challenge personal values and therefore can be threatening; learners may need directions and guidance at various stages of storytelling; storytelling requires visualisation skills and may not suite everyone's learning style.

The biggest drawback to the storytelling may be learners' lack of trust in the teacher and their peers. This can happen if the teacher has not yet developed a sense of trust in learners and they are not assured that the classroom is a place where everybody's opinion is welcomed and learners learn from their mistakes and also that everybody is protected. Again, learners' beliefs are not the same and they have different perspectives so that some topics might put some learners in a dilemma. As learners' learning is diverse, some might take time to catch up and will need regular guidance and this might change the initial meaning of the story. So it is important for teachers to consider diverse learning means in using storytelling.

3.3.2.6 Concluding remarks

In this interactive activity, constructivism theories play an important role in storytelling as learners learn by constructing their own knowledge as they express their feelings from their own, told, read and written stories. Since the EFAL teacher models the target language, the influence of teacher-efficacy also can affect the learners' self-efficacy negatively or positively. Overall, Shamali (2011; Lockett 2011) emphasise that an English teacher's imaginative, creative and innovative and telling stories in

the English language can surely assist to make the process of teaching and learning more motivating, interesting, interactive and effective. Lastly, Dun (1990 cited in Lockett 2011:9) concludes by indicating that when teachers can capture learners' enthusiasm by the way in which they present lessons, teachers can lay a foundation for a lifelong interest in the English language.

3.3.3   Role-play

3.3.3.1   Introduction

Like storytelling, role-play is perceived as an essential tool for classroom interaction in EFAL to enhance communication competence. After telling the story, to consolidate the learners learning, learners can be guided on how to bring the story into the play. This act can strengthen the understanding of what has been said, told, read and written in the story. The action, also demonstrates the link between the storytelling and the role-playing.

The study conducted by Bertrand and Stice (2002:94) shows that role-playing offers ways for learners to present their understanding of a story, character and plot development, or emotions in literature. Thus, the story lesson presented previously can be instilled, stressed and solidified by means of role-playing. Learners can rehearse their favourite stories by role-playing and this can provide a great opportunity for classroom interaction in the target language as learners demonstrate their understanding.

- **Definition of a role-play**

Early work by Van Ments (1983:15) defines role-play as a particular type of simulation that focuses attention on the interaction of people with one another. It emphasises the functions performed by different people under various circumstances. Van Ments (1983:21) further adds that role-play can be used at different levels to teach simple skills of communication, to show how people interact and their stereotyping of others, and to explore deep personal blocks and emotions.

The idea of role-play, in Van Ments's (1983) view, is that of asking someone to imagine that they are either themselves or another person in a particular situation. In role-play one is practising a set of behaviours which is considered appropriate to a particular role whilst the idea of role-play is to give learners the opportunity to practice interacting with others in certain roles, according to Van Ments (1983:20). Therefore, role-play is one of a unique group of experiential teaching techniques which help the learners to cope with the idea of uncertainty.

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000:370) define role-play as participation in simulated social situations that are intended to throw light upon the role/rule contexts governing real life social episodes. However, Al-Senaidi (n.d:67) in accord with Al-Matuwa and Kailani (1989:29) perceive role-play as a technique that affords an opportunity to practice a new structure in the context of natural communicative usage.

Role-play can be in the form of taking the role of another character or playing yourself, real or imagined (Clipson-Boyles 1998; Van Ments 1999). In addition, Van Ments (1978 cited in Cohen *et al.* 2000:370) acknowledges that role-play is an aspect of simulation and its uses are developing sensitivity and awareness by building a deeper understanding of the point of view and feelings of someone who finds him or herself in a particular role. It provides study material for group members on the ways in which roles are created and the trying out in one's mind in advance of some new situation that one has to face.

The comments mentioned above, justify that role-play can bring enjoyable real life or imagined situations into the classroom by providing learners opportunities to interact with their peers, simulating what they experienced or imagined in their lives. The participation leads learners to construct their own learning by expressing their feelings in the form of demonstrating a real or imagined situation. By exposing learners to simulations like role-play, they become aware of their environment and the value of their existence.

As the learners verbally practice their roles imagining or playing someone's role using a target language it results in a deeper sense of language practice. In this way,

learners do not concentrate on the form of language usage but on delivering the message, since Bertrand and Stice (2002:94) insist that role-playing knows no language barriers. In addition, Bertrand and Stice suggest that role-playing may be unrehearsed or result in a complete theatrical production with scripts, props, costumes, and scenery.

The researcher agrees with Al-Senaidi (n.d; Livingstone 1983; Lucantoni 2002) as they stress that role-play can be an enjoyable classroom activity that gives learners the opportunity to practice the language they may need outside the classroom, improves communication competence and provides practice in contexts which stimulate real-life experience.

3.3.3.2   Background and knowledge

In his study, Clipson-Boyles (1998:114) explains that we are not in business of training children to be actors in primary education. However, we should aim to provide meaningful interactive context for learning, and role-play is an appropriate and effective medium for that purpose. Livingstone (1983; Van Ments 1999 cited in Al-Senaidi n.d:66) agrees that role-play increases learners' motivation and involvement in the learning process. Van Ments adds that the role-play lends itself well to mixed ability groups and that it provides learners with opportunity to practice and develop communication strategies. Therefore, role-play can also be a catalyst of enhancing learners' communication competence if employed according to learners' needs.

According to Beraldi (2009:51), by using role-play in the classroom, learners develop their social and linguistic competence as well as speaking and listening skills. Learners grow in the capacity to engage in increasingly complex and creative communicative situations. Burke and Sullivan (2002 cited in Beraldi 2009:51) observed that it is in classes that use role-play where a greater number of learners become more confident and fluent. Furthermore, Beraldi (2009:51) maintains that those learners, who interact in social settings, are able to make mistakes, rearrange concepts, and try out new or revisited ideas.

In fact, Larsen-Freeman (1986; Edwards 1999 cited in Al-Senaidi n.d:67) concur that the role-plays, whether structured or less structured, are important in the communicative approach because they give learners an opportunity to practice communicating in different social contexts and in different social roles.

3.3.3.3 Types of role-play

The study on the topic by Van Ments (1983:51) illustrates that role-play is a type of communication and different types of role-play demand different approaches. If the wrong approach is used or the learners do not receive the support they need, they may become confused. She adds that the important distinction must be made between those dealing with the practice of skills and techniques and those dealing with emotions. An example of the first might be the training of interviewers and salesmen and the second dealing with changes in understanding, feelings and attitudes. She continues by indicating as an example of the latter that it might be an exploration of the implications of being a member of a minority group or an attempt to increase the learners' understanding of the way in which groups behave, or the study of bargaining behaviour. Accordingly, there are many ways of approaching role-play but the most two common used techniques are fish bowl and multiple approaches (Van Ments 1983:105).

- **Fish bowl**

In this technique as demonstrated by Van Ments (1983:105), the principal players meet each other in the centre of the room and are observed by the other members of the class who sit in a circle around them. Then, the subsidiary characters enter from the periphery of the stage and return there when their part is done. She further denotes the term *fish bowl* as the idea of one group portraying the action whilst another group observes.

On one hand, Van Ments (1983:107) shows that fish bowl differentiates between the protagonists and the audience or observers, and also allows those who for one reason or another do not want to take part, to detach themselves from the action. In

addition, Van Ments shows that is also a very convenient form where detailed observation is required since all observers can get a good view of what is going on.

On the other hand, Van Ments (1983:107) confirms that this technique stresses the artificiality of the situation and lends credence to those who judge role-play to be nothing more than an opportunity for extrovert and amateur theatrical buff. Those who are asked to take part in a role-play for the first time are usually nervous of doing so. Finally, the effect of using the fish bowl technique is to restrict the enactment of each role to one person thus denying others the opportunity of trying out how it feels (Van Ments 1983:107).

- **Multiple technique**

Van Ments (1983:107) considers the multiple technique as an alternative approach. She indicates that in this technique the class is split up into a number of small groups of two or three learners and each group enacts the role-play at the same time. In other words a number of identical role-plays take place in parallel. The small groups may consist of just the players, or may include observers. Furthermore, the classic way of using this method is where the class wants to explore the interaction between two people in either formal or informal interviews. There may, therefore, be two players and one observer in each group (Van Ments 1983:107).

The argument Van Ments (1983:107) raises with this technique is the players feel less embarrassed and exposed and can come to terms with an interaction which is only seen by one or possibly two of their classmates. In addition, it also enables a number of different interpretations to be tried out simultaneously and can therefore take less time. Van Ments (1983:108) suggests that, after everyone's role-play has finished, the class can meet to exchange experiences and draw on the range of things that took place. She continues showing the main disadvantage of this technique as that no two people will have observed the same role-play and it is difficult to check on exactly what happened and why.

Overall, multiple technique according to Van Ments (1983:110) allows the players sufficient leeway to inject their own thoughts and ideas into the action, nobody forces

the players to work within a tight script. As a result, the need to invent will always be present in well-written role-play.

3.3.3.4 Organising a role-play in the classroom

The latest research by Nickerson (2007-8:2-3) recommends the careful setting of role-play in the classroom. Nickerson suggests that if the class had never done one before, it is wise to start small and give the activity a clear structure. He explains that at first it will take time to set it up less so when the class has had more experience with role-playing. As has been indicated, written roles help learners to understand their character. In this respect Nickerson further advises that each learner has to receive a copy of his/her role describing specifically what his/her character's goals and intentions are, in order to behave accordingly. In addition, it is advisable for each player to see only a description of his or her character.

Nickerson further indicates that when first using role-play in a class, it is advisable to involve everyone at first, so that no one feels singled out. So, instead of asking for volunteers, divide the whole class into trios in which two in each group are players and the third is an observer. Then, give specific guidelines for the observers. He gives an example of a community board meeting role-play involving several stakeholders with written guidelines that may include: What goals does (character name) have? List your evidence... What the character says or does.

In addition, Nickerson carries on by stating that without specific guidelines, learners won't know what to observe. As you will want to focus them on issues related to your goals for their learning, much of the learning will come from their feedback and participation during reflection time after the role-play. Learners should be prepared for what to look for; teachers should increase learners' observation and deepen the learning that occurs in the process.

Furthermore, Nickerson suggests that, once trios have gone through the role-play once, roles should be switched so that the observers get a chance to experience the role-play and role-players have the chance to observe. Or trios could be asked to talk about what they learnt from doing the exercise, among themselves at first, and

then in the large group. In addition, when the class is familiar with role-play, try asking for volunteers to be players and observers. Finally, Nickerson advises to end the role-play as soon as the learning objective has been met and after the role-play ends, to be sensitive towards any person who had not succeeded in his or her role.

Van Ments's (1983) opinion is that role-play can be used as subject introduction, follow-up, to provide a break from routine of the classroom where it serves the purpose of relaxing tension, changing direction, establishing a different atmosphere in the classroom or different relationship between teachers and learners. Additionally, it can also be used to summarise what has been taught or revising as is one of the most motivating activities.

The following diagram is taken from Van Ments (1983:43) and illustrates how to use a role-play in the classroom.

```
┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│         Set objectives          │
│   Decide on how to integrate    │
│     with teaching programme     │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
                │
                ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│   Determine external constraints │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
                │
                ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│   List critical factors of the problem │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
                │
                ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│      Decide on type of structure │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
                │
                ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│  Choose package or write briefs/material │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
                │
                ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│               /                 │
│          Run session            │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
                │
                ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│            Debrief              │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
                │
                ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│           Follow up             │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
```
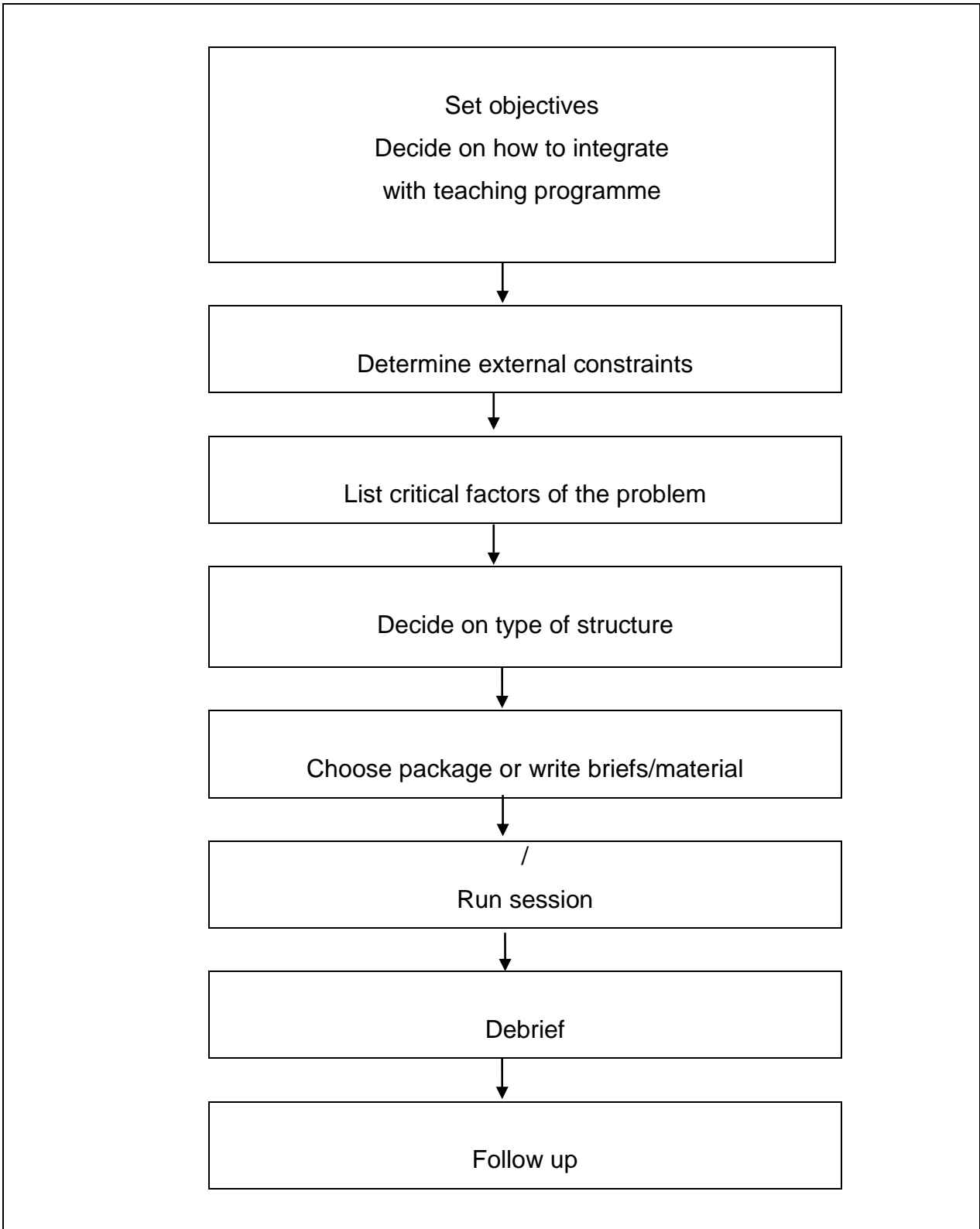
Figure 3.1: A flow chart for using role-play

Source: Van Ments (1983)

- **Setting objectives**

In relation to teaching by means of role-play, the idea of Cohen *et al.* (2000) is that teachers should ask themselves what exactly their intentions are in teaching by means of this technique. These authors indicate that Van Ments suggests several ways in which the role-play can be fitted into the time table and identify the following ways: as an introduction to the subjects; as a means of supplementing or following on from a point that is being explored; as the focal point of a course or a unit of work; as a break from routine of the classroom; as a way of summarising or integrating diverse subject matter; as a way of reviewing or revising a topic; as a means of assessing work.

In preparation of the role-play, Lucantoni (2002:51) suggests that learners may need to be introduced to key vocabulary and expressions they will be able to use. Role cards or cue cards, as Bygate (1987 cited in Lucantoni 2002:51) suggests, can be provided to learners to explain the roles they will be taking on. Then, according to Lucantoni (2002:51) learners should be given enough time to read any necessary information and to formulate their ideas. During role-plays, Al-Saadat and Afifi (1997 cited in Al-Senaidi n.d:68) advises teachers to encourage learners and reassure them that no penalties will be imposed on them for hesitation or mistakes.

- **Determining external constraints**

Rehearsing a role-play in the class can mostly be time consuming. Van Ments (1983:44) recommends that teachers should consider at an early stage the factors which may inhibit or completely prevent the smooth running of role-play. Van Ments, (1983; Cohen *et al.* 2000) identifies aspects such as suitable room or space (size, layout, furniture, etc.); sufficient time for warm up; running the actual role-play and debriefing; and availability of assistance to help run the session.

- **Critical factors**

The advice that Van Ments (1983:46), supported by Cohen *et al.* (2000:376), gives to teachers is that they must look at the critical issues involved in the problem area encompassed by the role-play and decide who has power to influence those issues as well as who is affected by the decisions to be taken. Choosing or writing the role-play.

Existing role-plays according to Cohen *et al.* (2000:376) can of course be adapted by teachers to their own particular circumstances and needs. In this case, Cameron (2001:30) adds that role-plays, like any other activities, should be appropriate for the learners' socio-cultural experience. Cameron expands by emphasising that the role-play should be interesting, exciting and motivating. Furthermore, Al-Senaidi (n.d:68) states that role-plays should create a context where learners pay more attention to the message than to the accuracy of their language.

Moreover, Van Ments (1983:85) insists that role-description should be short and written clearly on cards. Players should be asked to learn their roles; in some cases may have a brief opportunity to practice their roles and then the written description may be abandoned. Van Ments (1983:85) insists that players should be taught that they should not consult their cards once they have started the role-play. Seeing that an authentic role-play has to be chosen, Van Ments (1983:69) suggests a checklist for choosing a role-play or checking the suitability of an existing one. The checklist is given below.

- Does the chosen type match the objectives of the exercise?

- Can the learners cope with the demands made of them?

- Is the debriefing session structured in accordance with the chosen type?

- What would happen if one of the characters was deliberately changed?

- Are the sources suitable for this type of role-play?

- Will the role-play expose personal feelings too much

- Is there any way of simplifying the scenario?

- Are roles all defined in a similar way?

- Is role-play the best way of achieving the purpose?

Figure 3.2: Checklist for choosing a role-play

Source: Van Ments (1983)

- **Writing the learner's roles**

The characters in a role-play serve a number of purposes. Van Ments (1983:81-112) suggests that the role-play should have the following participants:

➢ Key roles - The main characters, the protagonists, are the ones who provide both the central problems and an opportunity for the role-players to exercise their skills. Van Ments explains that, if there are two sides to the issue being explored, then the other principal role-player is called the antagonist. She further explains that the antagonist is the significant player who provides the resistance against which the protagonist pushes his ideas and wishes. It does not imply that the antagonist is actively working against the protagonist, but merely differs from him.

➢ Subsidiary roles - These support the key roles. They may be used to provide information, present problems or control the action.

➢ Spare roles – The role-play may need to be played by a variety of groups of different sizes and different abilities. Although some participants may be needed as observers, it is useful to have extra roles which can interest and occupy surplus participants.

- **Allocating roles**

According to Van Ments (1983:113), roles can be allocated in a number of ways. She suggests the bellow allocation of roles.

➢ Randomly.
➢ Allocating key characters and distributing the remainder randomly.
➢ Assigning players to roles which fit them closely.
➢ Deliberately choosing players with characteristics opposite to those of the role.
➢ Letting the group discuss the allocation of roles amongst themselves.
➢ Rotating roles between all the learners.

- **Running the role-play**

As the aim of the role-play in this study is to promote the classroom interaction in EFAL to enhance communication competence, Van Ments (1983:113) asserts that role-rotation is important. The role of the protagonist should rotate between a number of learners so that they all have experience of playing that part. She highlights that the experience of playing more than one role in the same role-play gives players increased confidence and this leads to greater spontaneity and enhanced ability to gain insight and awareness of other roles.

The teacher should not interrupt to correct the players in Van Ments's (1983) opinion unless this is imperative. Therefore, it is better to wait until the debriefing and let learners learn by their mistakes than to disrupt the proceedings. Finally, Cohen *et al.* (2000:376) demonstrate that once the materials are prepared, then the role-play follows its own sequence, that is introduction, warm up, running and ending. Subsequently, it is particularly important to time the ending of the role-play in such a way as to fit into the whole programme.

- **Debriefing**

According to Cohen *et al.* (2000:377), debriefing is more than simply checking that the right lesson has been learnt and feeding this information back to the learner. Van Ments reminds us that it is two-way process, during which the consequences of actions arising in the role-play can be analysed and conclusions drawn. It is at this point in the role-play sequence when mistakes and misunderstandings can be rectified.

Moreover, Nickerson (2007:380) affirms the points indicated above by stating that debriefing is the most important part of the role-play. This stage, as Nickerson explains, is when the learning is clarified, confirmed and solidified. He illustrates that to debrief is to reflect and discuss as a group what everyone learnt in the process of performing the activity. Therefore, it requires learners to analyse and synthesise part of a complex dynamic. Van Ments (1983:138) emphasises that at the end of debriefing session, observers may comment on the way in which the characters behaved and the lessons to be drawn from this. Then the players themselves will always play an important part in this debriefing and say what they would have done if they were in the other person's shoes and why.

In the debriefing, as Nickerson explains, the facilitator welcomes the discussion of feelings as well as that of cognitive analysis. As feelings are an inevitable part of role-play, the facilitator needs only acknowledge them and recognise them as part of the learning process. Likewise, Nickerson further encourages teachers to let the players, rather than the observers, be the first to critique or discuss their own behaviours and feelings in the role-play. Nickerson declares that doing so allows the players to defend against potential or imagined criticism and to protect their egos. Additionally, it also helps to have some written and agreed ground rules for feedback to the players, for instance, describe rather than evaluate; be specific, not general; speak for yourself, not for the group.

In short, Van Ments (1983:48) shares that debriefing is a period which establishes the learning in the learners' minds. It is at this point that the consequences of actions can be analysed and conclusions drawn. Although role-play is difficult and complex

at first, Nickerson (2007:3) emphasises that it is worth doing if you are prepared to use a high impact-learning tool in a careful and caring way.

- **Follow-up**

Follow-up, according to Van Ments (1983:48), will lead naturally into the next learning activity as well as to answer questions that might arise during the running of the role-play. Moreover, one must always consider the connection between the role-play and the next activity. Above all, Cohen *et al. (*2000:377) recommend the avoidance of leaving the role-play activity in a vacuum.

3.3.3.5   Benefits of role-play

Role-play teaches many lessons; some of the most important lessons it teaches are lessons that are needed in society, competition, and empathy (Isanna n.d); moreover it changes attitudes (Van Ments 1983:25). Van Ments (1983; Cohen *et al.* 2000) agrees that the concrete approach bridges the gap between schoolwork and the real world. Van Ments (1983:26) substantiates that it relates closely to the outside world, enables the learner to gain experience and rehearse skills he or she will require in the future and it is also possible to repeat the experience and hence improve one's performance.

People enjoy playing, especially young people, explains Isanna (n.d). If learners are already motivated to play, learning through play would become even easier. Interest and excitement in learning is raised and learners will understand their subject clearly and will have an idea of how to develop it further (Van Ments 1983; Taylor & Walford 1972 cited in Cohen *et al.* 2000:377; Jarvis, Odell & Troiano 2002:72). Van Ments (1983:25) adds that role-play is motivational and effective because it involves activity.

Taylor and Walford (1972; Cohen *et al.* 2000) uphold the same view that there is a sustained level of freshness and novelty arising out of the dynamic nature of simulation tasks. Van Ments (1983:25) declares that role-play gives life and immediacy to academic descriptive material (History, English, Economics and

Geography). Silver (1999; Jarvis, Odell & Troiano 2002) guarantee that there is increased involvement on the part of the learners in a role-playing lesson.

In role-play, Taylor and Walford (1972; Cohen *et al.* 2000) maintain, there is a transformation in the traditional learner-teacher subordinate-super ordinate relationship, while Van Ments (1983:25) explains that it is because it is learner-centred and addresses itself to the needs and concerns of the trainee, and that the group can control content and pace.

As learning occurs on diverse levels, Cohen *et al.* (2000:377) show that there is learning at cognitive, social and emotional levels during role-play. Isanna (n.d) concludes that the use of critical thinking is encouraged because it involves analysing and problem-solving, therefore role-play is a cognitive learning method.

Reflecting on the use of role-play, Van Ments (1983; Poorman 2002; Jarvis, Odell & Troiano 2002) mentions that it teaches empathy and understanding of different perspectives. Consequently, Jarvis, Odell and Troiano (2002:72) agree that the learner represents and experiences a character known in everyday life. Cohen *et al* (2000; Isanna n.d) attest that the learners acquire decision making as a skill through the feedback they receive, they see the results of their actions, and can therefore learn how to adjust their words and actions to produce more likable results. Role-play provides rapid feedback for both learner and teacher (Van Ments 1983:25).

The opinions of Van Ments (1983; Silver 1999) affirm that role-play portrays generalised social problems. Van Ments (1983:25) further states that it enables learners to discuss private issues and problems in dynamics of group interaction, formal and informal. In addition it permits training in the control of feelings and emotions and learners are able to express their hidden feelings. Since learners interact with each other, Ettkin and Snyder (1972; Teahan 1975; Huyack 1975; Van Ments 1983; Cohen *et al.* 2000; Jarvis, Odell & Troiano 2002) all agree that learners' interpersonal and interdisciplinary skills are improved and communication ability is enhanced.

Children have always learned from mimicking the action of others, including their parents and peers. Role-play is simply a continuation of the learning already done by learners (Isanna n.d). The major advantage of role-play is the one it shares with all simulation and gaming activities in that it gives learners simple, direct and rapid feedback on the effects of their actions (Van Ments 1983:27) and gives practice in various types of behaviour.

Role-play allows the interaction between classmates and peers as there is exchange of knowledge between learners. It allows introvert learners to speak out and also helps to break down cliques (Isanna n.d). Furthermore, Van Ments (1983:25) states that it emphasises the importance of non-verbal, emotional responses. In addition, the teacher is also able to see various capabilities of learners at the same time (Isanna n.d).

3.3.3.6 Drawbacks of role-play

Taylor and Walford (1972; Van Ments 1983, Al-Senaidi n.d; Cohen *et al.* 2000) demonstrate that role-play, however interesting and attractive, is time-demanding and ought therefore to justify itself fully in a restricted timetable allotted to competing educational approaches. The above-mentioned researchers demonstrate that discipline may be hard to maintain during role-play and the teacher could lose control of the class. The authors add that role-play can also make demands on space and other resources.

Since the role-play is performed in the classroom, Thornbury (2005; Al-Senaidi n.d) claim that there are learners who feel self-conscious performing in front of their peers and care has to be exercised in choosing and setting up such activities. Van Ments (1983:27) further indicates that the impact of role-play may trigger off withdrawal or defence symptoms.

Van Ments (1983:27) argues that role-play depends on the quality of the teacher and the learners, and may depend on what learners already know. She further comments that it may be seen as too entertaining or frivolous and may dominate learning to the exclusion of solid theory and facts.

3.3.3.7   Concluding remarks

It has been demonstrated that the role-play as interactive activity can strengthen the stories told, read and written by play-acting them. In this way, role-play can bring shared knowledge into reality by means of a practical performance. Therefore, role-play is an activity that can facilitate classroom interaction in EFAL to enhance communicative competence. Prentice (1998:104) asserts that monitoring oral activities involves identifying the skills which need to be developed, devising activities which will require those skills and recording whether children are moving forward. As a result, role-play can display whether the teacher has reached the intended objectives of the lesson.

3.3.4   Reading aloud

3.3.4.1   Introduction

Reading aloud to children is a means indicated by Vygotsky of assisting learners to reach their capability in the areas that are beyond their reach. An adult is involved to assist in and model the way to fulfil the potential the learners' have, and therefore reading aloud is seen as a vehicle for leading the learners into adventures while they attain communicative competence. Communicative competence in EFAL can be achieved through interacting with people in the vicinity, and in this study, the teacher to the learner or learners or learners to learners.

Research clearly establishes the importance of reading aloud to learners as a modelling mode. Usually, learners learn and try to imitate what their teacher presents to them. For this reason, it is crucial for the teacher to present a good example. Snow, Burns and Griffin (1998:41) show that developing oral fluency leads to later successes in reading print. Oral language acts as an underlying foundation to achievement in reading.

When the teacher reads and discusses the reading with the learners, this act provides a bridge between literature and the social world. Hynds (1997:60) concurs with this when indicating that through classroom conversations, we enable learners

to develop social and literacy awareness; our shared talk creates a comfortable place within which to explore and negotiate our interpretations of literary texts and the world in which we live.

Beginners in reading, according to Psutka (2003 cited in British Columbia Ministry of Education 2006:83), use the language they have acquired through speaking and listening to help them understand the printed word. Thus the link between storytelling and role-play when reading aloud to learners is confirmed.

- **Definition of reading aloud**

Beltchenko (2011:1) defines reading aloud as a strategy in which a teacher sets aside time to read to learners on a consistent basis from texts above their independent reading level but at their listening level. To facilitate the process, the teacher stops at planned points to ask questions that elicit learner response. As a result, learners learn to think deeply about the text; to listen to others, and form their own ideas; hence, thinking aloud becomes part of the process.

In fact, Chapman, Hunnicutt and McCloud (2012:12) stress that the purpose of interactive reading aloud is for learners to hear fluent reading as they develop higher level thinking skills such as analysis, synthesis and inference and for teachers to explicitly model skills and strategies through reading aloud-thinking aloud. The above-mentioned authors further clarify by stating that reading aloud exposes learners to a variety of genres and culturally relevant texts. Since favourite texts are selected for special features and reread many times.

The researcher had been reading aloud to learners and letting them to read to her and their peers. This strategy aided in revealing the learners' strengths and weaknesses in reading. The main focus was to interact with the text together with the learners so that the researcher and learners could talk about the text, check for comprehension, practice pronunciation, and model good reading and reading for enjoyment. Recent research has shown that reading aloud can benefit primary and secondary learners. Ada, Ryan and Yee (2014) affirm that reading aloud stimulates the learners' imaginations and emotions; models good reading behaviour; exposes

them to a range of literature; enriches their vocabularies and understanding of sophisticated language patterns; makes difficult concepts understandable; models the fact that different genres are read differently; supports independent reading; and encourages lifelong enjoyment.

3.3.4.2 Background and knowledge

It is important for teachers to read aloud for learners even though classroom time is limited. Learners come to school with a wide range of background knowledge. Harvey and Goudvis (2005; Wadsworth 2008:1) argue that everything we read and learn is coloured by our background knowledge. In addition, Wadsworth (2008:1) confirms that reading aloud gives teachers a wonderful opportunity to directly scaffold learning for all learners who lack the background for deep understanding of topics before we move on to more complex subject matter.

On the same note, Dorn and Soffas (2005; Wadsworth 2008:2) substantiate the reading aloud and follow-up conversation allow the teachers the opportunity to help learners develop background knowledge and connect concepts so that children can clarify their thinking during their discussions with their peers and teachers. In support of Dorn, Soffas and Allington (2001; Wadsworth 2008:2) assert that, in order for learners to develop thoughtful literacy, they must be given an abundant number of opportunities throughout the day to demonstrate their understanding and to practice using comprehension strategies under the guidance of the teacher. According to Harvey (1998 cited in Wadsworth 2008:1), reading aloud stimulates curiosity in learners as they ensure a safe environment to marvel at the concepts being presented.

According to Calkins's (2004; Wadsworth's 2008) perspective, reading aloud is a powerful force in the lives of children and that is still the single most important thing a teacher does during school day. Wadsworth (2008:2) indicates that the findings of Routman (2003) show that reading aloud to learners enables them to hear the rich language of stories and texts they cannot yet read on their own. Wadsworth (2008:2) maintains that by reading aloud to learners, they learn new vocabulary, grammar, and information and how stories and written language works. Because of this,

Allington (2001; Wadsworth 2008:2) state that teachers should read aloud to learners from different genres on a daily basis and create opportunities for learners to read instructional and independent level texts.

Recent studies of Duurman, Augustyn and Zuckerman (2008:554) demonstrate a relationship between oral language skills such as vocabulary, syntax (the way in which linguistic elements such as words are combined to form sentences) and semantic (focus on the meaning of words or sentences) processes, and narrative discourse processes such as memory, storytelling, comprehension and reading ability. The authors conclude by pointing that all of these contribute to word recognition and reading comprehension

In his study, Gibson (2008:33) reports that Stevick's (1989) interview of seven successful language learners, found that a high proportion of them, including himself, used reading aloud as a learning technique outside the classroom. The findings established that one learner preferred to read aloud, rather than silently, to practice intonation and get the sound and flow of the language. On the other hand, another learner found reading aloud was particularly good for the development of his pronunciation. Gibson also realises that Stevick himself also liked to link what he was seeing with his articulatory process and auditory feedback, and realised that he remembered things better if he said them aloud.

When reviewing the literature, Fisher, Flood, Lapp and Frey (2004:9) find that Pinnel and Jaggar (2003) demonstrate the importance of reading aloud in the development of oral language for both first and second additional language speakers This set of findings was also confirmed by British educator MacLure (1988; Barnes 1992; Fisher *et al.* 2004) in their work on oracy as communication in the United Kingdom. They found that reading aloud led to an improvement in language expression throughout all curriculum subjects. In an additional set of studies Mandler (1984; Nelson 1986; Fisher *et al.* 2004) suggest that young learners who experienced a number of read alouds understood the components, structure, and function of narrative discourse. Nelson (1981; Fisher *et al.* 2004:9) even argue that the experience of read alouds enable children to express themselves as individuals, connect with others, and make sense of the world.

Santoro, Chard, Howard and Baker (2008:397) establish that familiarising learners with narrative text structure provides learners with a framework for discussing stories and retelling. Therefore, as a story is read, the teacher can help learners to discuss who the story is about, what happened first, what happened next, and what happened at the end. In addition, if these same targets are routinely used to identify critical features of a story, learners have repeated opportunities to discuss them and make text-to-text connections, then therefore, communicative competence in EFAL can be enhanced.

Moreover, Duke and Kays (1998; Santoro *et al.* 2008:397) also demonstrate that reading aloud exposes learners to different genres; provide an ideal opportunity to teach expository or information text structure. Since, expository texts use complex organisational patterns, such as compare and contrast, cause and effect, and problem and solution. In support of (Dreher 1993; Duke & Kays 1998) Guthrie and Kirch (1987 cited in Santoro *et al.* 2008:397) add that learners can be taught that reading texts often involves dual purposes of reading to locate particular information and to learn something new.

Anderson, Hiebert, Scott and Wilkinson (1985 cited in Fisher *et al.* 2004:8) state that the single most important activity for building knowledge required for eventual success in reading is reading aloud to learners. Many researchers have demonstrated that reading aloud is an effective way to introduce learners to the joy of reading and the art of listening (Morrow 2003; Fisher *et al.* 2004:9) while developing their vocabularies, experimental backgrounds, and concepts of print and story. Hendrick and Pearish (2003; Fisher *et al.* 2004:9) advocate that through reading aloud teachers can model strategies and demonstrate the ways in which written language is different to spoken language. Consequently, according to Strickland and Taylor (1989; Lapp and Flood 2003), learners' understanding of the patterns and structures of written language can be developed through reading aloud. Thus, as children participate in this activity, they learn new words and ideas as they are exposed to a variety of genres in their written forms (Altwerger, Diehl-Faxon & Anderson 1985; Teale & Sulzby 1987; Fisher *et al.* 2004).

In the researcher's opinion, thinking aloud is part of reading aloud. As learners read aloud together with the teacher, they are also taught to think aloud. Teachers College Reading and Writing Project (2009:1) explains that think alouds are opportunities to model that strong readers do not just read the words but also think about what the story is about. This project illustrates that, if you stop in the middle of a chapter and say, "I cannot believe the character is acting this way. I wonder why she is being this way", you demonstrate to your learners that readers question the character and wonder about their motives.

Teachers College Reading and Writing Project (2009:1) further shows that if the teacher thinks aloud by saying, "I bet she is going to lose the bracelet," the teacher models that readers make predictions as they read. In addition, when you say to your class, "I just want to reread that part again; I was daydreaming and lost the story", you teach that rereading is a strategy; readers reread to regain comprehension.

Besides thinking aloud, according to Teachers College Reading and Writing Project (2009:1), you will provide opportunities throughout the book for the learners to turn and talk to each other about the text. Furthermore, prompt the class by saying, "Turn and tell your neighbour what you think will happen next or let us think about what is going on here" or "What you think (so and so) is thinking right now?". This means that, you cannot separate reading aloud and thinking aloud if your concern is for the learners to understand and follow what has been read. Also, there is an opportunity for the clarification of some new words and difficult sections of the text.

3.3.4.3   Organising reading aloud in the classroom

In the researcher's EFAL class, during the reading lesson and depending on the kind of activity for instance reading for enjoyment, in a group of six learners, each pair shared a reader. The researcher let the pairs look at the illustrations, the name of the book, the author, the illustrator if any, and the publishers. Learners were also given time to discuss and guess by looking at the illustrations what the book could be about.

After a few minutes, the researcher let one learner from each pair to tell what they thought about the book. Following the discussion, if it was still at the beginning of the year, the researcher would read to them, modelling good reading, pausing after each sentence to check for comprehension and explaining the use of tone of voice the researcher would be using. Questions like: who, what, where, how, why, explain would be asked for comprehension checking and trying to connect the story to their lives. In that lesson, though the reading was for enjoyment, learners learnt how to work with a partner.

The study of Santoro *et al.* (2008:397) asserts that reading aloud should incorporate structured, interactive teacher and learners' text-based discussions. The authors argue that rather than simply reading aloud without discussion, opportunities should be created for learners to reflect on the storyline (or text language) to promote comprehension. For instance, a teacher might pause to have learners identify the main character, and then expand the discussion by asking about specific character clues. In addition, Santoro *et al.* propose that teachers ask learners to predict; a teacher could ask why learners made a particular prediction, then ask them explain whether the prediction was correct after reading the story. Therefore, the reading aloud is a practice to deepen learners' comprehension and facilitate dialogic interactions, both between learners and among learners.

Yet again, the study of Santoro *et al.* (2008:396) gives guidance on how the teacher can prepare for the read aloud activity. The guide reads as follows:

- select the focus and gather several books on the topic;
- arrange to read the books in order, from simple to more complex; and
- prepare for the reading aloud by pre-reading and marking passages that require more time to think aloud and to invite learners' discussions.

Wadsworth (2008:2) provides a guide to the activity as follows:

- introduce the subject and tell the learners why you selected the book;
- introduce the book and tell how it fits into the study;

- after reading aloud, invite learners to retell the text; and
- create a reading chart that lists books read aloud.

Santoro *et al.* (2008:396) emphasise thinking aloud as it has been shown to enhance and improve learners' comprehension. The researcher agrees with Santoro *et al.* because thinking aloud during the reading aloud offers an opportunity to clarify some of the misinterpretations.

More guidelines are supplied by Fisher *et al.* (2004:11) below as essential components of interactive reading aloud in agreement with various other authors:

➢ Text selection
➢ Preview and practice
➢ Clear purpose established
➢ Fluent reading modelled
➢ Animation and expression
➢ Discussing the text 1
➢ Independent reading and writing

3.3.4.4 Benefits of reading aloud

According to Ada *et al.* (2014:n.p) reading aloud benefits teachers and learners by enabling teachers to offer text with more challenging concepts and/or language than learners can read independently; by helping language learners to develop new vocabulary and syntactic awareness; and by building good reading habits. Additionally it stimulates the imagination and emotions, models a good reading process, exposes learners to a range of literature, enriches vocabulary and rhetorical sensitivity, elucidates difficult texts, helps to distinguish different genres; supports independent reading; and shows learners how to question, visualise and make predictions while they read.

Justifying reading aloud, Kailani (1998:285) shows that reading aloud deals with the surface structure of reading skills in the sense that it focuses on the form of language

(e.g. vocabulary, sentence structure and pronunciation) and mechanics of reading. These are essential for developing the reading process because they help the reader grasp the meaning of the piece of discourse.

Kailani (1998:287) further states that reading aloud is a useful skill for use in the classroom which helps the overall language process. In this respect, it can serve as a catalyst for language learning because it is mainly language focused. Kailani mentions that it can be used to: train learners to read normally without stumbling or making errors of tone, or expression, that is, to develop smooth oral reading; stimulate the rapid association of the sound and of word meaning and to demonstrate the correct pronunciation of new words in context; and to understand the mechanics of English sentence-syntax and pronunciation. Thus through practicing reading aloud learners can learn how to utter a statement, a question or an exclamation accurately, where the voice rises or falls, what words to stress or leave unstressed, and where to pause in the sentence.

*Furthering the benefits of reading aloud, Rees (1976 cited in Kailani 1998:287) has the opinion that reading aloud brings variety to the additional language classroom by offering an alternative form of exposure to the target language that enriches reading both orally and graphically. In fact, if there are occasions in social life that require oral reading (Kailani 1998:287) then it can be a useful skill for improving learners' command of oral communication because reading aloud in the English classroom is one way in which learners can be systematically trained to recognise new words and articulate them correctly.

The most obvious explanation is that, there is certainly a place for reading aloud in studying literature, according to Kailani (1998:288). He shows that many songs, lyrics, selections from prose and verse, plays and dialogues lend themselves to oral or choral reading while reading poetry develops sensitivity, rhythm, vocabulary confidence, communication and joy in the human wonders of language. As a result, significant skills in phrasing, expression, and words can also be learnt. In this way, all learners, regardless of age, will be brought to enjoy poetry and learn the language in the process.

Gibson (2008:32) believes that as a teacher listens to a learner reading aloud, he or she often uses the activity to identify more persistent problems of, for example, pronunciation, and understanding, of graphemic-phonemic connections, and so on, and therefore uses it as a diagnostic tool. Reading aloud can also be an excellent way for a learner to improve pronunciation. Reading aloud promotes joint attention, which has many potential benefits related to reading, such as enhancing receptive language by asking learners to point, touch or show during book reading. It promotes expressive language when learners are asked questions about the text (Duurman Augustyn & Zuckerman 2008:555).

Foss and Reitzel (1988 cited in Gibson 2008:32) recommend reading aloud as a way of reducing communication anxiety. In the same study, they found that the group preparation work, evaluation and performance involved in reading aloud can lessen anxiety. In addition, it might be the only speaking activity that shy learners will consent to perform in class, more specifically if controlled, imitative activities can make learners feel secure enough to make their first utterances as demonstrated. In this way, reading aloud can help shy learners or unconfident learners with speaking practice until they feel ready to speak more spontaneously (Gibson 2008:32). Therefore, it can be used as a technique for autonomous learning and may help some anxious learners to feel more able to speak.

Holding the same view is Biemiller (2001 cited in Santoro *et al.* 2008:398) who states that reading aloud and facilitating text-based discussions about words provide contexts and opportunities for learners to learn new words before they have the reading skills necessary to acquire vocabulary independently.

Duurman *et al.* (2008:554) believe that reading aloud familiarises learners with the language found in books and stimulates vocabulary growth. Shared book reading can stimulate more verbal interaction between child and parent, and therefore, children's language development is likely to profit more from reading aloud than from toy play or other adult-child interactions. The authors add that learners are exposed to the more complex language adults use interacting with children around the book and gain new vocabulary. In this ZPD where the learner is thus guided by an adult,

learners learn about their own personal narrative when sharing a book, something that is important for self-esteem.

The authors mentioned in this subsection substantiate that sharing books with learners can also help learners learn about peer relations, coping strategies, building self-esteem and general world knowledge. They further their discussion saying that by engaging in book discussion that includes non-immediate talk, gives learners the opportunity to understand and use the more sophisticated words required to make predictions, to describe the internal states of the characters and to evaluate the story. It also provides the opportunity for learners to learn to talk about their own feelings. Consequently learners' early language and literacy development, benefit more from actively engaging the learner in shared book reading than merely reading the text.

According to Wadsworth (2008:1), teachers must constantly remind themselves that reading aloud is an irresistible invitation to welcome learners into the exciting world of literacy. Wadsworth persists that reading aloud is powerful because it serves so many instructional purposes – to motivate, encourage, excite, build background, develop competition, assist learners in making connections, and serve as a model of what fluent reading sounds like. In addition, as a teacher reads a text aloud, learners are enveloped in a risk-free learning environment that removes the pressure of achievement and the fear of failure, allowing the freedom to wonder, question, and enjoy material beyond their reading ability.

Recent research by Fisher *et al.* (2004:9) establishes that effective reading aloud contributes to learners' comprehension development. Beck and McKeon (2001 cited in Santoro *et al.* 2008:396) also describe read-aloud activities that build background knowledge, language, and listening comprehension skills. Santoro *et al.* (2008:396) conclude that it would seem reasonable that comprehension strategies be taught through oral language opportunities to many learners who struggle with decoding skills or who are just learning to read fluently, for instance, by reading aloud. Reading aloud is equally effective at stimulating learners' interest in reading books they have heard read to them.

3.3.4.5 Drawbacks of reading aloud

Santoro *et al.* (2008:396) express that reading aloud can sometimes be time consuming as sometimes it occurs without instructional interruption for the purpose of enjoying and listening to a story. In his questionnaire sent to learners, Huang (2010:148) discovered that some learners had a perception that:

Firstly, reading aloud frequently will slow down their reading speed that they always emphasised to improve. Secondly, reading aloud can only give a few chances of practice while the others feel bored. Thirdly, learners are easily embarrassed when reading. Fourthly, it is too difficult to most learners to reading unprepared literature. Fifthly, compared to conversation and discussion, read aloud has little practical value unless the learner will be an announcer in the future. Finally, this kind of reading is aimless because every learner has original material he or she can read on his or her own. As a result, only a few learners can continue reading regardless of embarrassment.

3.3.4.6 Concluding remarks

In conclusion, in Huang's (2010) opinion, teachers cannot neglect all the reading aloud since is a teaching method. The point the researcher wants to highlight is that it is impossible for learning and teaching to take place without the reading aloud. This point also leads us to acknowledge that despite the drawbacks, the practice in reading aloud classes proves that reading aloud is very necessary in EFAL teaching.

Although every teaching tool has its own pros and cons, reading aloud to learners and reading aloud by learners have proved to assist in bettering the learners' communicative skills and to promote classroom interaction. Hence the weaknesses have to be there to alert teachers to be vigilant in assessing and assisting the individual learner to reach the full potential in learning.

3.3.5   Debate

3.3.5.1 Introduction

Listening and talking happen spontaneously in the daily activities of our existence. It occurs naturally that when someone talks, you have to listen in order to decide to respond or not. Moore (1991:15) authenticates the above statements by indicating that we learn to talk by talking, we learn to listen by listening. The more we talk and listen to others talking, the better our ability to manipulate language, the better our ability to think and therefore to read and write, for both of these are thinking activities.

The early study of Dudley-Marling and Searle (1991:60) argues that talk is not only a medium for thinking. It is also an important means by which we learn how to think. The authors authenticate their study by linking it to a Vygotskian perspective demonstrating that thinking is an internal dialogue, an internalisation of dialogues we have had with others. Our ability to think depends upon the many previous dialogues we have taken part in – we learn to think by participating in dialogues.

Since the classroom is seen as a place to prepare learners for the outside world with its real-life confrontations, then learners should be trained to question the types of confrontations and think how to handle them. When learners come across arguments, they should be armed with the skills to face and deal with the situation. What is happening in the classroom should reflect what is happening outside the classroom. Honebone (1998:179) points out that the news is full of controversy and the papers are full of debate.

If teachers are to help prepare learners to be effective citizens of the future, then the classroom should be a place of debate and controversy as well. Moreover, learners learn better if their learning is based on what they experience in their daily activities. This tool of learning (debate) brings us to the point where my argument indicates that talking complements reading and writing. When learners are in the process of preparation for debate, they search for information; to attain the specific information,

they have to employ a process of listening, talking, and reading, and later they put their findings into writing.

- **Definition of debate**

The recent work by the World School Debating Championship (2011:1) describes debate as a formal argument in which two opposing teams propose or attack a given proposition or motion in a series of speeches. It is governed by a set of rules, which permit interruptions or "points of information" by the opposition. Debates can be judged by a panel of judges (competitive debate) or by an audience (show debate). Hoskisson and Tompkins (1987 cited in Bertrand & Stice 2002:98) describe debates as another means by which learners develop language skills. The purpose of a debate is to persuade the audience by presenting convincing ideas arguments built up by intensive research. As a result, debate is a way of encouraging learners to conduct research by listening, speaking, reading and even writing. Through applying these skills, it gradually becomes easier for learners to achieve interaction and communicative competence in the target language.

The point the researcher is making is that, with debate, learners can develop a range of skills across the curriculum and also can explore controversial issues around them as debates may be formal or informal. Bertrand and Stice (2002:98) hint that informal debates usually occur when the entire class is excited about an issue and most or all of the learners have taken a position either for or against the central problem. Sometimes it might be as intimidating because you have to prepare for challenging questioning from the opponent side. However, the Speech and Debate Union (n.d:2) demonstrates that this should not be viewed as intimidating but as a challenge to be a resourceful thinker who can synthesise ideas and quickly articulate them.

3.3.5.2   Background and knowledge

When using and practicing an additional language, learners should be encouraged to give their opinions and ideas concerning the subject matter, not to seek for the correct answer. Frequently learners do not recognise that there are some questions that have no right or wrong answers, these questions simply consider opinions.

Contemporary Learning Series (2009:7) alert us that those people who we accept as experts might merely be giving their opinion on a certain issue, as might those of us with very little background in a particular area. This makes the development of critical thinking skill even more important and increases the value of a well-articulated point of view. Thus, learners' communicative competence in an additional language is enhanced in a relaxed environment free from anxiety of giving the wrong answer.

Morse (2011:111), while interviewing an English teacher in a recent study, mentions that the teacher indicated that speaking English becomes absolutely free of stumbling blocks whilst her learners are not afraid to make mistakes. In her lessons, she gives more attention to the content of speaking than to the form of it, which she finds to be a useful technique in providing a less threatening atmosphere for language learning. At the same time, she noticed a great development of critical thinking skills among her learners and often even what she calls "change of personality as the learners get involved in many interactional issues, they become very communicative and friendly, develop quick reactions and the ability to work in a team.

The Think Magazine of (1992 cited in Contemporary Learning Series 2009:6) reports that the founder and director of Sonoma State University's Centre for Critical Thinking, Richard Paul, defines critical thinking as thinking about your thinking while you are thinking in order to make your thinking better. In fact, Richard describes to think well as to impose discipline and restraint on out thinking – by means of intellectual standards – in order to raise our thinking to a level of perfection or quality that is not natural or likely in undisciplined, spontaneous thought. Hence, by teaching through debates in an EFAL class, critical thinking is encouraged and learners construct their own knowledge and practice the target language skills in a real-life situation. Likewise, Krieger (2005:25) adds to this by stating that debate is an excellent activity for language learning because it engages learners in a variety of cognitive and linguistic ways.

In an EFAL setting, according to Alasmari and Ahmed (2013:14), where learners have inadequate opportunities for practicing English in real-life situations, debating

opens up opportunities for them to use the language in the form of expressing their opinions with logic. Ebata (2009:1) asserts that when learning a new language for global communication, learners are required to confidently express their thoughts. In order for learners to be vocal, critical thinking skills are essential. Ebata adds that the use of debate is an effective technique for strengthening his learners' speaking and critical thinking abilities.

Additionally, Alasmari and Ahmed (2013:148) affirm that when debating is used in EFAL classes, all four skills of English language: listening, speaking, reading and writing are practiced. Moreover, debaters need to master pronunciation of words, stress, vocabulary, brainstorming, script writing, logic building, argumentation and refutation. So, a debate for classroom interaction in EFAL requires many skills which ultimately lead them to learn English.

Davidson (1995; Krieger 2005; Alasmari & Ahmed 2013:147) stress that with practice, many learners show obvious progress in their ability to express and defend ideas in debate and they often recognise the flaws in each other's argument. Subsequently, Nisbett (2003; Alasmari & Ahmed 2013:147) declare that debate is an important educational tool for learning analytic thinking skills and for forcing self-conscious reflection on the validity of one's ideas. Fukuda (2003; Alasmari & Ahmed 2013:147) in a study conducted with Japanese learners found that before the practice of debate only 30.8 percent of the learners were not afraid of expressing their opinions. After the debate, this figure rose to 56.7 percent. He added that the knowledge and skills which came from the practice of debate led learners to become accustomed to expressing opinions.

It should be clear that now teachers of EFAL should use debate as a teaching tool if they wish to reap fruitful results from their teaching. Dőrnyei (2005:65) pronounces that without sufficient motivation, even individuals with the most remarkable abilities cannot accomplish long-term goals. Neither appropriate curricula nor good teaching on their own will ensure learners' achievement (Morse 2011:111). This point to the conclusion that it is up to the teachers who really want to make a difference in their teaching who will attempt what has been researched and tested.

3.3.5.3 Debate format

There are generally two types of format: the traditional debate and cross-examination. Contemporary Learning Series (2009:13) notes that cross-examination requires more debating skills, is more complicated and takes longer. Since the researcher's aim was using debate as a classroom interaction tool for learning and enhancing communicative competence in EFAL, intended for school learners, the researcher suggests the traditional format of debate because it is convenient and easy for learners to grasp.

Debate often involves two teams of people speaking in a specific order; this is just one type of debate but any approach can be used as long as it works in achieving the objectives of the lesson. Depending on the circumstances, the debate may work better if teams of three to four or more learners are used. Speech and Debate Union (n.d:2) emphasises that the maturity of learners has to be taken into consideration when setting up a debate. As there are different types of debates, it is of important to know what kind of debate learners will be participating in. However, according to Speech and Debate Union (n.d:3) all debates formats have something in common:

- there is a resolution of policy or value that provides the basic substance of the discussion. The terms of this resolution will be defined by the first speaker of the debate;
- there are two teams representing those on favour or the resolution (Government or Affirmative) and those against (Opposition or Negative);
- the Government or Affirmative always has the burden to prove its side;
- and the debate closes with final rebuttals on both sides which summarise their respective positions.

In actual fact, the Contemporary Learning Series (2009:13) shows that the procedure in debate begins with a proposed solution to a problem, then spoken arguments alternate between an affirmative speaker and a negative speaker. The following table illustrates how one can format the debate.

Table 3.1: Debate format

1st Affirmative	1st Negative	2nd Affirmative	2nd Negative	Negative Rebuttal	Affirmative Rebuttal
Introduction	Introduction	Introduction	Introduction		
Definitions	If necessary attack definitions	Clash with points made by negative and rebuild affirmative case (proof)	Continue attack on affirmative (proof)	No new arguments can be introduced Explain why your team should win and the other should lose. Remind the judges of your argument. Tell the judges why they should believe your arguments even after the other team's attack.	
Explain why present system is bad and needs change (proof)	Clash with needs for change (proof)	Present plan, if not already presented (proof)			
At least introduce the plan or present all of plan (policy debate)	If necessary, present counter plan (policy debate)			Explain why the judges should not listen to the other team. Review critical evidence.	
Present reason why	Clash with reasons Present counter-reasons				

Furthermore, there should be a chairperson for each debate. Debate Union (n.d:9) explains that the chairperson's job is to introduce all the participants and then to call on them in turn. Moreover, the chairperson acts as the timer to indicate to the debaters how much time remains for their speeches. The Speech and Debate Union further elucidates that at the end of the debate, after judging is complete, the chairperson announces the winning team. Hence, judges should evaluate the debate

on the basis of the arguments and the refutation and only then reach their conclusions independently. Most of the authors, Speech and Debate Union (n.d; Alford & Surdu 2002; Goodwin 2003; Krieger 2005; Contemporary Learning Series 2009; Ebata 2009; Morse 2011; Alasmari Ahmed 2013; Zare & Othman 2013) suggest that each speaker can be given two minutes for presenting.

- **Topics**

Global Dimension (n.d:3) expatiate that it is important that controversy in the classroom does not involve the teacher. It should be among learners, uninhibited by the teacher's opinion. Therefore, the teacher should be there just to motivate and create an environment conducive for the development of the debate. Additionally, as learners take more ownership of their debate, they may sometimes want to discuss topics that you may not be totally comfortable with as a teacher. In that case, learners should not be stopped from tackling difficult issues, but this requires a safe and secure environment for learners to express their views.

As age should be considered when debating, Global Dimension (n.d:3) warns that some topics will not be appropriate for a certain age, but others such as immigration and conflict, though they might require extra care, should still be approached. In addition, young people should have the opportunity to be exposed to these issues and voice their opinions on them. As a result, in preventing an unpleasant environment some useful ground rules for debate according to Global Dimension (n.d:3) are:

- everyone's opinion is valid and should be treated with the respect it deserves;
- everyone has a right to voice their opinion openly; and
- challenge the ideas not the people.

Hensley and Carlin (1994:28) supported by Morse (2011:110) emphasise the importance of understanding of the topic and its issues. This means that it is critical for learners to understand what they are going to talk about. So, make sure the

learners understand each and every word in their topic by searching the meanings in the dictionaries. In that case, it is advisable to use different dictionaries in order to evaluate the explanations and pick the one relevant to their argument.

As The Speech and Debate Union (n.d:3) describe the two most common types of resolutions (motions) as resolution of value and resolution of policy and then explains that resolutions of value generally are worded as a positive statement. For instance, Women are better than men. Resolutions of policy deal with changing some current or established aspect of society, the economy and so on (the status quo). The resolutions of policy are worded in imperative form, as Speech and Debate Union (n.d:4) explains. For example, Environmental laws should be stricter.

Furthermore, the Speech and Debate Union (n.d:5) explains that the affirmative in a debate proposes or supports the resolution. So in a policy debate, the affirmative tries to change things. Hence, the job of the negative in any type of debate is to oppose and spar with the affirmative.

- **Argument**

The argument consists of using both facts and opinions as evidence in the logical analysis of a proposition to enable judges to arrive at a decision (Contemporary Learning Series 2009:13). Thus, oral debates may well expose differences and similarities in the arguments more clearly than written assignments can.

3.3.5.4   Organising debates in the classroom

The Classroom Debates (n.d: 2) points out that the success behind using debates in the classroom is not in winning and losing, but rather how well teams prepare for and deliver their arguments and get potential buy-in from those who support the opposite point of view. Below are the guidelines offered by two different researchers and also a demonstration of what the researcher used to do in the debating classroom. The first guidelines have been accessed from Classroom Debates (n.d:2).

- **Procedure**

a. Prepare guidelines and a set of rules to assist learners as they prepare for the debate.
    - Include a time frame in which learners have to prepare for the debate and how they are to present their material;
    - Allow non-debate learners to be adjudicators assist them in how to be objective in rating their peers' performance;
    - Determine if non-debating learners will be allowed to vote.
b. Provide sources which will teach learners about debates and their structure; consider holding a practice debate to help learners understand the process.
c. Consider having learners prepare brief position papers which also include their reaction to the debate process and how they were able to reach consensus in their team's arguments.
d. Select the format you plan to use: teams, individual learners, or all learners.
e. Research controversial, news-breaking and stimulating topics to encourage dynamic and energetic classroom discussion. Learners are more likely to be authentic when they debate a subject to which they can relate.
f. Review the debate process previously established and ask for questions and clarification on the day of the debate.
g. Prepare rating rubrics and distribute to adjudicators before the debate begins.
h. Begin the debate, giving learners as much autonomy as possible.
i. Facilitate classroom discussion and debrief the process at the end of the debate.
j. Distribute both learners' and instructor's evaluations to the teams.
k. Have a plan in place if the debate gets hot and learners argue instead of debate. Review guidelines before the debate begins to minimise inappropriate discussion and behaviour.

Speech and Debate Union (n.d:8) advises teachers to introduce learners to the informal debate before the formal one. Speech and Debate Union further advises that debating can be done one speaker at a time in front of all the learners or all

learners can be involved in debating at the same time. The advantage in this format, according to Debate Union, is that everyone is able to debate in a much shorter time span and learners are not put in a position of having to sit and listen to numerous other debaters. Also, it has the additional advantage that shyer learners are not subjected in their first attempts at debate to such a large audience, but the disadvantage is that you will need more than one venue. Thus, to have multiple simultaneous debates, it is necessary to break the class into groups of teams.

Below are the preparation guidelines of the debate format supplied by Ebata (2009:1):

a.   Generate a proper debate topic for your learners, preferably a controversial issue (such as death penalty) that allows learners to think critically and deeply. The topic should challenge your learners by requiring them to use all of their acquired English skills in order to participate.

b.   Prepare two handouts: one that describes effective debate skills and expressions, and another to facilitate learners' note taking during the debate.

• **Procedure**

Step 1: To provide background information, have learners research the topic in English and select key vocabulary they find while reading.

Step 2: In groups of three, have learners present what they have learnt about the topic from their research.

Step 3: After sharing information, each group should combine the new vocabulary they discovered into one list.

Step 4: Have each group then present their vocabulary list. Note each group's words on the board. Before the next class, create a master handout containing all of the words everyone found.

Step 5: In the following class, after handing out the master vocabulary list, instruct learners to take either the pro or con side of the topic. Tell them they will have two weeks to write a three to five page mini research paper on their position.

Step 6: Once learners hand in their first draft, correct the papers and hand them back in the next class. Give them another week to make revisions and resubmit a second draft.

Step 7: After the mini research papers have been completed and returned, begin teaching effective debating methods such as expressing arguments, addressing opinions, and drawing conclusions. Also be sure to cover essential debate procedures.

Step 8: Once you are confident your learners understand the basics, have them actually debate the topic. Learners in the audience should take notes on the previously prepared note taking handout.

Step 9: After the debate, initiate a whole-class discussion on what went well and what was lacking in their debate.

The following is the debate experience of the researcher: The researcher used to be a reserved and shy learner during her high school years. The researcher would listen and watch her school mates debating and it was a great experience and motivating, but the researcher could not take part. Most of learners who took part in the debates are now vocal characters and have public speaking careers.

Due to teaching, the researcher outgrew aloofness and shyness and the researcher implemented debate as a teaching technique in her grade six classrooms. All my learners were persuaded to participate in the debating process. The researcher guided them to choose a controversial topic based on the theme they were tackling during that week. Due to large classes, the researcher divided learners into groups of five to six. They would choose to debate in the affirmative or negative side.

When they were still excited about their chosen side, the researcher would distribute the guiding material prepared for the theme and encourage them to listen, use the library and even to interview the individuals they thought could be the holders of the information they were seeking. They had to jot down their facts or points. They would come back to the class and discuss their information in groups, choose three speakers to represent them when debating with the other opponent group, a chairperson and a judge or judges to represent the group.

The next period, all the affirmative side groups merged and all the negative side groups would also do the same. In these large groups they would combine their research information and help each other to construct authentic arguments for debate. They would choose three speakers, a chairperson, two judges and the rest would be the audience. The above process would apply to both sides (affirmative and negative).

Three separate periods were used for the debating process. During the debate every learner participated; even the audience jotted down what they thought would need attention during debriefing as they were listening to the debaters. The judges would comment and let the audience comment or ask questions they felt were not covered during the rebutting period. It was not easy during the few first days, but as learners got used to the practice they really enjoyed debating in EFAL. Zare and Othman (2013:1508) insist that if we want to help our learners acquire and promote cognitive skills; we need to be patient and should not expect big changes in a short period of time. The authors further state that no teaching methods and learning tools can change learners into critical thinkers overnight; as like any other skills, these skills are also developed throughout a lifetime.

3.3.5.5   Benefits of debate

The study of Alasmari and Ahmed (2013:148) affirms that debate is an efficient way of introducing listening and speaking in the classroom. Its' benefits are developing public speaking skills, critical thinking skills, research skills and teamwork skills. Again, Alasmari and Ahmed affirm that the use of debate leads to conversation and speech presentation. These verbal communications in EFAL classes will first of all

drive out learners' fear about speaking the target language. Moreover, regular practice of debate, conversation and speech will improve their fluency, pronunciation and vocabulary. Then they will also be familiar with jargon and technical terms as debating covers a variety of areas and issues. To reinforce the learners' learning, Alasmari and Ahmed (2013:148) suggest that teachers' work as moderators, facilitate the learning and provide feedback on speeches with a focus on delivery and more particularly on gesture, posture, pronunciation, accent, intonation, stress, vocabulary, data and information, relevancy of the information and logic building. Thus, while practicing debate, speech and conversation in the class, learners will practice many skills, learn new words and collect information about many areas which all together will enrich their spoken English and ultimately make them confident speakers.

Convincingly, Speech and Debate Union (n.d:28) supports the above benefits asserting that debates offer learners the opportunity to develop and practice oral skills, yet it is not only structured, but also interactive. These skills are extremely important to academic and personal development. The Speech and Debate union explains that debate requires that participants listen, think and respond. It is not enough for the debater to simply memorise and perform a speech. Instead, debaters must listen to their opponents, engage in a questioning process and incorporate this information into their own presentations.

In fact, Morse (2011:114) declares that speaking is one of the major skills developed by using debate in the language teaching classroom. Further, according to Contemporary Learning Series (2009:12), debates encourage learners to speak in front of their peers. Then, learners further their speaking skills by use of monologue and dialogue. The series also shows that activities such as oral brainstorming and public speaking are examples of monologue skills development. As a part of dialogue development, learners are involved in cross-examining each other (using both questions and answers); discussions during the preparation for a particular debate or even during the short time-outs at the debate itself; and in interviewing other learners and adults in preparation of the debate material.

Debaters need updated information about issues and concepts in different fields. While presenting their logic and arguments, learners acquire standard delivery skills to convince judges and audiences (Alasmari & Ahmed 2013:148). Debates lead learners to adopt a point of view and defend their position as they may well have to do in the real world. In order to defend their position, Learning Series (2009:12) points out that they have to do research. This also aids in advancing their researching skills. When presenting their findings in the class, the learners' language and presenting skills are developed.

Alasmari and Ahmed (2013:148) further indicate that teachers can introduce simple but controversial topics to the class. If the teacher asks learners to comment on those topics while sitting in their respective seats, learners will feel encouraged to take part in discussion. Eventually, they will be encouraged to speak in English. In addition, through practice of debate, learners can improve their listening skills (Alasmari and Ahmed 2013:148). Learners will have to listen carefully so that they can answer questions from their opponents in a highly creative manner in order to convince the judges.

In addition reading skills are included in debate instruction for language learning. It is true that most debates are performed orally; however, reading is widely used in the preparatory stage for a particular debate. While reading, learners practice skimming and scanning techniques, as well as reading aloud to their team. In fact, learners have to do informative reading from encyclopaedias, newspapers, magazines, deports, and debate-related materials in order to collect background information and facts for their arguments. As a result, reading activities during learners' research encourage them to make good use of the school as well as other public and private libraries. Therefore, debates give learners the responsibility of generating their own learning experience. Alasmari and Ahmed (2013:149) add that debating requires knowledge and extensive study of current issues. These studies enhance the learners' reading habits and develop their vocabulary. To minimise the learners' work, the Contemporary Learning Series (2009:12) suggests that teachers should provide text material.

Moreover, the practise gained in preparing speeches, according to the Learning Series, improves learners' ability to express their ideas on paper. As they learn how to grab their audience's attention, how to organise clearly, and how to support their ideas. Thus among the writing activities for debate-related language learning, learners practice writing and presenting notes. Morse (2011:115) adds that speech writing involves the development of process writing and research writing skills, both of which are immensely important for language development. Hence, such activities help them put their thoughts across in a concise manner, often forming their individual style of presenting.

Although most debate activities are introduced on junior or senior high school levels, Morse (2011:114) claims learners are already learning about conducting academic research, which greatly benefits them in their further college education and careers. Consequently, participation in debate activities prepares learners for further education and careers which are enhanced by the skills they acquired in their debate programme.

Informal debates, in which everyone's opinion is regarded as valuable, encourage learner's self-expression, as Bertrand and Stice (2002:98) point out. The authors further illustrate that informal debates allow teachers to gauge the extent of the information learners have acquired and how well they have synthesised and organised it. Additionally, debates promote growth in speaking and listening as presenters engage in making their position clear and audiences engage in following arguments and drawing conclusions.

Alasmari and Ahmed (2013:148) mention that, while writing scripts, learners practice writing composition in an organised way because, to write these scripts, they need to brainstorm the topic and jot down points. Therefore, they learn how to think about a topic in a systematic manner and also to link points.

Furthermore, good forms of debate incorporate a high level of interaction among learners where they present and support arguments, answer questions or rebut arguments and finally make an appeal or summary, according to Alasmari and Ahmed (2013). They express the opinion that, if debating is practiced regularly,

learners will learn both the English language and presentation skills which will make them confident users of English language in academic, social and professional settings.

Debate is intended to promote teamwork (Morse 2011:110) as its three-to-three style encourages learners to work together in preparation of the activity. As they work in collaboration, tolerance is instilled and they commence to appreciate each other's ideas and value the presence of team members. Accordingly, the research and presentation of a debate is a team effort, and participation in activities like debate explicitly develops the skills needed to work in teams.

In addition, learners are focused on the content, rather than on the details of grammar or tests in writing (Morse 2011:111). This focus overrides their possible lack of confidence. By working together, learners improve their language skills in a non-threatening environment along with free movement into areas not necessarily covered by the text materials.

The argument posed by the Speech and Debate Union (n.d:28) is that whether or not a debate topic is related to a particular curriculum, it can be used to explore issues in an area such as social studies, economics or history. The Contemporary Learning Series (2009:12) adds that it can also give learners a role and structure in which to express opinions that may differ from those of the instructor.

Lastly, Global Dimension (n.d:1) indicates that formal debates are also a useful assessment tool at the end of a topic, helping you to gain an insight into learners' understanding of a new topic you have been covering. Informal debates can also be used to introduce new topics and to identify misconceptions.

3.3.5.6   Drawbacks of debate

According to Goodwin's (2003) experience and literature, there are three specific aspects in debating that learners may consider as negative are: Firstly, since arguing requires open disagreement, learners may associate it with negative interpersonal or emotional qualities like hostility and fighting (Benoit 1983; Trapp 1986; Walker 1991;

Tannen 1998). In this case, some learners may understandably be quite reluctant to engage actively in debate.

Secondly, learners may find the competitive nature of this specific form of arguing to be intimidating or silencing. In particular, gender differences in argumentation styles according to Meyer, Brashers, Winston and Grob (1997:23) may mean that some women are disadvantaged in debates. So therefore, learners may rightfully object that debate exercises are unfair.

Finally, learners may simply find exercises to be unfamiliar. They may resist the innovation, preferring instead activities such as class discussion and group projects through which they already know how to learn. However, Goodwin (2003:157) found that there was no evidence that competition affected any one group of learners unequally.

3.3.5.7 Concluding remarks

In order to facilitate expressiveness, fostering critical thinking in your lessons is essential. In fact, the use of debate in EFAL classes especially increases learners' speaking skills, and the information learners gather from their research plays a vital role in building their reasoning ability.

In addition, debating allows them to utilise the related vocabulary they picked up from their reading. Finally, by evaluating their debate, Ebata (2009:2) claims that learners can learn from each other about their own strength and weaknesses.

In summary, Zare and Othman (2013:1507) corroborate that debate encourages learners to learn course content better, since they are engaged in the course content actively, broadly, deeply and personally. Then, debating also trains them to assess the data they get on a daily basis. Hence, debate provides a valuable opportunity of classroom interaction to develop learners' speaking skills in EFAL.

3.4   SUMMARY

This chapter shows how interactive activities in a classroom interaction approach have an influence on individual's performance in learning EFAL for communicative competence. This suggests that interacting with ideal individuals who serve as a model in a ZPD also enables the learner to expand his or her knowledge. However, to achieve this, a healthy and conducive learning environment ought to be created by implementing interactive activities that will equip learners with the practice of English as first additional language. Such activities should provide learners with opportunities to share ideas, test their thinking, and examine different perspectives on issues.

Indeed, discussion plays a significant role for scaffolding learners' learning as it can direct the learners towards what they can expect in the activity. It also serves as an ice breaker since it is easy to be utilised for introducing a lesson because it activates the learners' inner knowledge. Thus, discussion creates a platform where learners can also tell their stories in a natural, relaxed manner. Since storytelling is a habitual unaware routine, then, if learners are encouraged to use the target language in their daily lives, it could lead to communicative competence. As with discussion, stories can also be used as scaffolding on which learners can build their own stories. Role play is an experiential teaching technique. After the stories have been told, read or written learners can role play the stories to consolidate what had been taught. Most of the researchers observed in classes that use role play learners become confident and fluent. The constructivist learning environments suggested in this chapter can allow learners to construct their learning as individuals and also as pairs and groups.

Furthermore, reading aloud is the other form of enhancing communicative competence and also scaffold learning for learners who do not understand a topic. It is an activity that leads to improvement in language expression across subjects in the curriculum. As learners read aloud or the teacher reads aloud, serving as a model whom learners observe and imitate, as Bandura's cognitive theory proposes, they learn new vocabulary and grammar.

Lastly, debate is a way of encouraging learners to conduct research by listening, speaking, reading and writing. In this way, learners construct their own opinions, and

make mistakes, and correct themselves as there are no wrong or right answers. Thus it creates a less threatening environment. Hence, it opens opportunities for confidence development where learners express their own thoughts. In short, classroom interactive activities complement each other and can be used in many circumstances to enhance communicative competence in EFAL.

Based on the information given on the classroom interaction activities, the idea is that learners have to learn the target language from different perspectives that stimulate their interest to learn more. By interaction with other learners, skills are shared to produce better individuals and enhance their self-efficacy. Learners become effective as they demonstrate their abilities to their peers acknowledge their participation and also grow in confidence.

In Chapter 4, the researcher presents the teaching methods and classroom interaction activities across the curriculum and the assessment policy statement for this study.

CHAPTER 4

TEACHING METHODS AND CLASSROOM INTERACTION ACTIVITIES ACROSS THE CURRICULUM AND ASSESSMENT POLICY STATEMENT

4.1   INTRODUCTION

Since classroom interaction in teaching EFAL in the Intermediated Phase is explored in this doctoral study, then it is important to scrutinise the methods employed in teaching the EFAL and interactive activities across the curriculum in the Intermediate Phase as well. The purpose for the above-mentioned investigation is to perceive how the investigated phenomenon fits in the above mentioned investigated elements. Indeed the curriculum plays an important role in the country's economic growth and development. Thus, for the curriculum to be effective i.e., producing productive citizens who are employable and competently aligned with the international status quo, then the consistent review of the curriculum to match international markets is important for the country to. Accordingly, the curriculum should generate learners with skills that will enable them to produce what is expected from them in their different chosen careers by their employers.

The study of Braslavsky (n.d:1) defines *curriculum* as the educational foundations and contents, their sequencing in relation to the amount of time available for the learning experiences, the characteristics of the teaching institutions, the characteristics or the learning experiences, in particular from the point of view of methods to be used, the resources for learning and teaching (e.g. textbooks and new technologies), evaluation and teachers' profiles. Graves (2008:149) asserts that curriculum involves planning what is to be taught/learned, implementing it and evaluating it.

For planning the curriculum, Siegel (2000 cited in Huang, Trube & Cunlan 2011:7) suggest five assumptions as foundations for curriculum development:

- young children learn language easily and enjoy the experience;
- language should be learned in an interactive way;

- the teaching of different subject areas should be interactive;
- language learning should be about everyday life; and
- children should enjoy the experience.

Teachers are the appropriate individuals to apply the above, as they are perceived as the catalysts in curriculum implementation. In fact, a remarkable curriculum may diligently be compiled, but if the implementation is not effective, then it becomes null and void. As a result, the DoE (2009 cited in Taole 2013:40) indicate that the implementation of any curriculum is dependent on the teachers who implement it. How teachers make sense of the curriculum; what they oppose and what they regard as helpful can make a difference. On the same note, Fullan (1991 cited in Taole 2013:40) indicates that teachers are the principal agents in curriculum review. As a result, they have to be the main source of analysis and evidence when a new curriculum is introduced.

The point the researcher is making is that the curriculum cannot be separated from the teaching methods/approaches. For this study, methods and approaches will be used interchangeably as in my opinion they mean the same. For the curriculum to be implemented, there are certain methods to be utilised to aid learners to attain communicative competence in EFAL.

Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary (1980:717) defines *method* as a systematic procedure, technique, or mode of inquiry employed by or proper to particular discipline or art. In agreement with Webster's dictionary, www.ask.com/web states that *teaching method* refers to the principles and the tactics that are used by a teacher in giving instruction to a group of learners. The website adds by giving examples of some common teaching methods which include class participation, recitation and memorisation.

4.2   BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE AND TEACHING METHODS

The way the message is delivered to the listeners plays an important role in the activity. The approach needs to attract the attention of the listeners. Therefore, it

needs to be acknowledged that learners are not empty vessels; they have information that needs to be activated. Hence, as teachers, we must have a way of transmitting the information to interest the learners, since they come to the learning situation with information that needs to be activated, shaped or modelled to suit their learning. This follows that it is crucial to choose methods that will suit individual learners in the teaching and learning environment to enhance communicative competence in EFAL.

It is obvious that in learning, one cannot put facts into others' minds. A teacher should find a way to show learners something, and they can use their own intelligence to learn (Engvid 2011; Yang 2011). Jones (2007:2) also asserts that being a teacher means helping people to learn. To get the knowledge from out there to in here is for the learner himself to do. So the art of teaching is to know how to help the learner in this process (Barnes 1976 cited in Dam 1998:27).

In fact, a teacher has to know which methods are appropriate methods to help the learners to achieve the learning goal. Yang (2011:2) proclaims that the teaching method is an important factor influencing the effectiveness of learning and teaching. Thus, the successful classroom is guided by a specific teaching goal, such as, increasing learners' ease with the target language and teaching methods of that particular lesson. As a result, each teaching goal suggests different methods for guiding the lesson.

4.3 TRADITIONAL CLASSROOMS VERSUS CONSTRUCTIVIST CLASSROOMS

The recent study of Gosh (2010:n.p) recounts that there was a time when a traditional approach to teaching was adopted by most of the teachers, where the learners used to be dependent only on the lecture delivered by the teacher. As a consequence of the latter, learners were not exposed to enough practice in speaking, and interaction among the learners in the classroom was almost absent. Gosh continues that as the education system changed over time, so have the teaching methods. Since the education system now demands more learner

interaction rather than just listening to the instructor, the classroom interaction teaching approach is essential in today's education system.

Furthermore, classroom interaction permits learners the liberty to construct their own thoughts and share them with their peers. As learners are encouraged to share their opinions using the target language, communication competence is developed. Therefore, teacher-efficacy and the classroom environment play an important role in infusing the constructivist approach. Below is a comparison of instruction in a traditional and constructivist learning environment.

Table 4.1: Traditional and constructivist learning environment

Traditional Classrooms	**Constructivist Classrooms**
Curriculum is presented part to whole, with emphasis on basic skills.	Curriculum is presented whole to part with emphasis on big concepts.
Strict adherence to fixed curriculum is highly valued.	Pursuit of learner questions is highly valued.
Curricular activities rely heavily on textbooks and workbooks.	Curricular activities rely heavily on material and source of data
Learners are viewed as blank slates onto which information is etched by the teacher.	Learners are viewed as thinkers with emerging theories about the world.
Teachers generally behave in a didactic manner, disseminating information to learners.	Teachers generally behave in an interactive manner, mediating the environment for learners.
Teachers seek the correct answer to validate learners' learning.	Teachers seek the learners' point of view in order to understand learners' present conceptions for use in subsequent lessons.

Traditional Classrooms	Constructivist Classrooms
Assessment of learners learning is viewed as separate from teaching and occurs almost entirely through testing.	Assessment of learners learning is interwoven with teaching and occurs through teacher observation of learners at work and through learner exhibitions of portfolios.
Learners primarily work alone.	Learners primarily work in groups

Source: Brooks & Brooks (1999).

The early study of Stage, Muller, Kinzie and Simmons (1998; Smart, Witt & Scott 2012) illustrate that constructivist approaches emphasise learners actively constructing their own knowledge rather than passively receiving information transmitted to them by teachers and textbooks. This means that, from a constructivist perspective, knowledge cannot simply be given to learners. Hence, learners must construct their own meanings. Overall, teaching methods can be classified into two broad categories, namely a teacher-centred approach and learner-centred approach.

4.3.1   Traditional classrooms/Teacher-centred classrooms

In traditional classrooms, learning is centred on the teacher's teaching. The teacher concentrates on the subject matter to be presented, not on the learners' individual needs. Indeed, Alexandra (2013; Al-Zu'be; 2013) highlights that in a traditional classroom the teacher had the dominant role of an all-knowing leader who 'filled learners' empty heads with knowledge'. Alexandra indicates that in this approach, teaching is based on a stale, passive lecture format, mainly focusing on the teacher who is forever trying to instil knowledge into the minds of passive learners. These teachers tend to focus more on what they do rather than on what the learners are learning. In addition, Alexandra proclaims that this often leads to learners who are passive and who do not take responsibility for their own learning.

Furthermore, Al-Zu'be (2013:24-25) maintains that in teacher-centred classrooms, the curriculum relies on the teachers to use their expertise in helping the learners understand and make connections where the learners play a receptive role in the learning. While the teacher acts as a knowledge transmitter, the learners act as the receiving end. Therefore, the curriculum and the materials used, according to Alexandra (2013:205), are usually not adapted so as to meet the specific needs of the learners.

In terms of the lessons, Nunan (1996; Al-Zu'be 2013) shows that teachers pay a great deal of attention to classroom management, particularly on maintaining control over the flow of events where there is little or no noise in the classroom situation. As a result, interaction is not fully practiced in such classrooms. In actual fact, in the traditional view knowledge is seen as objective and factual and separated from the knower (Nunan 1996:46); alternatively learners do activities related to the teacher's presentation during or after the lesson each on their one. This means that the learner does not seek assistance from peers as the only information provider is the teacher. Hayo (2007; Al-Zu'be 2013:25) conclude that there is separation between the teaching process and that of assessing or testing and using assessments to monitor the learners' learning. Thus, the desired learning is tested indirectly by the use of objectively scored exams. In these kinds of teaching and learning environments, learners are tested of matters taught some months ago as assessment is separated from the teaching and learning. This shows that the main participant in the traditional classroom is the teacher who transfers knowledge to the learners and learners have to receive without questioning the teacher or the learning matter.

4.3.1.1 Teacher's responsibility in the teacher-centred classrooms

In the teacher-centred classrooms according to Brophy (2006 cited in Al-Zu'be 2013:26), the teacher takes time to listen to the manner in which the learners pronounce and utter words in order to make corrections where necessary. Furthermore, Al-Zu'be (2013:27) mentions that the learners direct their language questions to the teacher who answers them. Again, the teacher chooses and decides on what topics to teach learners while planning is carried out all around the content that is to be delivered to the learners, rather than being based on the

learners' understanding and engagement in the content being delivered to them. In addition, the approach does not leave room for interactive discussions since the instructor is in control of the class and is the only one who possesses information. As a result, teachers have more responsibilities since they have the responsibility to meet needs of learners depending on their abilities. Al-Zu'be concludes by illustrating that teachers rarely interact with the learners in these environments. This indicates that the teacher is the only leader, manager, controller, and meaning that his or her word is final and no suggestions are accepted.

4.3.1.2　Learners' responsibility in teacher-centred classrooms

According to Al-Zu'be (2013:27-29) learners do not have to show leadership in the class because the teacher is in control and the responsibility of making rules and regulations is only done by the teacher who then passes them on to the learners as a group or class. In fact, Al-Zu'be argues that this kind of approach mainly emphasises on a single discipline. Learners have the responsibility to obey and take orders from the teacher who is the main instructor in the class. Subsequently, the learners become tense and are afraid they might break a rule and get punished. As a consequence of the latter, learners do not take it as their responsibility to develop concepts or ideas unless asked by the teacher to do so. Thus learners are limited in the involvement in their own learning. Therefore, there is no freedom of movement and interaction is seen as disturbance.

Furthermore, Al-Zu'be states that only a few of community members are allowed in the classroom. In my opinion with this approach the teacher is perceived as the only holder of the information. Again, there is a culture of individualism and competition among the learners Al-Zu'be (2013:28) as the approach side-lines the sharing of knowledge and upholds the norm of everyone for him or herself. In addition, there is emphasis on obtaining knowledge which may be outside the context: thus learners learn concepts they are not likely to apply in their real-life world. Also, the teacher solely takes responsibility of managing all the paper-work as well as the organisation of the classroom. Doyle (2008 cited in Al-Zu'be 2013:28) says that only a few learners then help in the management of the class, since the teacher is the sole

leader and makes all the decisions affecting the class. This means that the interaction that aims at developing the learner in totality is ignored.

Also, Al-Zu'be demonstrates that the motivation is then extrinsic since the teacher has to motivate learners using material things such as money. Furthermore, the teacher may put into practice an instructional technique of questioning the learners on the topic covered in the previous lesson as a way of motivating the learners' exploration and critical thinking as well as trying to know how much the learners have understood and areas they did not get well (Liane 2008 cited in Al-Zu'be 2013:29). Finally, according to Martin (2004 cited in Al-Zu'be 2013:29) there is guided discovery where the teacher structures a question or an experience providing a number of steps on how to get the desired results or answer.

4.3.1.3   Advantages of teacher-centred approach/classrooms

The most obvious advantage is, according to Concordia Online Education (2012:1), that the classroom remains orderly since learners are quiet and the teacher retains full control of the classroom and its activities; because, as learners learn on their own, they learn to be independent and make their own decisions; and because the teacher directs all the activities, there is no concern that the learners will miss an important point.

4.3.1.4   Disadvantages of teacher-centred approach/classrooms

However, the Concordia Online Education (2012:1) also indicates the shortcomings of the teacher-centred approach. When learners work alone, they do not learn to collaborate with other learners and communication skills may suffer. Teacher-centred instruction can become boring for learners; their minds may wander and they may miss important facts. Furthermore teacher-centred instruction does not allow learners to express themselves, ask questions and direct their own learning. As a result, there is a low level of learners' choice and learners are passive since the power is primarily with the teacher (Nagaraju, Madhavaiah & Peter 2013:130).

In this approach, when learners work individually and then compare their work with a peer, it is considered as cheating. So, there is no sharing of ideas. Therefore, classroom interaction, as envisaged in this study, might not be possible.

4.3.2   Constructivist/Learner-centred classrooms

Learner-centred classrooms are entrenched in the constructivist viewpoint of teaching. Actually, learners are urged to construct their own ideas about what is about to be learned or what they had learnt. Learners' learning needs are taken into consideration and the teacher uses a variety of teaching approaches suitable for individual learners. Al-Zu'be (2013:24) makes it clear that the learning is mainly focused on the needs of learners, rather than on those of other involved parties, such as administrators and teachers in the education system. Moreover, in this approach, the teacher is placed to facilitate the learning, and to focus on the interests, needs, and learning styles of the learners.

Additionally, Jones (2007:2) affirms that a learner-centred classroom is not a place where the learners decide what they want to learn and what they want to do. Jones emphasises that it is a place where teachers can consider the needs of the learners, as a group and as individuals, and encourage them to participate in the learning process. Hence, the teacher and the textbook help to guide the learners, manage their activities, and direct their learning. Jones further indicates that at different times, learners may be working alone, in pairs, or in groups as per the demands and purpose of activity. Al-Zu'be (2013:25) confirms that in this way, teaching and learning becomes an enjoyable, friendly and rewarding activity.

It should be clear by now that, according to Al-Zu'be (2013:25), the teacher and learners are both active participants since they share the learning responsibility, as the teacher helps to identify how the learner should use the language. Furthermore, the class situation is busy and noisy since it is mainly in groups and discussions (Jeane 2009; Al-Zu'be 2013:25).

Lastly, Nunan (1996:46) concludes that in this approach, the practical view sees knowledge as tentative, subjective, and intimately tied to the knower. Likewise,

Marlowe and Page (1998 cited in Liu & Chen 2010:65) define learning in the constructivist classroom as the cycle of questioning, interpreting, and analysing information, combining information and thinking to develop, build, and alter meaning and understanding of concepts, and integrating new understanding with past experiences. For the learner to construct meaning, he or she must actively strive to make sense of new experiences and in so doing must relate it to what is already known or believed about a topic (Applefield, Huber & Moallem 2001:38). Constructivists such as Piaget (1954) Vygotsky (1978) maintain that learners arrive in any learning situation with a range of prior knowledge and experiences that influence how they respond to new information (epistemology) (Hyslop-Margison & Strobel 2008:78). In other words, in these classrooms learners build their own understanding based on what they already know. Hence, how information is presented and how learners are supported in the process of constructing knowledge is of major significance

4.3.2.1   Teacher's responsibility in the constructivist/learner-centred classrooms

According to Al-Zu'be (2013:26-27) the teacher does not do a lot of monitoring on learners' pronunciation. Therefore, learners act as a source of answer to each other, since they are mandated to take the topics of their own choice. Additionally, planning revolves around the engagement and understanding of the learners in whatever content they have chosen to take and learn. Subsequently, during discussions, learners get to learn some important collaborative and communicative skills from their group members through the group work. Thus, the teacher's responsibility becomes less. On the other hand task demand is less since the learners get to learn from each other within their discussion groups.

4.3.2.2   Learners' responsibility in constructivist/ learner-centred classrooms

In this approach, Al-Zu'be (2013:27-29) demonstrates that learners have the responsibility of playing leadership roles as they do not have many orders to take from their instructors since most activities are based on what learners plan themselves. Therefore, the teacher joins hands with the learners in setting up the

rules and making them effective. Alternatively, learners have the responsibility to develop concepts, reasoning and ideas on their own as they strain to tackle the tasks they have. Also, teaching is interdisciplinary and does not mainly measure a single discipline since it allows formation of partnership with the community as well as business organisations as a way of broadening and enriching the learners' opportunities of learning. Subsequently, learners support, collaborate, and co-operate with one another in the learning.

Besides, Al-Zu'be emphasises that the learner-centred approach mainly focuses on teaching the learners how to use and communicate the knowledge they get to effectively handle and confront the emerging and upcoming issues in real-life situations. As a consequence of the latter, learners have the responsibility to facilitate all the operations and activities taking place in the classroom as they discover the rule, principle, or generalisation on their own without the direction of the teacher. The environment is intrinsically motivating and learners' work out their internal desires because they take pleasure in doing their work and developing their skills. In this manner, learners have a chance to be on integral part of the management of the classroom. In short, most of the work in this approach is done by the learners; nevertheless the teacher has to play the role as a facilitator who makes learning more easily.

4.3.2.3   Advantages of constructivist/learner-centred approach

The advantages of the learner-centred approach are listed by Al-Zu'be (2013:29-30) as: the teacher and the learners share leadership; the teacher and the learners are actively involved; they communicate; both teacher and learner learn together; there is collaboration, support, and co-operating, self-motivation and learners enjoy learning; it is based on multidisciplinary system; supports inclusion of all kinds of learners even those with disabilities; learners can assess themselves and also be assessed by instructor.

As a consequence of the above, Jones (2007; Nagaraju, Madhavaiah & Peter 2013) assert that when learners are working together they: talk more; share their ideas;

learn from each other; are more involved; feel more secured and less anxious; use English in a meaningful and realistic way; and enjoy using English to communicate.

4.3.2.4 Disadvantages of constructivist/learner-centred classrooms

However, Jones also shows the disadvantages of this approach as some of the learners may feel nervous, embarrassed, or tongue-tied; speak English and make many mistakes; speak in their native language, not in English; and not enjoy working together. Nonetheless, the point the researcher makes is that these problems may be surmounted through practice.

4.3.2.5 Role of the teacher in constructivist/learner-centred classrooms

In a learner-centred class, Jones (2007:3) upholds that learners may be teacher led. The author exemplifies that before learners work together, their teacher will help them prepare to work together with explanations and pronunciation practice; while learners are working together, their teacher will be available to give advice and encouragement; after they have finished working together, and the class is reassembled, their teacher will give them feedback, offer suggestions and advice, make corrections, and answer questions.

As a consequence of the latter, then the following patterns are applied in the learner-centred classrooms:

- **Individual work**

Individual work is also promoted in learner-centred classrooms. Likewise, Jones (2007:2) indicates that in learner-centred classrooms, learners can also work individually by preparing ideas or making notes before a discussion, doing a listening task, doing a short written assignment, and/or doing grammar or vocabulary exercises. Then, they can come together and work as pairs to compare their work or share some ideas. This perspective of learning leads us to Piaget's (1952) theory of cognitive constructivism that proposes that humans cannot be given information which they immediately understand and use; instead humans must construct their

own knowledge. Hence the learner has to have individual understanding in order to appreciate and acknowledge the peers' point of view.

- **Pair work**

Lalljee (1998; Jones 2007) are in agreement that pair work builds confidence for the expression of a particular point of view or question. It provides opportunity for thinking things through and for practicing what may be said. Actually, through pair work, learners are generally more motivated to make contributions to the class discussion, or read and react to one another's written work and suggest improvements as well as working together in discussions or in role-plays, sharing ideas, opinions, and experiences.

Jones (2007:7) further shows that in a pair, the atmosphere tends to be more protective and private than in a group. Jones believes that learners often feel less inhibited in a pair, or they can talk about more personal feelings or experiences than they would even in a small group. In fact, pairs seem to be more conducive to cooperation and collaborative while groups tend to be more conducive to (friendly) disagreement and discussion. Therefore, a lively discussion often depends on an exchange of different ideas and a certain amount of conflict.

Lalljee (1998:5-7) recommends that teachers need to provide a variety of pairing as always working with the same partner can lead to stereotypical ideas. The teacher should plan for mixed pairs or same abilities pairs when providing opportunities for pair work. For instance, can pair work could be done at the beginning of a session, during a session, at the end of a session' or throughout the session. Hence, pair work can also lead to group work.

- **Group work**

Brown (1994 cited in Choudhury 2005:80) states that group work is a generic term covering a multiplicity of techniques in which two or more learners are assigned a task that involves collaboration and self-initiated discussion. Sullivan (2000 cited in

Yu 2008:49) claims that group and pair work have three value systems, namely those of choice, freedom and equality. Brown maintains that the notion of choice in pair or group work consists of the choice of partners or groups, the idea of freedom because learners in pairs or groups have a right to talk freely and are also free from teacher's control, and the idea of equality because learners in groups are equal, and the power of teacher within groups is also diminished or neutralised (Choudhury 2005:80).

Lalljee (1998:5) stresses that learners should be given the opportunity to work in friendship groups, with the teacher keeping track of who is working with whom and when, more specifically because changing group size is easier to plan and participation in different groups provides learners with the opportunity to discuss and understand group dynamics and team work.

In relation to talkative learners who are full of ideas, Jones (2007:7) suggests that they may work better in groups of three while less talkative learners may do better in groups of four to five. On the other hand, it may be difficult for learners in a larger group to get close enough to one another to converse comfortably. In addition Jones shows that usually the maximum comfortable size for a group is five, and the ideal size is three. However, Jones demonstrates that in a larger group, there may be more ideas flowing, more different opinions, and a more lively discussion, although in a larger group some learners will participate less because they are less confident, or have less to say. Choudhury (2005:81) demonstrates that the advantages of group work or pair work is that it frees the teacher from the usual role of instructor-corrector-controller, and allows him or her to wander freely around the class.

- **Whole class teaching or action**

This pattern is suitable for the introduction of the lesson and during the feedback session. In this setting the teacher can give the learners instructions and guidance on how to approach an activity so as to make their interaction. Jones (2007:2) agrees that, if the whole class can interact with the teacher and ask questions or brainstorm ideas, then every learner will benefit from the discussion and sharing of ideas.

Despite the fact that the learner-centred approach is more advantageous than the teacher-centred approach, both these approaches are essential in the school curriculum since each has its own strengths and weaknesses. Nonetheless, learner-centred approach creates opportunities for learners to interact naturally at their own pace and according to their learning capabilities as there is a freedom of communication not the tension that might be created by the teacher's authority.

4.4 TEACHING APPROACHES IN THE NATIONAL CURRICULUM STATEMENT GRADES R-12 OF SOUTH AFRICA

According to DBE (2011:3) the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) Grade R-12 represents a policy statement for learning and teaching in South African schools and comprises of the following:

- Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS) for all listed subjects in the document;
- National policy pertaining to the programme and promotion requirements of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12;
- National Protocol for assessment Grades R-12.

The development of the NCS Grade R-12 is fully discussed in the background and knowledge of the CAPS section in this Chapter; so far the researcher firstly wanted to discuss the approaches used in this curriculum to signify the importance, possibility and suitability of implementing classroom interaction as a teaching approach for enhancement of communicative competence. The following approaches are recommended by the CAPS for teaching EFAL.

4.4.1 Text-based approach

The study of Tingting (2011:7) asserts that a text-based approach implies learning target words through reading texts, such as acquiring words' meaning and their

typical language environment from texts. Texts include rich word information such as word families, word meaning, lexical chains, and word association.

The DBE (2011:13) explains that the purpose of a text-based approach is to enable learners to become competent, confident and critical readers, writers and viewers of texts. In addition, it involves listening to, reading, viewing and analysing texts to understand how they are produced and what their effects are. Through critical interaction, learners develop the ability to evaluate texts.

This approach shares some principles with the classroom interaction approach explored in this study. Thus, it becomes easy to utilise the interactive activities explained in the previous chapter. It also encourages the constructivist environment as it enables learners to become competent, confident and critical readers.

4.4.2   Communicative approach

The communicative approach in language learning is an approach that is used in learning the second language or foreign language that emphasises an improvement of communicative ability, that is, the ability to apply the language principles in order to produce grammatical sentences and understand when, where the sentences are used and to whom they are addressed (Richard 1997 cited in Irmawati 2012:90). Irmawati further explains that a communicative approach is learner-orientated, because it is dictated by learners' needs and interests. It seeks to personalise and localise language and adapt it to the interests of learners and seeks to use authentic interesting and motivating resources.

The DBE (2011:13) also mentions that a communicative approach suggests that when learning a language, a learner should have a great deal of exposure to the target language and many opportunities to practice or produce the language by communicating for social or practical purposes.

The two approaches specified in the CAPS match the classroom interaction approach envisaged in this study well as they provide learners opportunities to acquire communicative competence by engaging in texts and communication skills

throughout the terms. This leads to the conclusion that for classroom interaction to be implemented there should be strategies that enable the learner to reach his or her full potential in the learning situation.

4.5   STRATEGIES TO INITIATE CLASSROOM INTERACTION

In this study the strategies to initiate classroom interaction activities mentioned below, defined by Herrell and Jordan (2012:26-117) have been selected as follows to attain the main objectives of classroom interaction:

- learning centres
- scaffolding
- script writing
- the use of posters and diaries initiated by Dam (1998)

Since there are many strategies that teachers can employ to make teaching and learning situation successful, the point the researcher wants to make is that there are strategies, depending on the subject matter engaged with, which are more suitable than others. In this study the researcher only selected strategies that match the classroom interaction activities that have been dealt with and the researcher briefly explained their suitability.

A teaching strategy refers to a broad plan of action, which includes the selection of teaching activities with the purpose of achieving a specific outcome. A teaching strategy includes methods, procedures, activities and techniques that may assist the teacher in promoting learners' ability to understand learning content (i.e. knowledge) (Fraser, Loubser & Van Rooy 1996 cited in Van Wyk 2007:19).

Since this study aims to design a framework for the use of classroom interaction as a teaching approach by teachers in teaching English as First Additional Language to enhance learners' communicative competence in schools, then it is assumed that the strategies selected would achieve the anticipated aim.

The early study of Holderness (1998:157) suggests that if we can consciously demonstrate ways of memorising, categorising, comparing, checking and enquiring about language structures and vocabulary items, the additional language learner will benefit enormously. Holderness further indicates that learners will soon emulate the helpful strategies demonstrated by their teacher, for instance, simplification of vocabulary; exaggeration of intonation and gestures; use of pictures, sketches or mime to clarify meaning; acceptance of incorrect phrases; provision of correct words as models; and encouragement to repeat new words.

Alternatively, Herrell and Jordan (2012:17) justify that English learners are most successful when they are supported by language that is contextualised (connected to real objects, visuals and actions); they are then able to see and experience the connection between new English vocabulary and their past experiences; they are involved in authentic learning situation, participating without fear and embarrassment, and given an opportunity to participate in classroom activities at their individual language levels.

The recent study results of Roof and Kreutter (2010:5) indicate that when the teacher gives learners more opportunities to respond during the lesson, the learners' time-on-task, positive behaviour, and achievement increased. Roof and Kreutter further indicate that giving learners clear expectations and modelling and reinforcing these expectations may effectively influence behaviour in the classroom.

In short, the following strategies for learning and teaching fit in well with the criterion factor of constructivist environment/learner-centred learning. These strategies have been tested and if effectively implemented, they positively influence the learners' learning.

4.5.1   Learning centres

Learning centres are places in the classroom where the learners can engage in hands-on activities that allow them to obtain additional experience in using new skills, expand skills usage to more closely match their individual needs, and work corporately with other students (Herrell & Jordan 2012:37). Learning centres are thus

especially effective for meeting the needs of English language learners and other learners who need expanded verbal interaction or hands-on practice to enhance their learning.

Indeed, the researcher has realised that learners like and eagerly learn in the learning or reading centre with colourful story books, junior encyclopaedias, and dictionaries, magazines and newspapers. In the researcher's classroom, the centre was promoted with inviting phrases such as: let's enjoy reading, knowledge is power, take one book and read, time to read, reading is awesome, let's enrich our minds (*cf.* Chapter 8.6.3). As learners get used to the centre, during their spare time or after completion of their tasks, they visit the reading centre and take one book to read. As learners become skilled in using a dictionary for explanation of new words, then it becomes easier to construct their own perspective of learning. In actual fact, the idea of learning centres encourages classroom interaction as sometimes in pairs or group, learners select the one book to read and after reading they discuss the stories. In this way, learners' communicative competence is enhanced as they discuss their understanding using the target language.

4.5.2   Scaffolding

Harr (2008:12) asserts that, though scaffolding can be described as a process of "incremental assistance", it involves more than a logically sequenced lesson where a teacher paces learning tasks so that learners advance in small steps towards a learning goal. Harr further explains that scaffolding requires a contribution from both teacher and learner, which is often referred to as collaboration. At the same time, as the teacher collaborates with the learner, there is an opportunity for the teacher to identify gaps where the learners need scaffolding in order to reach their learning potential. There are various types of scaffolding but in this study the researcher briefly highlights verbal and visual scaffolding.

Wisener (2008:71) defines verbal scaffolding as the process by which someone interprets an event that is unfamiliar or beyond a learner's ability in order to assist the learner in understanding that event. Wisener further provides examples of verbal scaffolding as the use of thinking aloud, paraphrasing, providing correct punctuation

by repeating learner's responses, reinforcing definitions in context, slowing speech, speaking in phrases, and increasing pauses. So if learners are verbally assisted in their attempt to use the target language they will have confidence through practise and later become competent in their language usage.

Visual scaffolding, as delineated by Herrell and Jordan (2012:26), is an approach in which language used in instruction is made more understandable by the display of drawings or photographs that allow learners to hear English words and connect them to the visual images being displayed. To use this strategy, the teacher builds a file or visuals, such as photographs or drawings that can easily be accessed for teaching.

The classroom that practices an interaction approach can be identified by its inside appearance. It is covered in words, phrases and pictures. These teaching aids are not just randomly displayed. They are well sequenced so that learners can use them as a source for learning. The work displayed on the wall is not only done by the teacher but even the learners have to construct their own visuals to contribute to their learning. Overall, scaffolding is a learning strategy that supports classroom interaction among the teacher and the learners, learners and learners and also builds the learners' confidence in learning on their own.

4.5.3   Scripting

The study of Lozanov (1982 cited by Herrell & Jordan 2012:37) affirms that scripting is a strategy that prepares English language learners with sample language interactions or situational dialogues appropriate for upcoming events. Moreover, these sample language interactions, called scripts, are presented and practiced prior to the learners encountering the situation in which the scripts will be needed. Hence, preparing and practicing scripts in advance of events is supportive of the learner because it lowers anxiety and builds confidence in the ability to communicate in English.

Generally, in role play, before learners can play their roles, they practice their lines for performance, although they are not limited to memorising the written scripts.

Therefore, the script is just there for guidance and learners are encouraged to paraphrase or construct their own ideas with which they are comfortable. Actually, scripting is usually practiced for debate and other activities that become more understandable when using role-play. As a consequence of the practice, learners' confidence is boosted and their communicative competence is developed.

4.5.4   The use of posters

Generally, learners learn by seeing and touching. It is advisable for a teacher to have authentic materials prepared to let learners learn by seeing, touching, talking and by doing. In fact, Dam (1998:39) mentions that the use of posters are a way of keeping track with the ongoing learning process, keeping chaos at bay, and raising awareness. Additionally, posters also provide learners with visible authentic language.

4.5.5   The use of diaries

Diaries create a possibility of a personal record of what one is doing in one book, and keeping individual learner's work (Dam 1998:40). In addition, diaries are useful for group work and pair work when distributing tasks and homework. But most importantly, Dam argues that the diary is a tool for awareness-raising and genuine, authentic language use. In this way, learners also practice to write down their self-reflections at an early stage. As verbal activities complement the writing activities, thus diaries lead learners to jot down the teacher's feedback and their responses. Thus the strategies that initiate classroom interaction lead us to our South African reviewed curriculum known as CAPS.

4.6   CURRICULUM POLICY CHANGE: FROM RNCS TO CAPS

South Africa has undergone curriculum challenges since 1994 in a quest to seek a better curriculum that can raise its society. Outcomes-Based Education was introduced in 1997 to overcome the curricular divisions of the past, but the experience of implementation prompted a review in 2000 (DBE 2011:3). The review led to the first curriculum revision: the Revised National Curriculum Statement

(RNCS) Grades R-9 and the NCS Grades 10-12. In her study, Taole (2013:39) indicates that the ongoing implementation challenges resulted in another review in 2009, which led to the amendment of the two National Curriculum Statements which is RNCS Grades R-9 and NCS Grades 10-12.

In July 2009, the Minister of the Department of Basic Education appointed a panel of experts to investigate the nature of the challenges and problems experienced in the implementation of the NCS. The panel was also expected to develop a set of recommendations to improve the implementation of the NCS (Dada, Dipholo, Hoadley, Khembo, Muller & Volmink 2009:5).

The Minister's brief was in response to wide-ranging comments in writing and verbally from a range of stakeholders such as teachers, parents, teacher unions, school management and academics, over several years on the implementation of the NCS. The most significant criticisms of the NCS, according to Dada *et al.* (2009:5), were the onerous administration required of the teachers, confusion and stress, curriculum policy and guideline documents, transition between the grades and phases, assessment, learning and teaching support materials, and teacher support and training.

Accordingly, the panel set out to identify the challenges and pressure points, particularly with reference to teachers and learning quality, to deliberate on how things could be improved and to develop a set of practical interventions (Dada *et al.* 2009:5). In 2009 the panel presented their report to the Minister and the Department of Basic Education, then Department of Education). The report presented an understanding of the context, nature and cause of these pressure points and also a five-year plan to improve teaching and learning via a set of short-term interventions aimed at providing immediate relief and focus on teachers, and medium- and and longer-term recommendations aimed at real improvement in student learning within a five-year period.

Due to the implementation problems experienced in 2010, according to Taole (2013:39), the Minister of Basic Education announced that from 2012 the two National Curriculum Statements, for Grades R-9 and Grades 10-12, would be

respectively combined in a single document and would be named NCS Grade R-12. Taole adds that the NCS Grade R-12 replaces the old subject statements, learning programme guidelines and subject assessment guidelines in Grade R-12 with the CAPS, national policy pertaining to the programme and promotion requirements, and National Protocol for Assessment in Grades R-12. In the Minister's state address (DBE 2011:3) the Minister stated that the CAPS built on the previous curriculum, but also updated it and aimed to provide clearer specifications of what was to be taught and learnt on a term-by-term basis.

Since every country's curriculum strives to better the learners' education and tries to adapt the curriculum to suit the learners' needs, accordingly the CAPS wished to achieve the aims illustrated below.

4.6.1   The overarching aims of the CAPS

Since South Africa had experienced disparities in education during the previous years, so the careful planning of aims has to be taken into consideration when reviewing the curriculum. To convert the education system, to suit every South African learner irrespective of the race, abilities, income and status therefore, the following aims are applicable to the public and independent schools, according to the DBE (2011:4):

(a)   The National Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement Grade R-12 gives expression to the knowledge, skills and values worth learning in South African schools. This curriculum aims to ensure that children acquire and apply knowledge and skills in ways that are meaningful to their own lives. In this regard, the curriculum promotes knowledge in local contexts, while being sensitive to global imperatives.

(b)   The National Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement Grades R-12 serves the purpose of:

- equipping learners, irrespective of their socio-economic background, race, gender, physical ability or intellectual ability, with the

knowledge, skills and values necessary for self-fulfilment and meaningful participation in society as citizens of a free country;

- providing access to higher education;

- facilitating the transition of learners from education institutions to the workplace;

- providing employers with a sufficient profile of a learner's competences.

According to the purpose of the CAPS Grade R-12, learners have to be encouraged and be given a platform for practicing skills that can lead them to achieve the aims stated by this curriculum. Therefore, teachers are the ones who can make a difference in the competence of learners by implementing relevant approaches in their teaching to produce learners having self-efficacy that can lead them to acquire the communicative competence needed by the employers in their future careers.

(c)   The curriculum is based on the following principles:

- social transformation: ensuring that the educational imbalances of the past are redressed, and that equal educational opportunities are provided for all sections of the population;

- active and critical learning; encouraging an active and critical approach to learning, rather than rote and uncritical learning of given truths;

- high knowledge and high skills: the minimum standards of knowledge and skills to be achieved at each grade are specified and high, achievable standards are set in all subjects;

- progression: content and context of each grade shows progression from simple to complex;

- human rights, inclusivity, environmental and social justice: infusing the principles and practices of social and environmental justice and human rights as defined in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. The NCAPS Grade R-12 is sensitive to issues of diversity

such as poverty, inequality, race, gender, language, age, disability and other factors;

- valuing indigenous knowledge systems: acknowledging the rich history and heritage of this country as important contributors to nurturing the values contained in the Constitution; and

- credibility, quality and efficiency: providing an education that is comparable in quality, breadth and depth to those of other countries.

The curriculum's principles allow elasticity in the learning situation, where learners can learn in different ways based on their heritage and their country's history. Therefore, teachers should have self-efficacy that allows them to instil dynamic efficacy into the learners who can construct their own understanding in order to obtain an education that is comparable to or even better in quality than is current in other countries.

(d)   The CAPS Grade R-12 aims to produce learners that are able to:

- identify and solve problems and make decisions using critical and creative thinking;

- work effectively as individuals and with others as members of a team;

- organise and manage themselves and their activities responsibly and effectively;

- collect, analyse, organise and critically evaluate information;

- communicate effectively using visual, symbolic and/or language skills in various modes;

- use science and technology effectively and critically showing responsibility towards the environment and the health of others;

- demonstrate an understanding of the world as a set of related systems by recognising that problem-solving contexts do not exist in isolation.

In that case, classroom interaction is necessary as the curriculum envisages producing learners who can effectively work as a team in order to communicate effectively.

(e)   Inclusivity should become a central part of the organisation, planning and teaching at each school. This can only happen if all teachers have a sound understanding of how to recognise and address barriers to learning, and how to plan for diversity. Since learners are diverse, the classroom interaction approach should accommodates learners' diverse knowledge in a learning environment where skills and values can be shared and learners appreciate each other with their varied intelligence, recognising that every learner has unique talents.

4.6.2   The subjects and time allocation in the Intermediate Phase

The subjects and instructional time in the Intermediate Phase are as follows:

Table 4.2: Instructional time for Intermediate Phase

Subject	Hours
Home Language	6
First Additional Language	5
Mathematics	6
Natural science and Technology	3,5
Social Sciences	3
Life Skills	4
• Creative Arts	(1,5)
• Physical Education	(1)
• Personal and Social Well-being	(1,5)
TOTAL	**27,5**

Source: DBE (2011:6)

In the CAPS, EFAL is one of the six subjects in the Intermediate Phase. It has an allocation time of five hours per week in the school timetable. During the

implementation of the RNCS Grade R-9, most learners in South African schools were not taught EFAL in Grade 1 to Grade 3. English was only introduced and fully implemented across the curriculum in Grade 4 as the language of learning and teaching. The DBE (2011:8) proclaims that in South Africa, many children start using their additional language, which is often English, as language of learning and teaching in Grade 4. In addition, it states that this means that learners must reach a high level of competence in English at the end of Grade 3. There was a contradiction in this matter since the questions can be asked how a learner could reach a high level of competence in a language whilst it is not regularly used

As a consequence of the latter, there was dissatisfaction and disparities among the schools because learners in Grade 4 were supposed to sit down for their ANA during the course of Grade 4, their first year of starting English as LoLT. Then, these results were compared to their fellow learners who had started English in Grade 1. Consequently, most of the rural and township schools failed the assessment and were classified under-performing schools. Therefore, these results confirm that South Africa is facing a dilemma on how to equip learners in EFAL.

Although English is a cornerstone of the Intermediate Phase curriculum as it is LoLT besides a home language, it is then therefore significant to offer more classroom interaction opportunities for learners to practice and develop their verbal communication skills in order to enhance communicative competence.

4.6.3 Specific aims of EFAL in the CAPS

The DBE (2011:9) implicitly states the specific aims of EFAL as:

- providing a curriculum that enables learners to meet the standards required in further grades;
- producing learners who reach a high level of competence in English by the end of Grade 3;
- the cognitive level of the EFAL should be such that it may be used as LoLT;

- listening, speaking and language usage skills to be further developed and refined in the Intermediate Phase developing the learners' reading and writing skills.

The aims mentioned above pose a huge challenge for Intermediate Phase stakeholders to strive and support learners in order to reach the standard required by the curriculum, as the phase is perceived as a preparatory stage for further education.

4.6.4 The teaching time for the First Additional Language in the Intermediate Phase curriculum

The teaching time for the First Additional Language in the Intermediate Phase is five hours per week. All language content is provided within a two-week cycle (10 hours).

The following time allocation for the different language skills is suggested:

Table 4.3: Time allocation for EFAL

Skills	Time allocation per Two-week Cycle (Hours)		
	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
❖ Listening and Speaking (Oral)	2 hours	2 hours	2 hours
❖ Reading and Viewing	5 hours	5 hours	4 hours
❖ Writing and Presenting	2 hours	2 hours	3 hours
❖ Language Structures and Conventions	❖ **Language Structures and Conventions** and their usage are integrated within the time allocation of the four skills. There is also time allocated for formal practice. Thinking and reasoning are incorporated into the skills and strategies required for Listening and Speaking, for Reading and Viewing, and for Writing and presenting.		

Source: DBE (2011)

4.6.5 Text length

Table 4.4: Length of text to be produced by learners

Task	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
Paragraph • Words	30-40	40-50	50-60
• Sentences	4-5 sentences	5-6 sentences	6-8 sentences
Oral creative texts, e.g. recounts, retelling or telling stories, short talks	1 minute	1minute	1-2 minutes
Written creative and information text, e.g. recounts, stories, reports	At least 50 words 1 to 2 paragraphs	At least 100 words 2-4 paragraphs	At least 150 words 3-5 paragraphs
Longer transactional texts, e.g. letters	Content only 40-60 words	60-80 words	80-100 words
Shorter texts, e.g. • Messages, notes • Diary entries, descriptions, etc.	20-30 words 30-40 words	20-30 words 30-40 words	40-60 words 50-60 words
Summaries	30-40 words from 100	40-50 words from 120	60-70 words from 180

Source: DBE (2011)

These lengths of texts are expected by the curriculum in Intermediate Phase; however it does not limit the learners to produce more.

4.6.6 Length of texts for English as First Additional Language

Table 4.5: Length of texts for learners to engage with

Task	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
Longer listening comprehension texts, e.g. story, interviews, plays, news reports	100-150/ up to 5 minutes	100-200/ up to 5 minutes	150-250/ up to 5 minutes
Shorter listening comprehension texts, e.g. announcements, information texts, instructions, directions	40-60 words/ 1-2 minutes	50-70 words/ 1-2 minutes	60-80 words/ 1-2 minutes
Reading comprehension/ intensive reading texts	100-150 words	150-200 words	200-250 words

Source: DBE (2011)

The length of texts for learners to produce, in my opinion, depends on the ability of the learners. More able learners might exceed these lengths, while the less able learners can do less, while slowly but surely targeting the expected length. In addition, Murphy (2013:1) argues that the text will be easier for the reader to understand, for example, if it employs vocabulary that the reader is familiar with or draws on a socio-cultural identity, experiences and knowledge similar to the reader's own.

4.6.7   Vocabulary to be attained

Table 4.6: Vocabulary to be attained by First Additional Language learners

	Term	1	2	3	4
Vocabulary Common spoken words	Grade 4	1600-2000	1700-2500	1850-3000	2000-3500
	Grade 5	2200-3750	2400-4000	2700-4250	3000-4500
	Grade 6	3250-4750	3500-5000	3700-5250	4000-5500
Reading vocabulary (new words)	Grade 4	750-1700 (75-250)	800-1900 (75-250)	900-2200 (75-250)	1000-2500 (75-250)
	Grade 5	1250-2700	500-3000	1750-3300	2000-3500
	Grade 6	2200-3800	2400-4200	2700-4600	3000-5000

Source: DBE (2011)

South African industries, such as engineering, economics, public administration and medicine need present and future professionals that are competent in the English language. In fact, the learner cannot attain the vocabulary envisioned by the industries and the curriculum in isolation. Therefore, interactive activities provide an environment full of vocabulary as talking and reading aloud create ample and conducive situations of meaningful vocabulary. Vocabulary learning is an integral component of all the teaching plans in the CAPS for EFAL, for example, DBE (2011:33 - 34), meaning that it is an aspect that should be dealt with in depth.

4.6.8   Procedure in teaching EFAL in the CAPS

The CAPS for EFAL, does not clearly illustrate the procedure of how to implement the listening and speaking skills. DBE (2011:9) only indicates that learner's spoken language still needs to be scaffolded (i.e. modelled and supported, for example, with vocabulary and sentence frames). It further shows that, because learners will each progress at a different pace, the teacher needs to tailor speaking opportunities (e.g. the questions she asks) to the level of the individual child. Therefore, as the learners move through the grades, the teacher should expect the learners to speak more and more and their utterances should become longer.

Despite the fact that the CAPS for EFAL is organised in such a way that skills cannot be taught in isolation, as they are interrelated and like a web are interwoven in a coherent whole, there is no guidance for the above-mentioned skills. An example of the interrelation is that the listening skill cannot be taught without speaking skills. Unlike with listening and speaking, the whole reading and viewing process has been illustrated to guide the teacher on how to conduct the reading practice. In that case, teachers are advised to use the guided group reading and independent/pair reading methods and gradually get learners to do more and more independent reading. The DBE (2011:10) summarises the reading process as pre-reading, reading, and post-reading and stages are shown as follows:

Pre-reading

- Activate prior knowledge
- Look at the source, author, and publication date
- Read the first and last paragraphs of a section
- Make predictions

Reading

- Pause occasionally to check your comprehension and to let the ideas sink in
- Compare the content to your predictions
- Use the context to work out the meaning of unknown words as much as is possible; where this is not possible, use a dictionary
- Visualise what you are reading
- Keep going even if you don't understand a part here and there
- Reread a section if you do not understand at all. Read confusing sections aloud, at a slower pace, or both
- Ask someone to help you understand a difficult section
- Add reading marks and annotate key points
- Reflect on what you read

Post reading

- If you will need to recall specific information, make a graphic organiser or outline of key ideas and a few supporting details
- Draw conclusions
- Write a summary to help you clarify and recall main ideas
- Think about and write new questions you have on the topic
- Ask yourself if you accomplished your purpose
- Understand – confirm your understanding of the text
- Evaluate – bias, accuracy, quality of the text
- Extend your thinking – use ideas you saw in text

The reading process can encourage the classroom interaction between the teacher and the learners. Therefore, the process enhances the learners' communicative competence.

4.6.9   Teaching plans

With reference to the policy document CAPS for EFAL DBE (2011:31), the teaching plans indicate the minimum content to be covered every two weeks per term. However, different texts have been used as a basis for designing the two-week teaching cycle. Thus, they have been selected on the basis of how they link together to form an integrated unit, for example learners will listen to a story and then read a story. In relation to the theme, teachers have to select one theme or topic for each two-week cycle that will enable them to link the activities successfully.

4.6.10   Content of teaching plans

Below is the content of the teaching plans of CAPS for EFAL in the Intermediate Phase throughout the year, which is divided into school terms. In these teaching plans, as mentioned previously, storytelling is highly recommended throughout the terms, contrary to role-play which superficially appears only in the first and second term of Grade 5. Conversely, in other grades role-play is not mentioned. Though

reading is not well represented in the teaching plans, it is well explained in the discussion part of the language skills on page nine of DBE 2011 and considered as central to successful learning across the curriculum.

Table 4.7: Spread of text table

	Grade 4	**Grade 5**	**Grade 6**
Term 1			
Weeks 1 & 2	Story, personal recount	Story; personal recount	Story; language game, word puzzle
Weeks 3 & 4	Information text, e.g. news report/ factual recount, map	Information text with visuals, e.g. charts/ tables/ diagrams/ mind maps /maps/ pictures/ graphs; conversation; factual recount	Information text: factual recount, e.g. news report/ factual account; letter; media text e.g. advert; conversation
Weeks 5 & 6	Story and descriptions of people or characters	Story, role play, description of people; invitation; message	Story; personal recounts, e.g. diary/ diary entries
Weeks 7 & 8	Information text, e.g. procedures; instructions, lists	Information diagrams/ mind maps text e.g. procedures; instructions; factual recount, language game	Information text with visuals, e.g. charts/ tables/ diagrams/ mind maps/ maps/ pictures/ graphs; procedures; instructions; definitions, factual recounts, word puzzle
Weeks 9 & 10	Song/poem, game	Poem/ song	Poem; description of a person; description of an object/ animal/ plant/ place; language game

Source: DBE (2011)

	Grade 4	**Grade 5**	**Grade 6**
	Term 2		
Weeks 1 & 2	Story, personal recount, message	Story, conversation; book/ story review	Story
Weeks 3 & 4	Information text with visuals, e.g. charts/ tables/ diagrams/ pictures/ graphs; poster; directions, description of an object, visual text e.g. poster	Information text with visuals, e.g. charts/ tables/ diagrams/ mind maps/ maps/ pictures/ graphs; descriptions of object/s/ plants/ animals/ places; mind map summary	Information text from across the curriculum, e.g. report; description of object/ animal/ plant/ place; visual text, e.g. charts/ tables/ diagrams/ etc.
Weeks 5 & 6	Story and poem	Story	Story, personal recount; personal diary/ letter; role play
Weeks 7 & 8	Information text e.g. procedures, instructions, information text with visuals, e.g. charts/ tables/ diagrams/ pictures/ graphs	Information text e.g. procedures; instructions; factual recounts, role play	Reads information text with visuals, e.g. timetables and television schedules/ charts/ tables/ diagrams/ mind maps/ maps/ pictures; definitions; book review; survey; questionnaire; language game, conversation, word puzzles
Weeks 9 & 10	**SUMMATIVE ASSESSMENT**		

	Grade 4	**Grade 5**	Grade 6
Term 3			
Weeks 1 & 2	Story, description of person/ animal/ character; dialogue, book review	Story; oral description of places/ people; personal recount	Story; personal letter; diary; oral descriptions of places / animals/ plants/ objects
Weeks 3 & 4	Information text with visuals e.g.	Short talk; information text with visuals, e.g. charts/ tables/ diagrams/ mind maps/ maps/ pictures/ graphs; mind map summary	Information text with visuals, e.g. charts/ tables/ diagrams/ mind maps/ maps/ pictures/ graphs; talk; survey; report
Weeks 5 & 6	Story; poem	Story; Poem	Story; poem
Weeks 7 & 8	Information text with visuals, e.g. charts/ tables/ diagrams/ pictures; descriptions of places/ plants/ animals/ objects; and procedures	Information text, e.g. procedures; conversation; language game; information text from across the curriculum, e.g. report	Information texts, e.g. procedures; instructions; information text from across the curriculum, e.g. report; language game; mind map summary
Weeks 9 & 10	Play, role play; dialogue; book review	Play; conversation; dialogue	Conversation, play
Term 4			
Weeks 1 & 2	Conversation; language game; story	Story, language game; personal recount, word puzzle	Story; letter, book review
Weeks 3 & 4	Information text with visuals, e.g. charts/ tables/ diagrams/ pictures; interviews/ talk shows; visual text, e.g. posters/ notices; messages	Information text: magazine article/ news report; factual text; poster	Information text from across the curriculum, e.g. report; short talk; visual text; language game; definitions; word puzzle
Weeks 5 & 6	Story, language game, diary	Story, poem, personal recount; book review	Story, poem, book review; personal letter

	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
Weeks 7 & 8	Conversation; short talk/ announcement; Information text; visual text, e.g. poster/ notice	Information text from across the curriculum, e.g. report; conversation; visual text, e.g. poster	Media text, e.g. magazine article/ news report; poster; advertisement, conversation, discussion
Weeks 9 & 10	**SUMMATIVE ASSESSMENT**		

Source: DBE (2011)

Furthermore, the content is spread in such a way that most of the language areas are interwoven in each term. The most obvious explanation is that the categorisation of areas encourages verbal presentation before the written work takes place. This provides an opportunity for verbal interaction communication. For instance, in week one and two, there are stories and personal recounts. So the acceptable procedure is that the teacher or learners have to tell or read a story; then later the learners relate their stories to the teacher or to their peers in connection with experiences in their daily lives. Then classroom interaction takes place in a natural way as learners learn from their peers' experiences.

However, there is a total exclusion of debate and only a superficial appearance of discussion in the teaching plans. Discussion appears at a very late stage in the last term in Grade 6. In this case, it might be difficult for teachers to utilise debate as it is not shown in the teaching plans, although the Minister had indicated in her state address DBE (2011:3) that the National Curriculum Assessment and Policy Statement Grade R-12 aimed to provide clearer specifications of what was to be taught and learnt on a term-by-term basis. Hence, to some novice teachers, discussion and debate might not be dealt with, as they are not shown in the teaching plans. Consequently, learners may be deprived to fully interact with peers in the classroom.

The exclusion of these activities may result in the disregard of these activities in the Intermediate Phase. Therefore, in my opinion, there is a gap in the Intermediate Phase EFAL CAPS, and that is why this study closely scrutinised the policy

document as to examine the opportunities to create classroom interaction to enhance communication competence in EFAL.

4.6.11   How the texts/activities are sequenced across the two-week cycle

Reading aloud is really effective for engaging learners in a text that would lead them to think aloud. While learners listen to the teacher or peers reading, and discussion occurs, then two-way communication is enhanced and participation is strengthened. Furthermore, the DBE (2011:31) clarifies that the texts do not have to be taught in a particular order. The DBE shows that sometimes the listening and speaking activity should flow from the text reading.

The teaching plans reflect the importance of not letting learners write without them understanding what they are writing about. At times, the mistake teachers make is to let the learners write without an understanding of what to write. Indeed, it is fair for learners to write after discussion and orally interacting with the teacher or peers. Therefore, the DBE (2011:31) stresses that, learners should engage with the different kinds of texts orally and in reading before they are asked to write these texts.

4.6.12   Type of texts prescribed and recommended

Teachers should be creative and choose their own stories, as CAPS for EFAL does not prescribe types of stories to engage with. In most cases, according to DBE (2011:31), no story type is prescribed. Thus, choices may be made from the variety of contemporary stories, imaginative stories (e.g. adventure, science fiction) and historical stories (e.g. myths, legends and fables) that are available.

4.7   CLASSROOM INTERACTION ACTIVITIES ACROSS THE CURRICULUM

Since classroom interaction is of significant importance in the Intermediate Phase, it is imperative to scrutinise the interactive activities across the curriculum that provide increased practice and interaction opportunities among the learners and the teacher.

4.7.1   Discussion across the curriculum

According to Ewens (n.d:1) in literature, the term "discussion" usually refers to diverse body of teaching techniques, which emphasises participation, dialogue and two-way communication. It is one in which the instructor and a group of learners consider a topic, issue, or problem and exchange information, experiences, ideas, opinions, reactions and conclusions with one another. The Fall Newsletter (2005:1) reports that discussion is an excellent forum for learning to think like a specialist by giving learners a chance to discuss a particular field. The Fall Newsletter further advises that before starting an open discussion, you may ask learners to recall some new vocabulary introduced in a talk or reading and walk through the process of applying that vocabulary to an example at least once and then give them many opportunities to practice.

The Fall Newsletter (2005:1) continues to state that learners should be encouraged to talk to each other, not just to the teacher. The teacher should keep his or her contributions neutral and not take a stance; nevertheless, learners' thinking should be probed. Also, if necessary, the teacher can ask a learner to play the devil's advocate role, rather than playing it him- or herself.

Furthermore, Hollander (2002 cited in The Fall Newsletter 2005:4) also recommends learners' listening as much as talking. Since learners often concentrate so hard on what they are going to say, and how to score points, they fail to really listen to others. Hollander advances by stating that to help learners develop their listening skills, they should be encouraged to repeat the last important point and then respond directly to it rather than starting a new point opinion.

This means that discussion can be utilised in any subject across the curriculum. For example, the National Council for Teachers of Mathematics (2013:1) affirms that discussion is also a great tool in mathematical subjects. Therefore, the integration of discussion across the curriculum will offer learners more target language practice opportunities and on the other hand enhance the learners' discussion skills. In fact, the National Council for Teachers of Mathematics (2013:1) highlights that there is a common assumption that learners learn Mathematics best when they are given

opportunities to speak about mathematics using the language of mathematics. As a result, discussions can provide learners with opportunities to communicate mathematically.

In support, the research of Schwartz, Weizman, Fortus, Sutherland, Merrit and Krajcik (2009:47) asserts that, during any scientific enquiry discussions are powerful mechanisms that allow learners to construct meaning of abstract scientific concepts, connect an activity to the main learning goals of an investigation, and reflect on their own experiences. Additionally, discussions help the learners to construct meaning of abstract scientific concepts, connect an activity to the main learning goals of an investigation, and reflect on their own experiences. Actually, Shwartz *et al.* (2009:47) express that discussions are a way to acclimatise learners to the culture of science, as debating and revising ideas is a major practice of any true inquiry process. Accordingly, the integration of the discussion in scientific subjects and EFAL, strengthen the classroom interaction that enhances communication competence.

Concerning Social Studies, Barton and McCully (2007 cited in Tannebaum 2013:100) note that learners who participate in controversial issues and take part in discussions on politics have confidence in their views and develop an interest in the process of a democratic society. Therefore discussion is appropriate in all subjects across the curriculum and if this interactive activity is furthered in the classroom, then the envisioned communicative competence in the target language will be attained.

4.7.2   Storytelling across the curriculum

Storytelling has a huge impact on learning across the curriculum. This interactive activity (strategy or tool) can fit into any learning content in the classroom. Norgate (n.d:77) affirms that the enormous diversity of story content means that storytelling can support most subjects within the national curriculum.

In their research, Zazkis and Liljedahl (2009:4) establish that storytelling in Mathematics classrooms can assist in understanding difficult concepts and ideas, and assist in solving problems. The recent observations by Albool (2012:3) of two Grade 4 classrooms show that using the storytelling method in teaching Mathematics

increased the learners' ability to understand fraction concepts and increased their ability to solve mathematics problems, and that increased achievement in Mathematics.

In Science, storytelling invites learners to explore unknown concepts. Sima (n.d:1) claims that storytelling gives meaning to science concepts by opening a child's mind, arousing curiosity, and encouraging a willingness to explore all possibilities. Valkanova and Watts (2007:803) justify that storytelling is a key element of constructing the film and is a means of understanding children's talk. Through short productions, children produce self-reflective statements; represent ideas thoughtfully; evaluate their ideas; appreciate the state of their own knowledge; maintain social contact and interaction; and regulate their own actions and emotions. Hence, Valkanova and Watts maintain that this is motivated by the dynamics of the events and by their desire to represent themselves to others as their talk develops through social interaction and through the joint construction of meaning.

The latest research in Social Studies conducted by Yu (2011:69) asserts that teachers use storytelling in this subject because it is full of stories of people, places and cultures. Yu argues that we know that learners need to make personal connections in order to investigate people and places of present and past times. Furthermore, Harris (2007:112) adds that there is a connection between storytelling and social studies since human beings are social and historical.

Hwang (2004:139) argues that through stories, we learn more about ourselves as well as gain insight into humanity and the world we live in. In addition, stories can help to increase learners' knowledge of their own culture, history and heritage, and broaden their awareness and appreciation of their cultures. Hwang further illustrates that stories can develop learners' empathy, social and moral values and attitudes, self-confidence and self-esteem. In addition, Yu (2011:69) also emphasises that you interact with others when you tell your stories of the past.

Mondavi (n.d:2) acknowledges that storytelling is an ancient art form. The early wall paintings of the cave dwellers are thought to be visual aid for the earliest stories ever told. In addition, even before the written language appeared, storytellers were

responsible for handing down the stories of their culture from one generation to the next. Also, Mondavi further explains that storytelling and theatre have much in common, but storytellers generally tell a story, while actors show a story. Additionally, Vihar (n.d:11) validates storytelling as it lends itself to drawing analogies or making comparisons and helping people to discover healthy solutions to problems.

In a study conducted by Grose (2010:39) he indicates that as a teacher of skills in doctrinal and clinical courses, he uses storytelling in all two courses, always with the same goal: to help students recognise that as lawyers they are not only hearers and tellers of stories, but also, and perhaps most important, constructors of stories. Furthermore, Grose argues that the storytelling exercises used by teachers are designed to challenge learners' knowledge to deconstruct the story they are hearing or telling. The purpose of this strategy is to gain understanding of that story's substantive and technical elements by recognising the choices that lawyers make to construct a story that is persuasive, compelling and which enhances further clientele's goals.

Indeed, the storytelling can be utilised as a powerful teaching strategy across the curriculum in different subjects (Chapter 3 on storytelling as active teaching strategy). As the learners listen and tell stories while interacting with teachers and peers in EFAL across the curriculum, talking enhances their communicative competence. Also, learners can describe real situations that occurred in the past in the form of stories. This would strengthen the learners' understanding and recalling of the content as they will compare the told stories to their own lives. Therefore there is interrelation between the subjects within the curriculum as one of the aims of the Life Skills; DBE (2011:12) indicates that it aims to develop learners' effective communication.

Within the CAPS there is a repetition of a story as a topic in each term but using different themes, for instance DBE (2011:22-40).So, this shows that there is an indication of depth in this interactive activity.

4.7.3   Role-play across the curriculum

Role-play may be used to learn about issues and decisions in the past and present and is a wonderful way to make events from the past or present come alive. Learners can also learn about current issues in their local communities in a broader setting using role-play, for instance, learners can role-play how they spent their summer holidays or went buying groceries with their parents at the store. Learners also develop skills such as empathy and seeing situations from multiple perspectives.

Duatepe and Ubuz (2002; Chaviaris & Kafoussi n.d:93) conducted a study and report that drama-based mathematical instruction appears to have a significant effect on learners' geometry achievement compared to traditional teaching, in prompting learners' imagination by improvising a concept or an event, and helping them to experience all aspects of the concepts. Chaviaris and Kafoussi's findings demonstrate that the concrete dramatic activity gave the opportunity to all the learners to reflect on the history of their own attempts to collaborate with their partners in Mathematics and to point out the critical moments of these efforts, like the evolution of mathematical discussion from focusing on the right or wrong mathematical result of focusing on the exploration of the given proposal.

Similarly, the Life Skills; DBE (2011:16) confirms that role-play can play a significant part in teaching some other concepts in mathematics as one of the subject's skills is to build awareness of the important role that mathematics plays in real life situations including the personal development of the learner. Thus, for the learners to have a deeper understanding and an everlasting memory of a specific content area, they can be guided how to perform the real situation of what they are learning.

4.7.4   Reading aloud across the curriculum

Reading aloud in EFAL is an activity that cannot be avoided in teaching the content of each subject across the curriculum. Learners can evaluate themselves about their knowledge of a language and know that they are on the right track and with understanding the words in that target language. Therefore, reading aloud across the

curriculum is imperative because for the teacher and the learner to understand each other and to guarantee that learners have understood what is expected, has to analyse what is written by reading aloud then think-aloud, and the discussion follows of how to work out what is expected.

In relation to the CAPS for EFAL, the curriculum provides the topics to be studied in each term of the year for each subject. Then, these topics should be read aloud to learners in order to grasp a thorough understanding of what is wanted or expected from them. The learners are also expected to read aloud the content to verify that they can read and follow the instructions of what is required. Subsequently, reading aloud is necessary for achieving the aims of the curriculum.

According to the DBE (2011:5), when the mathematics tasks involve language, it is necessary to provide for and accommodate poor readers. The DBE further affirms that as inclusivity should become part of the organisation, planning and teaching at each school; therefore learners should be assisted to understand mathematical concepts by reading aloud to them, hence allowing them to demonstrate their mathematical skills.

In addition, Davey (1983 cited in Barton, Heidema & Jordan 2002:26) states that when learners have trouble in making sense of text, teachers can help by demonstrating the think-aloud strategy. For instance, teachers select a sample passage to read aloud to learners and models the thinking process involved in making sense of confusing sections of text. Then, learners can note the strategies that effective readers use to grapple with ambiguous passages, identify main ideas and make logical inferences.

In short, the literature referred to in this reading aloud in the targeted language as an interactive activity, justifies its importance across the curriculum

4.7.5   Debate across the curriculum

Unfortunately debate is not mentioned at all in the Intermediate Phase curriculum. This is deplorable because debate is interesting for learners in this phase since it

provides learners with a platform on which they can express themselves and argue their opinions. As has been mentioned in the teaching plans section, this is a gap in the curriculum of the Intermediate Phase that needs to be filled.

4.8   SUMMARY

An array of research concluded that the country's curriculum ought to keep abreast of international learning development so that learners can be equipped with the skills that are necessary for competitiveness. As changes have occurred since the democratisation of South Africa since 1994, so the curriculum changes. There were challenges in implementing the curriculum and more reviews have taken place in search of the best curriculum suitable for the democratic country. As several researches have taken place towards the development of the curriculum, we hope that their contributions will assist in producing the envisaged curriculum that will please South African citizens. In this quest, teachers are catalysts of implementing development changes proposed and without their efforts; the articulated changes will never be obtained.

It has been reiterated in this chapter that teaching methods play an important role in attaining the goals of teaching and learning. So it is important to use a variety of methods to suit the individual learner. On one hand the learner-centred classrooms are considered as a way of letting learners construct their own learning that leads them to be critical thinkers that can attain communicative competence. On the other hand the teacher centred-approach is not relinquished, as Andre (1979; Durkin 1990; Menke & Pressley 1994 cited in Beth 2002:94) claim that by serving as discussion leaders, teachers are able to guide learners toward a better understanding of text and to draw attention to particular salient themes and issues. So it is important to employ approaches that will suit the learning activities and environment of the individual learner.

In short, interactive activities play a significant role across the curriculum since they inculcate deeper knowledge in the learners as they are appropriate to most aspects of different school subjects. So, their integration across the curriculum strengthens the learners' skills of discussing, telling stories, role playing, reading aloud and

debating. In this way, as learners have ample opportunities of interacting and enhancing their target language development, communicative competence develops.

In Chapter 5, the researcher presents the research methodology of this study.

CHAPTER 5
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODLOGY

5.1   INTRODUCTION

The key aspects in this chapter are first discussed followed by the research process to understand the ontological and epistemological perspective of this study. The early work by Kuhn (1962 cited in Leshem & Trafford 2007:96) describes *paradigm* as the way the world is seen through our perceptions, understanding and interpretations. Kuhn suggests that acquisition of a paradigm of the more esoteric type of research it permits is a sign of maturity in the development of any given scientific field. Kuhn's notion that paradigm shifts explain changes in how something is perceived influenced Covey (1989 cited in Leshem & Trafford 2007:96) who observed that, whether they are instantaneous or developmental, paradigm shifts move us away from one way of seeing the world to another. The paradigm is therefore a way to model possible patterns and relationships, which Barker (1992 cited in Leshem & Trafford 2007:96) suggests establishes or defines boundaries. As a consequence of South African education paradigm shifts the preceding chapter pointed out that the country's curriculum had made several shifts in quest of better approaches to education.

Kuhn's paradigm perspective brings us to the research design of this study. The latest research McMillan and Schumacher (2010:20) shows research design as the procedures for conducting the study, including when, from whom, and under what conditions the data will be obtained. In other words, the research design indicates the general plan: how the research is set up, what happens to the subjects, and what methods of data collection are used. Alternatively, Slavin (2007:9) defines research design as a plan for collecting and analysing data to try to answer a research question.

McMillan and Schumacher (2010:20) emphasise that the purpose of research design is to specify a plan for generating empirical evidence that will be used to answer the research questions. Therefore, the intention of this study is to use a design that will

result in drawing the most convincing, credible conclusions from the answers to the research questions.

5.2   PARADIGMATIC ASSUMPTIONS

It was indicated in Chapter 1 that the study of Gosh (2010:1) shows that there was a time when the learners used to depend only on the lecture delivered by the teacher. As they were not exposed to enough practice in speaking on their own, interaction among the learners in the classroom was almost absent. Accordingly, in recent years, there has been a paradigm shift in the education system that demands more learner interaction rather than listening to the instructor.

In fact, classroom interaction plays an essential part to enhance communication competence. Therefore, oral practice should be encouraged in order to equip learners with a large vocabulary that can create the possibility of a classroom that communicates in the target language. However, there are several challenges such as limited exposure, lack of practice opportunities, and lack of confidence.

Though, according to Applefield, Huber and Moallem (2001:35), paradigm shifts bring new perspectives, new conceptualisations and new ways of thinking about a topic, large or small. Pattanpichet (2011:1) asserts that learners sometimes perceive speaking activities aiming to promote oral proficiency, as threatening and nerve-wracking. As a consequence of these negative feelings, the learners' performance, self-esteem, and confidence can deteriorate.

Another study on the topic by Teaching and Learning (n.d:3) demonstrates that the social view of interaction also means considering the participants in different ways, as it involves interactions between teachers and learners and between learners. This suggests that interactions need to provide opportunities to learners to explore the ideas, interpretations and reactions of others. So therefore, this happens once learners are given assurance that they are capable to achieve what they wish to accomplish in life.

Yet again, Teaching and Learning (n.d:3) perceives that more recent understanding of interaction, and its roles and purpose in teaching and learning, see it as more than just the exchange of talk. Interaction is fundamentally a social process of meaning-making and interpreting, and the educational value of interaction grows out of developing and elaborating interaction as a social process. Furthermore, the study justifies that it is through interaction that learners engage with ideas and concepts and the diverse interpretations and understandings of their interlocutors. This indicates that in classrooms, the social purpose of interaction is related to learning, through the discussion of ideas, insights and interpretations. Consequently, classroom interaction is more than a simulation of everyday interaction: it is interaction with learning as its central concern.

In order to achieve the objectives of this study, the inductive approach that was employed to gather the data assisted in getting the answers to this study. In terms of dealing with reality of the teacher and learners interacting to share some ideas, firstly it was explained in Chapter 2 that this study was placed within interpretivist/constructivist ontological perspective. Then, the insights from the interpretivist and constructivist paradigms were blended because the two paradigms focus on the process of interpreting and creating meaning from the participants' unique lived experiences.

Applefield, Huber and Moallem (2001:38) specify that social constructivism captures the most general extant perspective on constructivism with its emphasis on the importance of social exchange for cognitive growth and the impact of culture and historical context on learning. In addition, Liu and Chen (2010:65) are in support of Marlowe and Page (1998) who define learning in the constructivist classroom as the cycle of questioning, interpreting, and analysing information, combining information and thinking to develop, build, and alter meaning and understanding of concepts, and integrating new understanding with past experiences. For the learner to construct meaning, he or she must actively strive to make sense of new experiences and in so doing must relate it to what is already known or believed about a topic (Applefield, Huber & Moallem 2001:38). Constructivists such as Piaget (1954) and Vygotsky (1978) maintain that learners arrive in any learning situation with a range of prior knowledge and experiences that influence how they respond to new information

(epistemology) (Hyslop-Margison & Strobel 2008:78). This suggests that learners build their own understanding based on what they already know. Hence, how information is presented and how learners are supported in the process of constructing knowledge is of major significance.

Briefly, Creswell (1998:76) indicates that the ontological issue addresses the nature of reality for the qualitative researcher; reality is constructed by individuals involved in the research situation. Thus, multiple realities exist, such as the realities of the researcher, those of individuals being investigated, and those of the reader or audience interpreting a study. Likewise, as a qualitative researcher, certainly sharing some realities experienced in the classroom with other teachers regarding classroom interaction in EFAL is possible.

The study of Lincoln and Guba (1985 cited in Crotty 1998:7) points out that there is a sharp ontological and epistemological contrast between positivism and constructivist paradigms. The authors note that the constructivists believe in relativism and that there are local and specific constructed realities. Furthermore, constructivists follow a subjective epistemology signifying that the knower and respondent co-create understanding. Lincoln and Guba also believe that there is no objective reality; rather it is constructed by individual and collective experience.

Based on the epistemological assumption, to obtain the in-depth knowledge, the distance between the researcher and the participants was minimised by directly interacting with participants through interviews and observations in order to get their views concerning the classroom interaction in EFAL for enhancing communicative competence. This is in accordance with Guba and Lincoln (1988 cited in Creswell 1998:76) who assert that the researcher tries to minimise the distance or objective separateness between himself or herself and those being researched.

5.3   THE RESEARCH DESIGN PROCESS

With reference to the research design process, below the process is depicted in figure 5.2.

| Qualitative researcher |
| Multiple Case study |

↓

Data collection
Sample – 3 public primary schools
Pilot study: Design, implementation and reflection
3 EFAL Intermediate Phase teachers from each school
9 learners from each school

↓

Method of collection	Data collection instruments
One-on-one semi-structured interviews	Audiotapes Verbatim transcriptions Field notes
Focus group interviews	Audiotapes Verbatim transcriptions Field notes
Observations	Reflective journal Observation sheet Field notes
Document analysis	Curriculum Policy
Photographs	Camera

Bricolage

↓

Data analysis
Organising the data
Coding the data
Open coding
Axial coding
Selective coding
Structuring the analysed data
Interpreting the data
Narrative

↓

Trustworthiness of the study
Credibility
Transferability
Dependability
Confirmability

Interactive process

Figure 5.1: Research Design process flow chart

Researcher's illustration

As a qualitative researcher, the researcher worked inductively, to develop themes from informants' views rather than specifying them in advance of the research (Creswell 1998:77). Likewise, to answer the research questions, the researcher obtained the perspectives of the Intermediate Phase teachers and their learners to better understand the teaching approaches in the sampled Intermediate Phase classrooms. The researcher chose a qualitative research approach for this study since, according to Creswell (1998:17-18), firstly, the nature of the research questions asked needs initial forays into the topic to describe what is going on. Secondly, the topic needs to be explored. Thirdly, there is a need to present a detailed view of the topic. Fourthly, the researcher needed to study individuals in their natural setting. Fifthly, the researcher had interest in writing in a literary style, whereby she brought oneself into the study. Sixthly, the researcher employed qualitative study because she had sufficient time and resources to spend on data collection in the field and data analysis of information. Seventhly, audiences are receptive to qualitative research (the present paradigm embraces a qualitative approach). Lastly, it was done to emphasise the researcher's role as an active student who can tell the story from the participants' view rather than an expert who passes judgement on participants.

The challenges faced by a qualitative research approach as stated by Creswell (1998:16-17) are: spending many hours in the field collecting extensive data and labouring on issues of trying to gain access, rapport, and an insider perspective; engaging in the complex, time consuming process of data analysis – the ambitious task of sorting through large amounts of data and reducing them to a few themes or categories; writing long passages, because the evidence must substantiate claims and need to show multiple perspectives; and need to participate in a form of social and human science research that does not have firm guidelines or specific procedures and is evolving and changing constantly. Nonetheless, these challenges were at the expense of collecting extensive, rich and reliable data for the credibility of this study. To ensure accuracy in this research process, the researcher used a reflective journal and memos to record and reflect on the details of the choices she made in sampling, how to collect and analyse the data.

Moreover, this qualitative study employed a collective, multiple or multisite case study because more than one setting was sampled and studied and that is in accordance with the views of various researchers (Yin 1989; Stake 1995; Creswell 1998; McMillan & Schumacher 2010). As a consequence of the multiple case study method, the topic was intensively investigated and more information was gathered through multiple data collection instruments.

As the goal was not to make definitive claims or to generalise the findings to a wider population, the researcher wanted to explore the classroom interaction in EFAL in these two schools in depth and began to theorise about how learners' communicative competence could be enhanced in EFAL. The researcher spent a considerable amount of time conducting observations, and interviewing teachers and learners, jotting down field notes, photographing the setting of the EFAL classrooms without learners, supplemented by documents analysed to triangulate the findings (Slavin 2007:152). As in most qualitative studies, generalisability is an issue with case studies; the goal of this study was not to generalise to other situations, but was to simply determine what happened in that particular situation (Slavin 2007:152), since Creswell (1998:63) claims that the term generalisability, holds little meaning for most qualitative researchers.

Hitchcock and Hughes (1995 cited in Cohen, Manion & Morris 2000:182) suggest that the case study has several hallmarks: it is concerned with a rich and vivid description of events relevant to the case; it provides a chronological narrative of events relevant to the case; it blends a description of events with the analysis of them; it focuses on individual actors or groups of actors, and seeks to understand their perceptions of events; it highlights specific events that are relevant to the case; and the researcher is integrally involved in the case.

The researcher took advantage of the features of the case study as they fulfilled what was intended to be demonstrated in this study, and then intensely prepared to experience each and every step in this research. Thus the case study created ample opportunity to accomplish what was desired.

Furthermore, Nisbet and Watt (1984 cited in Cohen *et al.* 2000:184) highlight the strengths of a case study as: the results are more easily understood by a wide audience (including non-academic) as they are frequently written in everyday, non-professional language than simply by presenting them with abstract theories or principles; they are immediately understandable; they speak for themselves; they catch unique features that may otherwise be lost in larger scale (e.g. surveys); these unique features might hold the key to understanding the situation; they are strong on reality; they provide insights into other, similar situations and cases, thereby assisting interpretation of other similar cases; and they can embrace and build in unanticipated events and uncontrolled variables. In addition, Cohen *et al.* (2000:181) maintain that case studies can establish cause and effect, indeed as they observe effects in real contexts, recognising that context is a powerful determinant of both causes and effects.

In contrast, Nisbet and Watt (1984:82) also underline the weaknesses of the case study as: the results may not be generalisable except where other readers/researchers see their application; they are not easily open to cross-checking, hence they may be selective, biased, personal and subjective; and they are prone to problems of observer bias, despite attempts made to address this variable.

It is obvious that the strengths of the case study overwhelm its weaknesses, so the researcher concentrated on the strengths and also being cautious about bias as the intention was to collect rich, extensive, and reliable data gathered from the participants concerning the phenomenon under study using multiple data collection methods. Again the use of multiple sources of information advanced the credibility of this study. In addition, the intention was not to generalise but to simply determine what was happening in those particular schools.

5.4 BRICOLAGE METHODOLOGY WITHIN THE DOMAINE OF QUALITATIVE RESEARCH DESIGN

5.4.1 Working as a bricoleur

The latest study by Rogers (2012:2) shows that when the metaphor 'bricolage' is used within the domain of qualitative research, it denotes methodological practices explicitly based on notions of eclecticism, emergent design, flexibility and plurality. In fact, Rogers claims that it signifies approaches that examine phenomena from multiple, and sometimes competing, theoretical and methodological perspectives. The researcher decided to work as a bricoleur since she intended to construct an emergent, flexible, and eclectic research study. However, before the researcher labours as a bricoleur, let her provide an etymology of the word 'bricolage' so that she can carry you along on her labouring complex journey.

5.4.2 Etymology of bricolage

The early study of the anthropologist and ethnologist Lévi-Strauss (1966:17) explains that the word 'bricolage' is French and its old sense the word 'bricoler' applied to ball games and billiards, to hunting, shooting and riding. Then, it was always used with reference to some extraneous movement: a ball rebounding, a dog straying or a horse swerving from its direct course to avoid an obstacle.

From the researcher's perspective, the word bricoleur, from its origin has been used to symbolise activities demonstrating the importance of reflective mind that suddenly happens without any practice or preparation. As a result, tricky things happen to create the possibility of self-reflection to have effect. The point the researcher is making is, since in our time the bricoleur refers to someone who works with his hands and uses various means at hand compared to the tools of a craftsman, according to Strauss (1966:17), then, it is a word that still carries the essence of its originality. Bricoleur has no precise equivalent in English, but Strauss (1966:17) describes a bricoleur as a man who undertakes odd jobs and is a jack-of-all-trades or a do-it-yourself handyman.

Strauss compares the bricoleur with an engineer and explains that the bricoleur is skilful at performing a large number of diverse tasks, but, unlike the engineer, he does not subordinate each of them to the availability of raw materials and tools conceived and procured for the purpose of the project. Thus, the bricoleur's universe of instruments is closed and the rule of his game is always to make do with 'whatever is at hand' (Strauss 1966:17).This brings us to the point that a bricoleur has to improvise to actuate his efforts to succeed. Then, the teacher who works as a bricoleur does not grumble because of lack of resources as whatever is accessible, is usable. Even learners themselves become the most powerful resources at the teacher's disposal. Therefore, a bricoleur discerns what is said to be impossible as possible since, Strauss (1966:19) declares that the bricoleur does not question the universe like an engineer but avails himself of the collection of oddments left over from human endeavours and has a dialogue with nature and work by means of signs.

The point the researcher wants to make is that the bricoleur says, 'if things are like this, what can I construct out of this to suit my situation?' So, working with what is available, the bricoleur puts in effort to turn the situation into something useful. Then, he or she accepts the status quo, investigates the available objects, gets along with what is at hand and creates good out of that. Since, the bricoleur works with images and understanding that are linked to past experience and works within the constraints imposed by a particular state, according to Strauss (1966:22), then reflexivity becomes the major measure and guide of the bricoleur's perception. Strauss asserts that the bricoleur's work does not require specific professional knowledge. Therefore, a teacher as a bricoleur should possess high teacher efficacy in order to accomplish the calling, having self-assurance combined with skills and capabilities. Strauss concludes by stating that though the bricoleur may not ever complete his purpose, he always puts something of himself into it.

In the same way another study by Yee and Bremner (2011:4) on the topic shows that the bricoleur views research methods actively, rather than passively, meaning that the researcher actively constructs methods with tools at hand rather than accepting and using pre-existing methodologies. Lise (2013:9) explains that bricolage values an evolving rigorous approach to research, rather than following a set of course and

it is an active approach rather than adhering to any prescriptive and pre-ordained approach. Indeed, in relation to interpretive/constructivism view, the bricoleur constructs and interprets the environment and from his or her perspective to decide how he or she can approach the situation.

Further, Yee and Bremner (2011:4) declare that although Strauss introduced the concept of bricolage as a mode of acquiring knowledge, it was Denzin and Lincoln's (1999) description of it within a methodological context that offered insight into new forms of rigour and complexity in social research. Kincheloe and Berry (2004:3) use the term to describe a multi-perspective research method, not just the usage of the mixed method, but to acknowledge that using methods from different disciplines enables the researcher to compare and contrast multiple points of view.

Furthermore, Lise (2013:9) declares that unlike mixed methods, bricolage is far removed from the assumptions that an absolute truth will emerge for the researcher who simply looks hard enough. So, the premise for bricolage is not to create grounds for justifying a supposedly truthful account of a phenomenon, but rather to enable different and complementary understandings of a phenomenon to emerge through the research activities, as a basis for reflection and to inform the next steps in the investigation. As such, bricolage serves to provide an alternative and challenging perspective on the possible hubris of power knowledge generation through research that seeks to find the so-called truth as it relates to some particular claim to knowledge, according to Lise (2013).

Moreover, Lise (2013:9) argues that bricolage draws on the notion that theory is not an explanation of the world, but focuses more on our relationship with the world. Rogers (2012:4) explains that Denzin and Lincoln (1999) show that, adopting a bricolage approach helps researchers to respect the complexity of the meaning-making process and the contradictions of the lived world. The authors further indicate that the combination of multiple methodological practices, and empirical materials, perspectives and observers in a single study is best understood, as a strategy that adds rigor, breadth, complexity, richness, and depth to any inquiry.

For the bricoleurs to achieve their odd jobs, Denzin and Lincoln (1999:6) have identified five types of bricoleurs who enfold this rigor and complexity: interpretive bricoleur, methodological, theoretical, narrative, and political bricoleur. In this doctoral study, the researcher concentrated on the first four perspectives since they fit this endeavour to unfold classroom interaction as a teaching strategy to enhance learners' communicative competence. Firstly, these types of bricoleurs are shown in a diagram and also discussed deeper on how they strengthen the study.

Interpretive bricoleur

Reflexive

interpretation

Theoretical bricoleur

Cognitive

constructivism

Social constructivism

Methodological bricoleur

Interviews

Observations

Document analysis

Photographs

Narrative bricoleur

Researcher's,

and learners

narrative experiences
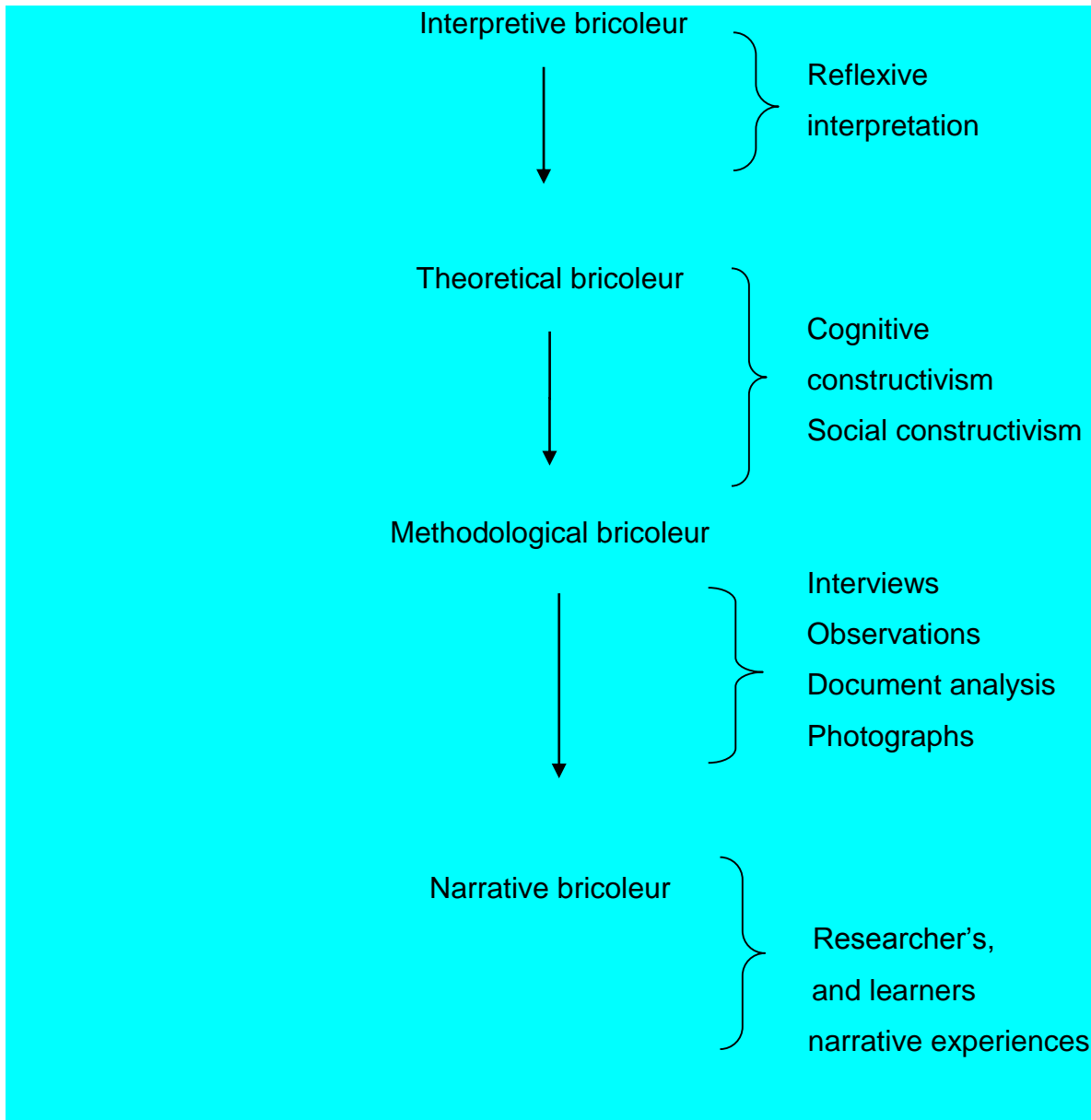
Figure 5.2: Types of bricoleurs embracing the classroom interaction

Own depiction

5.4.3   Qualitative bricolage as research methodology

Every type of bricoleur in the above figure is discussed below to get an authentic understanding of its place in this research process.

5.4.3.1   Interpretive bricoleur: Reflexive interpretation

Rogers (2012:4) concurs with Denzin and Lincoln (1999) that adapting an interpretive bricolage approach means embracing the belief that there is no correct recounting of an event. Each telling, like light hitting a crystal, reflects a different perspective on an incident. The authors further agree that an interpretive bricoleur is therefore a researcher who understands that the research is an interactive process, shaped by his or her own personal history, biography, gender, social class, race, ethnicity, and by those people in the setting. Then, Rogers (2012:4) affirms, by adopting post-positivist epistemologies, interpretive bricoleurs recognise that knowledge is never free from subjective positioning.

Since bricoleurs recognise that understanding is certainly not free from prejudice, then reflexivity becomes the basis of interpreting the phenomenon under the study. Therefore, Rogers (2012:4) points out that Hertz (1997) cited by Finlay (2002) suggests that the qualitative researchers who engage in reflexive interpretation appreciate the complexity of the inquiry process. Rodgers adds that for Finlay reflexivity can be defined as thoughtful, conscious self-awareness. Schwandt (2001:221) defines reflexivity as the process of critical inspection and self-reflection on one's biases, theoretical predispositions, preferences, an acknowledgement that the inquirer is part of the setting context, and social phenomenon he or she seeks to understand and a means for critically understanding the whole process. Rogers (2012:4) maintains that reflexive analysis in research encompasses continual evaluation of subjective responses, inter-subjective dynamics, and the research process itself. Also, it involves a shift in our understanding of data collection from something objective that is accomplished through detached scrutiny of 'what I know and how I know it', to recognise how we actively construct our knowledge.

As an interpretive bricoleur, the researcher's reflections in the classroom interaction were the central point to depict the experiences of the classroom environment the researcher practised. The researcher interpreted all the sources she had at her disposal and made use of them. Since a bricoleur is a Jack-of-all-trades, the researcher did not hold back what God has offered as His individual being and used what was available at the researcher's site. As a teacher with learners who were hungry for increasing their knowledge, the researcher laboured as a bricoleur to enhance their existing understanding. The researcher's classroom was cluttered with words, pictures, posters and many types of books, for instance, children's encyclopaedias, dictionaries, story books and more to enhance learners' learning.

Below is the cluttered classroom that is described above.

Figure 5.3: Clustered classroom with words and pictures

Own depiction

Figure 5.4: Clustered classroom with posters

Own depiction
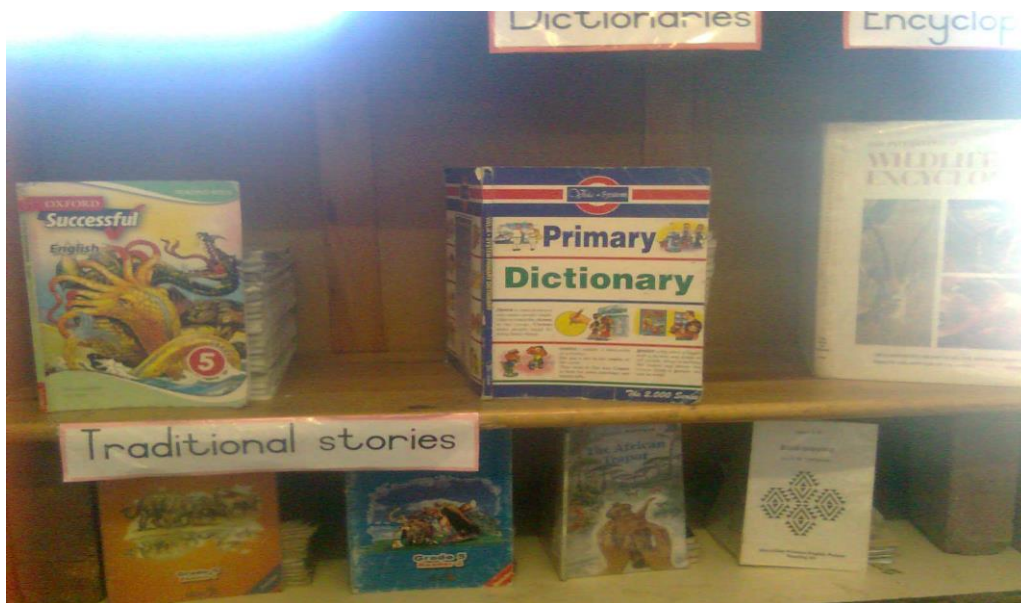
Figure 5.5: Clustered classroom with books

Own depiction

Figure 5.6: Clustered classroom with story books

Own depiction

Reflexivity in a qualitative study, according to LaBanca (2011:1161), encourages researchers to determine their personality, identifying personal and theoretical commitments that can be critically examined and evaluated. Kleinsasser (2000 cited in LaBanca 2011:1161) illustrates that quality reflexivity identifies intentions, mistakes and new learning, and simultaneously creates physical evidence of personal and theoretical pathways. Ever since the researcher reflected back on her teaching classroom interaction experiences, the researcher noticed that commitment in interpreting and using the available tools to develop classroom interactions in order to enhance learners' communicative competence, and the intentions and mistakes committed can assist teachers to improve their interaction in their EFAL classrooms.

In conclusion, Rogers (2012:4), summarises that reflexivity does not only highlight how human positioning influences the research process, it exposes how an object of inquiry can be interpreted from multiple vantage points. In this way, reflexivity adds depth and plurality to the inquiry process.

5.4.3.2 Theoretical bricolage: Constructivism, Social cognitive theory, Teacher-efficacy, and Self-efficacy

In support of Denzin and Lincoln (1999), Rogers (2012:6) reports that theoretical bricoleurs work through and between multiple theoretical paradigms: 'the theoretical bricoleur reads widely and is knowledgeable about many interpretive paradigms that can be brought to any particular problem. Rogers relates from Denzin and Lincoln's (1999:6) point of view that from diverse, sometimes conflicting perspectives, a theoretical bricoleur performs multiple readings on an artefact, text, or phenomenon. Therefore, the process allows bricoleurs to understand the different theoretical contexts in which an object can be interpreted providing a multi-perspectival, post-structuralist perspective, showing the plurality of complexities that influence a phenomenon.

In terms of this study, multiple theoretical paradigms were used to investigate the classroom interaction in EFAL in order to enhance learners' communicative competence. The researcher embraced the constructivism theory perspective complemented by social cognitive theory to increase the credibility of this study.

The constructivism perspective allows the teachers to interpret their environment and inspire learners to construct their own understanding in the learning and teaching situation. Subsequently, Jonassen (1995:215) declares that constructivists' conceptions of learning assume that knowledge is individually constructed and socially co-constructed by learners based on their interpretations of experiences in the world. As knowledge cannot be transmitted, instruction should consist of experiences that facilitate knowledge construction. Likewise, Brooks and Brooks (1999:ix) demonstrate that in a constructivist classroom, the teacher searches for learners' understanding of concepts, and then structures opportunities for learners to refine or revise this understanding by posing contradictions, presenting new information, asking questions, encouraging research, and/or engaging students in inquiries designed to challenge current concepts.

From a social cognitive viewpoint, Kim and Baylor (2006:574) affirm that teaching and learning are highly social activities and that interaction with teachers, peers, and

instructional materials influence the cognitive and affective development of learners. When individuals perform intellectual activities, they dynamically interact with other participants, tools and contexts, which could support improved performance and/or frame individual cognitive and intellect. Social cognitive theory also brings us to teacher-efficacy theory. Research has shown that a link exist between teacher-efficacy and learners' achievement. The teacher with high teacher-efficacy becomes resourceful in learners' learning. Pajares and Schunk (2001:13; Crippen & Sangueeza 2013) indicate that efficacious teachers create classroom climates in which academic rigor and intellectual challenge are accompanied by the emotional support and encouragement necessary to meet the challenge and achieve academic excellence. Thus, efficacious teachers permit learners to demonstrate their capabilities and attain self-efficacy as they observe their teacher demonstrating the value of believing in them.

The above mentioned theories as components of the conceptual framework served as the pillar of the study and allowed the researcher to understand the theoretical contexts that influence the phenomenon under study.

5.4.3.3 Methodological bricolage: Interviews, observations, document analysis, and photographs

Quoting Strauss, Denzin and Lincoln (1999:6) assert that the methodological bricoleur is a researcher who combines multiple research tools to accomplish a meaning-making task. This means that a methodological bricoleur engages in fluid, eclectic and creative approaches to inquiry. As a consequence of longing to perform a meaning-making task, the researcher employed methodological bricolage by using multiple methods such as interviews, observations, photographs, and document analyses of a multiple case study strategy for collecting the rich data that can assure the credibility and trustworthiness of the study.

Semi-structured, one-on-one and focus group interviews are best sources of information in collecting the data. As on one-on-one interviews, teachers were able to tell their beliefs concerning the classroom interaction and, regarding the focus group interviews, learners were also able to state their opinions about classroom

interaction in EFAL. Observations and photographs confirmed or disproved what had been said in the interviews.

Denzin and Lincoln (1999:4) explain that the bricoleurs have a talent for creativity. They know how to artistically combine theories, techniques, and methods. Furthermore they are able to create their own methodological tools when needed. As Denzin and Lincoln said, 'if a researcher needs to invent, or piece together new tools or techniques, he or she will do so (Rogers 2012:6).

5.4.3.4 Narrative bricolage: Researcher's experiences

Rogers (2012:7) reports that Denzin and Lincoln (1999:5) said that a narrative bricoleur appreciates that inquiry is a representation (i.e. narrative) because objective reality can never be 'captured'; research texts can only represent interpretations of a phenomenon. As such, texts are always positioned from a specific contextual perspective. In this context, Denzin and Lincoln suggest the gendered, narrative bricoleur also knows that researchers all tell stories about the world they have studied.

Therefore, being in the classroom, the researcher learnt that learners tell stories whenever they were happy or sad. The telling of stories diminishes learners' uneasiness, especially if they notice that there is a listening ear and their stories are appreciated. For Connely and Clandinin (1990:2) education is the construction and reconstruction of personal and social stories; teachers and learners are storytellers and characters in their own and other's stories. In support of the above statements, Creswell (2012:501) proclaims that for educators looking for personal experiences in an actual school setting, narrative research offers practical, specific insights.

In chapter two of this study, the researcher recounted the story related by one of the learners in the EFAL classroom. Creswell (2012:501) states that stories reported in a qualitative narrative enrich the lives of both the researcher and the participant. So, as learners relate their stories, the learning environment becomes a place where ideas and principles are reconstructed and interpreted by both the teacher and the learners. When classroom interaction is encouraged, learners too become

bricoleurs. Along these lines, Rogers (2012:7) upholds that narrative bricoleurs therefore, attempt to avoid univocal research representations. Instead of taking these ideologies and discourses for granted, they seek to understand their influence or research process and texts.

Moreover, Creswell (2012:501) states that you use narrative research when you have individuals willing to tell their stories and you want to report their stories. It should be clear now that as a narrative bricoleur, the researcher wanted to narrate what had been experienced in the classroom where classroom interaction was employed to enhance learners' communicative competence in EFAL. The sharing of learners' stories, made learners feel that their stories were important and that they were heard. To summarise, McEwan and Egan (1995:12) conclude that when learners tell stories, it helps them understand topics that they need to process. Hence, being a narrative bricoleur aided in establishment of a close relationship with the learners.

5.5   RATIONALE FOR CHOOSING FOUR TYPES OF BRICOLAGE FOR THIS STUDY

Emanating from the bricoleur approaches (i.e. interpretive bricolage, theoretical bricolage, methodological bricolage, and narrative bricolage (*cf.* Figure 5.1), enhancement of learners' communicative competence in EFAL is advocated, since a bricoleur as Jack-of-all trades is offered opportunities of skills application. The motive for multiple theories, methodologies in this study was to intensify the researcher's exploration of the phenomenon, to increase the trustworthiness of the study, and also to achieve the overall aim of the study. As bricolage research allows versatility in the research fraternity then the researcher became innovative, flexible, and motivated to share the inner knowledge as there are no restricted limitations.

Again, these types of bricoleurs embrace the phenomenon under study. The classroom interaction as the core of the learning and teaching situation needs an open mind that can allow opinions of the participants to develop and enriched. Since the bricoleur's universe is closed, then there is no need of professional skills for using reflexivity, theories, methodology, and narration in the bricoleur classroom.

Thus, the bricoleur makes use of labouring principles not being aware that they are theoretically documented by scholars.

5.6   ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

Firstly, permission was obtained from the Department of Basic Education, the district office, the school governing bodies, the principals of the chosen public primary schools, the teachers, and parents of learners who were involved in the research project and also from, learners themselves. Strydom (2005:56) emphasises that anyone involved in research needs to be aware of the general agreement about what is proper and improper in scientific research.

After the College of Education of the University of South Africa (the institution the researcher is studying at) offered the researcher an ethical clearance certificate to collect the data from the sampled schools, the researcher started to establish a rapport with the participants. It was essential for the researcher to follow and abide by ethical guidelines throughout the research process. For working with people, the following principles were considered:

5.6.1   Informed consent and voluntary participation

According to Piper and Simons (2006:56), those interviewed or observed should give their permission in full knowledge of the purpose of the research and the consequences that taking part in it would have for them. At the beginning of each interview, the participants were presented with a letter of consent in which the research process was described. At that juncture, participants were requested to read the letter, ask questions to obtain clarity and sign the consent form if they were willing to be involved in the research. Repeatedly, participants were reminded of their right to withdraw at any time if also they wished to do so.

5.6.2   Protection from harm

An important principle to be adhered to is that the researcher should never injure the people being studied, regardless of whether they volunteer for the study or not

(Mouton 2001:522). In this study the researcher strove to be honest, respectful and considerate towards all participants and gave a clear explanation of the confidentiality of the results and findings of the study.

5.6.3   Confidentiality

In particular, Section 10 of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act, 108 of 1996*, indicates that "everyone has inherent dignity and the right to have their dignity respected and protected". Therefore, in this study, participants were assured that the research process would be confidential and that the anonymity of individuals would be guaranteed as pseudonyms would be used. Again, participants were ensured that before any findings would be published, they would be given an opportunity to read the research report to see whether it complied with what they had said during the data collection term. Pseudonyms were used for interviewees to protect anonymity of individuals *(cf.* Table 6:1 & Table 6.2).

5.7   DATA COLLECTION

5.7.1   Identification of data collection sites

Basically, the data collection took place during the third term of the school term for a period of three months. Then, the researcher ensured that a harmonious relationship between the researcher and the participants was established and maintained throughout the research process. Establishing a rapport with the teachers was important as they became gatekeepers according to Creswell (1998:117). He asserts that gaining access through the gatekeeper and establishing rapport with participants in the case being studied is also important for a case study. The recent study of Creswell (2012:211) cites Hammersley and Atkinson (1995) portraying a gatekeeper as an individual, who has an official or unofficial role at the site, provides an entrance to a site, helps researchers locate people, and assists in the identification of places to study.

According to Creswell (2012:117), gatekeepers require information about the study that includes: why is the site chosen for study; what will be done at the site during

the research study; time and resources required by participants and amount of time to be spent at the site by the researcher; will the researcher's presence be disruptive; how will the results be reported; what will the gatekeeper gain from the study, and will the researcher readily provide them with the information. Hence, the gatekeepers got an explanation that the teachers had been chosen because the intention was to collect rich data, hold interviews and observe. Interviews were held after school for about 45 minutes; and observations were conducted during their teaching lessons and the researcher's presence was not disruptive. Then the information gathered assisted in identifying the components included in a framework for the use of classroom interaction as a teaching strategy in teaching English as First Additional Language to enhance learners' communicative competence in the Intermediate Phase. Three schools were selected because the aim was to obtain additional corroborative data by way of validation (Cohen *et al.* 2000:95) in order to obtain rich data from the cases.

Nieuwenhuis (2007:79) maintains that qualitative studies accept researcher subjectivity as something that cannot be eliminated and see the researcher as the "research instrument" in the data gathering process. The researcher was intimately involved in gathering the reliable data. Nieuwenhuis adds that the researcher's involvement and immersion in the changing, real-world situation is essential since a qualitative researcher needs to record those changes in the real-life context.

5.7.2   Selection of the participants

Regarding the sampling, Cohen *et al.* (2000:95) remind us that with both qualitative and quantitative data, the essential requirement is that the sample is representative of the population from which it is drawn. Further, there are two main methods for sampling (Cohen & Holliday 1979, 1982, 1996; Schofield 1996 cited in Cohen *et al.* 2000:99). The researcher must decide whether to opt for a probability (also known as random sample) or a non-probability sample (also known as purposive sampling). Cohen *et al.* also clarify that the difference between probability and non-probability is: in a probability sample, the chances of members of the wider population being selected for the sample are known, whereas in a non-probability sample the chances of members of the wider population being selected for the sample are unknown.

In this study, the focus was in non-probability sampling because of its suitability for the study. Cohen *et al.* (2000:99) confirm that in non-probability sampling, some members of the wider population definitely will be excluded and others definitely included (i.e., every member of the wider population does not have an equal chance of being included in the sample) 193, because the researcher deliberately – purposely – selected a particular section of the wider population to include in or exclude from the sample. Taking this type of sample may satisfy the researcher's needs: it does not pretend to represent the wider population; it is deliberately and unashamedly selective and biased (Cohen *et al.* 2000:104).

In this multiple case study design, the researcher selected three public primary schools which she was aware that they offer EFAL for the Intermediate Phase learners. The chosen schools were known to the researcher as they were in cluster 2 while the researcher was a teacher in a primary school of cluster 1 at Ekurhuleni North District. The Intermediate Phase learners (Grade 4 – 6) in both schools, school A and B were selected using the class attendance register, and the half-yearly grade record sheets.Therefore, participants were able to provide the data suitable for this study. Nieuwenhuis (2007:79) makes it clear that purposive sampling simply means that participants are selected because of some defining characteristic that makes them the holders of the data needed for the study. The researcher handpicked these teachers because of their teaching experiences in EFAL, and the efficiency they demonstrated in teaching EFAL. As she had attended several workshops with these teachers, the researcher realised that they were holders of the information for the study embarked on. In this way, they built up a sample that satisfactorily provided the relevant data expected in this study.

Creswell (2005:48) advises that, in qualitative research, you do not begin data collection with a pre-established instrument to measure distinct variables. Instead, you seek to learn from the participants in the study, and develop forms, called protocols, for recording data as the study proceeds. Creswell further explains that these forms pose general questions so that the participants can provide answers to the questions. Also, often questions on these forms change and emerge during data collection. The researcher developed interview and observational protocols for gathering data at the research sites according to Creswell's examples in which the

researcher records notes about the behaviour of participants. Moreover, the researcher gathered text (word) or image (picture) data, of which transcribed audio recordings formed a database composed of words, and while observing participants, the researcher took notes that became a qualitative database, as Creswell (2005:48) suggests.

5.7.3   Data collection methods

As a qualitative case study allows the researcher to use multiple data collection methods. Creswell (2012:212) advises that the researcher should spend a great deal of time at the site where people engage in the phenomenon he or she wishes to study, and the researcher did likewise. The researcher employed face-to-face and one-on-one EFAL teacher and focus group interviews with the EFAL learners using audio-visual material, observation, field notes and a reflective journal to collect the empirical data. Nieuwenhuis (2007:81) stresses that in most qualitative studies, the data collection and data analysis are not treated as separate processes but an ongoing, cyclical and iterative process. So, after the collection of the first data, the researcher immediately analysed it and did the same with the next collected data and did not wait until the amount of collected data was overwhelming to analyse (*cf.* Figure 5.1).

5.7.3.1   Interviews

Nieuwenhuis (2007:87) affirms that an interview is a two-way conversation in which the interviewer asks the participants questions to collect data and to learn about the ideas, beliefs, views, opinions and behaviour of the participant. However, McMillan and Schumacher (2010; Creswell 2012) mention that a qualitative interview takes place when researchers ask one or more participants general, open-ended questions so that the participants can best voice their experiences unconstrained by any perspectives of the researcher or past research findings. Creswell further shows that the researcher records the answers, then transcribes and types the data into a computer file for analysis.

Furthermore, Nieuwenhuis (2007:87) demonstrates that the aim of qualitative interviews is to see the world through the eyes of the participant, and they can be a valuable source of information, provided they are used correctly. The aim is always to obtain rich descriptive data that will help to understand the participant's construction of knowledge and social reality. On the other hand, Cohen *et al.* (2000:267) assert that interviews enable participants to discuss their interpretations of the world in which they live, and to express how they regard situations from their own point of view. In these senses Cohen *et al.* insist that the interview is not simply concerned with collecting data about life: it is part of life itself, its human embeddedness, and is inescapable.

Since each strategy has its own strengths and weaknesses, (Creswell 2012:218) illustrates the advantages of qualitative interviews as: they provide useful information when you cannot directly observe participants, and they permit participants to describe detailed personal information. Lastly, as regards the observer, the interviewer has better control over the types of information received, because the interviewer can ask specific questions to elicit this information.

By contrast, Creswell (2012:218) illustrates some disadvantages as interviews provide only information filtered through the views of the interviewers (i.e., the researcher summarises the participants' views in the research report). Interview data may be deceptive and provide the perspective the interviewee wants the researcher to hear. Creswell illustrates that another disadvantage is that the presence of the researcher may affect how the interviewee responds. Interviewee responses also may not be articulate, perceptive, or clear. In addition, equipment issues may be a problem, and you need to organise recording and transcribing equipment (if used) in advance of the interview. Also, during an interview, you need to give some attention to the conversation with the participant. This attention may require saying little, handling emotional outbursts, and using icebreakers to encourage individuals to talk. Lastly, Creswell (2012) indicates that with all of these issues to balance, it is little wonder inexperienced researchers express surprise about the difficulty of conducting interviews.

- **One-on-one/face-to-face semi-structured interviews**

Hence, one-on-one semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions were conducted with five EFAL Intermediate Phase EFAL teachers *(cf.* Appendix K). Nieuwenhuis (2007:87) affirms that the semi-structured interview is commonly used in research to corroborate data emerging from the data sources. The researcher kept the number of questions to a minimum, but she used probing and clarification questions to gain a clear understanding of the participant's perceptions and understanding. According to Nieuwenhuis (2007:88), the researcher has to understand that he or she is there to listen, not to dominate the process.

During the interviews, the interview protocol was used to record the information. Creswell (2012:225) explains the interview protocol as a form designed by the researcher that contains instructions for the process of the interview, the questions to be asked, and space to take notes of responses from the interviewee.

The researcher encouraged the participants to tell stories about the topic presented and pursued them to provide detailed, rich accounts of their experiences while wanting to know how and why they experienced certain events in their lives as they did. Understanding their emotional reactions to events was important and the researcher wanted them to trust her as an interviewer. Marsiglio (n.d:2) asserts that the interview style should help the participants to feel as though they are helping in understanding something important about their lives.

The researcher also observed the respondent's non-verbal communication while checking her own non-verbal cues, such as maintaining eye contact and keeping an upright posture. Field notes delineated by Creswell (2012:216) as text (words) were also recorded during the interview and observations. Despite the disadvantages of interviews, qualitative interviews expose the reality of the participants' emotions, feelings and beliefs as the behaviour is studied as it occurs naturally.

- **Focus group semi-structured interviews**

Creswell (2012:218) describes a focus group interview as the process of collecting data through interviews with a group of people, typically four to six, of whom the researcher asks a small number of general questions and elicits responses from all individuals in the group (*cf.* Appendix L). Likewise, Morgan (1988 cited in Cohen *et al.* 2000:288) states that the focus of group interviews is on the interaction within the group who discusses a topic supplied by the researcher. Hence the participants interact with each other rather than with the interviewer. As a result, *Cohen et al.* account that it is from the interaction of the group that the data emerge.

In addition, Nieuwenhuis (2007:90) maintains that in focus group interviews, participants are able to build on each other's ideas and comments to provide an in-depth view not attainable from individual interviews. Nieuwenhuis further explains that the focus group interview strategy is based on the assumption that group interaction will be productive in widening the range of responses, activating forgotten details of experience and releasing inhibitions that may otherwise discourage participants from disclosing information.

In fact, the contrived nature of interviews is both their strength and their weakness, according to Morgan (1988 cited in Cohen *et al.* 2000:288). They are unnatural settings yet they are very focused on a particular issue and, therefore, will yield insights that might not otherwise have been available in a straightforward interview. Focus group interviews they are economical concerning time (Morgan 1988; Cohen *et al.* 2000; Creswell 2012), producing a large amount of data in a short period of time, but they tend to produce less data than interviews with the same number of individuals on a one-to-one basis (Morgan 1988; Cohen *et al.* 2000:288). They are useful when the interaction among interviewees who cooperate with each other; and also useful when individuals are hesitant to provide information (Creswell 2012:218).

In contrast Creswell (2012:218-9) highlights the shortcomings of focus group, showing that it can be challenging for the interviewer who lacks control over the interview discussion; also, when focus groups are audio taped, the transcriptionist may have difficulty discriminating among the voices of individuals in the group; and

another problem is that the researcher often has difficulty taking notes because so much is occurring at the same time.

With reference to this study, the researcher conducted a focus group interview consisting of nine learners from the Intermediate Phase (Grade 4- 6) from each of the sampled schools. Firstly, participants were seated in a circle which created a relaxing environment for the participants' comfort. The researcher introduced herself and gave an overview of the topic; then the researcher informed participants that they were selected because she was convinced that they would provide the information needed for the study and also enlightened them that the result would help in improving the learning of EFAL. Participants were assured that what happened during the interview would be shared with no one and data would only be shared as themes.

Krueger (2002:2) advises that as a moderator during the questioning process the researcher's role is to ask questions and guide the discussion; take a pause of five seconds and then probe; and encourage participants by nodding the head. Krueger adds that towards the end of the interview, a summary should made to confirm that nothing has been missed, if nothing else is added, participants are thanked and dismissed. In this study, during the interviews, the participants were encouraged to talk to each other; take turns in talking; listen respectfully as others share their views; and the participants were ensured that there was no right and wrong answer, only differing points of view.

5.7.3.2   Observation

Creswell (2012:213) identifies observation as the process of gathering open-ended, first-hand information by observing people and places at a research site. Paton (1990 cited in Cohen *et al.* 2000:305) also confirms that the researcher is given the opportunity to look at what is taking place *in situ* rather than at second hand. In this study observation was used as a follow-up procedure after the interviews to confirm or prove wrong what had been said in the interviews. Nieuwenhuis (2007:84) indicates that observation is the systematic process of recording the behavioural patterns of participants, objects and occurrences without necessarily questioning or

communicating with them. Nieuwenhuis further points out that observation enables the researcher to gain a deeper insight into and understanding of the phenomenon being observed and that it allows the researcher to learn mostly by participating and/or being immersed in the research situation. In this study, observation assisted to gather the empirical information regarding the classroom interaction approach as a teaching strategy in EFAL in the Intermediate Phase classrooms.

Creswell (2012:213) demonstrates that the advantages of observation include the opportunity to record information as it occurs in a setting, to study actual behaviour, and to study individuals who have difficulty in verbalising their ideas. However, some disadvantages are that you are limited to those sites and situations where you can gain access, and in those sites, you may have difficulty in developing rapport with individuals.

Before data collection, Creswell (2012:227) advises researchers to use an observational protocol as a form designed for taking notes during the observation (*cf.* Appendix M). On this form the researcher records the chronology of events, a detailed portrait of an individual or individuals, the setting, and verbatim quotes of individuals. The researcher conducted observation as non-participant observer. Creswell (2012:214) describes a non-participant observer as an observer who visits aside and records notes without becoming involved in the activities of the participants.

During the observation process, the researcher followed Creswell's guide by:

- easing into the site slowly by looking around, getting general sense of the site, and taking limited notes;
- conducting multiple observations over time to obtain the best understanding of the site and the individuals;
- recording notes during an observation;
- recording descriptive and reflective field notes;
- making myself known but remaining unobtrusive; and

- after observing slowly withdrawing from the site, thanking the participants and informing them of the use of the data and their access to the study.

Creswell (2012:215) describes descriptive notes record as a description of the events, activities, and people (e.g., what happened) and reflective field notes record as personal thoughts that researchers have that relate to their insights, hunches, or broad ideas or themes that emerge during the observation (e.g., what sense you made of the site, people, and situation).

5.7.4   Pilot study: Design, implementation and reflection

Polit and Beck (2010) explain that a pilot study can be described as a small-scale version or trail run, done in preparation for a major study. The authors add that a pilot study can be used to improve a project, assess its feasibility, improve its clarity, eradicate problems and refine methodology. The researcher conducted a case pilot study in one school, where teachers and learners were observed and interviewed, and then this school was omitted from the study and the findings were also excluded from the main study. The pilot study was conducted in July 2015 the same district as the intended study using the same interviews and observation protocols. The intention of conducting the pilot study was for this study to be exposed to the reality in the field regarding the phenomenon under study since Waddington (1994 cited in Sampson 2012:38) warns that immersion in the field without any pre-exposure can provide a researcher with a feast of fascinating information and observations and can result in not knowing where to start. In this way, Sampson (2012:389) advocates that the novelty of a new and strange environment lends the researcher openness to new information.

Based on the findings of the pilot study, the researcher realised that she left out some important questions and then, before the main study, the missing questions were added. So therefore, these insights were the contributions of the pilot study. The difficulty of getting access to other participants offered an insight of what to expect in the preparation of the main study, so the researcher added more participants to foresee disappointment, especially on the learners' sides as some parents would not allow their children to participate in the focus group interviews.

Due to the other findings from the pilot study, the researcher was able to slow down the questioning pace during the interviews, as during the pilot study she was too quick in asking questions, not giving the participant a chance to plan how to put words in order. Moreover, the researcher was comfortable during the actual study as she was already used to handle interviews and the observation process. The pilot study revealed a detailed picture which benefited this study.

5.7.4.1 Motivation for using the pilot study

On account of piloting the one-on-one semi-structured interviews with the Intermediate Phase teachers and semi-structured focus group interviews with learners, the researcher realised that the pilot study made identification of problems easier which were attended to before the study commenced. The pilot study enabled the researcher to determine the approximate length of the interview, to test that the audio-recording equipment was working and picking up voices; to ensure the protocols were applicable and to assess the suitability of the environment. In fact, Sampson (2012:383) cites Gillham (2000) that some researchers choose pilot studies to refine and develop research instrument. Again, researchers such as Hammersley (1993; King 1993; Ball 1993; Fuller 1993; Sampson 2012) agree that researchers choose a pilot study to assess degrees of observations bias, to frame questions, collect background information and adapt a research approach.

5.8 REFLECTIVE JOURNAL

The study of Florio-Ruane (1991 cited in Borg 2001:160) illustrates that teachers' stories have been described as a largely untapped source of information about their work to others. In addition, Borg (2001:160) demonstrates that narratives such as reflective journals compiled by researchers in the course of their work can provide other researchers, novice and experienced, with insight into doing research not available from any other source. Borg further explains that this seems particularly relevant to the field of language teaching, where published accounts of research do not shed much light onto the subjective experiences of the researcher.

For this reason, the researcher kept a reflective journal in which the experiences from data collection stage to the completion of this study was recorded in order to share experiences and beliefs with other researchers. Ahern (1999 cited in Russell & Kelly 2002:3) assert that keeping self-reflective journals is a strategy that can facilitate reflexivity, whereby researchers use their journals to examine personal assumptions and goals and clarify individual belief systems and subjectivities.

Again, Borg (2001:160) emphasises that the journal is not just a place where you record events or document existing thoughts, but more importantly (Maxwell 1996 cited in Borg 2001:160) suggests that it is a forum for reflection where ideas are generated and explored and discoveries are made in through writing. Therefore, after the researcher had left data collection sites; experiences, beliefs and strategies were immediately written in the reflective journal, since McMillan and Schumacher (2010:354) suggest to synthesise the main interactions and scenes observed and, more importantly, assessing the quality of the data and suggesting questions and tentative interpretations is of importance. As a result, following interviews and observation, a brief qualitative passage about what had been observed was written, incorporating both descriptive and reflective field notes since Nieuwenhuis (2007:105) stresses that memoing (reflective journal) contributes to a journal containing reflective notes about what researchers are learning from their data. Hence, the reflections assisted in combining data collection, data analysis, and report writing.

The study of Judd (2003:1) substantiates that the main purpose of using reflective journals in education is to encourage learners to be more aware of what they do, how they do it, why they do it, and for them to be able to identify useful problem solving strategies, as well as recognise their own strengths and weaknesses with regard to their understanding of content knowledge, procedures and practical skill development and application. Furthermore, Brookfield (1995; Clift, Houston & Pugach 1990; Sparks-Langer, Simons, Pasch, Colton & Starko 1990 cited in Judd 2003:1) clarify that the aim of reflection is to develop an orientation towards open-mindedness and a willingness to accept responsibility for self-directed learning as well as foster a keen sense of observation, critical thinking and reasoned analysis. Judd further states that reflective journal allows students to acknowledge emotions

and feelings that otherwise may form barriers to learning. In this study, the reflective journal also assisted in reflecting own bias if it did occur. So, emotions were also evaluated during this study process.

Johnson (2009:23) pronounces that the emotions and experiences of the researcher noted in a reflective journal can play a positive role in qualitative research and can provide valuable knowledge and worthy insight into a topic. Equally, it is through their experiences and emotions that researchers gain insight and give meaning to their interpretations of the topic they are exploring, are alerted to the meanings and behaviours of those being interviewed and are enabled to gain intuitive insight (Holland 2007; Hubbard, Backett-Milburn & Kemmer 2001; Rager 2005 cited in Johnson 2009:23). In addition, Hubbard *et al.* (2001:126) state that knowledge is not something objective and removed from our bodies, as it is through our emotions that we make sense of, and relate to our physical, natural and social world. In short, the keeping of reflective journal facilitated the process of data interpretation and also enhanced the credibility of this study.

5.9   DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURE

Qualitative data analysis tries to establish how participants make meaning of a specific phenomenon by analysing their perceptions, attitudes, understanding, knowledge, values, feelings and experiences in an attempt to approximate their construction of the phenomenon (Nieuwenhuis 2007:99). Nieuwenhuis further indicates that this is best achieved through a process of inductive analysis of qualitative data where the main purpose is to allow research findings to emerge from the frequent, dominant or significant themes inherent in raw data, without the restraints imposed by a more structured theoretical orientation. Hence, the researcher critically examined the field notes, interview transcripts and photographs for interpretation.

As a qualitative researcher, throughout the analysing of data, as it was an interactive process with the data collection, the researcher went back to the participants interviewed to seek clarification of some transcriptions not understood. Since, according to McMillan and Schumacher (2010:36), data collection and analysis are

interwoven, influencing one another, so the researcher used the opportunity to clarify some issues not well explained during the interviews. When analysing the data, the goal was to summarise what had been seen, heard or experienced in common words, phrases, themes or patterns that would aid the understanding and interpretation of what was emerging, according to Nieuwenhuis (2007). The researcher used the participants' verbatim answers in order to establish themes from the raw data. Figure 5.3 below describes the process the researcher chose, as suggested by Neuman (2000:426), for the data analysis in field of research. Data 1 is the raw data and the experiences of the researcher. Data 2 illustrates recorded data, which is the physical record of experiences, and finally, Data 3 signifies the selected data processed in a final report.
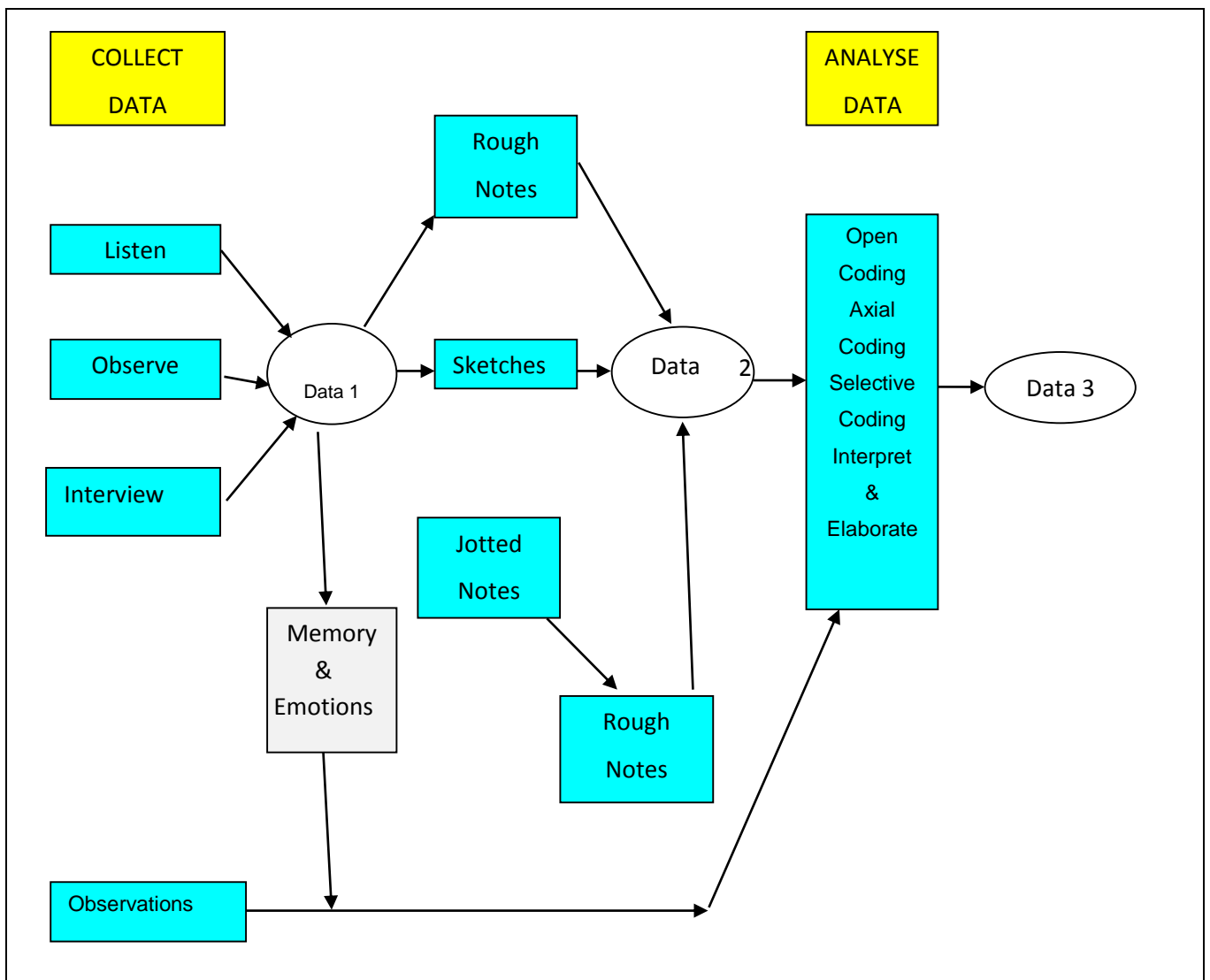
Figure 5.7: Data analysis search patterns in data

Source: Neuman (2000:426)

5.9.1   Organising the data.

First the researcher separated the data sets (field notes, observations, interviews, and reflective journal entries images) and marked them. Then, files were used to gather the material dealing with the same batch of data, subsequently the researcher kept on reading the collected data, gave each participant a name and marked all the data of that particular participant with the same name. All collected data was transcribed and non-verbal clues were also included. Creswell (2012:239) defines transcription as the process of converting audiotape recordings or field notes into text data.

The researcher read and reread the transcribed data, writing down every impression that that was gathered. Then, a duplicate of the typed data was made, to keep one copy safe so that the researcher could track raw data from the original transcripts should the need arise.

The data was first organised before the initial coding. The one-on-one interviews and focus group interviews were sorted according to the relevant themes and grouped according to corresponding perceptive. In the initial data analysis when coding, the researcher started by bracketing the sentences that seem to fit together. Then the bracketing was placed in the left-hand margin where the researcher's reflective notes that describe the idea of the segments were written. The researcher kept on asking herself, what the participants were talking about in these sections. Then the researcher assigned codes names at the right hand side by directly examining the data letting the codes emerge from the data (inductive coding). Then the researcher compared and contrasted codes. Subsequently, the researcher grouped the codes that shared the same characteristics into categories. The researcher used the participants' words on the codes refining them to 35.

Creswell (2012:243) describes the coding process as making sense out of the text data, dividing them into text or image segments, labelling the segments with codes, examining codes for overlap and redundancy, and collapsing these codes into broad themes. Additionally, Creswell explains these text segments as sentences or paragraphs that all relate to a single code. Codes are labels used to describe a

segment of text or an image (Creswell 2012:24). Due to the paradigms that direct this study, the appropriate data analysis strategy utilised was constant comparative analysis. Strauss and Corbin (1998) establish that constant comparison analysis is characterised by three major stages, i.e. open coding, axial coding, and selective coding.

5.9.1.1   Open coding

In this phase, the transcribed data were carefully read to locate meaningful segments and assigned a code to signify that particular segment. Nieuwenhuis (2007:105) advocates that this will help to identify data with the same thematic idea and enable comparison. Strauss and Corbin (1998) explain that during this first stage the data collected are chunked into small units where the researcher attaches a descriptor or code to each of the chunked units. The researcher carefully listened to the audio recordings three times after each focus group (Krueger 1988) and, in conjunction with the field notes, transcribed the discussions of the interviews. The researcher continued until all the data had been segmented. During the open coding, a master file (a list of all the codes that were developed and used in the research study) was kept. The codes were coded with the participant's actual words and this process is called in vivo coding (Nieuwenhuis 2007; Creswell 2012). Segments were revised to refine the codes. Codes were summarised and refined for enumerating, categorisation and searching for relationships and patterns of the data.

5.9.1.2   Axial coding

In axial coding, data are put together in new ways by seeking to identify explicit connections between categories and subcategories of data. This involves explaining and understanding relationships between categories in order to understand the phenomenon to which they relate (Nieuwenhuis 2007:107). Firstly, all the codes were established before identifying possible themes (categories). Secondly, the researcher read across data sources to establish what information was corroborating and which contradictory, as Nieuwenhuis (2007:108) suggests. This stage, namely the axial coding stage, allowed merging categories that were similar under one broad

umbrella or category. The objectives for the study set out in Chapter 1 helped the researcher much at this second stage.

5.9.1.3   Selective coding

The third and final stage, selective coding came in when I systematically developed one or more themes out of the categories that indicated each of the groups. According to Nieuwenhuis (2007:107), selective coding involves the process of selecting and identifying the core category and systematically relating it to other categories, whilst Creswell (2012:245) describes themes (also called categories) as similar codes aggregated to form a major idea in the database. In this final stage, emergent themes from the broad categories were developed into more themes to express the content of each of the groups. The idea was to prepare all the themes to be thoroughly discussed in the next chapter of this study.

The related codes were combined into themes and each theme was assigned an identifying name using descriptive phrases or words from the text. The researcher discussed labelling with a colleague to see whether it made sense and also for credibility of the study. During the selective coding, the relevant data were sorted under the appropriate themes and labelled with a descriptor. Categorisation occurred until all coded data had been put into relevant themes until no more new themes or subthemes were identified. As the researcher kept on refining the codes, they were finally reduced into five themes. These themes were developed by providing multiple perspectives from different viewpoints of participants, observations, documents and field notes as evidence. The researcher discussed the themes with her colleague to see whether they made sense. The researcher was also aware that by doing that, she added to the credibility of the study. Ultimately, five main themes, eleven subthemes and fifteen categories emerged from integrating the codes (*cf.* Chapter 6, Table 6.3) that shows a list of themes, subthemes and categories of subthemes. Some codes that did not fit into themes were kept separately and the clarity of these codes prevailed when working with data from other sources. Initial transcripts were reread to verify whether all the themes were captured and saturation was reached. (Creswell 2012:251) describes saturation as the point where you have identified the major themes and no new information can be added to your list of themes or to the

detail for existing themes. Subsequently, an illustration outlining the relationship of the themes was drawn to structure the analysed data (*cf.* Chapter 6, Figure 6.3).

Below is the figure that clarifies the Constant Comparison Analysis coding process explained above.
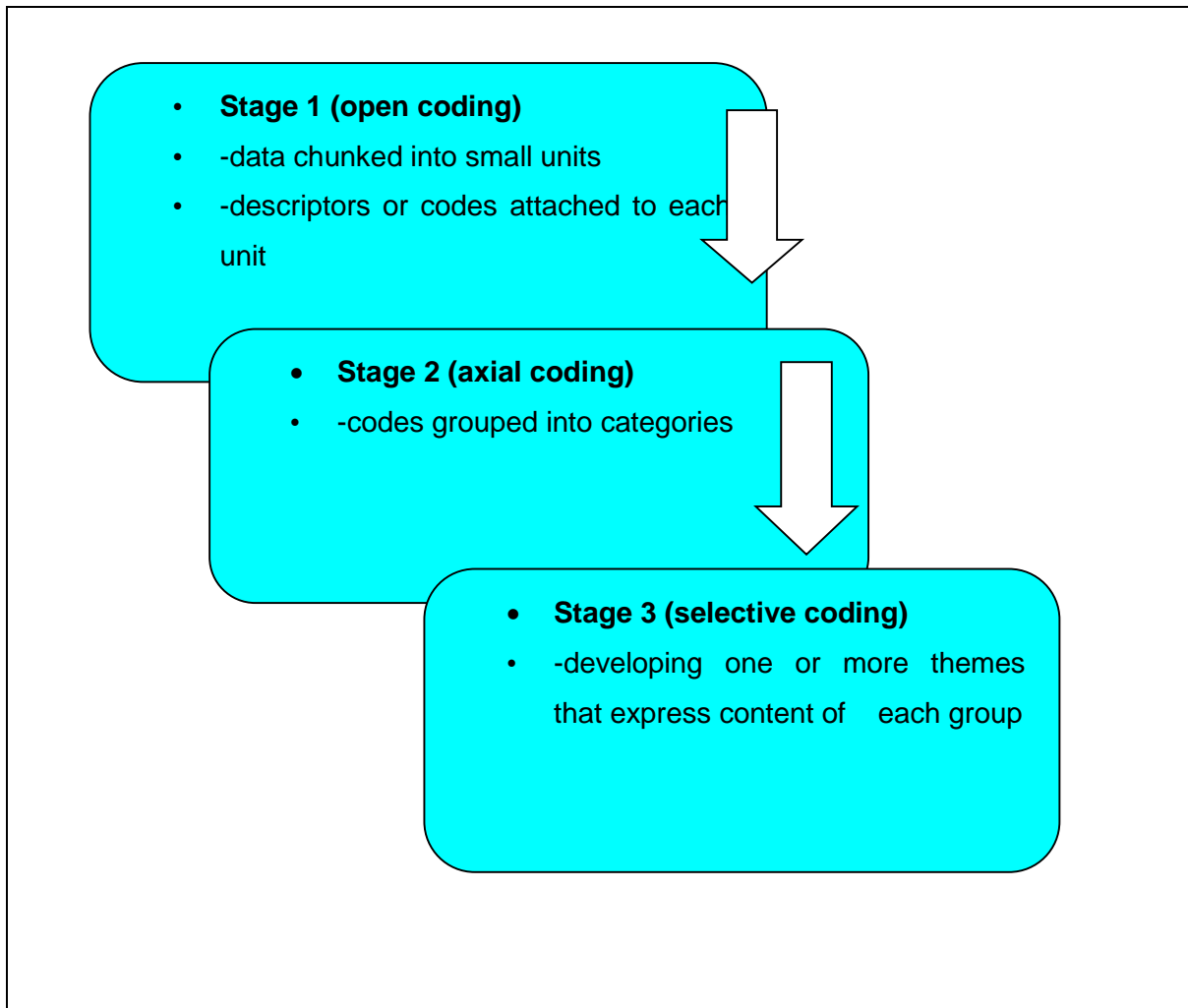
Figure 5.8: Constant Comparison Analysis

Source: Glaser and Strauss (1967)

5.9.2   Interpreting the data

Interpreting in qualitative research means that the researcher steps back and forms some larger picture of the phenomenon based on personal views, comparisons with

the past studies, or both (Creswell 2012:257). During this phase in this study, the data were searched for emerging patterns, associations, concepts, and explanations. Then the analysed data was placed in the context of existing theory to reveal how it corroborated existing knowledge or brought new understanding to the body of knowledge.

The findings emerged from the raw data collected from the participants, unlike as with a deductive approach, since Nieuwenhuis (2007:99) asserts that the categories of information required from the data are formulated in advance. Lastly, findings were discussed in a narrative form in accordance with Creswell (2012:254) who states that a narrative discussion is a written passage in a qualitative study in which authors summarise, in detail, the findings from their data analysis.

5.10   TRUSTWORTHINESS OF THE STUDY

Creswell (2012:259) declares that qualitative researchers do not typically use the word *bias* in research: they will say that all research is interpretive and that the researcher should be self-reflective about his or her role in the research, how he or she is interpreting the findings, and his or her personal and political history that shapes his or her interpretation. Since interpretivist and constructivist paradigms focus on the process of interpreting and creating meaning from the participants' unique lived experiences, the researcher's experiences and reflexivity shaped the interpretation.

Hence, to establish the trustworthiness of a study, Lincoln and Guba (1985:290) remark that a researcher has to ask oneself this question: How can I persuade the audience including myself that the findings of the research are worth paying attention to and worth taking account of? Subsequently, to convince the audience, including myself, that this study is trustworthy, the four criteria proposed by Lincoln and Guba (1985:290) that is: credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability are considered.

5.10.1   Credibility

Lincoln and Guba (1985:296) assert that ensuring credibility is one of most important factors in establishing trustworthiness. Firstly, the authors indicate that credibility means to carry out the inquiry in such a way that the probability that the findings will be found to be credible is enhanced, secondly, to demonstrate the credibility of the findings by having them approved by the constructors of the multiple realities being studied.

The researcher engaged in preliminary visits to the sampled schools to establish a relationship of trust before the start of data collection, since Lincoln and Guba (1985:301) assert that the investment of sufficient time to achieve certain purposes gives the researcher an opportunity to build rapport and trust. There was also persistent observation of the lessons as it added the dimension of salience to what might otherwise appear to be little more than a mindless immersion, according to Lincoln and Guba (1985:304).

Again, it has been shown in this chapter *(cf.* 5.4), that to increase the trustworthiness and also to achieve the overall aim of this study, credibility was achieved through theoretical and methodological triangulation, described by (Creswell 2012:259) as a process of corroborating evidence from different individuals, types of data, or methods of data collection in description and themes.

Furthermore, to keep a clear mind, the researcher worked closely with a peer who served as a mentor during this study to prevent bias. Lincoln and Guba (1985:308) substantiate that peer debriefing is a process of exposing oneself to a disinterested peer in a manner paralleling an analytic session and for the purpose of exploring aspects of the inquiry that might otherwise remain only implicit within the inquirer's mind. The authors further explain that the peer debriefing process helps to keep the inquirer honest, the inquirer's bias are probed, meanings explored, and interpretations clarified. Secondly, it provides initial and searching opportunities to test working assumptions that may be emerging in the inquirer's mind. Finally, it provides the inquirer an opportunity for catharsis, thereby clearing the mind of

emotions and feelings that may be clouding judgement or preventing emergence of sensible next steps.

Equally, a negative case study analysis was done by reading literature based on the topic to scrutinise it for disconfirming data by revising the assumptions as Lincoln and Guba (1985:309) regard this as a process of revising assumptions with hindsight. Kidder (1981 cited in Lincoln & Guba 1985:310) claims that a negative case analysis requires the researcher to look for disconfirming data in both past and future observation.

By using a video tape during the interviews and observations, a referential adequacy criterion also contributed to the credibility of this study, seeing that Lincoln and Guba (1985:313) stress that videotape recordings provide the means of capturing and holding episodes of classroom life that could later be examined at leisure and compared the data collected. As a result, the recorded materials provided a kind of benchmark against which later data analyses and interpretations could be tested for accuracy.

Lastly, the process of member checking was employed. Creswell (2012:259) describes member checking as a process in which the researcher asks one or more participants in the study to check the accuracy of the account. Similarly, Seale (1999:45) adds that member checking involves showing material such as interview transcripts and research reports to the participants so that they can indicate their agreement with the way in which the researcher had represented them. In this study, the transcriptions were given to participants and then participants were asked whether the descriptions of the study were complete and realistic, if the themes were suitable and if the interpretations were fair and representative.

5.10.2   Transferability

Seale (1999:45) indicates that transferability is achieved by providing a detailed, rich description of the setting studied, so that readers are given sufficient information to be able to judge the applicability of findings to other settings which they know. Therefore, to enable the transferability of findings of this study to other settings,

firstly, the number of schools which participated in this study was mentioned. The limitations were indicated, the actual number of the participants were specified, data collection methods were clarified in detailed and in chronological order. Lastly, the school term, phase and length of time over which the data collection session lasted was provided in chapter 1 (*cf.* 1.7.4).

5.10.3   Dependability

The techniques outlined in relation to credibility were also employed in ensuring dependability. Also, to achieve this criterion, the researcher kept a reflective journal (memoing) of the decisions during the research process, especially as far as data collection and analysis processes were concerned, to help others to follow this study's reasoning. The researcher recorded the interviews and audio taped them, and every after session with the participants, reflective notes were jotted on what had happened during the session. For instance, the reactions and the verbatim notes of the EFAL teachers and learners were written down in the reflective journal so that they could assist during the data interpretation. This process is also known as audit trail. Seale (1999:45) corroborates that the audit trail consists of the researcher's documentation of data, methods and decisions made during a project, as well as its end product.

5.10.4   Confirmability

It is suggested that auditing is also useful in establishing confirmability. Lincoln and Guba (1985 cited in Carcary 2009:15) suggest that by implementing an audit trail, an auditor or second party who becomes familiar with the qualitative study, its methodology, findings and conclusions can audit the research decisions and the methodological and analytical process of the researcher on completion of the study, and thus confirm its findings. However, despite its role of establishing research confirmability, according to (Carcary 2009:16), auditing is rarely implemented in practice, but for this study, documents will be kept for auditing in case if there are those who disagree with the trustworthiness of this study. Again, to verify the honesty of the data, transcripts of data analysis were submitted to a critical reader in order to guard against the researcher's bias.

5.11   SUMMARY

Chapter 5 highlighted the empirical process that was followed when conducting this research study. Therefore, to understand the process of the research, the basic aspects of research and their purposes were explained in this chapter. Therefore, the interpretivist/constructivist perspective was also highlighted in this chapter since these paradigms focus on the process of interpreting and creating meaning from participants' unique lived experiences. Once more, the qualitative research process was followed in which a multiple case study process was employed since data collection arose in more than one sites. Yet, before the actual study, the pilot study took place as to identify problems which can be attended to before the real study commenced.

One-on-one interviews with EFAL teachers, focus group interviews with EFAL learners and observation were utilised during the data collection phase where field notes were also taken. Throughout the data collection phase until the completion of the study, a reflective journal was kept, as it facilitated reflexivity, to examine personal assumptions and goals and clarify the researcher's belief systems and subjectivities. Subsequently, data were analysed inductively where the main purpose was to allow research findings to emerge from the raw data. Finally, the four criteria proposed by Lincoln and Guba in their 1985 study (i.e., credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability) were indicated to convince the audiences that this study is trustworthy.

In Chapter 6, the researcher presents the analysis and interpretation of results from this study.

CHAPTER 6

PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

6.1   INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the researcher presents the background of the participants, results of data collected and the themes that emerged from interviewing and observing the Intermediate Phase EFAL teachers and learners from school A and school B. In school A, the researcher managed to interview the two EFAL teachers, nine learners and observed three EFAL classrooms, while in school B the researcher interviewed three teachers and nine learners following the same procedure. The classrooms seating arrangement with no learners were photographed and field notes were jotted down during the interviews. The total number of the participants was 23. Although the researcher interviewed nine learners from each school, two teachers from school A and three teachers from school B, the significant emerging themes are presented jointly.

To achieve the overall aim of this study, information was gathered through an empirical study based on the following research questions:

- What do the Intermediate Phase teachers understand about the classroom interaction when teaching English as First Additional Language?
- What are the teachers' experiences when using classroom interaction as an approach to teaching English First Additional Language according to the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS)?
- What beliefs and attitudes are held by Intermediate Phase teachers and learners when a classroom interaction strategy is used in teaching and learning English First Additional Language?
- What strategies do Intermediate Phase teachers employ in a classroom to enhance the communicative competence of learners in English First Additional Language?

6.2   DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION OF THE PARTICIPANTS

The tables 6.1 and 6.2 present the demographic status of the participants and then the full explanation follows after each.

Table 6.1: Summary of the characteristics of the participants

Schools	EFAL Teachers (Pseudonyms)	Gender	Age Category	Qualifications	Teaching experience	Grade
School A	Sekgobela	Male	25-30	BEd	2	5
School A	Mothusi	Male	35-40	BEd (HONS)	10	6
School B	Molobe	Female	41-45	BEd (HONS)	16	4
School B	Thinani	Female	29-35	BEd	1	5
School B	Phafola	Male	50-55	BEd (HONS)	27	6

- **Teacher Sekgobela**

Teacher Sekgobela, at his young age and a teacher of Grade 5 learners, showed that teaching is dear to his heart. He was always available to his learners and even went the extra mile to be with them communicating with them during break. During the interviews in his school, the researcher was impressed seeing him leading his team in welcoming the visitors. He was a public speaking coach and helped other teachers to develop learners' public speaking in his school. Though Teacher Sekgobela only had two years teaching experience, he showed devotion in all activities performed. He graduated with a BEd and also indicated that he was busy upgrading his qualification.

- **Teacher Mothusi**

Teacher Mothusi, a middle-aged teacher with ten years of teaching experience was a dedicated Grade 6 teacher who liked to see his learners progressing in their reading. He indicated that he wished to see learners taking a front row in public speaking. Hence, in his teaching he made sure he knew his learners' background in

order to employ strategies suitable for diverse learners. Teacher Mothusi was a qualified teacher with BEd Honours.

- **Teacher Molobe**

Teacher Molobe was a committed, hard-working, middle-aged Grade 4 teacher dedicated to her career; she mentored teacher Thinani, and had BEd Honours. She was assertive and understood diverse learners and loved them. Teacher Molobe's chalkboard was always neat and she had a neat, beautiful handwriting. Her chalkboard was ruled with yellow chalk to give it a bright and colourful look. She was well experienced and she had been teaching for 16 years, but was not well informed about the Gauteng Primary Literacy and Mathematics Strategy (GPLMS). According to the Gauteng Department of Education (2010-2014:5) GPLMS is a teaching strategy and its purpose is to ensure that by the end of primary school, all Gauteng learners can read and write fluently for the purpose of enjoyment.

- **Teacher Thinani**

Though teacher Thinani, a Grade 5 teacher, was still new in the education fraternity with one year teaching experience, she had completed a BEd degree, she was willing and ready to develop her teaching career. She asked when she did not understand, according to her mentor. The school principal also commented that she was a great teacher and she was eager to learn and listened carefully.

- **Teacher Phafola**

Teacher Phafola was a well-experienced Grade 6 teacher with twenty seven years' experience in the teaching field. He was well versed in the strategies that prompt classroom interaction. He showed confidence, loved his teaching career and his learners were close to his heart. At the time of the interviews, he had a BEd Honours qualification and was further pursuing his studies.

The table below shows the demographics of the participants.

Table 6.2: Summary of the characteristics of the participants

Schools	EFAL Learners (Pseudonyms)	Gender	Age	Grade	Duration at school
School A	Sindi	F	9	4	5
School A	Thabile	F	9	4	5
School A	Thabisile	F	9	4	5
School A	Sesi	F	10	5	6
School A	Lebo	F	10	5	6
School A	Sipho	M	10	5	6
School A	Thabang	M	11	6	7
School A	Boyboy	M	11	6	7
School A	Busi	F	11	6	7
School B	Josi	F	9	4	5
School B	Lihle	F	9	4	5
School B	Lesego	M	9	4	5
School B	Coolboy	M	10	5	6
School B	Shygirl	F	10	5	6
School B	Thato	M	10	5	6
School B	Whityboy	M	11	6	7
School B	Smolly	F	11	6	7
School B	Pontsho	F	11	6	7

The Intermediate Phase learners (Grade 4 – 6) in both schools, school A and B were selected using the class attendance register, and the half-yearly grade record sheets. Then the individuals were designated according to gender, age group and academic performance. The researcher could not differentiate them according to grades as they were all participating in the focus group interviews. In school A there were nine learner participants. Their names were: (pseudonyms) Sindi, Thabile, Thabisile, Sesi, Lebo, Sipho, Thabang, Boyboy and Busi. The number of learner participants in school B was also nine: (also pseudonyms) Josi, Lihle, Lesego,

Coolboy, Shygirl, Thato, Whityboy, Smolly, Pontsho. The ages of all the participating learners were in accordance with their grades.

The purpose of interviewing the teachers was to examine their understanding of classroom interaction in the Intermediate Phase to enhance communicative competence in EFAL, whereas the reason for interviewing the learners was to get their views of their EFAL classroom. The researcher reported the results of the interviews by presenting the relative information collected from the documents, interviews, observations, field notes and photographs. The researcher followed the data analysis process described in Chapter 5 of this study. The table below demonstrates the classification of the themes and subthemes.

Table 6.3: Emerging themes and subthemes

QUESTIONS	THEMES	SUBTHEMES
1. What do the Intermediate Phase teachers understand about the classroom interaction when teaching English as First Additional Language?	**Theme 1:** Classroom interaction understanding	**Subtheme 1.1:** Enhancement of needed skills, involvement of diverse learners, English as Language of learning and teaching (LoLT) and correction of mistakes
2. What are the teachers' experiences when using classroom interaction as an approach to teaching English First Additional Language according to the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS)?	**Theme 2:** Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement within classroom interaction	**Subtheme 2.1:** Teachers' experiences

QUESTIONS	THEMES	SUBTHEMES
3. What beliefs and attitudes are held by Intermediate Phase teachers and learners when a classroom interaction strategy is used in teaching and learning English First Additional Language?	**Theme 3:**Communicative beliefs and attitudes	**Subtheme 3.1: Beliefs** **Subtheme 3.1.1** Learning atmosphere, perspectives of teachers and learners and classroom activities **Subtheme 3.2: Attitudes** **Subtheme 3.2.1** Teacher, learner and parent relationships in learning
4. What strategies do Intermediate Phase teachers employ in a classroom to enhance the communicative competence of learners in English First Additional Language?	**Theme 4:**Teaching strategies	**Subtheme 4.1:** Interaction opportunities for language enhancement **Subtheme 4.1.1:** Theme poster and seating arrangement

The verbatim excerpts supporting the themes and subthemes are presented in the blue boxes.

Again, to follow the process mentioned in Chapter 5 (*cf.* 5.8), the researcher also shows the above themes and subthemes using Glaser and Strauss's (1967) suggestions.

Research questions

2. What is the Intermediate Phase teachers' understanding of the classroom interaction when teaching English as First Additional Language in the Intermediate Phase?

3. What are the teachers' experiences when using classroom interaction approach in teaching English First Additional Language within the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS)?

4. What beliefs and attitudes are held by Intermediate Phase teachers and learners when a classroom interaction strategy is used in teaching and learning English First Additional Language?

5. What strategies do Intermediate Phase teachers employ in a classroom to enhance the communicative competence of learners in English First Additional Language?

One-On-One Interview Questions

1. What do you understand by classroom interaction?
2. How do you interact with your learners in EFAL?
3. What is the importance of learning English as First Additional Language?
4. How do you correct your learners' mistakes?
6. How long were you trained?
7. What are your beliefs in using classroom interaction in teaching the English language?
8. How is the learners' attitude towards the classroom interaction?
9. How do you provide opportunities for classroom interaction?

Focus Group Interview Questions

1. Tell me about your English classroom.
2. What language do you use when you interact in your EFAL classroom?
3. How do you feel when learning or using English?
4. What are the activities you mostly enjoy in the English classroom?
5. How do you interact with other learners in English classroom?
6. Is there anything you want to say I did not ask?

Themes

1. Classroom interaction understanding
2. Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement within classroom interaction
3. Communicative beliefs and attitudes
4. Teaching strategies

Categories of Subthemes (Patterns)

1. Enhancement of needed skills, involvement of diverse learners, English as Language of learning and teaching (LoLT) and correction of mistakes
2. Teachers' experiences
3. Beliefs - Learning atmosphere, perspectives of teachers and learners and classroom activities
4. Attitudes - Teacher, learner and parent relationships in learning
5. Interaction opportunities for language enhancement - Theme poster, seating arrangement

Figure 6.1: Constant Comparison Analysis

Adapted from Glaser and Strauss (1967)

Figure 6.1 shows the four themes which emerged out of the selected one-on-one interviews with Intermediate Phase EFAL teachers, focus group with Intermediate Phase EFAL learners, documents analysed and photographs of classroom settings with no learners. Therefore, it became clear that themes are integrated in the overall aim of this study, which is to identify components that should be included in a framework to be used by teachers for classroom interaction as a teaching strategy in teaching English as First Additional Language to enhance learners' communicative competence in the Intermediate Phase classrooms, with the patterns previously identified in figure 6.1.
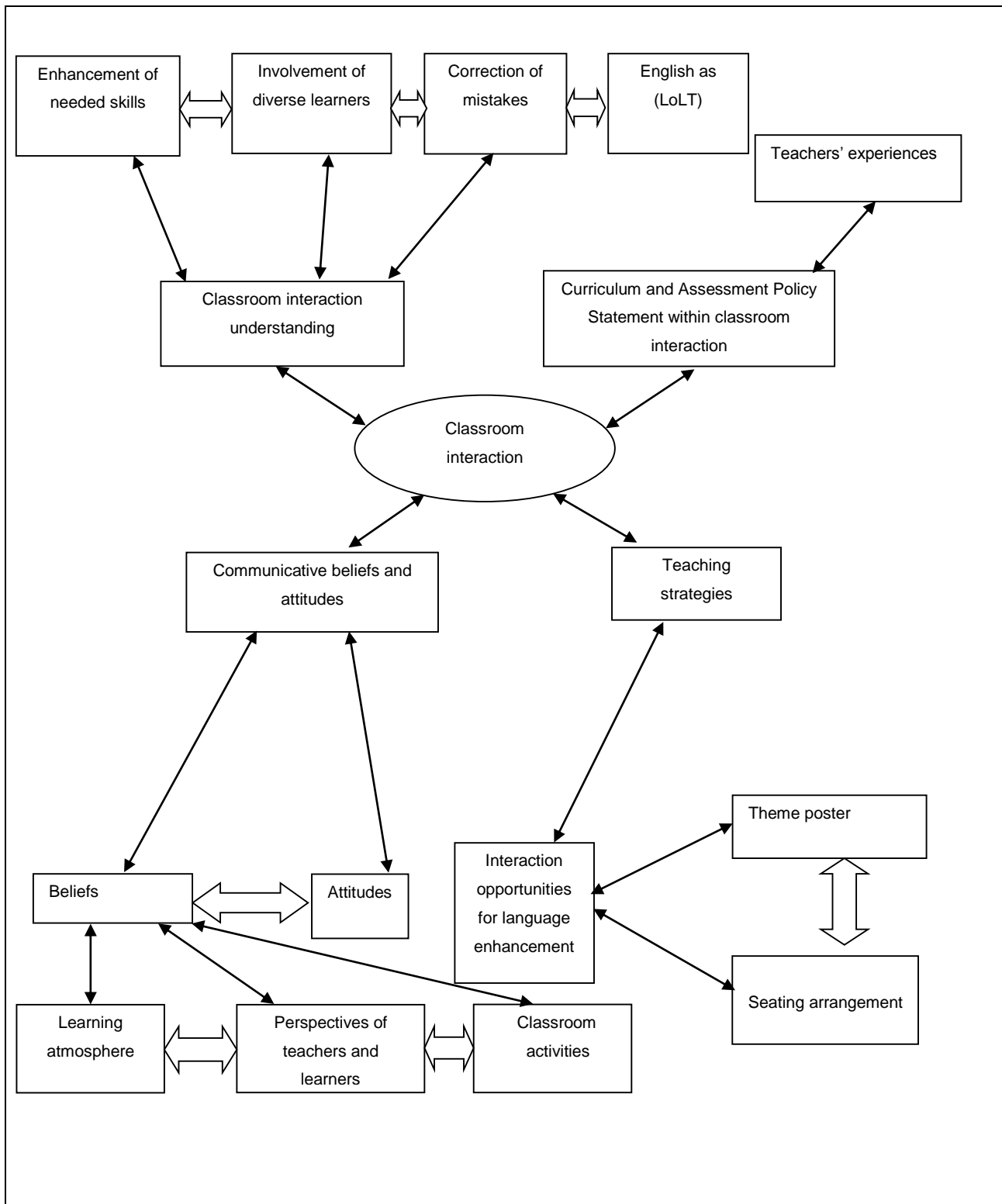
Figure 6.2: Integration between themes and patterns

Adapted from Amponsah (2014)

6.3   THEMES

Since there were four questions to be answered in this study, so each theme's contents attempts to answer these different questions. The questions were answered through the interviews, observation, documents, photographs and the field notes collected for this study.

6.3.1   Theme 1: Classroom interaction understanding

This theme reports on how teachers in school A and B remarked on their understanding of classroom interaction in teaching the EFAL. The subthemes of enhancement of skills that promote communication competency, involvement of diverse learners, English as Language of learning and teaching (LoLT) and correction of mistakes were also reported on.

During the interviews with the teachers, it became clear that the common perceptions of the teachers were to enhance the needed skills that can instil communication competence through classroom interaction. Teachers showed their commitment and dedication in teaching EFAL.

6.3.1.1   Subtheme 1.1: Enhancement of needed skills, involvement of diverse learners, English as Language of learning and teaching (LoLT) and correction of mistakes

This subtheme shows commitment of the EFAL teachers towards their learners. Most of the teachers interviewed understood the purpose of their being in the classroom, namely to enhancement the skills needed for learners to communicate. Four of the teachers said the following:

> *My role as an English teacher is to try to improve the level of English and help the learners to show that there is different world from the world they are living in" (Sekgobela.1.1.2).*

"My role as an English teacher is to enhance, empower and to enlighten the learners with contemporary events to become the better adults of tomorrow" (Mothusi.1.1.1).

"My role as an English teacher is to make learners get skills that are needed in English' (Molobe.1.1.4).

"As an English teacher, I'm here to teach learners how to write and read especially in English" (Thinani1.1.3).

The views of the teachers above express their dedication to being EFAL teachers who consider teaching as a calling according to our notion in the teaching fraternity. Farrel (2015:1) shows that this notion has been there for some time with the idea that those who are 'called' will make a difference in the world. So it can be deduced from the above teachers' remarks that they were really concerned about their learners. When interviewed, they demonstrated their confidence in what they were saying.

This subtheme demonstrates how teachers understand classroom interaction. Teachers explained that classroom interaction is a two-way process. It is a process where the teacher interacts with the learners and the learners interact with their peers. During the interaction the teacher remains a learner because the teacher picks up new ideas to keep on improving interaction.

Throughout the interview, the majority of teachers showed that involvement is essential. The learners' participation contributes to effective learning as they exchange knowledge during the interaction. So, the teacher plays the role of facilitator, more than that of a teacher. The following were the teachers' response:

Well, it is in two ways, is either I give instruction or then the learners communicate with me (Phafola.1.3.3).

> *. . .I need to involve them fully instead of me being the teacher to display teaching (Molobe.1.3.4).*

> *As the EFAL teacher, my interaction with them is that I try to make it a communication language which we communicate even during breaks. Everything we do, we try to do it in English so that they can get used (picking up hands) to the language (Sekgobela.1.2.2).*

But in the case of teacher Thinani (*cf.* 6.3.1.1 Subtheme 1.1: Thinani.1.3.5), she complained that learners participate during the oral lesson but when it comes to writing it becomes a problem. She put her concern in this way:

> *The learners are participating but the problem is when coming to writing, they raise their hands and answer questions individually or in the form of a group (Thinani.1.3.5).*

The above quotations explain how the teachers strive to create a classroom interaction atmosphere while using the EFAL. Teacher Thinani showed her frustration when her learners participate well orally but failed in writing.

The subtheme implies that the first step in the lesson plan is for the teacher to plan for diverse group of learners. As the public institutions like the two schools which participated in the study are classified as mainstream where diverse learners with diverse learning abilities are catered for, then the teacher's lesson plan has to suit the diversity. Teacher Mothusi (*cf.* 6.3.1.1 Subtheme 1.1: Mothusi 1.3.1) indicated that he had to know his learners in order to fairly interact with them. He further showed that the learners' background had to be understood as some of them are socioeconomically challenged. Knowing the learners' conditions would assist in the type of support the learners are entitled to, as the teacher would be able to differentiate between learners who need extra revision of the lessons and those who need more advanced tasks to keep them focused.

In fact, the teachers had different approaches of classroom interaction as some use the theme posters and every lesson emanates from the poster. Some of the teachers indicated that the interaction took place between the learners and the teacher and among the learners themselves by discussing and making sense of the theme poster. As the interaction took place, new words would emerge and then the learners' vocabulary would be enhanced according to teacher Phafola (cf. 6.3.1.1 Subtheme 1.1: Phafola.1.2.3).

However, one teacher (*cf.* 6.3.1.1 Subtheme 1.1: Molobe.1.2.4) ensured that in the process of interaction listening and speaking is maintained in order to enable reading and writing understanding. Teachers confirmed their classroom interaction by reporting that:

> *. . .you first have to know where the learner comes from because some are challenged in the classroom. You find . . . they are affected by socio-economic factors like in our scenario learners who are from disadvantaged background. Again you find that you have three different groups in your classroom, the highly gifted, average and less gifted. You have to interact with them trying to digest what is their problem, and help by going extra mile by extra classes support group and support lessons (Mothusi.1.3.1).*

> *There is a big picture which is a chart, like this term's theme is "Emergency" and then everything will emanate from the chart. Whether I teach comprehension, for them is to be able to comprehend, they need to understand the picture, the emergency, everything that goes with emergency (Phafola.1.2.3).*

> *We read together, and then they can write and tell me how they feel. But I make sure that listening and speaking is the more I interact with learners (Molobe.1.2.4).*

This extract identifies that although learners can learn the same subject matter at the same time, their understanding would not be the same as they differ in learning

abilities. Likewise, the Department of Education (2001:11) declares that one of the most significant barriers to learning is the school curriculum, since barriers to learning arise from the different aspects of the curriculum such as content, the language, classroom organisation, teaching methodologies, pace of teaching and time available to complete the curriculum, teaching and learning support materials and assessment. Therefore, the guidelines for responding to learner diversity in the classroom through the curriculum and assessment policy statement (Department of Basic Education 2011:4) advocate that in responding to the diversity of learner needs in the classroom, it is imperative to ensure differentiation in curriculum delivery to enable access to learning for all learners. The guidelines further state that all schools are required to offer the same curriculum to learners while simultaneously ensuring variation in mode of delivery process to accommodate all learners. This means that respecting diversity implies a belief that all learners have the potential to learn. Hence, is for the teacher to accommodate these diverse learning abilities.

This subtheme reflects the importance of English language. Teacher Sekgobela (*cf.* 6.3.1.1 Subtheme 1.1: 1.4.2) asserts that it does not mean that English is better than the other languages but without it is hard to survive. In a school environment, Teacher Mothusi and Teacher Phafola (*cf.* 6.3.1.1 Subtheme 1.1: Mothusi.1.4.1; Phafola.1.4.3) declared that English lays the foundation of learning in education since it is the language of learning and teaching, whereas, Teacher Molobe *(cf.* 6.3.1.1 Subtheme 1.1: Molobe.1.4.4) explained that English prepared learners for the outside world. All of the teachers stressed that English is a language that we cannot ignore as a country because:

> *. . . English is a language of learning and teaching across the entire subjects. When you go abroad you cannot use your mother tongue, to be able to socialise with other people you have to use international language which is English (Mothusi.1.4.1).*

> *The world today has made it a point that even though you go to other countries, the basic of English is there where people can try to understand you. So therefore, I can say the importance of*

English is to be heard and to be understood in a foreign country (Sekgobela.1.4.2).

According to me, is for the learners to be able to communicate and in our school per se, as we are speaking of English as a First Additional Language, remember that all the subjects are done in English. So is very important for them to understand English. Then they will be able to understand what is required from them in other subjects. We are laying the foundation (Phafola.1.4.3).

Our learners must believe in interaction and compete with other learners outside so that they can become competent and not closed. If they go outside, they must be able to interact with the others in English, so English is the official language that is needed all over (Molobe.1.4.4).

The importance of English is to communicate with other countries, have job interviews and even to prepare learners for secondary education (Thinani. 1.4.5).

It is apparent from the above-mentioned statements that with no English, interaction would be limited in many instances.

Interaction in the classroom is imperative as the aim of this study was to enhance learners' communicative competence in EFAL. The belief that practice makes perfect should be maintained if the individuals wish to perceive advancement in the set goals. The teachers explained how they promoted EFAL in their classrooms as follows:

If you want to see the kids progressing well, never switch to the home language (Mothusi.4.15.1).

I use English every time, every time. I do switch in other learning areas and in English lesson where you find a concept and you

see blank faces (bowing down to show breaking up in communication), and for me to bring them back, I just switch for few seconds at least I have their attention back again so that I can run with the lesson (Sekgobela.1.5.2).

. . .only here and there they don't understand, I have to switch to their language but not all the time (Molobe.1.5.4).

Despite the fact that the other teachers code-switched to assure the learners' understanding, Teacher Mothusi (*cf.* 6.3.1.1 Subtheme 1.1: Mothusi 4.15.1) asserted that if you want to perceive progress in your learners, never code-switch.

When the learners talked about their language of learning in their EFAL classroom they responded in the following manner:

We use English but sometimes if you don't know a word the teacher says we must use our language (Thabile.1.2.2).

They teach us English in our class" (Thabisile.1.2.3).

In our class, we do all things but there are some children who do not know English, then the clever ones go to them and help them (Thabang.1.2.4).

We use English in our class and when you don't know how to describe the other word we use our home language (Lebo.1.2.5).

We use English because there are many words we have learnt. Yaa, in English (Lihle.1.2.5).

We use English but words that we do not understand we use; our teacher describes in Sepedi (Josi.1.2.6).

Me myself we talk English and those who do not know English we show them how to talk English (Coolboy.1.2.9).

We always speak English when is the subject of English (Lesego.1.2.11).

With the aid of other learners, learners grasp the language as soon as they can because there is willingness to help and no learner feels embarrassed. The above quotes (*cf.* 6.3.1.1 Subtheme 1.1: Thabang.1.2.4) and (*cf.* 3.1.1 Subtheme 1.1: Coolboy.1.2.9) demonstrated that they help those who do not understand English. They do not leave them behind.

This subtheme also acknowledges that mistakes are made in every situation and more so when learning English as an additional language. Nevertheless, there should be a way of handling these mistakes.

The teachers in school A and B had their own ways of correcting mistakes during the classroom interaction process. For instance:

After they make a mistake, I try to talk the same word and let them repeat it and again, if they say it wrong again, I will say it again and again until they realise that there we are actually wrong here and I was supposed to say this instead of that (Sekgobela.1.6.2).

There are continuous assessments whereby learners are able to come up with unprepared speech and during that process I rectify their mistakes (Mothusi.1.6.1).

(With a smile) I consolidate all the mistakes of each and every learner and wait for feedback time. When oral work is one-on-one correction (Phafola.1.6.3).

It depends on what mistake it is. If is speaking, I correct it directly (Molobe.1.6.4).

When they pronounce and write wrong words (Thinani.1.6.5).

These extracts indicate that learners should be made aware of the mistakes they commit in their speaking, reading and writing. But the correction should be done in such a way that it does not embarrass the learner and cause him or her to withdraw. Kayum (2015:127) assets that teachers should bear in mind those protagonists of classroom teaching are learners, and not teachers. Therefore, teachers should avoid too much input during the course of teaching, which affects learners' output. Kayum further mentions that at the same time, teachers should be aware that they are also the organisers and implementers in classroom teaching besides being participants. They can provide advice to learners and teach them knowledge and ways of learning, but they should remember that learners are the main subject of study. When teachers were asked during the interviews how often they speak English to their learners, their replies were:

Very often (Mothusi.1.5.1).
(Shaking his head with a smile) 99% (Phafola.1.5.3).

Most of the time (Thinani.1.5.5).
Always (Molobe.1.5.4).

Every time (Sekgobela.1.5.2).
I use English. Just simple English (Mothusi.36.1).

The interviewed teachers illustrated their commitment for additional language learning through the practical demonstration.

6.3.2 Theme 2: Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement within classroom interaction

The theme covers the implementation of CAPS in the EFAL classrooms.

6.3.2.1 Subtheme: 2.1. Teachers' experiences

Three of the teachers have been fully trained to implement CAPS in EFAL but one teacher was still new in the teaching fraternity. Therefore, teacher (*cf.* 6.3.2.1 Subtheme 2.1.Thinani.2.3.5) as a new teacher, implemented CAPS with the aid of the mentor teacher while teacher Sekgobla (*cf.* 6.3.2.1 Subtheme 2.1: Sekgobela.2.3.2) had two years of teaching experience and was not happy with the duration of training because he had been trained for only two hours. Their views were the following when they were asked about their training:

> *I attended the CAPS training (Mothusi.2.2.1).*

> *Ehh, to be honest (smiling) it was about two hours (Sekgobela.2.3.2).*

> *Yes I was trained to implement CAPS. Remember, I studied OBE, and the OBE was an approach to CAPS, so it helped a lot and made it easier for me because I had a background for what to expect when I implement CAPS (Phafola.2.2.3).*

> *I was fully trained to implement CAPS (Molobe.2.3.4).*

> *No, because I am a new teacher (Thinani.2.3.5).*

During the interviews teachers expressed their experiences of the implementation of classroom interaction within the CAPS. Thompson, Andreae, Bell and Robins (2013:1) submit that the key element in the success of the changes is having well-trained and confident teachers to deliver the new curriculum. Most of the teachers were excited to share their experiences about the curriculum apart from teacher Malobe (*cf.* 6.3.2.1 Subtheme 2.1: Molobe.2.4.4) who loves CAPS but who said the stumbling block for the implementation was the Gauteng Primary Literacy and Mathematics Strategy. Teacher Molobe became sad while speaking about the above-mentioned strategy. The teachers' verbalisations were:

According to me, CAPS is a very good policy because . . . it unlocks the potentiality of the learner. For example, when you are presenting a comprehension, you can deal with all the skills concurrently; listening and speaking, reading and viewing, ehh, all of them (Mothusi.2.4.1).

I don't have much experience because I started last year (Sekgobela.2.4.2).

Well, CAPS is learner-centred. My experiences are for example in these books (showing the Department of Basic Education (DBE) book) learners work on their own pace. When I say: take out your DBE books, and open on this page, they have already done it at home. Sometimes they do their work with parents or with their peers. And then with me, it will be easier because I will only do corrections with them. The CAPS teaches them to be independent not to rely on the teacher. There is no way where the parents can say learners don't have homework because there is daily homework in their DBE books. That is why I say, if all learners can be like this in all the subjects, there will be a progress (Phafola.2.4.3).

Ehh, according to me CAPS does not have any problem. All I can say is that here in Gauteng; we are experiencing a challenge because we cannot manage CAPS on its own. We are linking it with other activities because you will find that the GPLMS activity 1 is affecting CAPS on its own because GPLMS is based on quantity not quality. There are lot of activities that are involved there. So, truly speaking you can't see whether CAPS is the best method or not. But CAPS on its own is good (Molobe.2.4.4).

CAPS is good because it encourages learners to take part rather than the teacher participation only (Thinani.2.4.5).

When teachers were asked whether CAPS improves the classroom interaction their reactions were:

> *To me is already doing that. Ehh, I don't know if you happen to listen to R radio (pseudonym used). There is a spelling bee every morning at 6:45 from Monday to Friday where you hear learners spelling words. It is so encouraging. The programme started few weeks ago and I have registered my learners. I am waiting for their turn to come and I will not be there. They just phone; it will be the radio and the learner and is very interesting (Phafola.2.5.3).*

> *CAPS improve the interaction but if more time is added because learners take time to understand (Molobe.2.5.5).*

> *. . . but with CAPS, it allows all fusses of teaching for the learners to show up their potentialities (Mothusi.2.5.2).*

> *If implemented properly (Sekgobela.2.6.2).*

In these quotes, teacher Phafola (6.3.2.1 Subtheme 2.1: Phafola.2.5.3) showed confidence in his learners. He trusted that they would make it in the spelling bee competition without his presence due to the implementation of CAPS.

6.3.3   Theme 3: Communicative beliefs and attitudes

As with any affair under investigation, each and individual participant has his or her own communicative beliefs about classroom interaction.

In this study, the researcher wanted to explore the beliefs and attitudes of teachers and learners regarding classroom interaction, to enhance learners' communicative competence in EFAL. Rad (n.d:2) declares that studies to provide evidence for the influence of beliefs on learners acquisition ability, studies have found that the learners who have positive and realistic beliefs about learning English reached

higher proficiency in English compared to those who did not have any. In addition, Protheroe (2008:45) concurs with Henson (2000) that the teacher's belief in his or her ability to positively impact learners' learning is critical to actual success or failure of a teacher. Typically, the ideas and attitudes of the individuals in teaching and learning fraternity are considered for the development of a turnaround strategy of seeking improvement. Thus, to get the ideas from the Intermediate Phase EFAL teachers and learners the subsequent subthemes were investigated.

6.3.3.1   Subtheme 3.1: Beliefs

All of the teachers and learners had personal beliefs that came to the fore throughout the interviews and observations and were gathered and reflected in the next quotations.

> *My belief is to see each child progressing from one level to the other (Mothusi. 3.4.1).*

> *Well my belief is, if you are open enough and if you talk to them they will give feedback and you will also know as yourself that how do I step in and how do I implement and other things I want to implement because you interact with them. They will also give you an idea of how can you bring in a new concept if there is a need (Sekgobela.3.4.2).*

> *My beliefs are these: When we interact, we are sharing ideas and that is the fundamental basics of interaction. To share experiences, to share whatever. You may know something that I don't know, we learn from each other (Phafola. 3.4.3).*

> *Ehh, my belief is when using the classroom interaction; learners in the classroom must be flexible. Obviously if your learners are not flexible, the class will be restless, and if the class is restless learners won't get what you want because, in the class we have different types of abilities. We've got different types of learning*

barriers. There are those learners who cannot learn by writing but learn by doing and learn by acting. If you interact with them by using different methods then you will find out where the other learners need support and those learners who are not involved you will be able to fully involve them. We must not forget that the class include inclusion, so when we do all this interaction we must involve all different types' of learners. We have to involve all our learners directly because some cannot write from the chalkboard, cannot work without having pictures (Molobe. 3.4.4).

I believe that learners will understand even if they cannot understand me but when discussing in groups and role-playing can understand and learn from the others. (Thinani.3.4.5).

The above ideas shared by different teachers are genuine and are presented according to the teachers' individual observation of the learning and teaching process. Accordingly, it is the teacher's responsibility to react in an appropriate manner that can facilitate learning for learners to grasp what has been presented. The most obvious solution is that a teacher, who labours as a bricoleur, utilises different ideas that advance the teaching and learning situation.

Menggo, Ketut and Made (2013:2) mention that the teacher should be able to recognise the learners' problem and create a conducive atmosphere in the classroom that will raise the learners' abilities to speak English. Consequently, English teachers are expected to apply the appropriate and effective technique to fulfil learners' need of English communication. This notion is in line with the communicative approach in which Rodgers (2000:159) defines language as communication and the goal of language teaching to develop communicative competence.

In one extract (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1: Sekgobela.3.4.2), teacher Sekgobela stated that if you are open enough to your learners, they develop trust and give the relevant feedback that guides the type of intervention that is needed. Teacher Phafola (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1: Phafola.3.4.3) explained that when you interact with your

learners, you share ideas and experiences. He also indicated that he had learnt a lot from his learners. Teacher Molobe (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1: Molobe.3.4.4) believed that a classroom contains learners with diverse learning abilities. Thus, you have to include diverse learning ability strategies in the learning situation. Lastly, teacher Thinani (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1: Thinani 3.4.5) expressed the idea of, if learners did not understand her, creating opportunities for learners to interact. Then they would be able to understand their peers as indicated by Jones (2007) and Khan Academy (n.d).

6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1.1: Learning atmosphere, perspective of teachers and learners and classroom activities

This subtheme discusses the atmosphere experienced in the EFAL classroom. The subtheme comprises the responses of teachers and learners conveying their opinions during EFAL classroom interaction. Most of the teachers and learners were delighted to tell about their EFAL classroom as learners in both schools (A and B) were also excited to tell the events and their experiences with their teachers and peers during EFAL lessons. But, Josi and Lesego did not experience the fun as they had the responsibility of being leaders.

Some of the learners' reactions were as follows:

> *Our English classroom is interesting and fun. We learn more new words we didn't even know they exist. We really enjoy doing EFAL (Sindi.1.1.1).*

> *Our classroom is fun and understandable, even though sometimes we get more difficult staff but we enjoy and we still learn some more things (Thabile.1.1.2).*

> *Our English classroom is fun and we need to learn and sometimes our teachers can be hard on us but we still care and we still want to learn (Sesi.1.1.4).*

My class is noisy but they are intelligent (knocking his head) (Thato.1.1.13).

Our class is very noisy and we are prefects. When we say, you are making noise they say "you too are making noise (Josi.1.1.12).

Our class is so playful and making noise. When we say you are making noise, he does not care and is repeating the same thing (Lesego.1.1.11).

Learners demonstrated their happiness being in the EFAL classroom. They liked it when they learnt things that they did not even knew existed in their lives. They explained that their learning was not always smooth as they sometimes were assigned difficult activities but that did not put them off from learning. Sesi said that sometimes teachers were hard on them but still they wanted to learn, while Thato noticed that though the class was noisy they had the ability to learn. In her writing McLaughlin (n.d:5) expresses the consequences for disrupting the class or failing to complete homework as a referral to the student planning centre or inability to participate in lab activities, respectively. This confirms the act of teachers of being hard on their learners to get things done in a right way. In fact, all the activities executed in the EFAL classroom brought joy to the learners.

It appears being a leader in a classroom causes hostility because the learner has to carry the burden of managing orderliness. Some of the learners do not understand what the leaders endure if things do not go the way they are expected to. Sometimes leadership can bring about a hostile relationship in the learning environment. These kind of antagonistic actions can be perceived in the above citations of two prefects (*cf.* 6.3.3.2 Subtheme 3.1.1: Josi.1.1.12) and (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1.1: Lesego. 1.1.11).

Again, all the participants (teachers and learners) also mentioned the classroom activities that they believed were harmonising the classroom interaction and that promoted participation in EFAL in this way:

… I just take one child who has jokes, just make jokes using the English language, where that particular child has a problem they have to help him . . . and we also make them programme directors. (Mothusi.4.5.1) . . . they also encourage those who are weak to also take part" (4.6.1).

. . . We have unprepared speech, we also have unprepared reading and sometimes I say in a certain day this is what we are going to speak about (Sekgobela.4.6.2).

… drama, poem, and then spellaton" (4.5.3). Right this script is a book. Then I'm John and you are Tembi. You must make it a point that as I am John you must go and read the script and Tembi must also go and read the script. When you come now is a time for drama, you must speak. Add what can go with what you have read from the script itself. So it helps them (Phafola.4.6.3).

I've done role-play once with my learners role-playing the story from the DBE books (Molobe: 4.5.4). I did see that the role-play is where the learners can express themselves. They will show their skills, they will show their strength and is where you can see the strength of the learner (Molobe.4.6.4).

Role-play, flash cards and storytelling (4.5.5). The role-play makes learners to participate and they will say something (Thinani.4.6.5).

All teachers in these citations made it clear how the activities encouraged the learners' participation in practicing and expressing themselves in EFAL. Teacher Mothusi (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1.1: Mothusi.4.6.1) showed that though some learners cannot express themselves in English but were encouraged by the other learners who do not have stage fright. Menggo, Ketut and Made (2013:7) confirm that there are inner factors such as lack of confidence and lack of motivation which

could make the learners feel ashamed to speak, scared to make mistakes and have no confidence. But as they see the other learners participating, they may feel that they can also do that.

Moreover, participation is also encouraged by unprepared speech and unprepared reading, according to teacher Sekgobela (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1.1: Sekgobela 4.6.2). Teacher Phafola (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1.1: Phafola.4.6.3) encouraged learners to practice their scripts in order to perform their dramatisation. This approach also enhances vocabulary development, and more so especially because he allowed them to add to what was written in the scripts. Likewise, teacher Molobe (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1.1: Molobe.4.6.4) and teacher Thinani (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1.1: Thinani.4.6.5) had experienced that participation in role-play discloses learners' skills and improve the interaction. In other words, learners exhibit their talents when they are given opportunities to construct and display what they have in their minds. Role-play is a matter of showing learners' talents and abilities. In addition, Teacher Thinani asserted that role-play gives learners the confidence to express themselves.

As debate has been shown as one of interactive activities, teachers were asked how often they encouraged debate in their EFAL classroom. Their responses were as follows:

> *Actually I have done it three times since this term (Mothusi: 4.13.1)*

> *I am a public speaking and debate coach and I do it almost twice in a week. Just to let them speak the language (Sekgobela: 4.13.2).*
> *Not very often (Phafola: 4.13.3)*

> *To be honest, we've done debating once. That is where I was telling that boys are better than girls. Because I gave them an activity as a group, then the activity was done mostly by girls. Then I said, 'Ok boys are better than girls'. Then they said boys*

are not better than us ma'm and also boys started saying girls are not better than us then there was a debate there (Molobe: 4.13.4).

Maybe once a month (Thinani: 4.13.5).

Not all of them. Some are shy, and through the help of other teachers, they empower the skill of stage confidence (Mothusi: 4.14.1).

(Excited) I have a few that love it. They are people who are like me who do not want to see things in one way. There is a lot who love and enjoy it (Sekgobela: 4.14.2).

Not all of them. Only the intelligent ones like it. But most they do not like debate (Phafola: 4.14.3).

I think they don't like it maybe because we are the one who do not give them an opportunity. But the time we did it because it was about them, they were competing. Boys wanted to tell girls that you are not even better than us. But are only those gifted learners and the other ones you have to push them (Molobe. 4.14.4).

No, maybe is because I'm not used to it (Molobe: 4.14.5).

Indeed, to confirm or disprove what the teachers indicated in the above passage, during the focus group interviews learners excitedly insisted that:

The activity that I like is when writing a dialogue and telling a friend what we do (Whityboy.1.5.7).

I like when reading stories because I read about what is happening around the world and my life. But not telling about my family (Thato.1.5.8).

I like when I go in front of the class and telling stories without reading it. Just telling it from my heart (Lesego.1.5.8).

I like when telling stories because I learn something from the story (Pontsho. 1.5.8).

I like when we read stories and doing rhyming words like Americans (American girl.1.5.10).

I like it when we are talking about verbs because verbs are the most important in our lives because we always do things (Lihle.1.5.9).
The activity that I like is reading because all learners are paying attention and all eyes are on you. Those who are playing can learn something from me and stop playing (Thato.1.5.11).

The activities that I like in English is telling our own stories because it reminds me in grade 4 when our teacher says she wants someone who can tell the story by not practicing it and then I was the first one to tell the story (Josi.1.5.13).

I like to tell stories (Smolly.1.5.14).

These learners eagerly expressed their different views the activities they mostly enjoy in the classroom interaction. They concurred with their teachers by naming their favourite activities. They elucidated how the activities incited their curiosity in learning and communicating their emotions. Most of the learners articulated their love for reading and reading aloud. In the citation (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1.1: Sindi.1.5.1) Sindi affirms that when she tells stories she feels relieved.

The learners (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1.1: Thabang.1.5.2; Thabile.1.5.3; Thato.1.5.11 & Josi.1.5.13) become excited when they demonstrate their strengths in public, "all eyes on you". These learners became proud of their demonstrations as they felt honoured to be given an opportunity to display their capabilities. This confirms that learners want to be seen and be applauded for their performance. Furthermore, the revelation of Josi (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1.1: Josi.1.5.6) of thinking that she will be a writer one day is in accordance with Locket (2011:5) as he declares that storytelling offers learners opportunities to write and provides scaffolding on which children can build their own stories. Therefore, the teacher should provide a basis for writing through verbal interaction.. Lastly, in the excerpt one learner (6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1.1: Whityboy.1.5.7) illustrated that "the activity that I like is when writing a dialogue and telling a friend what we do". Applefield, Huber and Moallem (2001:35) underscores Whityboy's idea by stating that dialogue is a catalyst for knowledge acquisition as understanding is facilitated by exchanges that occur through interaction.

There were different perspectives when teachers and learners were asked to state their opinions on how to improve the classroom interaction in teaching and learning EFAL to enhance communicative competence.

The following excerpts were extracted from teachers' perspectives in both schools; the teachers were ready to specify the measures that can be put into effect to influence the effective implementation of classroom interaction in EFAL.

> *A person should be confident, you know if you are confident, and*
> *even the mistake you did just be free and come down to the level*
> *of the intelligence of their age, (Sekgobela.4.15.2).*

> *I think the foundation should be reading. Because much you can*
> *talk in English, if you cannot read and write, (shaking his head)*
> *(Phafola. 4.15.3).*
> *. . . is lot of activities and paper work because if I can show you*
> *now, there is a book that I am recording in . You need to teach*
> *now and record, teach now and record. There is no time to let the*

learners to speak and express themselves in speaking. I don't have time with these learners to sit down and express ourselves because what is needed is only quantity of work. That is why there is no quality in our work because quantity is forcing us to do and complete the syllabus (Molobe.4.15.4).

By encouraging learners to speak English every day, to listen and even to communicate around (Thinani.4.15.5).

Ehh, discipline, you know learners respect the teacher, who is well prepared, and that thing reduce ill disciplinary actions in the classroom. If you are well prepared, you are always strong in what you are doing. Learners will always be disciplined. Unlike you find learners making noise when you are teaching (Mothusi.4.16.1).

The classroom discipline is a problem (Thinani.4.16.5).

Our parents neglect this education. Some of them even today still believe that is the language of oppression. They ask themselves why I should help you with these. All home works will be done but this one you know, due to factors that prevent them from doing this (Sekgobela.4.16.2).

The only problem is parents are not involved. Some parents when they come to school they don't even know in which grade is the learner (Phafola.4.16.3).

. . . what I can say is I wish what you are interviewing me on can be implemented (Molobe.4.16.4).

The concerns expressed by teacher Sekgobela (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1.1: Sekgobela.4.15.2) and teacher Mothusi (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1.1: 4.16.1) reveal the type of a teacher needed in the process of classroom interaction. The kind of

teacher suitable for effective teaching has high teacher efficacy, is confident in what he or she does in the classroom and who presents well-prepared lessons to avoid poor discipline. These teachers declared that if you present yourself well and show respectable behaviour you are in a position to instil honest self-efficacy into the learners. In contrast teacher Thinani (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1.1: Thinani.4.16.5) still complained about learners' discipline. The possibility might be that she was still new; she was not yet well equipped for handling the learners.

The concern of teacher Molobe (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1.1: Molobe.4.15.4) was the quantity of work versus the quality of work. She indicated that there was an overload of administrative work she had to do while she was teaching. According teacher Molobe, the mentioned dilemma prevented her to have enough time for verbal communication with her learners with the intention of improving communicative competence. Her assumption was the quantity of work in a written form was just to impress the evaluators of her teaching. Therefore, this perception frustrated her in her passion for her teaching career. Her statement (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1.1: Molobe.4.16.4) confirms that she really wished her suggestions could be implemented. Therefore, classroom interaction as a teaching strategy is suggested to guide the teachers in teaching EFAL and enhancement of the learners' communicative competence.

Finally, the last concern that the teachers have raised was parental involvement in their children's learning. Teacher Sekgobela (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1.1: Sekgobela.4.16.2) perceived that parents considered English as the language of oppression, whereas teacher Phafola (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1.1: Phafola.4.14.3) observed that some parents were negligent. They were not even aware of in which grade their children were.

The learners were really keen to voice what they thought should be done to ensure that they are successful in their classroom interaction in EFAL for communication competency. The learners' feelings suggested multiple realities of experiences. They presented their opinions as follows:

We should get extra studies, read more books, and tell my teachers to teach me and my parents too (Thato.1.6.6).

In this school they have to get dictionaries for us so that we all have to know and be clever than now (Lihle.1.6.11).

I think we should all get reading books that are written in English (Whityboy.1.6.12).

We have to have more books to read for everybody at school (Coolboy.1.6.15).

I think we should do it in front of the whole school and sometimes to win the certificates (Josi.1.6.7).

I think it should be done around the world because we can communicate in English not Sepedi and if you go around the world you will not speak Sepedi (Lesego.1.6.8).

When you talk to your friend you don't recap by speaking your language but by speaking English. You say something in English and you learn even when we have difficulties but you must say it in English you can teach her something in English (Pontsho.1.6.9).

I think we should all get reading books that are written in English (Whityboy.1.6.12).

When I get home I practice speaking in English with my friends. The words that I don't know they tell me (Shy-girl.1.6.14).

I think we must write our own books in English because we want to be the writers (Josi. 1.6.16).

The learners also wished to have parental involvement in their learning *(cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1.1: Thato.1.6.6). They believed that if the parents could assist in their English learning, their competency would improve. It was deduced that some learners did not have study material at schools A and B, so they wished that everyone could have this so that they could be all clever *(cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1.1: Thato.1.6.6; Lihle.1.6.11; Whityboy.1.6.12). They were certain that if English could be globally recognised, then there would be no difficulty in communicative competency *(cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1.1: Lesego.1.6.8). Josi also added that they should be guided to write their own English books because she wanted to be an author *(cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1.1: Josi.1.6.16). This is a brilliant idea as learners will practice the skill at an early age as the more they practice the more we will have good English authors.

6.3.3.3   Subtheme 3.2: Attitudes

Rad (n.d:2) demonstrates that attitudes and perceptions have the potential to affect learners' language learning, motivation and ability to cope with English as additional language. Consequently, attitudes can be considered push or pull factors to help learners to reach ultimate success in attainment of new language a in short time. In both schools, the above subtheme provides a pleasant and conducive teaching and learning situation and enables the teachers to inspire the learners to learn more as learners themselves are optimistic about learning the additional language. When teachers were asked about the learners' attitude towards learning EFAL, they responded along these lines:

> *They are positive (Mothusi. 3.7.1)*

> *Well, to be honest, they loving it. They enjoy it because they have moved from the education that it has been forced to them (showing forced by hands), and now here is a person who is coming asking us actually what is this and what is this. It is a positive attitude (Sekgobela.3.7.2).*

They find it enjoyable. When is time for EFAL they enjoy it more than the other languages because of this interaction (Phafola.3.7.3.).

They really enjoy it (Molobe.3.7.4).

Others are shy but they can communicate (Thinani.3.7.5).

Now, if another learner is speaking in Setswana or another language, one will tap him and say Hi man wena that language, try this one. And that gives you confidence that you are going somewhere (Sekgobela: 3.9.2)*.*

In view of the fact that the excerpts above are constructive, the teachers have a reason to create a favourable learning environment where learners freely learn the language without any obstacles. All of the learners, according to the teachers, loved and enjoyed learning English (*cf.* 6.3.3.2 Subtheme 3.2: Mothusi.3.7.1 Sekgobela.3.7.2 & 3.9.2; Phafola.3.7.3; Molobe.3.7.4; Thinani.3.7.5).

- **Subtheme 3.2.1: Teacher, learner and parent in learning**

The learners described their learning and the relationship with their teachers and other learners. In fact, they made it a point to encourage their peers who were struggling in their attempts to use of English. Furthermore, one of the learners elucidated the relationship with her parent concerning EFAL. It seems that there was a harmonious relationship among the participants in the study in both schools A and B. The learners in both schools confirmed that their EFAL classes were fun and enjoyable, except the prefects who complained about the noise makers.

Again in this category, the relationship among the teachers and learners appeared to be positive since the learners indicated that:

I feel excited if is the English period comes because my teacher teach me everything about life (Sesi.1.2.6).

. . . sometimes our teachers are hard to us but we still care and we still want to learn (Sesi.1.1.4).

. . . some learners do not know English proper so we help them to understand or call the teacher to help them (Sesi.1.4.6).

. . .my teacher is kind (Lebo.1.1.5).

That is very nice because our teacher is sweet (Lihle.1.1.9).

. . .our teacher helps us with the new words. She tells us what to write and what is wrong (Pontsho.1.1.10).

Our teacher is very kind to us and we answer her questions when we don't understand (Josi.1.1.12).

Our teacher is kind, teaches us, ehh what can I say? When we make noise he calls us and give us work to do (Thato.1.1.13).

In our class is fun to learn and my teacher is kind (Lebo.1.1.5).

My teacher is kind and helpful. She understands what we are saying and she can help us with the work (Thabisile.1.1.3).

I feel happy when my teacher comes then if he talks to me I say 'Hoo!' this guy is talking loud because and I am scared the way is talking (Thabang.1.3.5).

. . . if I don't know something there is always someone who is guiding me (Boyboy.1.3.7).

. . . I feel happy and excited and our teacher teaches us like Americans (American girl.1.3.15).

*The most thing that I hate in my class is that the most teachers
like the teacher T does not treat us the same. He likes the other
and he does not like the others (Busi.1.6.5).*

In this excerpt, the learners' responses illustrated that there was a pleasant relationship among the teachers and the learners. Teacher Mothusi recommended that a teacher should never be too strict but, should try to create an atmosphere in which learners see you as a parent and the learner is able to open up to you about his or her feelings (*cf.* 6.3.3.2 Subtheme 3.2 - Subtheme 3.2.1: Mothusi.3.9.1). That sometimes means that learners have problems in the family. One teacher mentioned:

*One day while I was sitting there (pointing at the front table) I
saw her crying and I became worried…* (Mothusi.3.9).

The comment by Sesi (*cf.* 6.3.3.2 Subtheme 3.2 - Subtheme 3.2.1: Sesi.1.1.4) shows that the learners did come across challenges in their learning. It was not always easy to learn in the classroom but because they wanted to learn and become competent in EFAL, they persevered. They realised that nothing came easy. But Busi (*cf.* 6.3.3.2 Subtheme 3.2 - Subtheme 3.2.1**:** Busi.1.6.5) differed from the others as she saw things in a different perspective. She had a problem with Teacher T who did not treat all learners the same. Furthermore, learners in school B indicated that:

*My English class is fine, nice and kind; we love each other
(Lihle.1.1.9).*

*At home we talk English with my friends and help the others
(Coolboy.1.3.17).*

*I feel happy because some of my friends do not know how to
speak my home language and when we are together we speak
English (Whityboy.1.3.14).*

. . .some learners do not know English proper so we help them to understand (Sesi.1.4.6).

There are some children who need help in English. We teach them and show them how to write the correct spelling (Josi.1.4.7).

My teacher knows that I feel sad when I don't know something; I don't want to be a bad person in my work. I just want to be a good girl and help each other (Lihle.1.4.13).

. . . there are learners who do not know English. We tell them to practice not to make noise. We respect each other and tell to practice and we improve (Lihle.1.4.8).

. . . we learn from each other (Lesego.1.4.9).

We teach people who do not know so that they can be clever (Coolboy.1.4.10).

I go in front and tell them to take out their DBE English books and open page so and so then I help them to read (Thabang.1.5.2).

There are other children who come to me and sit around and talk about verbs and I help them because I don't want to be clever than the others. I want to be clever all of us and say we are clever! (Lihle.1.5.9).

According to this subtheme, there was a pleasant relationship in the learners' EFAL classrooms. There was a mutual relationship of helping and wishing to see everyone achieving competence in the English language. Lihle had shown this several times by repeatedly referring to helping each other (*cf.* 6.3.3.2 Subtheme 3.2 - Subtheme 3.2.1: Lihle.1.1.9, 1.4.13, 1.4.8 & 1.5.9) that they were really concerned about each

other's performance. The Khan Academy (undated) insists that it is important to teach learners how to help their peers understand concepts rather than just giving them answers.

In this subtheme, there is not much emphasis on the involvement of learners' parents in assisting in learning the target language. The only mention was made by Smolly (*cf.* 6.3.3.2 Subtheme 3.2 - Subtheme 3.2.1: Smolly.1.6.10) who confirmed that she got help from her mother for explanation of the tasks she did not understand. She indicated that:

> *I feel happy because I learn something every day. At home when*
> *I don't understand, I ask my mom to explain to me*
> *(Smolly.1.6.10).*

This subtheme substantiates that parents are still lagging behind in involvement in their children's education.

6.3.4   Theme 4: Teaching strategies

This theme emerged during the interviews with teachers and the participants sharing their perspectives concerning classroom interaction teaching strategies. The teachers in both schools agreed that the strategies implemented in their classrooms provide classroom interaction opportunities to diverse levels of learners' learning. The CAPS guidelines (DBE 2011:4) demonstrate that in responding to the diversity of learner needs in the classroom, it is imperative to ensure differentiation in curriculum delivery to enable access to learning for all learners. Respecting diversity implies a belief that all learners have the potential to learn. Teacher Molobe (*cf.* Theme 4: Molobe.4.2.4) elucidated that her flashing of simple sentence offered an opportunity to struggling learners to spell the words. Two teachers expressed their views as:

> *I used to give flashcards, or flash words. So which means my*
> *level of flashing will be different. If I'm flashing the sentence, the*
> *simplest sentence that I'm going to show them is the opportunity*

I give learners who are struggling to spell the words. I'm using different level of activities (Molobe.4.2.4).

I walk around when learners are doing their tasks and help learners with special needs" (Thinani.4.2.5). I use group discussions (Thinani.4.7.5).

The walking around of Teacher (*cf.* 6.3.4 Theme 4: Thinani.*4.2.5)* might prevent the learners' frustration by picking up the problem of an individual learner at an early stage. The guidelines (DBE 2011:16) state that those learners with diverse needs usually have difficulty with working independently and may require extensive initial guidance.

6.3.4.1 Subtheme 4.1: Interaction opportunities for language enhancement

In actual fact language enhancement in the classroom depends on the teachers' attitude towards the target language. If the teacher really sees the necessity of the language, he or she will ensure that the language is frequently practiced so that learners can familiarise themselves with the language.

- **Subtheme 4.1.1: Theme poster and seating arrangement**

Classroom interaction promotes learner-centred learning. As learners interact with each other, they construct their own learning by observing, sharing and even imitating the teachers or peers who are taking them on the ZPD journey. Alternatively, during the course of this journey, the construction of self-learning is enhanced as learners have to analyse what is presented to them through the aid of knowledgeable individuals. So, theme posters can play a significant role in inspiring the learners to construct their own understanding. In fact, the teachers described their position in using different strategies as follows:

I believe in charts. Something like this one (grabbing the charts bound together) these are charts that keep the learners through the lesson and I actually fold them because they get lost. If you

take the chart with the picture there it unlocks the child's memory to know what the teacher is all about and what is supposed to write (Mothusi.4.1.1).

They construct it by themselves and they come back. What I do now is whatever they did not find I assist with. It gives them an exposure to a self-learning where they are led as well, you do it and somebody comes back and shows you if you have done it wrong here there is a right way to do it (Sekgobela.4.1.2).

The most effective strategy for me is pictures and charts and is the most effective one (Phafola .4.1.3).
The strategy that I use is the direct approach. The direct approach is when I use the pictures that I have with me and then learners will be talking one by one (Molobe.4.1.4).

I use the resources, charts and flashcards (Thinani.4.1.5).

As you can see my classroom has books, the book corner there, learners who have finished their work, they go there and read (Mothusi.4.2.1).

There are different books at the reading corner, where I put different readings like magazines so that my learners when they finish writing all the time, they move to the corner and take a book and read (Molobe.4.9.3).

But what I normally do I take the gifted ones and mixed them with the less gifted and instruct them to monitor, and check on their work (Phafola.4.2.3)

Most of the teachers described the using of the charts and pictures as an effective way of directing learners towards self-discovering learning. They explained that this strategy unlocked the learners' memory and exposed them to learning different

activities in one theme. By employing the chosen strategy, teacher Sekgobela (*cf.* 6.3.4.1 Subtheme 4.1 - Subtheme 4.1.1: Sekgobela.4.1.2) believed that firstly, learners have to construct learning by themselves and where they encounter difficulties get help from peers and the teacher. The teacher explained that learners were assured that they were not alone and isolated in the learning field, as there were some sources ready to supply the needed information in the form of guidance. The group work mentioned by teacher Phafola (*cf.* 6.3.4.1 Subtheme 4.1 - Subtheme 4.1.1: Phafola.4.2.3*)* is advocated by Albertina learning (2002:71) when pointing out that group discussions are essential for building background on specific issues, creating motivation and interest, and giving learners a forum for expressing and exploring new ideas and information. They also help learners to learn and articulate their views and respond to opinions that differ from their own. Again, many teachers (*cf.* 6.3.4.1 Subtheme 4.1 - Subtheme 4.1.1: Mothusi.4.1.1; Phafola.4.1.3; Molobe.4.1.2 & Thinani.4.1.3) were confident that pictures, charts and flash cards were the most reliable sources in guiding learners to self-discovery.

Teachers Mothusi's and Molobe's (*cf.* 6.3.4.1 Subtheme 4.1 - Subtheme 4.1.1: Mothusi.4.2.1 & Molobe.4.9.) strategies of having a book corner minimises noise in a constructive way as learners who are done with their writing, instead of disrupting the others, are able to improve their individual reading by visiting the book corner and taking a book of their interest to read.

Figure 6.3: Teacher Mothusi's library corner

Teacher Mothusi's library centre has books which assist in stimulating the learners' reading

Figure 6.4: Teacher Molobe's library corner

The above figure shows Teacher Molobe's library corner where she keeps her different reading books. Both teachers, teacher Mothusi and teacher Molobe indicated that when the learners had finished with their writing, they moved to the library and read.

During the EFAL classroom observations, the seating arrangements were also observed. The seating in most of the classrooms was arranged in groups where learners could assist each other. Wannarka and Ruhl (2008:89) assert that because proximity and orientation influence communication, it is possible that desk configuration impacts on the nature and extent of students' interaction. Thus, it is

important for teachers to make informed decisions about whether rows, clusters, semi-circles or some or other arrangement will best meet the instructional needs of their learners. Below are the seating arrangements that were observed in some EFAL classrooms.

Figure 6.5: Seating arrangement in classroom A

It was after school, learners' seats showed a group work environment. The theories recommended for classroom interaction in this study support the seating arrangement of classroom A and classroom B, though the success of the arrangement depends on the teacher-efficacy of the EFAL teacher in charge. A teacher needs to be flexible in order to strategically employ the theories in this seating so that learners can work individually, in pairs, in groups and as a whole class. From the researcher's point of view, understanding starts with an individual before the ideas can be shared. The learner needs to understand the instruction in order to grasp the intended lesson (cognitive constructivism). In my opinion, this is a

preparatory stage of sharing ideas from different perspectives of the learners (social constructivism). The seating allows the individual working, pair or group to whole classroom participation. So, the arrangement is appropriate for classroom interaction as a teaching strategy. Then the arrangement can also leads to the learners' self-efficacy as it encourages a learner-centred approach. Hence, the arrangement requires a teacher with a high teacher-efficacy who can facilitate learning, motivate learners and give assurance that an individual has unique and valuable ideas. As a result, sharing of ideas with peers leads to the success of activities and vocabulary development that can enhance communicative competence in EFAL.

Figure 6.6: Seating arrangement in classroom B

Though the seating was not neatly arranged, it showed that learners were seated in groups to assist each other in some activities.

The other classrooms in school B were traditionally arranged, the reason being that learners were writing formal assessment tasks; they were expected to give their individual answers without assistance from their peers, according to the teachers. Teacher Phafola (*cf*. Subtheme 4.1 - Subtheme 4.1.1: Phafola.3.7.3) indicated that

learners are seated in groups of mixed abilities in order to assist each other in their assigned activities. He confirmed by pointing out that:

"They are seated in groups and I mixed the stronger ones with the weaker ones. In each group I make sure that there are two learners that I am sure that they will explain to the others. So they find it very much easier. And they help each other and when is time for assignments, I always tell them that don't leave your peers behind. Always carry your peer with you. When you see your peer writing something wrong, just look at me and say (pinching his eye). If I'm not starring at you just shake your head to your peer (shaking his head to show that is wrong)" (Phafola.3.7.3).

Teacher Phafola cultivated a supportive environment in his classroom. He let the learners discover the importance of the presence of peers in the learning environment. He promoted a sense of "you cannot learn alone in isolation". Certainly, even if you are highly gifted, you can also learn something from the less gifted individuals. Teacher Phafola disseminated this attitude in his class by saying "don't leave your peers behind. *Always carry your peer with you"* (*cf*. Subtheme 4.1 - Subtheme 4.1.1: Phafola.3.7.3). Mulryan (1991:2) stresses that low achieving learners in particular are likely to have negative self-efficacy that is likely to be transferred in a small group sitting arrangement. In fact, Mulryan disagrees with Teacher Phafola's on seating arrangement and discourages having high and low achieving learners working together because it will likely lead to a lack of interaction which will prevent the learners from fully benefiting from cooperative learning.

6.4   SUMMARY

In Chapter 6, the researcher presented the results of the interviews, observations and photographs from school A and school B. The main themes that emerged from the collected data on classroom interaction in the Intermediate Phase were described. Teachers and learners expressed their experiences, beliefs and attitudes towards the classroom interaction in EFAL classes. They also offered their opinions

on how to improve classroom interaction for enhancement of communicative competence.

These results suggested that teachers understand classroom interaction. During the interviews, teachers demonstrated their immense involvement in assuring that their learners are not left behind in acquiring the target language. They illustrated that teaching is dear to their hearts and aimed to fulfil their calling as teachers who wish to effect a change in their nation.

All the teachers seemed to like CAPS though there were some stumbling blocks in implementation. They also acknowledged that CAPS advocates classroom interaction. Their recognition included the fact that the curriculum unlocks the learners' potentialities since it is learner-centred and self-discovery learning is employed. However, one of the teachers commented that it is good if implemented properly.

Overall, teachers demonstrated the different teaching strategies they implement during their additional language teaching. They affirmed that by using the strategies they described, they trust that their learners would improve their communicative competence in the target language.

In Chapter 7, the researcher presents the summary, discussions of findings and recommendations resulting from this study.

CHAPTER 7

SUMMMARY, DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, LIMITATION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND AREAS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This study commenced by means of a literature review followed by empirical research. Then certain findings and recommendations were made, taking into consideration the literature review, personal experiences and theories underpinning classroom interaction and the empirical results.

Firstly, in this chapter, the summary of the research is given. Secondly, the key findings of the research are discussed in terms of the main purpose of the study and in relation to the conceptual framework described in Chapter 2. Likewise, Chapters 3 and 4 of this study relate to the literature and also to the empirical research reported in chapter 5 and 6. Finally Chapter 8 outlines the proposed framework for implementation of classroom interaction in teaching EFAL to enhance learners' communicative competence in the Intermediate Phase. Areas for further research are delineated in the final chapter for the benefit of future research in relation to this present study.

7.2 SUMMARY OF CHAPTERS

Chapter 1 is an introduction and overview of the study. The chapter includes the background, rationale of the study and the context of the three schools. The problem statement and research questions are also presented. Furthermore, the assumptions on which the study is grounded and the paradigmatic perspectives are discussed. The criteria for confirming the trustworthiness of the study and the ethical considerations are concisely clarified.

Chapter 2 outlines the concepts that guide this study and all the components and their relation to the study are presented in this chapter. The first figure in Chapter 2 illustrates in detail how the study is grounded. The motivation of using the interpretivist/constructivism perspective is also highlighted.

Chapter 3 discusses the interactive learning that is suggested for this study. The chapter describes the nature of the classroom environment that permits the interaction to take place. Therefore, the classroom interaction activities to enhance the learners' communicative competence in EFAL, which is the focal point of the study, are discussed. The benefits and challenges of these activities are also mentioned.

Chapter 4 examines the diversity of teaching methods in quest of techniques and strategies appropriate for classroom interaction. Again, the CAPS document in the Intermediate Phase was studied to find out whether it accommodates the classroom interaction in teaching EFAL that can enhance communicative competence.

Chapter 5 reports on the research design of the study in preparation for an empirical study comprising of qualitative aspects. This section reports on the research paradigms followed in this study. The analysis of the data collected is thoroughly discussed in this section.

Chapter 6 presents the background of the participants, analysis and interpretation of the study. Themes were developed based on the questions and objectives in Chapter 1.

Chapter 7 summarises the findings of this study and compares them with similar studies undertaken previously. The limitations and recommendations for future research are also indicated in this chapter.

Chapter 8 outlines the framework suggested for EFAL teachers for the implementation of classroom interaction in teaching EFAL in the Intermediate Phase of Gauteng schools. This framework is based on the literature study, the theories underpinning the study, the researcher's personal experiences as EFAL teacher, and the empirical research conducted.

Subsequently, the findings of this study were discussed based on the research questions and objectives presented in Chapter 1.

7.3   DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

The discussion of these findings is divided into five parts. The first part deals with the theories underpinning the study. The second part concerns the understanding of classroom interaction. The third part deals with the classroom interaction described in the CAPS document. The fourth part outlines the teachers and learners' communicative beliefs and attitudes in the teaching and learning the EFAL. The fifth part sketches out teaching strategies employed by the teachers.

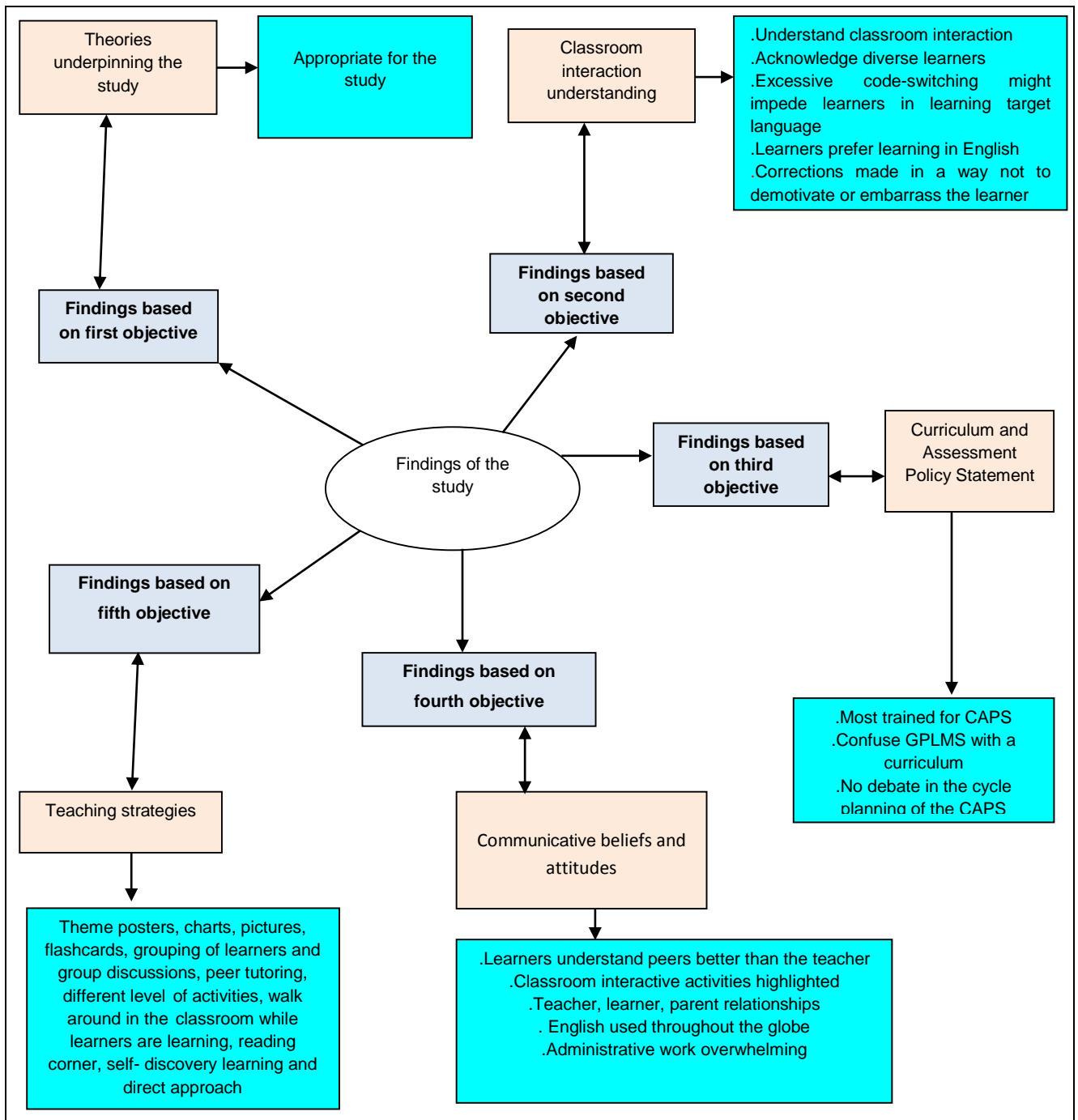The figure below briefly illustrates the division of the findings of this study.

Figure 7.1: Summary of the findings of the study

Researcher's own illustration

Figure 7.1 has three levels. The first level consists of number of objectives. The second level shows the themes derived from each objective while the last level indicates the findings of the study in brief.

7.3.1   **Findings with regard to the first objective of the study:** *to write a critical literature review on the philosophical paradigms which underpin classroom interaction in teaching English First Additional Language to enhance communicative competence.*

The research studies of Cannela and Reif (1994; Richardson 1997; Ismat 1998; Ciot 2009; Ültanir 2012) view constructivism as an epistemology, a learning or meaning-making theory that offers an explanation of the nature of knowledge and how human beings learn. The above authors emphasise that the real understanding is only constructed based on EFAL teachers and learners' previous experience and background knowledge (*cf. Chapter* 2.2.5.1). In view of the latter, constructivism considers an individual as an active being who possesses knowledge that just needs activation to understand certain aspects of life. For example, an individual (a teacher or a learner) makes meaning of what he or she comes across by building on his or her own beliefs, perceptions and what the individual comes to recognise in daily life. This individual comes to the learning environment such as the classroom with all the ideas borne in mind, so the teacher's task is to build on what the learner is familiar with. In this way, for the learner to understand and grasp the new matter, new knowledge should be based on existing knowledge. In particular for this study, it was found that EFAL teachers in the Intermediate Phase classroom can provide support and create an enabling environment for effective classroom interaction in teaching learners to enhance communicative competence if they are empowered to use this teaching theory. Therefore, the teacher clears up misconceptions that the learner might possess in order to solidify and groom the learner's knowledge (*cf.* 6.3.1.1 Sub-theme 1.1: Sekgobela.1.6.2).

The study of Gosh (2010:1) shows that there was a time when learners used to depend only on the lecture delivered by the teacher. As they were not exposed to enough practice of speaking, interaction among the learners in the classroom was almost absent. Additionally, Gosh asserts that in recent years, there has been a paradigm shift in the teaching approach in the education system that demands more learner interaction or active participation rather than passive listening to the instructor.

Piaget describes individual development and how the individual constructs knowledge, whereas Vygotsky affirms that learning occurs in interaction with others. From the researcher's point of view, Vygotsky's social cognitive theory builds on Piaget's cognitive theory as the individual comes to the social interaction with the possession of knowledge; then this knowledge is shared for social interaction and the development of more knowledge to take place. This type of behaviour emanates from social coherence and interdependence through sharing and collaboration. These theories were merged in this study in order to lay a solid foundation for upholding and creating conducive learning environments that can support effective classroom interaction in teaching EFAL learners to enhance communicative competence (*cf.* Figure 2.2).

In fact, constructivist theories are based around the idea that learners construct their own meaning by building on their previous knowledge and experience. So, new ideas and experience are matched to existing knowledge, and the learner incorporates these to make sense of the world. Thus, in such an environment the teacher cannot solely be in charge of the learners' learning, since everyone's view of reality is different and the learners come to learning already possessing their own constructs of the world.

Moreover, Powel and Kalina (2009:244) illustrate that scaffolding is an assisted learning process that supports the zone of proximal development (ZPD), or getting to the next level of understanding, of each learner by the assistance of teachers, peers or other adults (*cf.* 6.3.3.2 Sub-theme 3.2 - Sub-theme 3.2.1: Josi.1.4.7**)**. Therefore, the presence of a teacher and the verbal scaffolding of learning in EFAL in this zone prepare the learner for classroom interaction that enhances communicative competence.

Again, Burney (2008:130) clarifies that social cognitive theory ascribes a central role to cognitive process in which the individual can observe others and the environment, and reflects on that in combination with his or her own thoughts and behaviours, and alters his or her own self-regulatory functions accordingly. Hence, the classroom interaction, from the learner's point of view, ought to be of enhancement of communicative competence in EFAL. This means that the basic aspects would

include the teacher as an additional language modeller, an environment conducive for the additional language enhancement and peers who can also assist in the enhancement of the target language. In fact, the early study of Hamilton and Stewart (1977 cited in Bandura, 1989:17) confirms that young learners frequently model the language of their peers (*cf.* 6.3.3.2 Sub-theme 3.2 - Sub-theme 3.2.1: Lihle.1.5.9).

From the above mentioned theory, stems the teacher-efficacy model that indicates a teacher's belief in his or her ability to complete the steps required to accomplish a particular teaching task in a given context. This theory suggests that teachers with high self-efficacy can positively influence the learners' self-efficacy. Furthermore, Onafowora (2005:35) sustains that Bandura found efficacious teachers felt self-empowered to create learning environments that allowed them to motivate and promote learners' learning. Likewise, the teacher who plays multidimensional roles, highlighted by Department of Education (DoE) (2000; Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana 2002), contributes positively to the classroom interaction since he or she has abilities to create conducive learning environments (*cf.* Chapter 8.2.3). Despite the fact that there are many factors that challenge the learning of EFAL, the school and the classroom serve as a foundation for offering learners' opportunities to construct awareness of future roles to enhance communicative competence. Thus, competence is built through practice and guidance. If the teacher wishes the learners to be proficient and acquire communication competency, opportunities for practice are the most essential device to mastering the language. It has been reiterated in this study that teacher efficacy also produces learner efficacy. This suggests that the teacher as an adult with advanced knowledge in the ZPD gives support and guidance, and effective learning takes place. Subsequently, it is found in this study that teachers can work to improve their learners' emotional states, correct their faulty self-beliefs and improve their academic skills. Hence, learners benefit from a teacher with high self-efficacy and become efficacious too.

The self-efficacy theory also stems from Bandura's social cognitive theory, but in this study the researcher directed it to the learners' learning in the classroom interaction in EFAL to enhance communicative competence. Bandura (1997:1) illustrates that self-efficacy reflects an individual's belief about whether they can achieve a given level or success at a particular task. So teachers' self-efficacy influences their efforts

and persistence to motivate the learners to learn. In addition, learners also are influenced and model the efficacy that the teacher displays and become efficacious too, since (Bandura 1997:1) indicates that individuals exercise agency, or control, over their lives through their own perceptions of self-efficacy. Accordingly, teachers are the catalyst of modelling efficacy in the community that has placed learners in their midst to groom and mould to become efficacious members of society. In fact, the learners who learn in a constructivist learning environment, assisted by the teacher or competent peers in the ZPD, observing the teacher with high teacher-efficacy, ought to display self-efficacious characteristics *(cf.* 6.3.1.1 Sub-theme 1.1: Thabang.1.2.4; Lihle.1.2.5; Coolboy.1.2.9).

Indeed, it is important for this study to merge the above-mentioned paradigms in order to reinforce the credibility of this qualitative study. The theories display the mutual overlap of characteristics and in this way, the reality (ontological) and the knowledge (epistemology) of classroom interaction strategy can be effective in learning the EFAL for verbal communicative enhancement. Hence, these deductions indicate that the above-mentioned theories are appropriate to serve as grounding for classroom interaction in EFAL that can enhance learners' communicative competence.

7.3.2 **Findings with regard to the second objective of the study:** *to examine the teachers' understanding of classroom interaction when teaching English as First Additional Language in the Intermediate Phase.*

To summarise the findings for the second objective, it was found that the EFAL teachers comprehend their role to enhance the needed skills for effective communication. These teachers explained that the classroom interaction takes place when the teacher interacts with the learners and learners interact with their peers. Then, during the interaction, the teacher remains a learner and gathers some new ideas to improve the interaction *(cf*. Chapter 8.2.2.5). As a result, the learners are involved in the participation while the teacher plays a facilitation role. This finding concurs with that of Lee and Hirschlein (1994:47) who found that teacher and learner classroom interaction contributes to an effective learning environment and enhances learners' self-esteem. In this aspect, it was found that most of the teachers

understood classroom interaction though in some EFAL classrooms, it was not basically implemented during the observation. There was a lack of interaction with the learners. Some passive learners were not reached and attention was centred on the teacher and specific active individuals.

Chapter 4 (*cf.* Table 4.1) shows how the teacher-centred classroom differs from the learner-centred classroom. Brown (2007:50) demonstrates that the teacher-centred environment focuses on building relationships with learners that are anchored in intellectual exploration of selected material. The environment focuses more on content than on learners' processing. Classroom interaction was only observed in one class where the teacher centred the lesson on the learners. Learners were practically involved in the lesson working individually, in pairs and small groups and the teacher was just assisting where there was a need. This finding concurs with Brown's (2007:49) finding where she observed the teacher placing the learners at the centre of learning and respected their diverse learning needs and strategies with learners working individually, in pairs and in small groups on the given activity. In this study, it was deduced that teachers understand classroom interaction but some cannot practically implement it (*cf.* 6.3.1.1 Sub-theme 1.1: Sekgobela. 1.1.2 & 1.2.2; Mothusi. 1.1.1; Molobe.1.1.4 & 1.3.4; Thinani.1.1.3). Therefore, all of the interaction depends on the teacher's efficacy in order to inculcate self-efficacy in the learners. This is confirmed by Ashton and Webb (1986; Gibson & Dembo 1984 cited in Bandura 1989) who stress that the task of creating learning environments that are conducive to development of cognitive skills rest heavily on the talents and self-efficacy of teachers.

One teacher mentioned that learners can participate well orally but they cannot write well. In this case, there might be a possibility that it was still early in the year and learners were not yet used to the teacher's writing style and that enough reading and sounding of words were not yet practiced enough. Gregory and Chapman (2007:4) proclaim that all learners are more likely to be engaged in the learning, rise to the challenge and have a sense of self-confidence as they approach a task if they feel that they have a chance to succeed. Therefore, the teacher's task is to know her learners' weaknesses and put in more efforts for improvement. In this case, as the teacher was still new in the teaching field, there was a possibility that she was still

lacking experience on how to handle the writing activities. Botha and Botha (2015:3) declare that to write, learners require demonstration, stimulation and motivation as writers develop several processes with practice rather than going through a single fixed process of writing. As she indicated that learners participated very well in oral activities, but that a challenge arose when writing, it can be deduced that learners are not used to her texts and she has to develop a strategy of much practice in writing activities to get learners on board (*cf.* 6.3.1.1 Sub-theme 1.1: Thinani.1.3.5). Furthermore, the teachers realised that they had diverse learners and they had to know the learners' background so as to provide the relevant support. In Chapter one the statement by the DBE that Intermediate Phase teachers have to provide support for every learner to reach his or her potential (*cf.* Chapter 1.2) was referred to. It is possible for learners to reach their full potential if they are guided and taken through the zone of proximal development by an adult or a peer who is knowledgeable on the subject matter and who provides equitable opportunities for progression. This perspective is supported by the DoE (2011:5) which stresses that in the classroom we will observe that there are learners from different socio-economic, language, cultural, religious, ethnic, racial, gender, sexual orientation, ability groups and more. All these learners come to school with different experiences. Therefore, these learners have to be accommodated and treated equitably as to reach the maximum of their learning capability,, as explained by one teacher during the interviews (*cf.* 6.3.1.1 Sub-theme 1.1: Mothusi 1.3.1).

In relation to the teachers' understanding, they strove to equally treat their learners so that they can reach their maximum potential in learning and using the English language as is considered as a language of communication across the globe. This is confirmed by Taylor and Coetzee 2013 (*cf.* Chapter 1.1). On the same note, teachers and learners indicated that the additional language opens the door for learning and communication throughout the world. Neelman (2013:30) also emphasises that in a modern scenario, English has become the language which is used to give expressions to the thoughts and feelings of many social groups in the world. Further, Neelman indicates that English works as a link among all people of the world and creates among them a feeling of brotherhood. The teachers and learners also realised the importance of learning English when they were asked about the language they use in their EFAL classrooms (*cf.* 6.3.1.1 Sub-theme 1.1:

Mothusi.1.4.1; Sekgobela.1.4.2; Thinani.1.4.5; Molobe.1.4.4; 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1 - Subtheme 3.1.1: Pontsho.1.6.9; Lesego.1.6.8). The deduction was that the Intermediate Phase teachers and learners in the selected schools consider the target language as essential (*cf.* Chapter 1.1 the view of Barnard and Taylor and Coetzee).

Some teachers explained that during the classroom interaction, they do switch to the learners' home language, but only when they see that learners do not understand the lesson. But they clarified that they do not usually do that. On the other hand, one teacher asserted that he does not code-switch. He simplifies the language by using the teaching and learning aids and gestures for learners to understand the language usage. The teacher further explained that if you want to see your learners advancing well, do not code-switch (*cf.* 6.3.1.1 Sub-theme 1.1: Mothusi.4.15.1). This finding concurs with that of Leavitt (2013:1) finding that the learners' continued speaking of their primary language was impeding their ability to learn English. This finding concludes that the EFAL teachers realised that excessive code-switching might sometimes confuse or impede learners from learning the target language (*cf.* 6.3.1.1 Sub-theme 1.1: Sekgobela.1.5.2; Molobe.1.5.4).

The researcher supports the idea of this particular teacher (*cf.* 6.3.1.1 Sub-theme 1.1: Mothusi 4.15.1) as that was the strategy the researcher implemented in her EFAL classroom. Instead of code-switching the researcher used learning aids, scaffolding, dictionaries and whatever available material to simplify English for learners to understand the new words (*cf.* Chapter 5.4.3.1). Along these lines, the learners were supported in speedily learning the target language. Gregory and Chapman (2007:1) express the same idea as the researcher as they affirm that this instils self-efficacy, which means believing in oneself. The authors also state that effective teachers believe that all learners can learn and be successful; effective teachers consciously create a climate in which all learners feel included and effective teachers believe that there is potential in each learner and commit to finding the key that will unlock that potential. This reminds the researcher of one of the workshops she attended during her teaching career in the teaching fraternity. There was a certain teacher who was very participative with high self-efficacy and would stand up and express her views but struggling in English. Her colleagues asked, 'Why can't

you say it in your language?' Then she replied calmly, "I want to say it in English because I am an English teacher and I teach my learners English".

Learners in this study showed that they really like and enjoy speaking English and their teachers also confirmed that. In fact, learners revealed that they help those who do not know the language (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1 - Sub-theme 3.1.1: Thabang.1.5.2; 6.3.3.2 Sub-theme 3.2 - Sub-theme 3.2.1: Sesi.1.4.6**;** Coolboy.1.3.17; Josi.1.4.7; Lihle.1.4.13 & 1.5.9; Coolboy.1.4.10; Thabang.1.5.2). The finding concurs with that of Ngidi (2007:80) in a research study that reveals that learners have a positive attitude towards the usage of English as a language of learning and teaching as an additional language in schools. The most obvious explanation is the learners need to be given opportunities to practice and interact in English as additional language in their classrooms as early as they can so that they can be competent in their interaction with the outside world. We can see this from the response of Teacher Sekgobela (*cf.* 6.3.3.2 Sub-theme 3.2: 3.9.2) saying that

> *Now, if another learner is speaking in Setswana or another language, one will tap him and say Hi man wena that language, try this one. And that gives you confidence that you are going somewhere.*

Then it can be deduced that learners enjoy the additional language (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1 - Sub-theme 3.1.1: Sindi.1.1.1; Lesego.1.6.8; Pontsho.1.6.9; 6.3.3.2 Sub-theme 3.2: Sekgobela.3.7.2; Phafola.3.7.3; Molobe.3.7.4).

When learning the target language it is common for learners to make errors. The teachers make them aware of their mistakes in an appropriate manner so that they do not demotivate or embarrass the learners. This finding concurs with the study of Kavaliauskiené and Anusiené (2012:99) who indicate that the learners prefer immediate corrections of errors in spite of its impracticality and claim that individual corrections of mistakes by teacher are useful. The correcting should encompass general remarks unless an immediate correcting is necessary; nevertheless it should not demotivate an individual. Kavaliauskiené and Anusiené further indicate that a good classroom practice is for the teachers to keep record of the learners' mistakes

during activities. Mistakes should be dealt with later, after the activity has been ended. The authors suggest that it is a good idea for teachers to focus on errors without indicating who made them and asking learners to rectify the errors. In short, the conclusion is that teachers should know about and tolerate mistakes made during the learning and see that mistakes are appropriately rectified (*cf.* 6.3.1.1 Sub-theme 1.1: Sekgobela.1.6.2; Mothusi.1.6.1; Phafola.1.6.3; Molobe.1.6.4; Thinani.1.6.5).

Actually, it was appropriate to ask the first question that resulted in the findings mentioned above in this study. To answer the question, the knowledge (epistemology) applied by the EFAL Intermediate Phase teachers in the selected primary schools was perused to find out their understanding of classroom interaction in EFAL teaching to enhance the learners' communicative competence. Therefore, the real (ontological) events that took place in the selected EFAL classrooms were physically seen, observed, heard and felt by the researcher. Consequently, the overall answer to this question is that teachers understand the classroom interaction though some do not implemented it. There might be some reasons why are they not implementing the classroom interaction strategy.

7.3.3 Findings with regard to the third objective of the study: *to explore the Intermediate Phase teachers' experiences when using a classroom interaction approach in teaching English First Additional Language within the CAPS*

The findings for the third objective revealed that most of the teachers interviewed in this study, were trained to use the CAPS *(cf.* 2.1: 6.3.2.1 Sub-theme 2.1: Mothusi.2.2.1; Phafola.2.2.3; Molobe.2.3.4) and agreed that the CAPS document highlights classroom interaction, except for one teacher who was not adequately trained *(cf.* 6.3.2.1 Sub-theme 2.1: Sekgobela.2.3.2) and the other not fully trained (*cf.* 6.3.2.1 Sub-theme 2.1: Thinani.2.3.5) but implemented the CAPS with the aid of the mentor teacher. The teachers' responses demonstrated that they felt that CAPS promoted classroom interaction (*cf.* 6.3.2.1 Sub-theme 2.1: Mothusi.2.4.1; Phafola.2.4.3; Thinani.2.4.5). The CAPS document is in agreement with the teachers' statement in Chapter 4 (*cf.* 4.4.1 & 4.4.2) The teachers considered the

CAPS a good document, but in contrast, one teacher felt that *Gauteng Primary Literacy and Mathematics Statement* is a barrier to the implementation of CAPS: as it is based on written quantity not quality, it impedes verbal communication to fully take place. However, with reference to the former teacher, it showed that she did not have a clear understanding of the GPLMS as a strategy that attempts to enable learners to read by the time they leave the primary school, but is not a curriculum. Therefore, it shows that the teacher did not understand that the activities executed in implementing GPLMS are CAPS document activities but taught using the said strategy. This might be the reason of not implementing the classroom interaction in some classes due to misunderstanding some elements expected to be implemented in teaching and learning situation. For a thorough implementation of the curriculum, Thompson, Andreae, Bell and Robins (2013:1) argue that the key element in the success of the changes of the curriculum is having well-trained and confident teachers to deliver the new curriculum (*cf.* 6.3.2.1 Sub-theme 2.1: Molobe.2.4.4).

During the scrutiny of the CAPS document by the researcher, it was found that debate as an interactive activity was not mentioned throughout the Intermediate Phase teaching plans (*cf.* Chapter 4.7.5). Some of the teachers also mentioned that learners do not like debate and the reason might be they (teachers) are the ones who do not offer learners opportunities to practice it (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1 - 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1: Mothusi: 4.13.1; Sekgobela: 4.13.2; Phafola: 4.13.3; Molobe: 4.13.4; Thinani: 4.13.5; Mothusi: 4.14.1). It can be deduced that teachers might have ignored using debate as an interactive activity as it was not mentioned throughout the Intermediate Phase teaching plans. However, the Minister of Basic Education, Angie Motshega, indicated that teachers have to teach according to the teaching plans specification though not limited to that. Nevertheless, some of the new teachers might think it is not necessary to employ debate as a classroom interactive activity as it does not appear in the planning (*cf.* Chapter 4.6.9). On the other hand, some teachers demonstrate that they utilise debate in order to offer learners an opportunity to practice additional language (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1 - 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1: Sekgobela: 4.13.2; Mothusi: 4.13.1).

The third question was applicable to this study as it aimed at finding out whether the CAPS document embraced classroom interaction and whether teachers were trained

to utilise the document in order to implement classroom interaction. The real experiences that some teachers encountered were that although they understood the classroom interaction, some did not implement it due to certain misunderstandings such as those surrounding *GPLMS* and not being fully trained to implement the CAPS. As a result, it was concluded that classroom interaction was superficially implemented and some teachers were not trained for application of this approach in the EFAL for enhancement of communication competence.

7.3.4 **Findings with regard to the fourth objective of the study:** *to explore beliefs and attitudes held by Intermediate Phase teachers and learners when a classroom interaction strategy is used in teaching English First Additional Language*

Summarising the findings for the fourth objective, teachers demonstrated that as a teacher, you have to be open to the learners so that they can trust you (*cf*. 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1: Sekgobela.3.4.2). So, you have to interact with them to share ideas and experiences and learn from them (*cf*. 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1: Phafola.3.4.*3).* Teachers also believe that learners understand their peers much better than the teacher *(cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1: Thinani.3.4.5). The study of Tulung (2008:203) also found that working with peers was one of the best ways of facilitating word learning because usually someone knew the word and learners tended to pay attention to and remember information given by their peers.

Several learners affirmed that learning was not always easy in the EFAL classroom; but nothing prevented them from learning. This statement reveals that sometimes as a teacher you have to be firm with your learners with the intention of helping them to progress in their learning. In this study learners illustrated that they learnt new things every day but learning was not always smooth since some learners who were school prefects found it difficult to execute the responsibility of being a leader as some learners were not cooperative. It appeared as if there was a moment of frustration for the two learners who described their positions as school prefects. It is construed that if the disturbance and frustrations experienced were not taken into consideration by the teacher, it could harm the two learners' performance in the subject *(cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1: Thabile.1.1.2; Sesi.1.1.4; Josi.1.1.12; Lesego.1.1.11). However,

McLaughlin (n.d:1) claims that she learnt from her mentor teacher that to minimise the behavioural problem like this, you have to set a positive tone for the class, make your expectations known and establish a routine of good conduct and respect. This kind of behaviour also depends on the creativity of the teacher in managing the classroom for meaningful interaction.

Teachers and learners believe there are classroom activities that harmonise the interaction and encourage participation such as jokes, programme directors, reading, unprepared and prepared speech, role play, storytelling and poems (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1: Mothusi.4.5.1; Sekgobela.4.6.2; Phafola.4.6.3; Molobe: 4.5.4). Some of these activities were mentioned in the literature study in Chapter 3, (*cf.* Chapter 3.2.1.3). In agreement with the above statements, the Transnational Teaching Quick Guide (2014:1) maintains that the quality of teaching is based on the teacher's ability to structure and design classroom activities that are engaging and support learners' learning. Accordingly, the range of activities the teacher plans should accommodate all learning styles and encourage learners to assume responsibility for their learning (*cf.* Chapter 3.3). Correspondingly learners also indicated that spelling tests, talking about verbs, reading aloud, dialogue, storytelling, poem, rhyming words and the public speaking were their favourite activities using the additional language (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1: 1.5.1 - 1.5.14*).* Hence, this means that the teacher can create a dynamic learning environment that accommodates individual learning needs by using interactive activities that provide learners with opportunities to share ideas, test their thinking and examine different perspectives on issues, according to the Transnational Teaching Quick Guide.

In addition, Hanson (2004 cited in Lockett 2011:3) confirms that reading aloud is equally effective at stimulating learners' interest in reading books they have heard read, and that storytelling is at least as effective as reading aloud for language development. One learner's perspective of the good of telling stories when feeling sad is supported by Gregory and Chapman (2007:6) who suggest that self-aware people can use appropriate strategies to deal with their moods by sharing frustrations with others or seeking support on a bad day. So, it is appropriate for teachers to encourage learners to communicate their feelings, and in turn teachers

could give support. In this way the learners' communicative competence in using the target language is enhanced.

Most of the teachers suggested that the role-play encourage learners to convey their thoughts. A publication of The Ministry of Education and Culture in Jamaica (1999:4) shows that role-play is an activity in which learners explore issues or ideas and a way of helping learners to understand themselves, their peers and to empathise with the experiments and feelings of others. The most obvious explanation is that, as learners communicate their feelings to their teachers and peers, they experience relief and their communication competence is enhanced since they unconsciously utter words that enhance their vocabulary in the target language. Lockett (2011:4) shows that storytelling and reading aloud are good tools to help learners to improve their vocabulary. This means that along with the increase of the vocabulary, comes an increase in the ability to comprehend the meaning of the spoken word and improvement in reading comprehension. So, it is concluded that teachers and learners believe that interactive activities indicated above, can enhance communicative competence in EFA.

In the schools visited for interviews, there was a mutual understanding between the teachers and the learners. Learners explained that their teachers are kind and caring (*cf.* 8.2.3). Again, there were harmonious learning relationships among the learners themselves. Learners indicated that they helped and loved each other and they did not want to leave anyone behind. Poplin and Weers (1994:20) mention that learners desire authentic relationships where they are trusted, given responsibility, spoken to honesty and warmly, and treated with dignity. In fact, the recent study of Hannah (2013:9) emphasises that developing rapport with learners is essential in creating a good classroom environment. In accordance, the teachers and learners pointed out their good mutual relationship in their EFAL classrooms (*cf.* 6.3.3.2 Sub-theme 3.2 - Sub-theme 3.2.1: Sesi.1.2.6 & 1.4.6; Lebo.1.1.5; Lihle.1.1.9; Pontsho.1.1.10; Josi.1.1.12; Thato.1.1.13; Thabisile.1.3.15).

However, one learner was concerned about Teacher T who gave certain learners preference as this might hinder her performance and participation in EFAL (*cf.* 6.3.3.2 Sub-theme 3.2 - Sub-theme 3.2.1: Busi.1.6.5). In short, Linsin (2011:1)

debates that if you play favouritism by affording special privileges or attention to some and not others; other learners will know it and will feel resentment because of it. Moreover, this can harm the learners' relationships and learning progression.

In terms of relationships between learners, it was shown that learners enjoy working together and assisting each other in learning. Indeed, one learner stated that she did not want to be clever alone; she wanted everyone in the class to be clever too. This implies a commitment to classroom peer development. It can be concluded that peer tutoring helps learners who act as tutors to confirm and deepen their understanding of a particular topic and enables struggling learners to get help even if the teacher is unavailable (Khan Academy n.d). Likewise, the study of Jones (2007:2) affirms that in learner-centred classrooms, learners do not ignore each other, but look at each other, and communicate with each other. Furthermore, they value each other's contributions; they cooperate, learn from each other, and help each other. Nonetheless, in difficulty or doubt, they do ask the teacher for help or advice but only after they have tried to solve the problem among themselves. In short, the emphasis is working together in pairs, in groups, and as a whole class, while their teacher helps them to develop their language skills. The attitudes displayed by learners in their EFAL classroom demonstrate constructivist learning environments. Thus, learners share their ideas where they wish to see every peer succeeding in the using of the target language (*cf*. 6.3.3.2 Sub-theme 3.2: Sub-theme 3.2.1: Lihle.1.1.9; 1.4.13 & 1.5.9; Coolboy.1.3.17 & 1.4.10; Whityboy.1.3.14; Sesi.1.4.6; Josi.1.4.7; Lesego.1.4.9; Thabang.1.5.2).

In contrast, teachers and learners were not happy about the parents' lack of support in the learning process. The teachers pointed out that most of the parents were not involved in their children's learning. Similarly, the learners wished for their parents' involvement in their learning. Only one leaner indicated that her mom assisted with the homework *(cf*. 6.3.3.2 Sub-theme 3.2: Sub-theme 3.2.1: Smolly.1.6.10). Likewise, the study of Patrikakou (2008:1) found that school learners believe that they can do better if they know that their families are interested in their schoolwork and expect them to succeed. Therefore, it was deduced that there was a lack of parental involvement in learners' learning. Although there are some parents who are concerned in their children's learning, teachers and learners suggest more

involvement so that the learners could reach their maximum learning abilities (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1: Sekgobela.4.16.2 & *Phafola.4.16.3*). Furthermore, as home is a base of producing successful learning, there should also be a mutual learning relationship between learners and their parents. The Virginia Department of Education (2002:7) affirms that in the eyes of the teachers, parents are the other teachers of learners. So teachers have a legitimate concern about what parents do with learners when they return home from school. Then, Maharaj-Sharme (2003:2) poses the question: will parents ensure that learners do their homework?

Finally, the fourth part deals with the participants voicing their different perspectives on how to improve classroom interaction. On one hand, the teachers indicated that self-confidence is a core principle to deliver better teaching and learning for classroom interaction (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1: Sekgobela.4.15.2). But, one teacher complained about the learners' lack of discipline *(cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1: Thinani.4.16.5) while the other one was not happy with the administrative work they had to do during their continuous assessment (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1: Molobe.4.15.4). Learners also desired to have enough study materials at school also English to be globalised and write their own books (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1: Thato.1.6.6 - Josi.1.6.16). In this theme, the teachers and learners described their beliefs and attitudes in teaching and learning EFAL. The majority of the teachers believed that as you share the ideas and experiences with the learners, you learn from them and learn from the other learners (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1: *Sekgobela.3.4.*2; Phafola. 3.4.3; Thinani.3.4.5). This justifies one of the teacher's roles as a 'lifelong learner'. Knapper (2006:2) maintains that lifelong learning is sustainable learning in that it relies on self-directed individual's initiatives rather than on handing down of knowledge from experts or a central authority. This indicates that teachers are aware that they need to have high teacher-efficacy that can develop the learners' self-efficacy.

In summary, the researcher picked up that most of the teachers were trained to implement the CAPS but not fully implementing the interactive activities, learning was not easy for learners given a leadership role, teacher T's favouritism upset some of the learners and there was a cry for parental support. Teachers and learners are the ones who experience the reality of what goes on in the everyday teaching and

learning environment. They were the relevant people to tell about their beliefs of how to enhance communicative competence in EFAL in their classrooms. Therefore, to ensure the trustworthiness of this study, their words were quoted just as they were said with the purpose of enhancing the credibility of this study. It was presumed that as they are the first hand information holders, they have to be a hearing so that classroom interaction can be improved. In short, the learners' positive behaviour, interactive opportunities, parental involvement, and teacher-self-efficacy are the matters that teachers and learners trust to enhance learners' communicative competence in EFAL.

7.3.5   **Findings with regard to the fifth objective of the study:** *to investigate the strategies employed by Intermediate Phase teachers in enhancing learners' communicative competence in teaching English First Additional Language.*

The findings of the fifth objective suggested that there were multiple strategies that the teachers employed to inspire their learners' understanding in the teaching and learning environment. Vin-Mbah (2012:113) notes that the skilful and competent teacher uses as many methods and techniques as possible because there is no single method which is regarded as the best for every teaching situation. In a single lesson, therefore, the teacher can employ as many methods as possible since the success of every method depends on the quality of the teacher and his professional experience in the field of teaching (*cf.* Chapter 4.2).

During the interviews, the teachers indicated that they use multiple strategies such as theme posters, charts, pictures, flashcards, grouping of learners and group discussions, peer tutoring, different level of activities, walking around in the classroom while learners are learning, a reading corner, self-discovery learning and a direct approach to enhance the learners' communicative competence in their EFAL classrooms. Accordingly, teachers pointed that the theme poster used for classroom interaction encouraged learners to construct their own understanding and new vocabulary development. The flashing of simple sentences mentioned by one of the teachers offers an opportunity for struggling learners to learn to spell the words. In addition, teachers expressed that these strategies encourages discovery learning.

Therefore, teachers used posters, charts, pictures and flash-cards, as reliable sources for self-discovery learning. In fact, Hubenthal (2009:2) indicates that by hanging aesthetically pleasing posters in your classroom you are increasing the visual interests of your classroom (*cf*. Figures 5.3 & 5.4). In turn, this creates a pleasant environment likely to encourage more positive learners' attitudes and behaviours. In addition, Kim (2005:8) declares that teachers should invite learners to experience the world's richness, encourage them to ask questions and seek their own answers, and challenge them to explore the world's complexities, not solely focus on academic achievement scores. One of the teachers in this study stated that the strategies mentioned above expose learners to self-discovery learning. In fact, according to the learning theories website (2007-2015) Bruner explains that discovery learning is inquiry-based, constructivist learning that takes place in solving situations where the learner draws on his past experience and existing knowledge to discover facts and relationships and new truths to be learned. In accordance, teachers in this study pointed out that the strategies they use enhance the classroom interaction in different ways (*cf*. 6.3.4 Theme 4: Molobe.4.2.4; 6.3.4.1 Sub-theme 4.1: Sub-theme 4.1.1: Mothusi 4.1.1; Sekgobela.4.1.2; Phafola.4.1.3; Thinani.4.1.5).

Furthermore, the seating arrangement illustrated in Chapter 6 (*cf.* Figure 6.5 & 6) enables learners to work as individuals, pairs and group. The group discussions mentioned by teacher, also served as a platform where learners develop, share ideas and develop a positive appreciation of peers. Additionally, the teachers also confirmed that they group learners to work together to reach the objectives of the given task (*cf.* 6.3.4.1 Sub-theme 4.1 - Sub-theme 4.1.1: Phafola.4.2.3; 6.3.4 Theme 4: Thinani.4.7.5). Tulung (2008:203) also concurs with the teachers as she found that learners played an important, active role during the small group discussions, and the teacher played an important, active role before and after the discussion phase to provide models and instructions and to encourage active involvement and collaboration among learners. In addition, Albertina Learning (2002:71) asserts that group discussions are essential for building background on specific issues, creating motivation and interest, and giving learners a forum for expressing and exploring new ideas and information. They also help learners to articulate their views and respond to opinions that differ from their own *(cf.* 6.3.4.1 Sub-theme 4.1: Sub-theme 4.1.1: Phafola.3.7.3).

Moreover, to accommodate the diverse learners' learning abilities, one teacher explained that she used different level of activities, whereas, the other one pointed out that she walks around while learners are busy with their activities so as to assist the struggling ones *(cf.* 6.3.4 Theme 4: Molobe.4.2.4; Thinani.4.2.5)*.* Olinghouse (2008:1) mentions that learners should be given access to the same core content; however, the content's complexity should be adapted to learners' abilities to best meet their needs. In fact, to accommodate the different learning levels of diverse learners, in some classrooms, there were book corners where learners choose their own reading material when they were done with their written work. This strategy is supported by Hannah (2013:3) declaring that in an English classroom, there could be an area with comfortable chairs and a small library where learners could pick a book to silently read if they had finished all of their work for the day. The type of learning centre as presented in Chapter 5, *(cf.* Figure 5.3 - 5.6) accommodates an individual learner in the classroom as the story books, reading books and flashcards on the wall differ according to the learners' learning abilities, for instance, higher performers, average and slow learners. Indeed, this could be viewed as appear to be warm and inviting for learners who do not like reading because they could see that the subject could involve moving around. In addition, a small library will also allow the learners to choose what they want to read rather than having to read what was assigned. In actual fact, Jones (2007:2) asserts that in a learner-centred class, learners do not depend on their teacher all the time, waiting for instructions, words of approval, correction, advice or praise. In actual fact, the teacher helps learners to develop their language skills *(cf.* 6.3.4.1 Sub-theme 4.1 - Sub-theme 4.1.1: Mothusi.4.2.1; Molobe: 4.9.3).

Lastly, one of the teachers illustrated that she uses a direct approach. The teacher said:

> *The strategy that I use is the direct approach. The direct approach is when I use the pictures that I have with me and then learners will be talking one by one* (*cf.* 6.3.4.1 Sub-theme 4.1:*.* Sub-theme 4.1.1: Molobe.4.1.4).

Howard (2003-2015:1) referred to direct instruction as the use of straightforward, explicit teaching techniques, usually to teach a specific skill. Howard further indicates that it is a teacher-directed method as it is seen as a direct instruction which is largely ineffective and passive, through which learners are spoon-fed instead of discovering for themselves. It was deduced that the teacher explained the direct approach according to her understanding.

Concerning the CAPS document, classroom interaction is suggested in the approaches mentioned in Chapter 4 (*cf.* 4.4.1 & 4.4.2). In view of the latter, to enhance successful learning environments, the researcher suggests the strategies presented in Chapter 4 (*cf.* 4.5.1 - 4.5.5) to initiate classroom interaction. The presence of a teacher and the scaffolding, learning centres, script writing, the use of posters and diaries prepare the learners for classroom interaction that enhances communicative competence.

Certainly, labouring as a bricoleur, in a classroom a teacher turns out to be a master of own learners' learning since that there is no given recipe that has to be followed (cf. Figure 5.2). By doing this, the teacher unlocks what is hidden within, that can widen the learning capacity of the learners. This is justified by one of the teachers, (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1: Molobe.3.4.4). The interpretivist/constructivist teacher has to provide conducive learning environments that support the classroom interaction in EFAL to enhance communicative competence by using multiple strategies that enhance learning for diverse learners in the Intermediate Phase.

7.4   LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The findings of this study are based on responses of five Intermediate Phase EFAL teachers and 18 learners from two schools who were interviewed in this research. It is also noted that this research was conducted in Gauteng Province (a case study), one out of the nine provinces in South Africa. Considering the number of participants used in this study, it makes it impossible to project the findings onto larger populations. The findings of this study cannot be generalised because purposive sampling was used for this study.

Although the interviewed teachers understood classroom interaction, it was not implemented in some EFAL classes; since the case study does not generalise the findings, there might be some teachers who do not understand classroom interaction.

Initially, the researcher intended to interview three teachers in each school, but the pilot study research was not included in the main research and one teacher turned down the invitation claiming that she was too shy to speak to the interviewer. So, regrettably, the actual number of teachers was reduced to five. Though it had been explained in the letters sent to the participants that they might withdraw at any time if they wished to do so, it was a drawback in this study as more data could have been collected if the abovementioned participant had agreed to participate.

Again the sample of this study only concentrated on purposive sampling of Intermediate Phase EFAL teachers and was limited only to certain sites. To gain access in some schools was difficult because of lack of developing rapport with some individuals (*cf.* Chapter 1.1.8).

The findings of this study are based on Intermediate Phase EFAL teachers and learners' perceptions, reactions and feelings, introducing the potential for distortion due to their desire to present themselves in a positive manner, or poor recall of their actual implementation of classroom interaction as a teaching technique. However, care was taken to carefully document the participants' voices.

This study is limited to a qualitative perspective only. Data saturated within the limited scope of a research. However, if a mixed methods approach had been employed the study could have gathered more data than the current one.

7.5   CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

Despite the limitations, the theories underpinning the study motivate the construction of a constructivist learning environment where learners are considered as participants and are not treated as the receivers of the knowledge transferred by the teacher. The social cognitive theory highlighted teachers and competitive peers as

modellers, and this theory can contribute in reminding teachers to act as good role models. Alternatively, the teacher-efficacy theory also delineated the kind of the teacher needed in constructivist learning environments who can produce self-efficacious learners (*cf.* Chapter 2.2.2.5).

Additionally, the study contributed in revealing how far the selected EFAL Intermediate Phase teachers understood classroom interaction and is a valuable contribution to our understanding on classroom interaction in enhancing communicative competence.

The research contributes to the identification of activities that can stimulate classroom interaction that has rarely been conducted in functioning classroom background. More specifically, it provides insight on how to implement classroom interaction using the common classroom activities that can be appropriate for every classroom lesson to enhance communicative competence in EFAL teaching (*cf.* Chapter 3.2.1.3). These results led to the designing of components that should be included in a framework for the use of teachers for classroom interaction as a teaching strategy in teaching English as First Additional Language to enhance learners' communicative competence in schools as shown in Figure 8.1. The study itself was conducted in the Intermediate Phase of a public primary schools context at a specific time and having specific characteristics as a real-life case study with real people facing real issues.

Again, the study contributes to our own knowledge of EFAL teaching and extends it to classroom settings.

The other contribution is the use of the metaphor bricolage, as the researcher worked as an interpretive bricoleur when reflexive interpretation was brought on board; as a theoretical bricoleur, using different theoretical frameworks; operating as a methodological bricoleur, using different research methods; and functioning as a narrative bricoleur, using the researcher's narrative experiences *(cf.* Figure 5.2).

Once more, the researcher's learning centres that create learning opportunities for classroom interaction, might add vast contributions to the EFAL teaching fraternity.

This also can urge EFAL teachers to work as bricoleurs too (*cf.* Figures 5.3; 5.4; 5.5; 5.6).

Overall, the reading record shown in this study will guide teachers on how to encourage the learners' to continuously keep up their reading while parents are also involved in their children's reading. What is more, the reading centre could also motivate the teachers to create a learning environment that will inspire learners to love their EFAL periods and urge them to read the books on their own interests (cf. Table 2.2).

7.6   RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings indicated that there were gaps that led to the recommendation in this study. The researcher's experiences, the literature study, and the empirical research resulted in the following suggestions that can be implemented to improve classroom interaction that can enhance learners' communicative competence in EFAL: These suggestions are directed to the EFAL teachers, schools, policy makers and parents.

7.6.1   Recommendation for EFAL teachers

It is recommended that teachers should understand the theories that underpin classroom interaction in teaching EFAL learners in the Intermediate Phase. To use and implement these theories effectively, it is further recommended that specific in-service training workshops be planned in the educational district for EFAL teachers. The teachers' planning should be grounded in the mentioned theories to conceptualise and contextualise the teaching of EFAL in the classroom level. These theories are well articulated in Chapter 2 (*cf.* 2.2.5).

It is suggested that teachers should be trained how to implement classroom interaction using the interactive activities, i.e. storytelling, role-ply, pair, group and whole class discussion, reading aloud and debating in the additional language. Furthermore, the training should demonstrate that it is not worthy to compromise classroom interaction by not reaching all learners in order to save time.

It is also recommended that EFAL teachers should be trained to make it a habitual process of implementing the lesson fairly and dearly in daily situation, as to have a high teacher self-efficacy that can lead to learners' own self-efficacy. This might happen by sharing ideas with competent teachers and require a demonstration from a mentor and practiced accordingly. As there is no shortcut in creating a favourable learning situation then teachers have to learn to be fair and consistent in their teaching in order to improve the quality of learning of their learners. This scenario taught the researcher that creating an environment conducive to learning and interacting harmoniously with learners, bears fruit.

It is also suggested that misunderstanding about the position of the GPMLS should be clarified. This can happen in a staff meeting or, since teachers regularly go for workshops, can be discussed in one of the workshops and the discussion might assist even other teachers who might be experiencing the same problem.

Again, teachers should have in-service training where they will be trained to work as bricoleurs and use any available material that can lead to the simplification of the presentation of the target language to achieve the determined results, for instance, scaffolding, dictionaries and whatever material is available. Once again, the teacher's talking serves as a model for the learners. Working as a bricoleur, a teacher turns out to be a master of own learners' learning since that there is no given recipe that has to be followed. By doing this, the teacher unlocks what is hidden within, that can widen the learning capacity of the learners.

It is also recommended that to maintain the use of the target language in the classrooms, teachers have to act as the role model of using the target language at the learners' level. In addition, teachers should use gestures, pictures and scaffold the talking to assist learners in using the language. So, it is important for a teacher to model the target language and provide language enrichment experiences for the learners. By serving as a language model, the learners will observe the teacher's talking and wish to speak like the teacher and then will keep on practicing the target language.

It is suggested that teachers have to be firm and set a positive tone for the class, make their expectations to be known, and be consistent in their disciplinary measures as to establish a stable environment that may enable the prefects to perform their tasks easily for classroom interaction in EFAL learning. It is further suggested that applying a positive discipline strategy as an acceptable school practice (class rules) would make learners feel emotionally comfortable and physically safe both in and outside the classroom. The role of the teacher is to guide the learner towards an attitude of caring and respect for each other as good citizens of society. This can be established by disciplining the learners privately, having a reward system for good behaviour and integrating correct behaviour and accountability into the teacher's plan. The teacher has to praise the learners frequently and find something positive to say about each learner.

It is further recommended that teachers should equally love their learners as favouritism to certain learners might impede rapport in the classroom. The constructive teacher and learner relationship, and learner-to-learner relationship might deteriorate in the classroom due to teacher favouritism towards certain learners and ignoring the others. So, teachers should not yell, rebuke, criticise or take misbehaviour personally. The teacher should make every learner a target of his or her warm smile and gentleness, and choose to appreciate the best in each of the learners. Learners should all get the same treatment as they are sensitive. They should get a sense of love from every teacher.

It is recommended that teachers should design a reading and learning record which would involve parents to assist their children if they are able to assist, for instance, the reading record shown in this study (*cf.* Table 2.2). This would be an indication to the teacher of how far the parents are involved in supporting their children in learning. In addition, good citizenship could be strengthened when parents/guardians are involved in supporting both the teacher and the learner as a positive approach to discipline practices.

Again, it is recommended that teachers should establish the learning centres in their EFAL classrooms, for instance, library centres with attractive story books and posters to attract learners' attention and activate their curiosity.

7.6.2   Recommendations for the schools

It is recommended that schools should have a parental involvement policy as a means of encouraging parents to be involved in their children's learning. It is further recommended that the schools should use a bulk SMS to invite parents to parental meetings for EFAL Intermediate Phase learners as a means to better communication between classroom and home. To do so would mean a school has to have a system of sending immediate cell phone messages (SMS) to parents if they come across a certain situation in which they feel that there is parental negligence. This strategy can be easily implemented as most of the parents have cell phones. Subsequently, the message should explain thoroughly to the parents what was expected and what has not been done. Then, the next day it should be followed up and if the negligence persists, then the parents have to be called to school for a discussion of the problem that hinders parental involvement.

7.6.3   Recommendations for the policy makers

It is recommended that debate as an interactive activity should be included in the CAPS document of the Intermediate Phase teaching plans in order for the teachers to fully implement it. The gap that has been found in the teaching plans might have contributed to the ignorance of debate as the plans state what the teachers have to teach in two-week cycles.

During most of the classroom research teachers complained of more administrative work than teaching. One of the teachers in this study had indicated that the administration work during continuous assessment hinders the creation of verbal communicative opportunities. So this complaint should also be taken into consideration when designing the curriculum policies (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1: Molobe.4.15.4).

It is recommended that the curriculum policies should outline the theories that underpin classroom interaction in teaching EFAL learners in the Intermediate Phase (*cf.* Chapter 2.2.5).

7.6.4   Recommendations for the parents

Since teachers and schools cannot reach their potential without parental involvement, this matter has to be taken into consideration for enhancement of learners' achievement. Hence, parents should be trained on how to assist with homework tasks, take responsibility for their children's learning and not expect the teachers to take full responsibility for the development of learners.

7.7   RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

To fill the gaps that were found during the investigation in this study, more research is needed on:

- Equipping the teachers to fully implement the framework suggested in this study (*cf*. Figure 8.1);
- The use of the interactive activities in implementing classroom interaction to enhance communicative competence in EFAL;
- The implementation of good citizenship education programmes that can encourage and assist parents to be involved in their children's learning; and
- Follow-up with the policy makers on the inclusion of debate as an interactive activity in the Intermediate Phase of EFAL.

7.8   SUMMARY

This study so far has provided an overview of the literature with regards to classroom interaction as a teaching approach to enhance communicative competence in EFAL. Overall, the findings of this study show that the teachers understand classroom interaction, though in some EFAL classrooms it was not implemented. Some teachers still want to find a quick way of completing their programme of study while classroom interaction is compromised. The findings and recommendations in terms of the aim of this study have been identified. The interpretation of data based on personal views, and comparisons with past studies was also dealt with. A conclusion was drawn and findings were discussed in a narrative form.

The next chapter contains the overall aim of this study to identify components that should be included in a framework for use by teachers for classroom interaction in teaching English as First Additional Language to enhance learners' communicative competence in the Intermediate Phase. The anticipated framework is based on the literature review (*cf.* Chapters 2, 3 & 4) and the results of the empirical research (*cf.* Chapters 5 & 6) of this study.

CHAPTER 8

FRAMEWORK FOR THE USE OF CLASSROOM INTERACTION IN EFAL IN THE INTERMEDIATE PHASE

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The overall aim of this study was to design a framework for the use of classroom interaction as a teaching approach in teaching English as First Additional Language to enhance learners' communicative competence in schools.

The recommended components of a framework for the use of classroom interaction as a teaching approach described in this chapter were gathered from the information collected as follows:

- Literature study (*cf.* chapters 2, 3 & 4);
- Empirical research (*cf.* chapters 5 & 6);
- Personal experience as an Intermediate Phase EFAL teacher and lecturer;
- Workshops attendant during my teaching career.

This framework serves as a guideline for EFAL teachers in the Intermediate Phase and should be employed according to the context suitable for that particular teaching and learning setting.

8.2 COMPONENTS OF A FRAMEWORK FOR THE USE OF CLASSROOM INTERACTION AS A TEACHING STRATEGY IN EFAL

Berman (2013:2) emphasises that a doctoral study is the highest form of academic learning that makes a significant and original contribution to knowledge. Such study involves conceptual thinking that works with words and ideas in terms of their connections and relationships (Gredler & Shields 2008:75). This necessitates conceptual thinking at the highest level, thinking that needs to be organised and accessible to the learners and the supervisors throughout the process of the study as well as to the examiners at the end. Such accessibility and organisation is

achieved through conceptual frameworks that have been shown to enhance conceptual thinking of doctoral candidates (Leshem & Trafford 2007:95).

This study investigated how the classroom interaction approach can enhance learners' communicative competence in EFAL. Therefore, the researcher assumes that the classroom interaction approach framework can be established which is divided into five levels of components. Each component has its own components which lead to the enhancement of communicative competence in EFAL. The figure below shows the process:

Social Constructivist Classroom Interaction Approach

| Teacher Competence | Envisaged Learner Competence | Powerful Classroom environment | English First Additional Language -CAPS | Communicatice Competence |

Meta-Theory Design

| Social Cognitive Learning Theory | Social Constructivism Theory | Zone of Proximal Development | Teacher-Efficacy Theory | Self-Efficacy Theory |

Classroom Interactive (CI) Teaching Method

| Principles of CI as a learner-centered approach | Characterisitcs of CI teaching method | Benefits and drawbacks | Steps for implementing a CI teaching methods |

Classroom Interaction tools to enhance learner communicative competence

| Storytelling | Role-play | Discussion | Read-alouds | Debate |

CI Activities Strategies

| Scaffolding | Learning Centeres | Script Writing | Theme Poster | Diaries |

Purpose of CI-framework

Empowering EFAL teachers to use the Classroom Interactive (CI) teaching method effectively to enhance learner communicative competence in the classroom
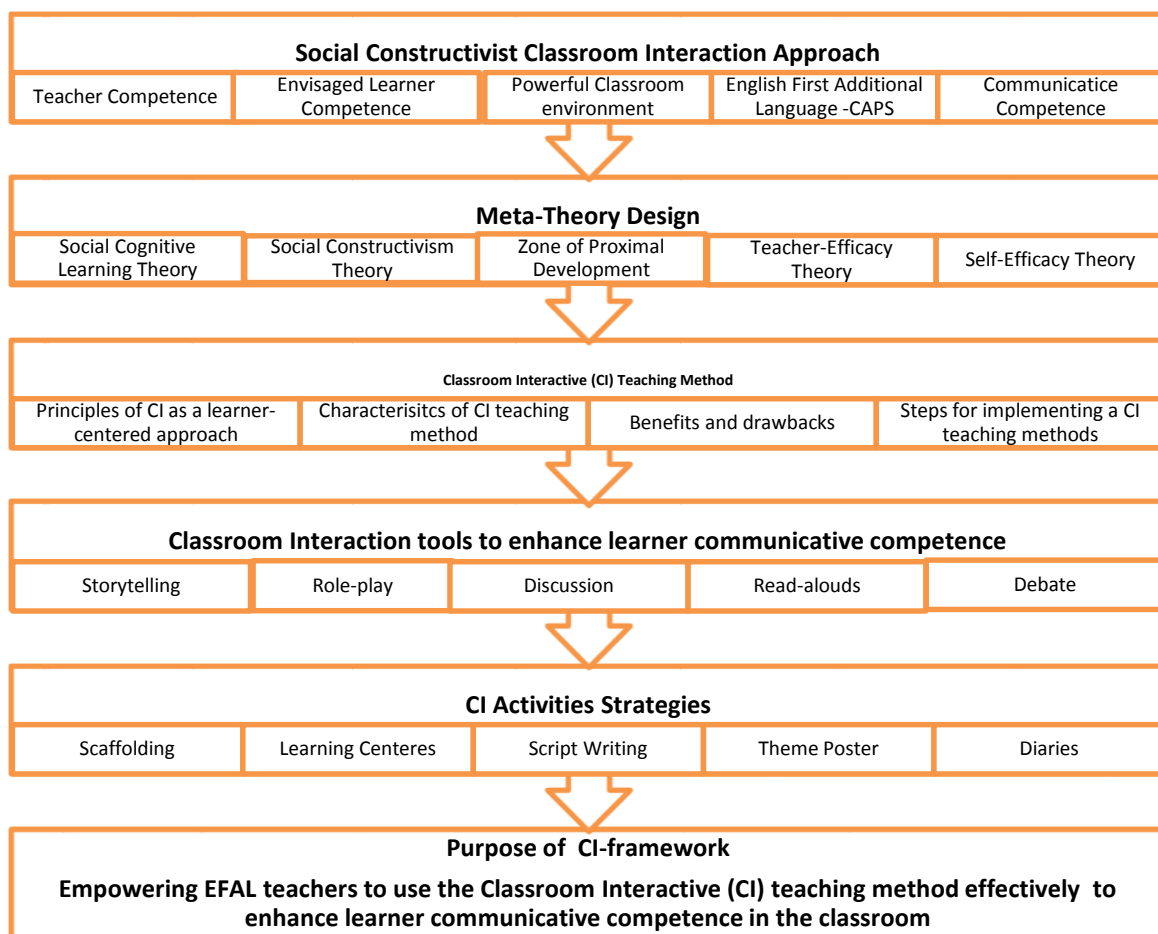
Figure 8.1: Social Constructivist Classroom Interaction Approach framework to enhance communicative competence in EFAL

The first component is the classroom interaction which is at the top level of the framework. In this level, there are five aspects i.e., teacher, learner, classroom environment, EFL and communicative competence. In fact, the teacher as a

facilitator, collaborator and a coach, together with the enriched learning environments, facilitate EFAL for learners to enhance their communicative competence. Each component and aspects are discussed below to demonstrate the significance of their inclusion in the framework and also to strengthen the credibility of this study.

8.2.1 Social-Constructivist Classroom Interaction Approach

In his study, Larsen-Freeman (2010 cited in Walsh 2012:1) defines classroom interaction as an approach that regards learning as a social activity which is strongly influenced by involvement, engagement and participation, and where learning is regarded as doing rather than having. Yu (2008:49) strongly asserts that classroom interaction in the target language can be seen as not just offering language practice, nor just learning opportunities, but as actually constructing the language development process itself. Yu further clarifies that in classroom interaction, learners construct awareness of self-regulation gradually from dialogic interaction when they negotiate with peers and tutors. This suggests that, in classrooms, according to Classroom Management (n.d) the social purpose of interaction is related to learning, through the discussion of ideas, insights and interpretations. So therefore, learners learn much of their language from the teacher through instructions, discussions, jokes, chit-chat, and comments. However, this does not mean that the teacher has to dominate the lesson.

Indeed, the most direct way to create classroom interaction is to adopt the principle of collaborative/cooperative learning. These concepts were interchangeably used in this study as, according to the researcher, they embody the same idea. In collaborative learning, Bishop (2000 cited in Nurmasitah 2010:39) explains, the teacher designs a learning problem or tasks, and assigns small groups of learners to address the problem in collaboration. Nurmasitah agrees with Bishop that learners are typically instructed to reach a consensus on an issue in groups or pairs. The authors further argue that the purpose of collaboration is to enhance learning and achievement by encouraging peer-to-peer interaction and cooperation. Hence, to practice cooperative learning, Nurmasitah indicates that teachers can teach learners

how to conduct collaborative learning by modelling group and pair process at the beginning of the year.

Palmer (n.d:38) suggests that collaboration is the key and when teachers and learners are collaborators, the role of instruction is central. Then meaning is created through this collaboration process, and the teacher, in a mentoring role, gives help to make sense of learning. Subsequently, Shayer (2002:23) advocates that collaboration and interaction among peers creates a collective ZPD from which each learner can draw as from a collective pool. Thus, collaborative learning unconsciously develops construction of new ideas and knowledge, and deeper reproduce competence for individual learners gained from collective learning.

In planning for interaction, it is important to consider the tasks with which learners are to engage. On one hand, Ellis (2000 cited in Turuk 2008:255) advises teachers to pay attention to the properties of tasks that aim to promote communicative efficacy as well as target language acquisition. On the other hand, Vygotsky (1978 cited in Turuk 2008:256) encourages teachers not to concentrate too much on teaching concrete facts but to also push their learners into an abstract world as a means to assisting them to develop multiple skills that will enable them to deal with complex tasks. Therefore, intensive selection of tasks is necessary in planning for classroom interaction activities.

According to Classroom Interactions guide (n.d:3), in interaction the participant is both performer and analyser of what is happening, since, educationally, purposeful interaction must engage the learner in both roles. So, Classroom interactions guide clarifies that each task should construct an experience of language and culture; there is a need of variation in the types of tasks to which learners are exposed over the course of the year programme. Therefore, if too much class time is devoted to a particular type of activity, the range of experiences of language, culture and learning available to the learners will be reduced and skewed towards certain capabilities rather than others.

These points to the conclusion that, as we explore our framework in Figure 8.1, the side setting of communication competence justifies that all the components

contribute to this vital component. Nevertheless, all the components are essential and they are interdependent. Then, the contributions of these components lead to the learners' improvement in communicative competence in EFAL. This indicates that effective learning occurs during interaction and all components are valuable to achieve learning through knowledge construction. Therefore, communicative competence cannot effectively take place if one component's contribution is withdrawn. This ideology reminds the researcher of an African proverb that says: It takes a whole village to raise a child. In this case, a child is communicative competence in EFAL.

8.2.1.1 The role of the teacher in a classroom interaction

A teacher, according to *National Education Policy Act (1996*) is any person who teaches or trains other person at an education institution or assists in rendering educational services or educational auxiliary or support services provided by or in an educational institution. This definition shows that a teacher plays an important role in developing a nation since, if people had acquired skills during training or teaching, the economy would grow as they would be productive in different sectors.

The report by the Department of Basic Education Magazine (DBEM) (2013:23) confirms that teachers are the cornerstone of Government's commitment to providing quality learning and teaching to all learners in South African schools. The Minister of Basic Education reiterates that the quality of an education system cannot exceed the quality of its teachers. She adds that it is our teachers who carry the responsibility of shaping the children and future children of this country so that they can become the kind of citizens South Africa needs and wants, who have the skills to contribute to the country's economic and wellbeing, and to the fabric of life in their communities. Therefore, South Africa needs constructivist teachers who work as bricoleurs, embodying high self-efficacy, teachers who are optimistic in modelling positive learning attitudes for learners as they urge participation in using the additional language that gives learners great opportunities to excel in their learning.

Everything begins with the attitude the teacher displays towards his or her learners. In their study, Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana (2002:183) declare that running a

classroom so that it can become an optimally healthy and inclusive learning environment for all learners is an extremely complex task. Again, it involves the teacher in a number of different roles, each of which needs to be constantly adjusted and co-ordinated into a harmonious and productive whole. As a result, these roles cannot operate separately and always need to be brought together to make a well-functioning and creative whole. These roles are highlighted by DoE (2000; Donald *et al.* 2002) as multidimensional as follows:

- **Teacher as a mediator of learning**

The authors stated above perceive this as the primary role of the teacher since the teacher has to adapt learning to the diverse needs of learners, construct appropriate learning environment, communicate effectively showing respect, demonstrate a sound knowledge of subject content and implement different strategies and resources appropriate to teaching and learning.

Moreover, Macaro (1997:60) asserts that when the teacher uses oral and written materials in order to develop respective skills by exposing learners to the target language, she or he is taking on the role of mediator and facilitator. As the teacher is the facilitator of the learning process in the classroom, his or her presence is to coach, mentor, and monitor the effective construction of knowledge in the zone of the interaction. Subsequently, the teacher's role is to provide opportunities by providing activities that enable the interaction to take place.

This means that, a teacher with high self-efficacy provides appropriate activities, strategies, methods, and also interacts by ensuring that no learner is left behind in this zone. Thus, the teacher is there in the ZPD to assist and let learners learn by constructing their own knowledge through their prior experiences and assists with the language usage to broaden the learners' vocabulary, in the words of Vygotsky. However, the relaxing environment the teacher creates enables the prior experiences to permeate the zone of learning and equip the participants with rich information they get from their peers.

- **Teacher as an interpreter and designer of learning programmes and materials**

The DoE (2000; Donald *et al*. 2002) assert that the teacher should interpret relevant knowledge, information and skills in such a way that the learning programmes and materials are appropriate to the specific level of the learners' needs. Alternatively, Brown (1987 cited in Betakova 1998:187) proclaims that the teacher should have an understanding of the acquisition process, memory systems, conscious and subconscious learning styles and strategies, theories of forgetting, reinforcement and the role of practice. Furthermore, Betakova states that Brown affirms that the teacher should be aware of the difference between inductive and deductive learning processes, and know which are likely to be more beneficial for their learners in a particular situation.

In this regard, Stern (1992:150) asserts that educationally, the inductive sequence is probably to be preferred because it encourages language learners to start from their own observations and to discover the principle rule for themselves. Therefore, knowledgeable teachers' classrooms are rich in content, opportunities for authentic language and literacy experiences, a multitude of human and print resources including a wide variety of books, magazines and catalogues, audio and video, and if possible, access to internet to facilitate his or her interpretation. For this reason, Bertrand and Stice (2002:249) declare that then the teacher as an interpreter, provides demonstrations, examples, organisation, engaging experiences, directions, support and standards since learners bring their wonderful ideas, their sense of helpfulness and fair play, and their boundless curiosity. Hence, knowledgeable teachers use these resources as the basis for advancing their skills as educators.

- **Teacher as leader, administrator, and manager**

As the leader, the Department of Education (2000; Donald *et al*. 2002) affirm that the teacher has to manage the learning in the classroom, carry out classroom administrative duties, participate in school decision-making structures and support learners and colleagues. Since the teacher is a leader and manager in his or her

own classroom, then he or she would handle interaction in a meaningful way while the support needed is provided to all learners in their diverse activities.

The early study of Cajkler and Addelman (1992:43) advises that to have any chance of motivating the learners in the classroom the teacher has to: present language in meaningful way, elicit language from the learners, make instructions clear to everyone, use a variety of techniques, manage pairs and groups to maximise practice, monitor individuals and groups, stand back and view the whole class, praise warmly, correct when appropriate, confirm and welcome good use of the target language, and smile and enjoy the job.

- **Teacher as supporter**

This role is filled as a community, citizenship, and pastoral role in attending to learners' needs; it is a critical and important role of a teacher. This means that realising the uniqueness of individual learners and offering the relevant support will accommodate all their weaknesses and strengths. Nonetheless, this needs an environment that is accommodating and inviting participation of every learner in the classroom (DoE 2000; Donald *et al.* 2002).

The introductory section of the Department of Education publication (2002:3) envisions teachers who are qualified, competent, dedicated and caring. In addition, Cajkler and Addelman (1992:17) show that a sense of humour is essential if a teacher is to remain sane. The above authors also indicate that it can only do well if the learners actually see that the teacher cares about them as individuals, knows their names, knows their nicknames and uses them if it seems right and remembers information about their families and friends. Consequently, teachers who are qualified and competent in their field of work will acknowledge the presence of every learner in their vicinity.

Cajkler and Addelman further mention that smiles and nods are visible signs of approval and encouragement as they help to create a relaxed atmosphere conducive to work. They also demonstrate that lack of these visible signs can create an over-

serious, intense atmosphere which can increase classroom tensions and also advises that bad moods should not be too frequent.

- **Teacher as scholar, researcher, and lifelong learner**

Knapper (2006:2) characterises a lifelong learner as someone who is strongly aware of the relationship between learning and real life, recognises the need for lifelong learning and is highly motivated to engage in the process, and has the necessary confidence and learning skills. According to the DoE (2000; Donald *et al.* 2002), the teacher has to achieve ongoing personal, academic, occupational and professional growth through pursuing studies and research in the subject taught and educational matters. Moreover, the role also indicates that teachers should increase their educational knowledge since the more knowledgeable teachers become, the more strategies they create to offer a better learning environment.

Knapper (2006:2) argues that the underlying precept of lifelong learning is that learning is too important to be left to schools and universities; subsequently, the responsibility for learning throughout life and from life lies with individuals. In this sense, lifelong learning is sustainable learning – in that it relies on self-directed individual initiatives rather that handing down of knowledge from experts or a central authority

In addition, Knapper insists that not only should learning be lifelong, it should also be "life-wide" meaning that learning cannot be confined to formal educational institutions, but rather is seen to take place in a wide variety of settings – including the work place and in a social and recreational contexts.

The skills mentioned by Knapper in the opening paragraph of this discussion, include the following dimensions: in lifelong learning, people plan and monitor their own learning; learners engage in self-evaluation and reflection; assessment focuses on feedback for change and improvement; learning is active, not passive; learning occurs in both formal and informal settings; people learn with and from peers; learners can locate and evaluate information from a wide range of sources; learners

integrate ideas from different fields; people use different learning strategies as needed and appropriate; and learning tackles real-world problems.

Finally, Knapper (2006:3) confirms that effective teachers focus less on transmission of content expertise and more on facilitating the process of learning, in particular the skill of "learning how to learn". In other words, the pre-eminent task for teachers is to equip learners with the generic ability to guide their own learning throughout their lives and in the wide variety of situations they will encounter after leaving formal education.

- **Teacher as an assessor of learning**

According to Emberger (2006:38), some critical shifts in thinking are needed if teachers are to design realistic assessments to measure what learners know and understand. Therefore, in order to think and talk like assessors; teachers need to know the vocabulary of assessment and the process of designing good assessments. This requires them to understand what Stiggins (2002 cited in Emberger 2006:38) defined as the difference between assessment of learning (summative/evaluative) and assessment for learning (ongoing, formative, and informative).

Likewise, Wiggins and McTighe (1998 cited in Emberger 2006:38) urge teachers to think like assessors, not activity designers. In actual fact, Emberger demonstrates that when teachers begin thinking like assessors, they plan backwards, designing assessments based on what they want learners to know before they plan their learning sequence. In this way the backwards planning process helps teachers know if their learners are reaching the goals they have created for them.

It is obvious that assessment procedures need to be integrated entirely in the teaching and learning process since informal assessment takes place in every lesson. Overall, the formative and summative assessments should be appropriate to the level of the learners and be recorded; in addition learners should get feedback and correct their mistakes.

Furthermore, Emberger (2006:38) mentions that the Maryland Assessment Consortium prescribes the seven crucial shifts in current thinking as, from traditional supervision of teaching to looking at what learners are learning; from covering the curriculum to ensuring what is taught is learning; from focusing on textbook instruction to using multiple sources of information; from scheduled quizzes and tests to frequent formative assessments – as ongoing assessment is a better way to evaluate how well learners understand; from assessments that grade learners to assessments that support learning; from considering reading and writing as separately taught process to providing instruction in all curricular areas; and from working individually to working with teams.

Finally, for teachers to think like assessors and produce fundamental change requires thinking about how to reach each learner, talking about assessments for learning, and implementing new processes for improving teaching and learning.

- **Teacher as specialist**

The Victorian Institute of Teaching Specialist Area Guidelines (2008:1) argues convincingly that a specialist area teacher is expected to have a sound understanding of the key concepts, structure and development in the subject or discipline area; to be well versed in the knowledge and concepts required for teaching; and to provide a variety of methodologies for addressing the needs of individual learners. Equally, DoE (2000; Donald *et al.* 2002) also argue that the teacher has to be grounded in the knowledge, skills, values, methods and procedures relevant to the subject. Therefore, different approaches have to be used and these should be appropriate to learners' level to inculcate a deeper understanding of concepts.

In summarising the teacher's roles, the teacher as a professional has to base his or her frame of reference on the components that contribute to effective of classroom interaction. Moreover, he or she has to ensure that all the components are stimulated and interlinked in such a way that they enable learners to achieve communicative competence in the target language. Hence, during classroom interaction the teacher is a catalyst that makes things happen at the same time

acknowledging the diversity of the learners and providing many opportunities for development of communicative competence. Therefore, the teacher should identify each learner's potential and supplement this potentiality by implementing the strategies that suit an individual learner.

In actual fact, Johnstone (1989 cited in Cajkler & Addelman 1992:44) specifies that good teachers have realistic expectations that do not underestimate learners and teach them in a lively encouraging way. Teachers should further encourage learners to be adventurous by organising challenging and formative interaction, for example in simulations, listening for enjoyment, reading for real purposes, speculating in the target language, and playing communication games. Thus, the teacher with qualities of sensitivity, flexibility, humour, enthusiasm and stamina will achieve the stated aims and nurture the interest and enthusiasm of learners.

Figure 8.1 illustrates the teacher as a catalyst in the interaction. He or she is the one who connects and activates all the components to be effective in the process of interaction and learning. Classroom interaction without the guide and assistance of the teacher will lose direction.

8.2.1.2   A powerful learning environment

As a researcher and an educator, I envisage a classroom environment that welcomes and invites the learners to love the place and even dream of it while they are studying at home. The DBEM (2013:14) reports that creating a safe, inviting and inspiring classroom environment is critical for effective teaching and learning. The appearance and physical layout of the classroom speaks volumes about the teacher's teaching style, level of organisation and the values he or she holds. The journal further recounts that a classroom that incorporates a variety of stimuli awakens the curiosity of learners and encourages them to take risks with their learning.

Let me first present you with an interesting scenario that was one of the most exciting in the whole teaching career. One day, a grade 5 learner in my class came to me as she used to come early for reading in the morning. She was calm, the best

learner and reader in the class, assertive and sometimes you could not realise her abilities as a teacher.

The learner said to me, 'Teacher, I dreamt about our class last night.' I prompted her to speak further and I said, wonderful, tell me about your dream. She said, 'I dreamt reading an interesting story book with my friend at our reading centre. The book was so interesting that I could not stop reading. The bell rang and I did not hear it. Learners prayed to start a day and I could not hear them. The teacher started teaching and I could not hear her. I concentrated in reading the book until short break. Then, the bell rang. When I woke up, I realised that I was dreaming and it was six o'clock in the morning. I bathed quickly and I came to school.' She paused and said to me, 'Teacher, I want to search for that book until I find it'.

What I liked about this girl is that she started putting more effort in reading most of the story books from the reading centre. Roughly after three weeks, the girl came to me and said, 'Teacher, I found the book and I read it'. I encouraged her to tell the story. She started telling the story logically and sequentially. I found it amazing and interesting. This scenario has taught me that creating an environment conducive to interacting harmoniously with your learners; your teaching will bear some fruit in the near future.

In short, the learner was telling the story using the target language. English is not her mother tongue but because I encouraged them to practise, I spoke to them in their additional language, and assured them that practise makes perfect. They tend to model me as their teacher. In fact, a classroom should be a place where learners' curiosity and interest is aroused.

Below is a reading centre with attractive story books, flash cards and pictures that speak to the learners to motivate them and create a centre of attraction for them to love their class and reading.

Figure 8.2: Reading centre

Figure 8.3: Reading centre

Figure 8.4: Reading centre

Figure 8.5: Reading centre

Figure 8.6: Learners in the reading centre

This is an example of one of my learning centres in the classroom. Herrell and Jordan (2012:37) define learning centres as places in the classroom where the learners can engage in hands-on activities that allow them to obtain additional experience in using new skills, expand skills usage to more closely match their individual needs, and work corporately with other learners. Learning centres are thus especially effective for meeting the needs of additional language learners and other learners who need expanded verbal interaction or hands-on practice to enhance their learning.

Moreover, the DBEM (2013:13) indicates that you could use colour to stimulate your learners. It further reminds teachers that Routine, Ritual and Rules are equally important and to allow all learners to share the learning space and materials in a fair and equitable manner and ensure that the classroom is kept neat and tidy. As educators, we should not just encourage learning, but also a passion for learning. This will happen by creating an environment that excites and arouses the learners' learning emotions.

Being in the classroom, the researcher came to realise that the basics of language learning are: language is largely acquired in groups; learners learn to acquire listening and speaking skills through practice; learners easily accept their tasks in a group; the best groups consist of diverse learners and diversity of knowledge; individuals develop their own expertise; learning is achieved through a variety of strategies; learners learn how to critically analyse their work and others' work; and not everyone learn the same.

The study of Nurmasitah (2010:39) emphasises that to create a physically and emotionally satisfying learning environment the teacher should lead learners by example as changes begin with the teacher's positive caring attitude and thoughtful construction of the physical environment; begin each class by greeting learners with a smile and personal welcome; help each learner to feel important and set a positive tone of the class; and organise the class neatly and methodically to avoid confusion and stress.

With reference to learning materials, Nurmasitah stresses that the teacher and the learners need to know where to find books and materials at all times; plan lessons that allow learners to actively participate in the learning process; arrange the tables to meet the needs of the learners and lessons; teach learners to set measureable academic and behaviour goals; acknowledge the completion of the goals with stickers, treats, public announcements and certificates; and search for learners' strengths and build on them.

Again, Nurmasitah advises that the teacher has to put activities in his or her lesson plans to allow each learner to feel a measure of success; create positive classroom discipline system by allowing learners to set rules to give them ownership in the discipline process; paste the rules and consequences in the classroom; stick to the rules and fairly and consistently execute the consequences; use negative consequences infrequently by reinforcing positive behaviours with a reward system; and integrate correct behaviour and accountability instruction into the teacher's plan.

Additionally, to reinforce the discipline environment, Nurmasitah further recommends that the teacher has to hold each learner accountable for his or her actions, not to

allow the blame game and to discipline learners privately. In conclusion, the teacher has to praise the learners frequently and find something positive to say about each of them. In short, Nurmasitah shows that acting in this way respect and protect the learner from public humiliation.

Moreover, the learning environment plays a significant role in classroom interaction. Learning occurs when a person is relaxed, sees, touches, and feels encouraged and free to express emotions. Consequently, learning will take place harmoniously and pleasantly. Thus, in a situation conducive to learning, learners are able to construct their own knowledge and increase their self-efficacy in order to be competent in the target language.

8.2.1.3   English as First Additional Language- CAPS

English as First Additional Language is extensively discussed in Chapter 4 (*cf.* 4.6.4-4.6.12) of this study. So, as one component of the model, is reflected here to offer the reader an assurance that is not left behind. In the CAPS document EFAL is allocated a 10 hours teaching and learning timeslot within a two-week cycle (*cf.* Table 4.3) while one of the CAPS aims is producing learners who work effectively as individuals and with others as members of a team (*cf.* 4.6.1). Therefore, the CAPS embrace classroom interaction as a teaching strategy in the Intermediate Phase.

8.2.1.4   Envisaged learner competence

The *National Education Policy Act* (1996) describes the learner as any person enrolled in an education institution. It further says that the learner is an active participant in a learning process. Whereas, Bailey (2009) elucidates that by being active means that the learner has to contribute to classroom discussions by not only answering direct questions posed by the teacher, but by answering questions posed by peers and has to feel free to ask questions or express her or his own ideas about the topic under discussion. By being active participants in learning process, according to Bailey, learners are allowed to construct their own knowledge about their learning, and apply it to their education.

For this reason, the CAPS seeks to create a lifelong learner who is confident and independent, literate, numerate, multi-skilled, compassionate, with a respect for the environment and the ability to participate in society as a critical and active citizen. Hence, the skills described above, do not end at school but are developed and nurtured at school and extend into the learner's adulthood when the learner will serve as a responsible and capable citizen. In addition, the school and the classroom serve as a foundation of offering opportunities for learners to construct awareness of their future roles.

The latest study of Drolet (2014), describes the roles of the learner in the constructivist classroom as an independent thinker who develops questions and identifies issues; gathers and analyses to create own answers; becomes a problem solver; reaches beyond factual answers; connects and summarises concepts by analysing, predicting, justifying, and defending ideas; discusses with the teacher and with other learners; reflects on ideas and either changes or reinforces them; shares own ideas and listens to the ideas of others; is involved in real-world situations from which he or she can generate abstract concepts; uses raw data and primary sources; and has access to manipulative and interactive materials.

This means that a learner has multifaceted roles to play in the classroom. However, to do so, the learner needs guidance and motivation from the teacher according to (Bailey 2009). Bailey further upholds that if a learner is truly interested in learning, his or her job is to think, since when thinking, the learner is able to find some prior experience or knowledge to apply this new learning to. In doing so, Bailey (2009) adds, the learner mentally prepares himself or herself to learn more about the new concept or idea.

With reference to Figure 8.1, the learner as an active participant has an opportunity to construct and absorb the knowledge communicated by the framework components. Consequently, the learner has to share the insights he or she acquired and in the learning situation, the learner has an opportunity to say whatever he or she believes is relevant but needs to be able to substantiate what he or she says. In that case, he or she also needs to respect other people's rights and opinions that differ from his or her own.

8.2.1.5   Communicative competence

This section is extensively discussed in chapter 1 (*cf.* 1.1).

8.2.2   Classroom Interaction Theories

These theories have been discussed in depth in Chapter 2 (*cf.* 2.2.5.1 - 2.2.5.4) as the basis of this study. As a result, in Figure 8.1, the framework for the use of classroom interaction in EFAL in the Intermediate Phase, the theories are placed in sequential order of the lesson plan and the lesson itself. The reasons for the chronology of these theories are as follows:

8.2.2.1   Social-Cognitive Learning Theory

Firstly, when planning the lesson, the teacher has to consider the cognitive learning level of an individual learner so that the planning can be appropriate for each learner with his or her diverse learning potential. Therefore the teacher should ensure that the learner understands the lesson and makes his or her own construction before sharing the ideas with the others (*cf.* 2.2.5.1). This stage serves as an introduction and the teacher should not extremely be worried as learners would pick up during the social interaction.

8.2.2.2   Social-Constructivism Theory

Secondly, when the learner has constructed and made meaning of his or her learning, then social interaction can take place. In this phase, learners share their understanding of the lesson based on their experiences. Learners bring their views and opinions and share them with their peers. It might be in pairs or in groups, depending on the classroom size; if it is a large class, then pair work might take the whole learning period (*cf.* 2.2.5.2; 8.2.2.3).

Moving from the social interaction then the teacher might identify that there are some learners who need guidance from a peer who has the potential to guide or from the teacher him or herself. This zone does not cater for underachievers only. All the

learners' learning levels need to be taken into account so that there can be a development (*cf.* 2.2.5.2).

8.2.2.3   Social-Cognitive Theory

In this phase as the learner has accumulated ideas inculcated in the previous theories now the influence plays an important role in the learner's environment. So, the learner has to have a standpoint on how to build his or her own character. By observing the modelled behaviour and skills of peers and the teacher, the learner makes decisions about how to act. Therefore it is essential for the teacher to model and implement the classroom interaction that can lead to enhancement of communicative competence in EFAL (*cf.* 2.2.5.2.)

8.2.2.4   Teacher-Efficacy Theory

Teacher-efficacy plays an important role in the learners' learning environment. Since the learner is looking upon someone who can reveal the importance of the learner's presence in the classroom interaction environment, and then there should be a motivation and assurance of the positive outcomes in the learning environment. The point is that the teacher who possesses high teacher-efficacy becomes a catalyst in creating and securing an environment and atmosphere of trust for the facilitation of classroom interaction that enhances communicative competence in the target language (*cf.* 2.2.5.3)

8.2.2.5   Self-Efficacy Theory

The teacher who concentrates on the learners' strengths and rectifies their false negative beliefs about themselves has a high chance to cultivate the positive self-efficacy of the learners. Certainly, the teacher in possession of high teacher-efficacy would be able to effectively impart the efficaciousness to the learners then learners would imitate the effectiveness of the teacher then the learner self-efficacy is developed (*cf.* 2.2.5.4). It is shown in the reading record that self-efficacy is enhanced when learners perceive they are performing well or becoming more skilful. Therefore, by appreciation, learners' learning can be improved. (*cf.* Table 2.2).

8.2.3   Classroom Interactive Teaching Method

It is important to implement the teaching method that allows the multiple ways of approaching the lesson to accommodate the different learners with diverse learning needs. Therefore, classroom interaction as a learner-centred method serves as a vehicle for the enhancement of communicative competence in EFAL.

8.2.3.1   Principles of classroom interaction as a learner-centred approach

The principles of classroom interaction approach are based on the theoretical framework underpinning this study.

- The principle of individualism learning (Social Cognitive Theory)
- The principle of pair learning, group learning and whole class learning (Social Constructivism Theory)
- The principle of teacher and peer assistance (Zone of Proximal Development)
- The principle of observational learning (Social Cognitive Theory & Teacher-Efficacy)
- The principle of self-assurance (Self-Efficacy) (*cf.* 2.2.5)

The learner brings individual understanding to share with a partner; group and the whole class (*cf.* 4.3.2.5). The approach, as constructivist learner-centred, allows the learner to become the master of his or her own learning. Learners have the autonomy to construct their own understanding and share it with their peers. Collaborative learning is the main factor in this approach. The teacher functions as a facilitator who guides and clarifies the not understandable matters arising in the learning and exploration of the learners (*cf.* 4.3.2). In accordance, teacher Phafola *(cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1: *Phafola.3.4.3)* commented that when sharing experiences, learners learn from each other. The seating arrangement illustrated in Chapter 6 also demonstrated the collaborative learning in the classrooms (*cf.* Figure 6.5 & 6.6).

8.2.3.2 Characteristics of classroom interaction teaching method

The approach provides

- individual constructional understanding
- sharing of ideas with a partner, group and whole class discussion
- the talking to one another using the target language
- answering of open-ended questions and provision of answers according to the understanding of the lesson
- having sufficient time to listen and consider the ideas of the others

8.2.3.3 Benefits and drawbacks of classroom interaction approach

The approach enables the learners and the teacher to:

- use spoken language in a variety of contexts within the classroom environment.
- identify their own learning methods and exposure to different language genres
- have meaningful communication in the target language
- employ their experiences in learning
- study the nature and the frequency of learners' interaction
- share leadership;
- learn together
- feel more secure and less anxious (*cf.* 1.5.1. 4.3.2.3. 6.3.1.1 Sub-theme 1.1: Molobe.1.2.4; 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1: Phafola.3.4.3; 6.3.3.2 Sub-theme 3.2: Sub-theme 3.2.1: Sesi.1.4.6; Josi.1.4.7; Coolboy.1.4.10; Thabang.1.5.2; Lihle.1.5.9).

➢ Drawbacks of classroom interaction approach
Some learners may
  - feel nervous
  - embarrassed or tongue-tied

- speak in their native language, not in English
- Not enjoy working together (*cf.* 4.3.2.4)

8.2.3.4 Steps for implementing classroom interaction teaching methods

The environment should appropriately permit the interaction to take place. The teacher should be prepared to facilitate the learning construction and give guidance wherever possible (*cf.* 3.2.2).

Step 1: Consider the cognitive learning level of an individual learner so that the planning can be appropriate for each learner with his or her diverse learning needs.

Step 2: When the learner has constructed and made meaning of his or her learning, then social interaction can take place.

Step 3: Encourage positive peer behaviour by demonstrating high teacher-self efficacy.

Step 4: Create and secure an environment and atmosphere of trust for the facilitation of the classroom interaction

Step 5: Enhance learners' self-efficacy by praise and accommodation of diverse learners

Step 6: Utilise authentic resources during the lesson

Step 9: Implement discussion throughout the lesson

Step 10: Clearly indicate teacher's responsibility and learners' responsibilities

Step 11: Have time for a joint session where learners can share their experiences and the knowledge they have gained

Step 12: Reflect back what needs to be clarified as learners share their experiences concerning the lesson

8.2.4 Classroom Interaction tools to enhance learners' communicative competence

The interactive activities suggested in this study encourage a learner-centred approach and are suitable for classroom interaction that enhances communicative competence in EFAL (*cf.* 3.3).

8.2.4.1 Discussion

It has been indicated in this study that discussion can be implemented throughout the lesson. It is mostly used for the learners' activation of previous knowledge and also to examine whether the learners follow during the lesson and even at the end of the lesson as a debriefing session. In fact, before the beginning of each interactive activity, discussion plays an important role to unpack the lesson for understanding *(cf.* 3.3.1.1; 4.7.1; 6.3.4 Theme 4: Thinani.4.7.5).

8.2.4.2 Story telling

Storytelling is an interactive activity that enables learners to share their daily experiences with their peers in the classroom. Learners engage with each other by listening, telling, reading and writing of stories. By doing so, learners compare their experiences with their peers. Thus, it is necessary for the teacher to create an atmosphere of trust so that learners can express their feeling in the telling of their stories. (*cf.* 3.3.2; 4.7.2; 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1.1: Thinani.4.5.5; Boyboy.1.5.5; Josi.1.5.6; Thato.1.5.8; Lesego.1.5.8; Josi.1.5.13; Smolly.1.5.14; Pontsho.1.5.8).

8.2.4.3 Role-play

This simulation activity offers learners a platform where learners creatively demonstrate their talents in the form of a play. Learners feel free when they are encouraged to demonstrate what they live and given an opportunity to receive

compliments (*cf.* 3.3.3 & 4.7.3)**.** During the interviews the teachers also illustrated that learners participate, show their skills and always have something to say in their roles (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1.1: Molobe.4.6.4 & Thinani.4.6.5).

8.2.4.4 Reading aloud

Reading aloud is a classroom interactive activity considered across the curriculum. Certainly, for the teacher and learners to understand each other, reading aloud becomes a viable activity to reciprocally bring understanding. Without reading aloud, the teacher will not be able to establish how far the learners have acquired the learning matter. Therefore, reading aloud leads to thinking aloud. Learners would not be able to perform certain activities as the teacher has to model the fluent and expressive reading and for learners to know the reading process (*cf.* 3.3.4 & 4.7.4).

8.2.4.5 Debate

Debate is a powerful interactive activity that enhances communicative competence in EFAL. The activity enables the learners to be vocal and express their views on controversial topics. It gives learners opportunities to agree and disagree indicating their own motives and encourages the voiceless learners to adapt to a spirit of contributing to certain issues (*cf.* 3.3.5 & 4.7.5). Unfortunately, it was discovered that most of the teachers did not use debate as interactive activity (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1.1: Phafola: 4.13.3; Molobe: 4.13.4; Molobe. 4.14.4; Thinani: 4.13.5). Nevertheless, some of the teachers indicated that they usually implement debate for classroom interaction in the target language (*cf.* Mothusi: 4.13.1 & Sekgobela: 4.13.2).

8.2.5 Classroom Interactive Activities Strategies

For the above-mentioned interactive activities there are suggested classroom interactive activities strategies that can improve the EFAL learning. These strategies have been fully discussed in Chapter4 (*cf.* 4.5).

8.2.5.1 Classroom library as a learning centre

Classroom library is one of the learning centres that the teacher can have in the EFAL classroom. It is a centre that can encourage learners to love reading and become motivated to read. The classroom library should be attractive with bright colours that can attract the learner's attention. In this learning centre learners engage in independent and self-directed learning activities. Learners are inevitably encouraged to work individually, in pairs and as a group using instructional materials to explore and expand their learning (*cf.* 4.5.1). Thus, classroom library encourages daily interaction with reading material where learners spend time in reading and talking to peers regarding the reading materials and learning new vocabulary (*cf.* Figures 5.3- 5.6 & Figure 8.3- 8.6).

8.2.5.2 Scaffolding

Since scaffolding is the way of assisting learners to reach their learning potential in using the target language, it is essential for teachers to make use of it in the teaching and learning environment. Verbal scaffolding can be done in the form of thinking aloud, providing correct punctuation by repeating learner's responses, slowing speech, speaking in phrases, and increasing pauses while visual scaffolding can be achieved by displaying concrete objects like pictures, posters and drawings that let the learners connect meaning to the words heard (*cf.* 4.5.2).

8.2.5.3 Scripting

For the learners to have confidence in situational dialogues like role-play and debate, scripting becomes the interactive strategy that can lower anxiety and build confidence in the ability to communicate in English. Moreover, in role play, before learners can play their roles, they practice their written scripts. Scripting can also be an alternative strategy for practicing the debate presentation (*cf.* 4.5.3). This is demonstrated by the teacher who indicates that he lets learners practice their scripts to perform their dramatization (*cf.* 6.3.3.1 Subtheme 3.1.1: Phafola.4.6.3)

8.2.5.4 The use of posters

Posters enhance the communicative competence of the learners as learners talk about what they see and explain their understanding in their own words giving their own perspectives. The poster also allows learners to focus on the theme chosen for the lesson. Learners learn at own pace and bring different views to the lesson. Using posters in teaching the additional language also supports and enriches the learners' imagination. In fact, learners understand better when they see and touch what they are learning about (*cf.* 4.5.4). Teacher Phafola also shows that from the theme poster, he teaches different language genres *(cf.* 6.3.1.1 Sub-theme 1.1: Phafola.1.2.3).

8.2.5.5 The use of diaries

Concerning diaries, learners jot down their daily experiences, thoughts, feelings or anything happening in their lives. Diaries also serve as a platform where the teacher and the learners share thoughts and opinions. In this way, a relationship of trust which gives learners an opportunity to share problems with their teacher is developed as learners will be encouraged to use the target language and then their English will improve (*cf.* 4.5.4).

8.2.5.6 Purpose of CI-framework

The purpose of the framework suggested in this chapter is to assist teachers to implement classroom interaction as a teaching approach in teaching English as First Additional Language to enhance learners' communicative competence in schools.

8.3 SUMMARY

To summarise, all the components and their aspects illustrated in Figure 8.1, give rise to the enhancement of communication competence in EFAL. The figure also shows that all these events occur when the classroom interaction approach is implemented. Thus, the researcher concludes this study by reflecting on the original idea of classroom interaction in EFAL to enhance communicative competence. In the

current situation in some schools it is likely that some teachers continue engaging with the learners in a traditional way. There is a need to implement the classroom interaction framework so as to enhance the learners' communicative competence in EFAL.

8.4   CONCLUSION

Throughout this study, it has been mentioned that this study is placed within interpretivist/constructivist perspective since these paradigms focus on the process of interpreting and creating meaning from participants' unique lived experiences.

This study found that most of the teachers understand what classroom interaction is, though in some EFAL classrooms, it was not practically implemented. There were some teachers who did not employ classroom interaction to involve all the learners. In this case, it shows that teachers understand classroom interaction; however, some cannot practically implement it. Therefore, the perception is that all interaction depends on the teacher-efficacy in order to inculcate self-efficacy in the learners by creating conducive learning environments that can develop cognitive skills, though teachers have to continually be trained to implement classroom interaction.

Regardless of the difficulties in the implementation of classroom interaction in EFAL teaching, there is a confirmation that the learners enjoy the classroom social interaction whenever they interact with the other learners while sharing ideas. Learners indicated that they help those who lag behind with the usage of the target language in order to reach the goal of communication competence. Indeed, a framework is designed to guide the teachers to acquire the knowledge and abilities needed to employ classroom interaction in the Intermediate Phase when teaching the EFAL; also this framework will assist to enhance the verbal communicative competence as part of the teachers' accountability.

The researcher concludes this study by reflecting on her original idea of the provision of learning environments conducive to enhancement of learners' self-efficacy. As this study is focused on the classroom, the teachers are the catalysts of creating a suitable atmosphere that can facilitate the interaction that can create opportunities

for learners to construct their own learning. As the situations in schools are not the same, based on the findings of this study, so it is advisable for teachers to work as bricoleurs and use any materials available to ensure that learners are equipped with opportunities that can enhance communicative competence in EFAL. Moreover, learners learn by observation, so the presentation that is set for the EFAL may bear some hope of encouraging learners to learn the target language.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Ada, A. F., Ryan, P. M. & Yee, P. 2014. *Teaching multicultural literature: A workshop for the middle grades.* Workshop 7: Social Justice and Action*.* Available:www.learner.org/workshops/tml/workshop7/index.html (2014, June 6).

Alasmari, A. & Ahmed, S.S. 2013. Using debate in EFL classes. *English Language Teaching,* 6(1):147-152.

Albertina Learning. 2002. *Health and life skills guide to implementation (K-9).* Alberta: Canada.

Albool, R.M. 2012. The effect of utilizing storytelling strategy in teaching Mathematics on grade four students. *Achievement and motivation towards learning Mathematics International Conference.* The future of education 2nd ed. Birzeit University, Education College: Palestine.

Alexandra, G. 2013. Towards a learner-centred approach to teaching English. *Professional Communication and Translation Studies.* 6(1-2):205-210.

Alford, K.L. & Surdu, J.R. 2002. Using in-class debates as a teaching tool. *Proceedings of the 32nd ASEE/IEEE Frontiers in Education Conference.* 10-15 November 2002. Boston: M.A. 6-9.

Allahyar, N. & Nazari, A. 2012. *Potentiality of Vygotsky's sociocultural theory in exploring the role of teacher perceptions, expectations and interaction strategies.* Wo PaLP. 6:79-92.

Allington, R. 2001. *What really matters for struggling readers?* New York, NY: Addison Wesley Educational Publications.

Allwright, D. n.d. Interaction and negotiation in the language classroom: Their role in learners' development. Available: http://www.ling.lancs.ac.uk/groups/crile/docs/crile50allrigh.pdf (2015, October 14).

Allwright, D. & Bailey, K.M. 1996. *Focus on the language classroom.* Cambridge University Press: London.

Al-Matuwa, N. & Kailane, T. 1989. *Methods of teaching English to Arab students.* London: Longman.

Al-Senaidi, S.A. n.d. *Using role-play to promote oral fluency.* Shargiya South Region. (Unpublished).

Altwerger, A., Diehl-Faxon, J. & Anderson, K. 1985. Read-aloud events as meaning construction. *Language Arts.* (62):476-484.

Al-zu'be, A.F.M. 2013. The difference between the learner-centered approach and teacher-centered approach in teaching English as a foreign language. *Educational Research International* 2(2):24-31.

"Amazon," *Webster's new collegiate dictionary.* 1980. G. & C Merriam Company Springfield, Massachusetts: USA.

Amponsah, S. 2014. The use of student teams achievement division as a teaching strategy in English First Additional Language in KwaZulu-Natal. Ph.D. Thesis. University of South Africa.

Andre, T. 1979. Does answering higher-level questions while reading facilitate productive learning. *Review of Educational Research.* DOI: 49, 2800318.

Applefield, J.M., Huber, R. & Moallem, M. 2001. Constructivism in theory and practice: Toward better understanding. *The High School Journal.* 84(2):35-53.

Armitage, M. 1998. Forging links between talk and writing. In *An introduction to oracy: Frameworks for talk*. J. Holderness & D. Lalljee, Eds. Cassel: London.

Armor, D., Conroy-Oseguera, P., Cox, M., McDonnel, L. & Pascal, A. 1976. Analysis of the school preferred reading programmes in selected Los Angeles minority schools. (Report No. R-2007-LAUSD). Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corporation.

Ashton, P.T. & Webb, R.B. 1986. *Making a difference: Teachers' sense of efficacy and student achievement.* New York: Longman.

Atta-Alla, M.N. 2012. Integrating language skills through storytelling. *English Language Teaching.* 5(12):1-13.

Backlund, P.M. 1988. A response to communicative competence and performance. A research and pedagogical perspective. *Communication Education.* (31):365-366.

Bailey's Blog. 2009. The role of student in a class. Available: http://mskbailey.wordpress.com/2009/10/10/the-role-of student-in-the—classroom (2014, March 19).

Bandura, A. 1986. *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Bandura, A. 1989. *Social cognitive theory.* In *Annals of child development. Six theories of child development.* R. Vasta, Ed. Cape Town: JA Press. 6:1-60.

Bandura, A. 1997. *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control.* New York: Freeman.

Bandura, A. 2001. Guide for constructing self-efficacy scales (Monograph). Stanford University.

Bandura, A. & Schunk, D.H. 1981. Cultivating competence, self-efficacy, and intrinsic interest through proximal self-motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology.* (41):586-598.

Baraldi, S. M. 2009. Drama and theatre practices in the elementary classrooms that create conducive environments for non-English speakers' English language acquisition. Ph.D. Dissertation. Arizona State University.

Barnard, A. 2010. *English in South Africa – a double-edged sword.* Stellenbosch University. Available: http://www.teachenglishtoday.org/index.php/page/5/ (2015, October 22).

Barnes, D. 1992. *From communication to curriculum.* London: Penguin.

Barton, M.L., Heidema, C. & Jordan, D. 2002. Teaching reading in Mathematics and Science. *Reading and Writing in the Content Areas.* 60(3):24-28.

Baxter, P. & Jack, S. 2008. Qualitative case study methodology: Study design and implementation for novice researchers. *The Qualitative Report.* 13(4):544-559.

Beltchenko, L. 2011. *The components of read alouds. Chicago: Chicago Literacy Project.* Available: http://www.d118.org/district/curriculum/initiatives/components-effective-read-alouds.pdf (2014, March 17).

Benoit, P.J. 1983. Characteristics of arguing from a social actor's perspective. In *Argument in transition: Proceedings of the third summer conference on argumentation.* D. Zarefsky, M.O, Sillas & J. Rhodes, Eds. Annandale: SCA. 544-549.

Berman, J. 2013. Utility of a conceptual framework within doctoral study. A researcher's reflections. *Issues in Educational Research.* 23(1):1-8.

Bertrand, N.P & Stice, C.F. 2002. Speaking and listening in the elementary classroom. In *Good teaching: An integrated approach to language, literacy and learning*. Heinemann: Portsmouth. 80-99.

Betáková, L. 2000. Focus on learning rather than teaching: The importance of using the target language in the classroom. *Proceedings of the IATEFL Conference on Learner Independence*. D. Little, L. Dam & J. Timmer, Eds. 14-16 May 1998. Trinity College: Dublin. 181-197.

Beth, M. 2002. Scaffolding student talk: One teacher's role in literature discussion groups. *Reading Research Quarterly.* 37(1):94-112.

Borg, S. 2001. The research journal: a tool for promoting and understanding researcher development. *Language Teaching Research.* 5(2):156-177.

Borich, G. & Tombari, M. 1997. *Educational psychology.* New York: Longman.

Bouffard, T. & Couture, N. 2003. Motivational profile and academic among students enrolled in different schooling tracks. *Educational Studies.* 29(1):20-38.

Braslavsky, C. n.d. The curriculum. *The definition of the concept curriculum.* Available: http://www.ibe.unesco.org/fileadmin/user_upload/archive/AIDS/doc/cecilia_e.pdf (2015, June 28).

British Columbia Ministry of Education. 2006. English language arts grade 4. Integrated resource package.

Brookfield, S. 1995. *What is critically reflective teaching?* Oxford Learning Institute: University of Oxford. Available: https://www.learning.ox.ac.uk/media/global/wwwadminoxacuk/localsites/oxfordlearninginstitute/documents/supportresources/lecturersteachingstaff/resources/resources/CriticallyReflectiveTeaching.pdf (2014, September 21).

Brooks, J.G. & Brooks, M.G. 1993, 1999. In search of understanding: the case for constructivist classroom. Alexandria, Virginia: Association for supervision and curriculum development

Brophy, J.E. & McCaslin, N. 1992. Teachers' reports of how they perceive and cope with problem students. *Elementary School Journal.* (93):3-68.

Brotchie, A. 2002. Story and Storytelling. *Australian Screen Education.* 30:98-101.

Brown, A.L. 1980. Metacognitive development and reading. In *Theoretical issues in reading comprehension.* R.J. Spiro, B.C. Bruce & Brewer, Eds. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. 453-481.

Buchanan, L.B. 2011. Discussion in the elementary classroom: How and why some teachers use discussion. *The Georgia Social Studies Journal.* 1(1):19-31.

Burney, V.H. 2008. Applications of social cognitive theory to gifted education. *Pro Quest Education Journals.* 30(2):130-139.

Cajkler, W. & Addelman, R. 1992. *The practice of foreign language teaching. London*: David Fulton Publishers.

Calkins, S.D. & Howse, R.B. 2004. Individual differences in self-regulation: Implications for childhood adjustment. In *The regulation of emotion.* P. Philippot & R.S. Feldman, Eds. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum. 307-322.

Cameron, L. 2001. *Teaching languages to young learners.* Australia: Cambridge University Press

Canale, M. & Swain, M. 1980. Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics.* 1(1):1-47.

Cannela, G.S. & Reif, J.C. 1994. Individual constructivist teacher education: Teachers as empowered learners. *Teacher Education Quarterly.* 21(3):27-38.

Carcary, M. 2009. The research audit trail: Enhancing trustworthiness in qualitative inquiry. *The Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods.* 7(1):11-24.

Carrell, P.L. 1984.The effects of rhetorical organization on ESL readers. *TESOL Quarterly.* 18:441-470.

Chapman, C., Hunnicutt, P. & McCloud, M. 2012. Common core state standards Grade K-2. South Carolina Department of Education.

Chaviaris, P. & Kafoussi, S. n.d. Developing students' collaboration in a Mathematics classroom through dramatic activities. *International Electronic Journal of Mathematics Education.* 5(2):91-110.

Choudhury, S. 2005. Interaction in second language classrooms. *BRAC University Journal.* 11(1):77-82.

Classroom debates. n.d. Northern Illinois University, Faculty Development and Instructional Centre. Available: facdev@niu.edu,www.niu.edu/facdev,815.753.0595 (2014, March 27).

Classroom interactions guide. n.d. Available: http://www.mtsu.edu/pbsi/files/Learning_From_Others_-_Session_7.pdf (2014, July 19).

Classroom management. n.d. Available: https://www.hueber.de/sixcms/media.php/36/LearningTeaching_Chapter3.pdf (2014, February 24).

Clift, R.T., Houston, W.R. & Pugach, M.C. 1990. *Encouraging reflective practice: An analysis of issues and programs.* New York: Teachers College and Press.

Clipson-Boyles, S. 1998. Developing oracy through drama. In *An introduction to oracy: Frameworks for talk.* J. Holderness & B. Lalljee, Eds. Cassel: London.

Cohen, L. & Holliday, M. 1979. *Statistics for education and physical education.* London: Paul Chapman Publishing.

Cohen, L. & Holliday, M. 1982. *Statistics for the social sciences.* London: Harper & Row.

Cohen, L. & Holliday, M. 1996. *Practical statistics for students.* London: P.C.P.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. 2000. *Research methods in education.* London: Routledge Falmer.

Concordia Online Education. 2012. *Which is the best: teacher-centered or student-centered education?* Available: http://education.cu-portland.edu/blog/classroom-resources/which-is-best-teacher-centered-or-student-centered-education/ (2015, January 02).

Connely, F.M & Clendenin, D.J. 1990.Stories of experience and narrative inquiry. *Educational researcher.* 19(5):2-14.

Contemporary Learning Series. 2009. *Using taking sides in the classroom.* The McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc. Dubuque: USA.

Cooper, P. 1993. *When stories come to school: Telling, writing and performing stories.* New York: Teachers and Writers Collaborative.

Covey, S.R. 1989. *The 7 habits of highly effective people.* New York: Simon & Schuster.

Craig, S., Hull, K., Haggard, A. & Crowder, E. 2001. Storytelling: Addressing the literacy needs of diverse learners. *Teaching Exceptional Children.* 43(5):46-51

Creswell, J.W. 1994. *Research design: qualitative and quantitative approaches.* Thousand Oaks: Sage Publishers.

Creswell, J.W. 1998. *Qualitative inquiry and research design. Choosing among five traditions.* Thousand Oaks: Sage Publishers.

Creswell, J. W. 2005. *Educational research. Planning, conducting and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research.* 2nd ed. International Edition: Pearson.

Creswell, C. J. 2012. Educational research. *Planning, conducting and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research*. 4thed. International Edition: Pearson.

Crippen, K.J & Sangueeza, C.R. 2013. The utility of interaction analysis for generalising characteristics of science classrooms. *Social Science and Mathematics.* 113(5):235-247.

Crotty, M. 1998. *The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process.* London: Sage Publications.

Dada, F., Dipholo, T., Hoadley, U., Khembo, E., Muller, S. & Volmink, J. 2009. *The task team for the review of the implementation of the National Curriculum Statement.* (Report on National Curriculum Statement) Final Report.

Dam, L. 1998. Focus on learning rather than teaching: From theory to practice*. Proceedings of the IATEFL Conference on Learner Independence.* D. Little, L. Dam & J. Timmer, Eds. Trinity College: Dublin. 27-46.

Davidson, D. 1999. The emergence of thought*. Erkenntnis.* 51:7-17.

Denler, H., Wolters, C, & Benzon, M. 2013. *Home-School and academics- classroom learning.* Available: http://www.education.com/reference/article/social-cognitive-theory/ (2014, January 23).

Denzin, N.K & Lincoln, Y.S. 1999. *The discipline and practice of qualitative research.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Denzin, N. 1970. *The research act in sociology.* Chicago: Aldine.

Department of Basic Education. 2011. *Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement:* Intermediate *Phase: Grades 4-6.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

Department of Basic Education. 2011. *Guidelines for responding to learner diversity in the classroom through curriculum and assessment policy statements.* Pretoria.

Department of Basic Education Magazine. 2013. What's up – Teach Magazine. January 2013: 1.

Department of Education. 2000. *Norms and standards for educators.* Government Printers: Pretoria.

Department of Education. 2002. *Revised National Curriculum Statement: Grade R-9 Policy.* Government Printers: Pretoria.

Department of Education. 2014. *Report on the national assessment: Grades 1 – 6 & 9.* Pretoria.

De Vimeenakshi, K. & Maheswari, C.B. 2012. Using original methods in teaching English language to foreign students (Chinese) in Indian classrooms. *English Language Teaching.* 5(9):166-177.

Dillenbourg, P. Barker, M.Blaye, A. & O'Malley, C. 1996. The evolution of research on collaborative learning. In *Learning in humans and machine: Towards an interdisciplinary learning science.* E. Spada & P. Reiman, Eds. Oxford: Elsevier.

Donald, D., Lazarus, S. & Lolwana, R. 2002. *Educational Psychology in social context.* 2nd ed. Oxford University Press: South Africa.

Dörnyei, Z. 2005. *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Dreher, M.J. 1993, Reading to locate information: Societal and educational perspectives. *Contemporary Educational Psychology.* (18):129-138.

Driescol, K & Pianta, R.S. 2010. Banking time. In head start. Early efficacy of an intervention designed to promote supportive teacher-child relationships. *Early Education & Development.* 21:38-64.

Drolet, M. M. 2012. *Albert Bandura: Social cognitive theory.* California State University: Monterey Bay.

Drolet, C. 2014. *The role of the student in the constructivist classroom.* Available: http://drofilm-1.edublogs.org/artifacts-2/mind-map-role-of-the-student-in-the-constructivist-classroom-etec-512/ (2014, June 23).

Duatepe, A. & Ubuz, B. 2002. *Drama-based instruction and geometry.* Available: http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.86.4979&rep=rep1&type=pdf (2015, October 19).

Dudley-Marling, C. & Searle, D. 1991. *When students have time to talk: Creating contexts for learning language. Portsmouth*, NH: Heinemann.

Duff, A. & Maley, A. 1990. *Literature.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Duke, N.K. & Kays, J. 1998. Can I say 'once upon a time': Kindergarten children developing knowledge of information book language. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly.* 13(2):295-318.

Durkin, N. 1990. Reading instruction in kindergarten: A look at some issues through the lens of new basal reader materials. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly.* Available: http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/showciting;jsessionid=DC6EF8A729AC9B4F8DDD94D37BF20CAD?cid=13971536 (2014, February 20).

Duurman, E. Augustyn, M. & Zuckerman, B. 2008. Reading aloud to children: the evidence. *Arch Dis Chil.* 93(7):554-557.

Duveskog, M., Tedre, M., Sedano, C.I & Sutinen, E. 2012. Life planning by digital storytelling in a primary school in rural Tanzania. *Educational Technology & Society.* 15(4) 225-237.

Ebata, M. 2009. Effectiveness of debate in EFL classes. *The Language Teacher.* 33(4):1-2.

Eggan, P. & Kauchak, D. 2007. *Educational Psychology windows on classrooms.* 7th ed. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Emberger, M. 2006. *Helping teachers to think like assessors.* Available: www.naesp.org (2014, January 22).

Essig, W. 2005. Storytelling: Effects of planning, repetition and context. In *Teachers exploring tasks in English language teaching.* C. Edwards & J. Willis, Eds. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Ettkin, L. & Snyder, L. 1972. A model for peer group counselling based on roleplaying. *School Counselor.* 19(2):215-218.

Ewens, W. n.d. *Teaching using discussion.* Available: http://www.southalabama.edu/languages/spanish/TRG/TRG/PDF/05_What%20Does%20Good%20Teaching%20Look%20Like/Teaching_Using_%20Discussion.pdf (2014, April 20).

Fall Newsletter. 2005. *Speaking of teaching: Using class discussion to meet your teaching goals.* 15(1):1-6.

Farrel, T.S.C. 2015. *Teaching is a calling: or is it? The English Connection*. Brock University: Canada.

Finlay, L. 2002. Outing the researcher: The provenance, principles and practice of reflexivity. *Qualitative Health Research.* 12(4):531-45.

Fisher, D., Flood, J., Lapp, D. & Frey, N. 2004. Interactive read-alouds: Is there a common set of implementation practices? *The Reading Teacher International Reading Association.* 58(1):8-17.

Fitzgibbon, H.B. & Wilhelm, K.H. 1998. Storytelling in ESL/EFL classrooms. *Test Reporter.* 31(2):21-31.

Florida Department of Education. 2012. Choosing appropriate learning activities and curricular for Voluntary Pre-kindergarten (VPK) Education programs. 1-2.

Flowers, P. 2009. Research philosophies – Importance and relevance. Issue 1: January.

Fram, S.M. 2013. The constant comparative analysis method outside of grounded theory. *The Qualitative Report.* 18(1):1-25.

Fraser, W.J., Loubser, C.P. & Van Rooy, M.P. 1996. *Didactics for the undergraduate students.* Durban: Butterworth Publishing (Pty) Ltd.

Freeman, D. 1996. Redefining the relationship between research and what teachers know. In *Voices from the classroom.* K.M. Bailey & D. Nunan, Eds. Cambridge University Press: United States. 88-115.

Fuller, M. 1993. Dimensions of gender in a school: Reinventing the wheel? In *The research in educational settings: Ten case studies.* B. Burgess, Ed. London: The Falmer Press.

Gauteng Department of Education. 2010-2014. *Gauteng Primary Literacy Strategy.* (2010, March 6).

Gauvain, M. & Cole, M. 1997. *Readings on the development of children.* 2nd ed. New York, USA: W.H. Freeman and Company.

Gebbie, D. H., Ceglowski, D., Taylor, K. K. & Miels, J. 2012. *The role of teacher efficacy in strengthening classroom support for preschool children with disabilities who exhibit challenging behaviours.* 40:35-46.

Gibson, S. 2008. Reading aloud: a useful learning tool. *ELT Journal.* 62(1):29-36.

Gibson, S. & Dembo, M. 1984. Teacher efficacy: A construct validation. *Journal of Educational Psychology.* (76):569-582.

Glaser, B.G. & Strauss, A. L. 1967. *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research.* Hawthorne, NY: Aldine.

Global Dimension. n.d. The global dimension in my classroom: Debate for primary schools.

Gomez-Rodriquez, A.G. 2010. Disembodiment and cyberspace: Gendered discourses in female teenagers' personal information disclosure. *Discourse & Society.* 21(2):135-160.

Goodwin, J. 2003. Students' perspectives on debate exercises in content area classes. *Communication Education.* 52(2):157-163.

337

Gosh, A. 2010. *Classroom interaction - Part 1. (Definition, objectives, types, teacher's role and merits.)* Available: www.examiner.com/article/classroom-interaction-part-1 (2013, September 10).

Graves, K. 2008. The language curriculum: A social contextual perspective. *Language Teaching.* 41(2):147-181.

Gredler, M.E & Shields, C.C. 2008. *Vygotsky legacy: A foundation for research and practice.* Guilford Press.

Gregory, C.H. & Chapman, C. 2007. *Creating a climate for learning.* (Reprinted from differentiated instruction strategies: one size does't fit all). H. Gayle, C.H. Gregory, C. 2nd ed. Chapman. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.

Grose, C. 2010. Storytelling across the curriculum: From margin to centre, from clinic to the classroom. *Journal of the Association of Legal Writing Directors.* 7:37-61.

Hammerley, M. & Atkinson, P. 1995. *Ethnography: Principles in practice*. 2nd ed. London: Routledge.

Hammersley, M. 1993. *Educational research: current issues.* London: Paul Chapman.

Hamre, B. & Pianta, R. 2001. Early teacher-child relationships and the trajectory of children's school outcomes through eighth grade. *Child Development.* 72:625-638.

Hannah, R. 2013. The effect of classroom environment on student learning. Honours Dissertation. Western Michigan University.

Harr, M. 2008. Meeting the needs of mainstreamed English language learners in the elementary classroom. Ph.D. Dissertation. University of Pittsburgh.

Harris, A. 2007.Distributed leadership: conceptual confusion and empirical reticence. *International Journal of Leadership in Education. 10*(3):1-11.

Harvey, S. & Goudvis, A. 2005. *The comprehension toolkit: Language and lessons for active literacy. Portsmouth*, NH: Heineman.

Hatch, M.J. & Cunliffe, A.L. 2006. *Organization theory.* 2nd ed. Oxford University Press, Oxford.

Hayo, R. 2007. *Using student-centered methods with teacher-centered students.* Marilyn Lewis, Lancaster UK: Pippin Publishing Corporation.

Hemenover, S.H. 2003. Individual differences in rate of affect change: Studies in affective chronometry. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology.* (85):121-131.

Hendrick, W.B. & Pearish, A.B. 2003. Good reading instruction is more important than who provides the instruction or where it takes place. In *Promising practices for urban reading instruction.* P.A. Mason & J.S. Schumm, Eds. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Henning, E. 2004. *Finding your way in qualitative research.* Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Hensley, D. & Carlin, D. 1994. *Mastering competitive debate.* 4thed. Topeka, KS: Clark Publishing, Inc.

Herrell, A.L & Jordan, M. 2012. *50 strategies for teaching English language learners.* 4th ed. Boston: Pearson.

Holderness, J.1998. A communication framework for English as additional language (EAL) learners. In *An introduction to oracy: Frameworks for talk.* J. Holderness & B. Lalljee, Eds. Cassel: London.

Holland, J. 2007. Emotions and research. *International Journal of Research Methodology. 10*(3):195-209.

Honebone, J. 1998. Using news events for media-based discussions. In *An introduction to oracy: Frameworks for talk.* J. Holderness & B. Lalljee, Eds. Cassel: London.

Howie, S., Van Staden, S., Tshele, M., Dowse, C. & Zimmerman, L. 2012. *Progress in International reading Study 2011: South African children's reading literacy achievement.* Centre for evaluation and assessment: University of Pretoria.

Huang, L. 2010. Read aloud in the foreign language teaching*. Asian Social Science.* 6(4):148-150.

Huang, X., Trube, B. & Cunlan, Y. 2011. Meeting the dual goals of content knowledge and English language learning: A study of the CCUEI curriculum materials front. *Educ Chin.* 6(1):37-67.

Hubbard, G., Backett-Milburn, K. & Kemmer, D. 2001. Working with emotions: Issues for the researcher in fieldwork and teamwork. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology.* (4):119-137.

Hubenthal, M. 2009. Wallpaper or instructional aids: A preliminary case of science teachers' perceptions and use of wall-posters in the classroom. *Proceedings of the National Association of Research in Science Teaching Annual Conference.* Paper S3.10.3.

Huff, S. 1991. *Types of problem-solving talk in the classroom.* In *Classroom talk.* D. Booth. & C. Thornley-Hall, Eds. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Huyack, E.T. 1975. Teaching for behavioural change. *Human Educator.* 14(1):12-20.

Hwang, S.H. 2004. Storytelling for Social studies in the primary classrooms. *Teaching and Learning.* 25(2):139-148.

Hymes, D.H. 1972. On communicative competence. In *Sociolinguistics. Selected Readings.* J.B. Pride & J. Holmes, Eds. Harmondsworth: Penguin. 269-293.

Hymes, D.H. 1974. Models of the interaction of language and social life. In *Directions in Sociolinguistics: The ethnography of communication.* J.J. Gumperz & D. Hymes, Eds. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston. 35-71.

Hynds, S. 1997. *On the brink: Negotiating literature and life with adolescents.* New York: Teachers College Press.

Hyslop-Margison, E.J. & Strobel, J. 2008. Constructivism and education: Misunderstandings and pedagogical implications. *The Teacher Educator.* 43(1):72-86.

Info4mystery. 2012. Benefits of role play. Available: http://www.info4mystery.blogspot.com/2012/06 (2014, June 16).

Irmawati, N.D. 2012. Communicative approach: An alternative method used in improving students' academic reading achievement. *English Language Teaching.* 5(7):90-101.

Ismat, A.H. 1998. *Constructivism in teacher education: Considerations for those who would link practice to theory.* Available: https://www.google.co.za/?gfe_rd=cr&ei=Zs8kVqibAe2o8wf4t5XgBA#q=Ismat%2C/ (2015, October 19).

Jabareen, Y. 2009. Building a conceptual framework: Philosophy, definitions, and procedure. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods.* 8(4)49-62.

Jamil, F. M., Downer, J .T. & Pianta, R. C. 2012. Association of pre-service teachers' performance, personality, and beliefs with teacher self-efficacy at programme completion. *Teacher Education Quarterly.* 39(4):119-138.

Jarvis, L., Odell, K. & Troiano, M. 2002. Role-playing as a teaching strategy. California State University Sacramento. Staff development and presentation.

Jeane, S.C. 2009. *The academic achievement challenge: What really works in the classroom.* London: Guillford Press.

Jennings, P.A. & Greenberg, M. T. 2009. The prosocial classroom: Teacher social and emotional competence in relation to student and classroom outcome. *Review of Educational Research.* 79(1):491-525.

Jonassen, D. 1995. An instructional design model for designing constructivist learning environments. *Proceedings of the World Conference on Education Media.* H. Maurer, Ed. VA: Charlottesville. 215-239.

Jonassen, D.H. 1999. Designing constructivist learning environments. In *Instructional design theories and models: A new paradigm of instructional theory.* C.M. Reigeluth, Ed. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc. 217-239.

Jones, L. 2007. *The student-centered classroom.* Cambridge University Press, New York: USA.

Jones, M.G. & Brader-Araje, L. 2000. The impact of constructivism on education: Language discourse, and meaning. *American Communicational Journal.* 5(3):1-9.

Johnson, K.E.1995. *Understanding communication in second language classrooms.* J.C. Richards, Ed. Cambridge University Press: USA.

Johnson, N. 2009. The role of self and emotion within qualitative sensitive research: a reflective account. *ENQUIRE*. 4:23-50.

Jordan, A. 1993. *(In press). Skills in classroom consultation.* London: Routledge

Judd, J. 2003. Reflective journals. Available: www.csus.edu/indiv/juddj/Reflectiv (2015, March 10).

Kailani, T.Z. 1998. Reading aloud in EFL revisited. *Reading in a Foreign Language.* 12(1):281-294.

Kavaliauskiené, G. & Anusiené, L. 2012. Case study: Learner attitudes towards the correction of mistakes. *Social Technologies.* 2(1):88-101.

Kavanagh, B. 2012. Theory and practice of communicative language teaching in Japan. *Academic Research International. 2*(2):730-738.

Kayum, M.A. 2015. Error and correction in oral communication in the EFL context of Bangladesh. *International Journal of Multidisciplinary Research and Development.* 2(3)125-129.

Kennedy, J. 1996. Classroom explanatory discourse: A look at how teachers explain things to their students. *Language Awareness.* 5:26-39.

Khan Academy. *The role of students.* Available: www.khanacademy.org/.coach-res/KA-in-the-classroom/what -is-ka -classroom/a/the–role –of-the-student (2015, March 12).

Kharaghan, N. 2013. Patterns of interaction in EFL classrooms. *Proceedings of the Global Summit on Education.* 11-12 March 2013. Kuala Lumpur: 859-864.

Kim, J.S. 2005. The effects of a constructivist teaching approach to student academic achievement, self-concept, and learning strategies. *Asia Pacific Education Review.* 6(1):7-19.

Kim, Y. & Baylor, A.L. 2006. A social-cognitive framework for pedagogical agents as learning companions. *Educational Technology research and Development.* 54(6):569-596.

Kincheloe, J.L. & Berry, K.S. 2004. *Rigour and complexity in educational research: Conceptualizing the bricolage.* H. Torrance, Ed. Open University Press: England.

King, R. 1993. The man in the Wendy house: Researching infants' schools. In *The research process in educational settings: Ten case studies.* B. Burgess, Ed. London: The Falmer Press. 117-138.

Knapper, C. 2006. Lifelong learning means effective and sustainable learning. Reasons, ideas, and concrete measures. 25th International course on vocational training and education in agriculture. CIEA.

Komar, S. & Mozetič, U. 2004. Students in the English language and literature in Slovenia. *English Language Overseas Perspectives and Enquiries.* 1(1-2):128-139.

Krieger, N. 2005. Embodiment: a conceptual glossary for epidemiology. *Journal of Epidemial Community Health.* (59) 350-355. DOI: 10.1136/jech.2004.024562.

Krueger, R.A. 1988. *Focus groups: A practical guide for applied research.* Sage Publications, Inc. Newbury Park: California, USA.

Krueger, R. A. 2002. Designing and conducting focus group interviews. University of Minnesota: 1954 Buford Avenue.

Krupa-Kwiatkowski, M. 1998. You shouldn't have brought me here! Interaction strategies in the silent period of an inner-directed second language learner. *Research on Language and Social Interaction.* (31):133-175.

LaBanca, F. 2011. Online dynamic asychronouns audit strategy for reflexivity in the qualitative paradigm. *The Qualitative Report.* 16(4):116-117.

Lalljee, B. 1998. Using talk across the curriculum. In *An introduction to oracy: Frameworks for talk.* J. Holderness & B. Lalljee, Eds. Cassel: London.

Lapp, D. & Flood, J. 2003. Exemplary reading instruction in urban elementary schools How reading develops, how students learn, and teachers teach. In *The literacy development of students in urban schools: Research and policy.* J. Flood & P. Anders, Eds. Manuscript submitted for publication.

Larsen-Freeman, D. 1986. *Techniques and principles in language teaching.* R.N. Campbell & W.E Rutherford, Eds. 2nd ed. Oxford: University Press.

Leavitt, A. 2013. Teaching English language learners in the mainstream classroom: The methods teachers use. *The researcher.* 25(1):79-93.

Lee, C.L. & Hirschlein. B.M. 1994. The relationship between home-economics teachers' self-esteem and their classroom interaction. *Journal of Family and Consumer Sciences Education.* 12(1):642-650.

Leshem, S. & Trafford, V. 2007. Overlooking the conceptual framework. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International.* 44(1):93-105.

Lincoln, Y.S. & Guba, E.G. 1985. *Naturalistic inquiry.* Beverley Hills: Sage Publications.

Linsin, M. 2011. *How to handle misbehaviour the first two weeks of school. Smart classroom management.* Available: http://www.smartclassroommanagement.com/ (2013, February 17).

Lise, A. 2013. Metaphors for engaging with bricolage. *Research in Education.* 5(2)1-27.

Liston, D.D. 1994. Storytelling and narrative. A neuro-philosophical perspective. Available:
http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=eric&AN=ED372092&site=ehost-live (2014, July 7).

Little, D. 1998. Focus on learning rather than teaching: Why focus on learning rather than teaching? *Proceedings on the IATEFL Conference on Learner Independence.* D. Little, L Dam & J. Timmer, Eds. Trinity College: Dublin. 2000. 12-26.

Little, D. Devitt, S. & Singleton D. 1988. *Authentic texts in foreign language teaching. Theory and practice. Dublin*: Authentic.

Littlewood, W. 1981. *Communicative language teaching.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Livingston, C. 1983. *Role play in language.* Available:
http://perlinguaam.journals.ac.za (2013, December 12).

Liu, C.C. & Chen, J.C. 2010. Evolution of constructivism. *Contemporary Issues in Education Research.* 3(4):63-66.

Livo, N. & Rietz, S. 1987. *Storytelling activities.* Littleton CO: Libraries Unlimited.

Lockett, M.L. 2011. Using storytelling to facilitate learning English as a foreign language. *Selected papers from 2011 PAC/the twentieth international symposium on English teaching.*1-12.

Lucantoni, P. 2002. *Teaching and assessing skillls in English as a second language.* Cambridge: University Press.

Macaro, E. 1997. *Target language, collaborative learning and autonomy.* Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

MacLure, M. 1988. Oracy: Current trends in context. In *Oracy matters: The development of talking and listening in education.* M. McLure, T. Phillips & Wilkinson, Eds. Milton Keynes, UK: Open University Press. 1-10.

Macmillan, J.H. & Schumacher, S. 2010. *Research in education. Evidence-based inquiry.* 7th ed. Boston: Pearson.

Maddux, J.E. 1995. Self-efficacy theory: An introduction. In *Self-efficacy adaptation, and adjustment: Theory, research, and application.* J.E. Maddux, Ed. New York: Plenum. 3-33.

Maharaj-Sharme, R. 2003. *Are parents doing it right? School of Education, UWI St. Augustine.* Available: http://uwispace.sta.uwi.edu/dspace/bitstream/handle/2139/8556/Rawatee%20Sharma3.pdf?sequence=1 (2015, August 10).

Mandler, J.M. 1978. A code in the node. The use of story schemata in retrieval. *Discourse Process.* 1:14-35.

Maloch, B. 2008. Scaffolding student talk: One teacher's role in literature discussion groups. *Reading Research Quarterly. 37*(1):94-112.

Maree, J. 2007. *First steps in Research.* Van Schaik Publishers: Cape Town

Markee, N., Kasper, G. 2004. Classroom talks: An introduction. *The Modern Journal.* 88 (IV):491-500.

Marlowe, A.B. & Page, L.M. 1998. *Creating and sustaining the constructivist classroom.* California: Corwin Press.

Marsiglio, W. n.d. *Conducting qualitative in-depth interview.* Available: http://users.clas.ufl.edu/marsig/conducting.qual.interviews.PDF (2014, May 24).

McEwan, H. & Egan, K. 1995. *Narrative in teaching, learning and research.* NY: Teachers College Press.

Maxwell, J.A. 2005. *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach.* 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.√

McLaughlin. n.d. *Positive classroom environment.* Available: http://sitemaker.umich.edu/mclaughlin_portfolio/creating_a_positive_classroom_environment. (2015, July 22).

Metacognition and constructivism. *Definition of constructivism.* Available: http://peoplelearn.homestead.com/beduc/chapter_6.pdf (2014, February 26).

Melby, A. 1995. *The possibility of language.* Amsterdam: Benjamins.

Menggo, S., Ketut, S. & Made, R. 2013. The effect of discussion technique and English learning motivation toward students' speaking ability. *E-Journal Program Pascasarjana Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha Program StudiPendidikan Bahasa Inggris.* 1:1-10.

Mercer, N. 1995. *The guided construction of knowledge: Talk amongst teachers and learners.* Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Meyer, R.A. Brashers, D.E. Winston, L. & Grob, L. 1997. Sex differences and group argument: A theoretical framework and empirical investigation. *Communication Studies.* 48:19-41.

Miles, M.B. & Huberman, M.A. 1994. *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded source book.* 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Ministry of Education Culture. 1999. Revised primary curriculum: Curriculum guide, Grade 5. Kensington: Jamaica.

Ministry of Education. 2010. *English language syllabus.* Curriculum Division: Singapore.

Mondavi. A. n.d. *A teacher's guide for the storytelling experience.* University of Californian: Davis.

Moore, W.S. 1991. The Perry scheme of intellectual and ethical development: An introduction to the model and major assessment approaches. *Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association.* Chicago.

Moore, W. & Esselman, M. 1992. Teacher efficacy, power, school climate and achievement: A desegregating district's experience. *Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association.* San Fransisco.

Morgan, 1988. Accounting as reality construction: Towards a new epistemology for accounting practice. *Accounting Organisations and Society.* 13(5):477-485.

Morrow, L.M. 2003. Motivating lifelong voluntary readers. In *Handbook of research on teaching the English language arts.* J. Flood, D. Lapp, J. Squire & J. Jensen, Eds. 2nd ed. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum. 857-867.

Morse, K.G. 2011. Debate: A tool for language learning. *Journal of Border Educational Research.* (10):109-118.

Motshega, A. 2013. ANA results. eTv 19:00 News. 05 December 2013.

Motshega, A. 2015. Mathematics ANA results. 11:00 Radio Metro news (2015, January 21).

Mouton, J. 2001. *How to succeed in your master's 7 doctoral studies.* Van Schaik

Mulryan, C.M. 1991. Students' passivity during cooperative small groups in Mathematics. *Journal of Educational Research.* (85):261-273.

Murphy, S. 2013. *Assessing text difficulty for students. Research into practice.* York University: Ontario.

Nagaraju, C.H., Madhavaiah, G.& Peter, S. 2013. Innovative methods in teaching English language and communication skills. *International Journal of Scientific Research and Reviews.* 2(3):142-145.

Narvaez, D. Vaydich, J. L. Turner, J. C & Khmelkou, V. 2008. Teacher self-efficacy for moral education. Measuring teacher self-efficacy for moral education. *Journal of Research in Character Education.* 6(2):3-15.

National Capital Language resource Centre. 20003-2007. Available: http://www.nclrc.org/essentials/speaking/spindex.htm (2015, July 10).

National Council of Teachers for Mathematics. 2013. What are some strategies? Available: http://www.assnstrategies.com (2014, January 23).

Nel, N. & Müller, H. 2010. The impact of teachers' limited English proficiency on English second language learners in South African schools. *South African Journal of Education.* 30:635-650.

Neelman, M. 2013. English language is a link in social strata: A critical review. *International Research Journal of Social Sciences.* 2(5):30-38.

Nelson, K. 1981. Individual differences in language development: Implications for development and language. *Developmental Psychology.* 17:170-187.

Nelson, K. 1986. *Event knowledge: Structure and function in development.* Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Neuman, W.L. 2000. *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Ngidi, S.A. 2007. The attitudes of learners, educators and parents towards English as a Language of Learning and Teaching in Mthunzini Circuit. MEd. Dissertation. University of Zululand.

Nguyen, K., Stanley, N. & Stanley L. 2014. *Storytelling in teaching Chinese as a second/foreign language. Linguistics and Literature Studies.* 2(1)29-38.

Nickerson, S. 2007-8. Role-play: An often misused active learning strategy. *Essays on Teaching Excellence.* 19(5):1-6.

Nicholas, B., Rossiter, M. & Abbott, M. 2011. The power of story in the ESL classroom. *The Canadian Modern Language Review.* 67(2):247-268.

Nieuwenhuis, J. 2007. Qualitative research design and data gathering techniques. In *First steps in research.* K. Maree, Ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik. 70–92.

Nisbet, J. & Watt, J. 1984. Case study: In *Conducting Small-Scale Investigation in Educational Management.* J. Bell, T. Bush, A. Fox, J. Goodey & G. Gouling, Eds. London: Harper & Row. 79-92.

Nisbett, R.E. 2003. The geography of thought: How Asians and westerners think differently and why? Amazon: The free Press.

Norgate, K. n.d. Talking in class: Storytelling in the classroom. Available: alt.childrenandarts.org.uk (2014, October 19).

Nunan, D. 1991. *Language teaching methodology: a textbook for teachers.* Prentice: Hall International.

Nunan, D. 1996. Hidden voices: insiders' perspectives on classroom interaction. In *Voices from the Language Classroom.* K.M. Bailey & D. Nunan, Eds. Cambridge University Press: USA. 41-56.

Nunan, D. 1999. *Second language teaching and learning. University of Hong Kong.* USA: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

Nunan, D. & K. Bailey. 2009. *Exploring second language classroom research.* Boston: Heinle.

Nurmasitah, S. 2010. A study of classroom interaction characteristics in a Geography class conducted in English: The case at year ten of an immersion class in Sma N2 Semarang. Ph.D. Dissertation. Semarang: Diponegoro University.

Onafowara, L.L. 2005. Teacher efficacy issues in the practice of novice teachers. *Educational Research Quarterly/ Pro Quest Educational Journals.* 28(4):34-43.

Oxford paperback Dictionary, Thesaurus, and Word Power Guide. 20001. Ed. C. Soanes, A. Spooner & S. Hawker. New York: Oxford University Press.

Pajares, F. 1996. Self-efficacy beliefs in academic settings. *Review of Educational Research.* 66(4):543-578.

Pajares, F. 1997. Current directions in self-efficacy research. In *Advance in motivation and achievement.* M. Maehr & P.R. Pintrich, Eds. Greenwich, CT: Jai Press. 10:1-49.

Pajares, F. & Schunk, D.H. 2001. Self-beliefs and school success: Self-efficacy, self-concept, and school achievement. In *Self-perception.* R. Riding & S. Rayner, Eds. London: Ablex Publishing.

Pajares, F. 2002. Overview of social cognitive theory and of self-efficacy. Available: http://www.emory.edu/EDUCATION/mpf/eff.html (2014, December 7).

Palincsar, A. S. 1998. Social constructivist perspectives on teaching and learning. *Annual Reviews Psychology.* 49:345-375.

Palmer, R. n.d. *Bringing sociocultural theory into classroom practice: a workshop.* Available: http://tht-japan.org/publications/2010/033_039_palmer.pdf (2014, March 20).

Parker, W. 2003. *Teaching democracy: Unity and diversity in public life.* New York: Teachers College Press.

Patrikakou, E.N. 2008. *The power of parent involvement: Evidence, ideas, and tools for student success.* Center on Innovation & Improvement: University of DePaul.

Pesola, C.A. 1991. Culture in the elementary foreign language classroom. *Foreign Language Annals.* 24:331-346.

Piaget. J, 1952. *The origin and of intelligence in children.* New York: International University Press, Inc.

Piaget, J. 1953. *Logic and psychology.* Manchester: Manchester University Press.

Piaget, J. 1954. *Intelligence and affectivity: Their relation during child development.* Palo Alto, CA: Annual Reviews.

Piaget, J. 1971. *Genetic epistemology.* New York: W.W Norton.

Pineau, E.L. 1994. Teaching is performance reconceptualising a problematic metaphor. *American Educational Research Journal. 311*(31):3-25

Pinnel, G.S & Jaggar, A.M. 2003. Oral language: Speaking and listening in elementary classrooms. In *Handbook of research on teaching the English language arts.* J. Flood, D, Squire & J. Jensen, Eds. 2nd Ed. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaun.

Pintrich, P.R. 2003. A motivational science perspective on the role of student motivation in learning and teaching contexts. *Journal of Educational Psychology.* 95:667-686.

Piper, H. & Simons, H. 2006. Ethical responsibility in social research. In *Research methods in the social sciences.* B. Someck & C. Lewin, Eds. London: Sage Publications. 56–63.

Prentice, M. 1998. Story-telling in the classroom and across the whole school. In *An introduction to oracy: Frameworks for talk.* J. Holderness & B. Lalljee, Eds. Cassel: London.

Polit, D.F. & Beck, C.T. 2010. *Essentials of nursing research: Appraising evidence for nursing practice.* Philadelphia: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins.

Poorman, P.B. 2002. Biography and role-playing: Fostering empathy in abnormal psychology. *Teaching of Psychology.* 29(1)32-36.

Powell, K. C. & Kalina, C.J. 2009. Cognitive and social constructivism: Developing tools for an effective classroom. *ProQuest Educational Journals.* 130(2):241-250.

Protheroe, N. 2008. *Teacher efficacy: What is it and does it matter? A teacher sense of efficacy can lead to gains in the classroom.* Yellow Dog Productions/Getty. 4-45.

Quariento, W. & Morley. J. 2001. Text and task authenticity in the EFL classroom. *ELT Journal.* 55(4):347-353.

Queini, H., Bhous, R. & Nabhani, M. 2008. Impact of read-aloud in the classroom: a case study. *The reading matrix.* 8(1):139-157.

Rad, N.F. n.d. Evaluation of English students' beliefs about learning English as Foreign Language: a case of Kerman Asad University. *Proceedings of the 3rd International Conference on ICT for language learning.* 11-12 November. Available: http://www.pixel-online.net/ICT4LL2010/ (2014, July 17).

Ravitch, S.M. & Riggan, M. 2012. *How conceptual framework guide research.* Sage Publications, Inc: Los Angeles.

Relich, J.D. Debus, R.L. & Walker, R. 1986. The mediating role of attribution and self-efficacy variables or treatment effects on achievement outcomes. *Contemporary Educational Psychology.* 11:647-658.

Republic of South Africa. 1996. *The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act, No. 108 of 1996.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

Richardson, V. 1997. Constructivist teaching and teacher education: Theory and practice. In *Constructivist teacher education: Building new understandings.* V. Richardson, Ed. Washington, DD: Falmer Press. (3-14).

Rivers, W.M. 1987. Interaction as a key to teaching language for communication. In *Interactive Language Teaching.* W.M. Rivers, Ed. Cambridge University Press: New York.

Rogers, M. 2012. Contextualising theories and practical of bricolage research. *The Qualitative Report.* 17(7):1-7.

Roof, L.M. & Kreutter, C.A. 2010. An interactive storytelling puzzle: Building a positive environment in a second language classroom. *Journal for Teacher Research.* 12(1):1-10.

Routman, R. 2003. *Reading essentials: The specifics you need to teach reading well.* Portsmouth: Heinemann.

Rudham, R. 2005. A noisy classroom is a thinking classroom: Speaking and listening in year 7 history. (Unpublished).

Russel, G.M. & Kelly, N.H. 2002. Research as interacting processes: Implications for reflectivity. *Qualitative Social Research Sozialforschung.* 3(3)1-18.

Ryan, H. 2013. The effect of classroom environment on student learning. Honours Theses. Western Michigan University.

Sampson, H. 2012. Navigating the waves: the usefulness of a pilot in qualitative research. *Qualitative Research.* 4(3)383-402.

Santoro, L.E., Chard, D.J., Howard, L. & Baker, S.K. 2008. Making the very most classroom read-alouds to promote comprehension and vocabulary. *The Reading Teacher.* 61(5):396-408.

Saskatchewan, Ministry of Education. 2013. Learning resources evaluation guidelines. Government of Saskatchewan.

Schunk, D.H. 1984. Sequential attributional feedback and children's achievement behaviours. *Journal of Educational Psychology.* 76:1159-1169.

Schunk, D.H. 1984. Enhancing self-efficacy and achievement through rewards and goals: Motivational and informational effects. *Journal of Educational Research.* 78:29-34.

Schunk, D.H. & Pajares, F. 2001.The development of academic self-efficacy. In *Development of Achievement Motivation.* A. Wigfield & J. Eccles, Eds. San Diego: Academic Press.

Schwandt, T.A. 2001. *Dictionary of qualitative inquiry.* 3rd ed. Sage Publication: Los Angeles.

Scotland, J. 2012. Exploring the philosophical underpinnings of research: relating ontology and epistemology to the methodology and methods of the scientific, interpretive, and critical research paradigms. *English Language Teaching.* 5(9):9-16.

Scott, S. & Palincsar, A. 2013. *Sociocultural theory.* Available: www.education.com/reference/article/sociocultural-theory/ (2014, March 19).

Seale, C. 1999. *The quality of qualitative research.* Sage Publications: London.

Seedhouse, P. 1996. Classroom interaction: Possibilities and impossibilities. *ELT Journal.* 50(1):16-24.

Shamali, F. (2011). *Using storytelling in teaching the four language skills.* The 4th Virtual Round Table Conference, 25-27 March.

Shanahan, T. 1997. Reading-writing relationships, thematic units, inquiry learning. In pursuit of effective integrated literacy instruction. *Reading Teacher.* 51(1):12-19.

Shayer, M. 2002. Not just Piaget, not just Vygotsky and certainly not Vygotsky as an alternative to Piaget. In *Learning intelligence, cognitive acceleration across the curriculum from 5 to 15 years.* M. Shayer, Ed. UK: Open University.

Shenton, A.K. 2004. Strategies for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research projects. *Education for Information.* IOS Press. 22:63-75.

Shwartz, Y., Weizman, A., Fortus, D., Sutherland, L., Merrit, J. & Krajcik, J. 2009. Talking Science: Classroom discussions and their role in inquiry-based learning environment. *The Science Teacher.* 76(5)

Silver, A. 1999. Play: a fundamental equalizer for ESL children. *TESL Canada Journal.* 16(2):62-69.

Sima, J. n.d. Storytelling and Science – What a concept. Media Spectrum. Fitzgerald public schools. Warren, M1.

Sinclair, M. 2007. A guide to understanding theoretical and conceptual frameworks. *Evidence Based Midwifery.* 5(2):39-77.

Singh, D. & Rajput, P. 2013. A practical guide for training colleges' teachers. *International. Journal of Educational Research and Technology.* 4(4):15-17.

Sipe, A. n.d. Lesson closure with exemplar 40 ways to leave a lesson. Grandview school district. Grandview WA. Available: www.eduref.org/Virtual/Lessons?Guide.shtml (2014, September 19).

Slavin, R.E. 2007. *Effective programs in elementary mathematics: A best-evidence synthesis.* Institute of Education Sciences. US: Department of Education.

Smart, K.L., Witt, C. & Scott, J. P. 2012. *Toward learner-centered teaching: An Inductive Approach Business Communication Quarterly.* 75(4):392-403.

Snow, C.E., Burns, M.S. & Griffin, P. 1998. *Preventing reading difficulties in young children.* Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

Speech and Debate Union. n.d. Teachers' guide to introducing debate in the classroom. Newfoundland and Labrador.

Stake, R.E. 1995. *The art of case study research.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Stage, F., Muller, P. Kinzie, J. & Simmons, A. 1998. Creating learning centered classrooms. What does learning theory have to say? Washington, DC: George Washington University. Available: chiron.valdosta.edu/whuitt/files/collegelearn.html (2015, March 20).

Stern, H.H. 1992. *Issues and options in language teaching.* Oxford: OUP.

Stevick, E.W. 1989. Success with foreign languages: Seven who achieved it and what worked for them. C.N. Candlin, Ed. Prentice Hall International: New York.

Stickland, R. 1998. Questioning, arguing, and reasoning. In *An introduction to oracy: Frameworks for talk*. J. Holderness & B. Lalljee, Eds. Cassel: London.

Strauss, A. & Cobin, J. 1998. *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory.* 2nded. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Strauss, L. 1966. T*he savage mind.* Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Strickland, D.S & Taylor, D.   1989. Family storybook reading: Implications for children, families, and curriculum. In *Emerging literacy: Young children learn to read and write.* D.S. Strickland & L.M. Morrow, Eds. Newark, DE: International reading association. 27-34.

Strydom, H. 2005. Ethical aspects of research in the social sciences and human services professions. In *Research at grassroots: For the social sciences and human services professions.* A.S. De Vos, Ed. 2nd ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik. 56-69.

Surgenor, P. 2010. Teaching toolkit: How students learn 4. UCD Teaching and learning /Resources. Dublin. www.UCDTLT0016 (2015, January 10).

Swain, M. & Lapkin, S. 1998. Interaction and second language learning: Two adolescent French immersion students working together. *Modern Language Journal.* 82(3):320-337.

Tannen, D. 1998. Talking voice that is so sweet: The poetic nature of conversation. Social Research. 65(3):631-651.

Tannenbaum, R.P. 2013. Dialogue, discussion as democracy in the Social Studies classroom. *Social Studies Research and Practice.* 8(3):99-109.

Taole, M.J. 2013. Teachers' conceptions of the curriculum review process. *Int.J.Edu. Sc.* 5(1):39-46.

Taylor, S. & Coetzee, M. 2013. Estimating the impact of language of instruction in South African primary schools: A fixed effects approach. Stellenbosch Economic Working papers: 21/13. Stellenbosch, South Africa: Department of economics, Stellenbosch University.

Taylor, J. & Walford, R. 1972. *Simulation in the classroom.* London: Penguin.

Tschannen-Moran, M., Hoy, A.W. & Hoy, W.K. 1998. Teacher efficacy: Its meaning and measure. *Review of Educational Research.* 68(2):202-248.

Teachers college reading and writing project. 2009. Interactive read aloud with accountable talk. https://www.google.co.za/search?site=&oq=Teachers+college+reading (2014, February 2).

Teaching and Learning. n.d. Classroom interaction. Available: www.tllg.unisa.edu.au>gllt_ch3 (2013, June 18).

Teaching methods. Available: http://www.ask.com/web-question/what-are-teaching-methods (2014, August 21).

Teague, R. 2000. Social constructivism & Social Studies. https://moodle.org/pluginfile.php/401/mod_forum/.../SocialCo.pdf (2015, July 9).

Teahan, J.E. 1975. Role playing and group experience to facilitate attitude changes among black and white police officers. *Journal of Social Issues.* 31(1):35-45.

Teale, W. H. & Sulzby, E. 1987. Literacy acquisition in early childhood: The roles of access and mediation in story book readings. In *The future of literacy in a changing world.* D.A Wagner, Ed. Tarrytown, NY: Pergamon.

Terre Blanche, M. & Kelly, K. 2002. Interpretive methods. In *Research in practice.* M. Terre Blanche, K. Durrheim & D. Painter, Eds. 2nd ed. Cape Town: UCT Press. 123-144.

Terre Blanche, M., Durrheim, K. & Painter, D. 2002. *Research in practice.* 2nd ed. Cape Town: UCT Press.

Thompson, D. Andreae, P. Bell, T & Robins, A. 2013. The role of teachers in implementing curriculum changes. *SIGSE.* 13:1-6

Thornbury, S. 2005. *How to teach speaking.* England: Pearson Educational Limited.

Tingting, Q. 2011. *A comparison between the text-based approach and the dictionary-based approach of vocabulary learning in a Chinese University.* Kristiansand University: Sweden.

Transnational Teaching Quick Guide. 2014. *Teaching practice: Engaging students through learning activities.* RMIT University.

Trapp, R. 1986. The role of disagreement in interactional argument. *Journal of the American Forensic Association.* 23:23-41.

Tschannen-Moran, M., Hoy, A.W. & Hoy, W.K. 1998. Teacher efficacy: Its meaning and measure. *Review of Educational Research.* 68(2):202-248.

Tsou, W. 2005. Improving speaking skills through instruction in oral classroom participation. *Foreign Language Annals.* 38(1):46-55.

Tulung, G.J. 2008. Communicative task-generated oral discourse in second language: A case study of peer interaction and non-native teacher talk in English foreign language classroom. Ph.D. Thesis. University of Ottawa.

Turuk, M. C. 2008. The relevance and implications of Vygotsky's sociocultural theory in the second language classroom. *ARECLS.* 5:244-262.

Ültanir, E. 2012. An epistemological glance at the constructivist approach: Constructivist learning in Dewey, Piaget, and Montessori. *International Journal of Instruction.* 5(2):195-212.

University of South Africa Policy on Research Ethics. 2014. *Policy on research ethics.* University of South Africa.

Valentine, J.C., Du Boise, D.L& Cooper, H. 2004. The relation between self-beliefs and academic achievement: A meta-analytic review. *Educational Psychologist.* 39(2):111-133.

Valkanova, Y & Watts, M. 2007. Digital storytelling in a science classroom: reflective self-learning in action. *Early Child Development and Care.* 177(6-7):793-807.

Vanderwoude, A. 2012. The teaching toolbox: Reconciling theory, practice and language in a teacher training course. In *English teaching forum.* M. Koller & T. Glass, Ed. 50(4):1-8.

Van Ments, M. 1983. *The effective use of role-play. A handbook for teachers and trainers.* Kogan Page LTD: London.

Van Ments, M. 1999. *The effective use of role-play.* London: Kogan Page.

Van Wyk, M.M. 2007. The use of cooperative learning in Economics in the Further Education and training Phase in the Free State Province. Ph.D. Thesis. University of Free State: South Africa.

Victorian Institute of Teaching Specialist Area Guidelines. 2008. Value learning, value teaching. (Unpublished).

Vihar, P. n.d. *Life skills education and CCE. Class IX & X.* Central board of secondary education. Delhi: India.

Vin-Mbah, F.I. 2012. Learning and teaching methodology. *Journal of Educational and Social Science Research.* 2(4):111-118.

Virginia Department of Education. 2002. *English standards of learning for Virginia public schools. Common* wealth Virginia: Board of directors.

Vygotsky, L. 1978. Interaction between learning and development. From: Mind and Society. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press. Reprinted in: Readings on the development of children. M. Gauvain & M. Cole. 1997. 2nd ed. W.H, Freeman and company: New York. 79-91.

Wadsworth, R.M. 2008. Using read alouds in today's classrooms. Read alouds benefit children of all ages and in all subjects. *Leadership Compass.* 5(3):1-3.

Walker, J.E. 1991. *Coping with noncompliance in the classroom: A positive approach for teachers.* Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.

Walsh, S. 2012. Conceptualising classroom interactional competence. *Research on Youth and Language.* 6(1):1-4.

Wannarka, R. & Ruhl, K. 2008. Seating arrangements that promote positive academic and behavioural outcomes: a review of empirical research. *Support for Learning.* 23(2):89-93.

Weber, B.J. & Omotami, L.M. 1994.The power of believing. *The executive Educator.* 16(9):35-38.

Wertsch, J. V. 1979. From social interaction to higher psychological process: A clarification and application of Vygotsky's theory. *Human Development.* 22:1-22.

Wertsch, J. V. 1985. *Vygotsky and the social formation of mind.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Wesche, M.B. & Skehan, P. 2002. Communicative teaching, content-based instruction, and task-based learning. In *The Oxford handbook of applied linguistics.* R. Kaplan, Ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 207-228.

Whitmer, P. 2011. Classroom interaction. www.answerbag.com/q_view/2442807 (2013, November 19).

Wilkinson, L.C. & Calculator, S. 1982. Requests and responses in peer-directed readings groups. *American Educational Research Journal.* 19):107-122.

Wisener, S.L.G. 2008. English language learners: Perceptions of professional collaborative study group. Ph.D. Dissertation. University of Alabama.

White, C.J. 2002. *Research methods and techniques.* Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Wojciechowicz, L. 2003. The power of storytelling: Eight reasons for infusing storytelling into your curriculum, South Mountain Community College Storytelling Institute.

Wolters, C. & Benzon, M. 2013. Assessing and predicting college students' use of strategies for the self-regulation of motivation. *Journal of Experimental Education.* (81):199-221

Wong, C. 2012. A case study of college level second language teachers' perceptions and implementations of communicative language teaching. *The Professional Educator.* 36(2):1-17.

Woodhouse, J. 2008. Storytelling: A telling approach in healthcare education. *The Narrative Practitioner Conference N.E.W.I.* 23rd June. Wrexham: UK. 4-6.

Woolfolk, A.E., Rosoff, B & Hoy, W.K. 1990. Teachers' sense of efficacy and their beliefs about managing students. *Teaching & Teacher Education.* 6:137-148.

Woolfolk, A.E. & Hoy, W.K. 1990. Prospective teachers' sense of efficacy and beliefs about control. *Journal of Educational Psychology.* 82:81-91.

World School debating Championship. 2011. Available: https://wsdctournament.worldpress.com/ (2015, July 13).

Yang, J. 2011. *Storytelling as a teaching method in ESL classrooms.* Kristianstad University: School of Teacher Education English.

Yeasmin, S., Rahman, K.F. 2012. Triangulation research method as the tool of social science research. *BUP Journal.* 1(1):154-163.

Yee, J. & Bremner, G. 2011. Methodological bricolage: What does it tell us about design? *Proceedings of the Doctoral Design Education Conference.* 23-25 May. Hong Kong Polytechnic: Hong Kong.

Yin, R.K. 1989. *Case study research design and methods.* Sage: Newbury Park.

Yu, R. 2008. Interaction in EFL classes. *Asian Social Science.* 4(4):48-50.

Yu, E.K. 2011. Introducing dialogue back into the classroom: blending narrative storytelling in Social studies. Ph.D. Dissertation. Boise State University.

Zare, P. & Othman, M. 2013. Classroom debate a systematic teaching/learning approach. *Applied Sciences Journal.* 28(11):1506-1513.

Zazkis, R. & Liljedahl, P. 2009. *Teaching Mathematics as storytelling*. Sense Publishers: Rotterdam/Taipei.

Zhang, Y. & Wang, J. 2012. The elaboration of cultivating learners' English communicative competence in China. *English Language Teaching.* 5(12):111-120.

APPENDIX A

GAUTENG DEPARTMENT OF BASIC EDUCATION APPROVAL LETTER

GAUTENG PROVINCE
Department Education
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

For administrative use:
Reference no: D2015/367

GDE RESEARCH APPROVAL LETTER

Date:	9 January 2015
Validity of Research Approval:	9 February 2015 to 2 October 2015
Name of Researcher:	Maja M.M.
Address of Researcher:	4 Aalwyn Street; Cresslawn; Kempton Park; 1619
Telephone and Fax Number:	084 479 7293
Email address:	malewa.maja@gmail.com
Research Topic:	Classroom interaction as a teaching approach in English as First Additional Language to enhance Learners' Communicative Competence
Number and type of schools:	THREE Primary Schools
District/s/HO	Ekurhuleni North

Re: Approval in Respect of Request to Conduct Research

This letter serves to indicate that approval is hereby granted to the above-mentioned researcher to proceed with research in respect of the study indicated above. The onus rests with the researcher to negotiate appropriate and relevant time schedules with the school/s and/or offices involved. A separate copy of this letter must be presented to the Principal, SGB and the relevant District/Head Office Senior Manager confirming that permission has been granted for the research to be conducted. However participation is VOLUNTARY.

The following conditions apply to GDE research. The researcher has agreed to and may proceed with the above study subject to the conditions listed below being met. Approval may be withdrawn should any of the conditions listed below be flouted:

2015/01/13

1

Making education a societal priority

Office of the Director: Knowledge Management and Research
9th Floor, 111 Commissioner Street, Johannesburg, 2001
P.O. Box 7710, Johannesburg, 2000 Tel: (011) 355 0504
Email: David.Makhado@gauteng.gov.za
Website: www.education.gpg.gov.za

DISTRICT LETTER TO SEEK PERMISSION

4 Aalwyn Street

Cresslawn

Kempton Park

1619

The District Director

Ekurhuleni North

Manpen Building

78 Howard Avenue

Benoni

Dear Sir/Madam

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH STUDY

I am a registered student in the **Department of Curriculum and Instructional Studies** at the **University of South Africa**. I am currently doing a **Doctorate of Education in Curriculum Studies** under the guidance and supervision of **Professor Michael Van Wyk.** Writing a research report is one of the requirements for the completion of this degree. My research topic is: **Classroom interaction in teaching English First Additional Language learners in the Intermediate Phase**

I hereby request your permission to conduct this research in **three primary schools** in your district. I chose the Intermediate Phase (Grade 4-6) because this phase is the preparation of English proficiency for further grades or higher education. I also chose this phase because English as Language of Learning and Teaching is implemented. I wish to interview the (Grade 4-6) English teachers and a group of six Grade 6 learners of mixed learning abilities. The approximate number of participants (teachers) will be **nine** and **eighteen** Grade 6 learners.

The study will also involve photographs (photographing the setting of the classroom with no learners); audio videotaping **(video recording one-on-one and focus**

group interviews); and observations (observing the **activities, strategies employed, classroom environment, setting, interaction between the teacher and the learners, teacher to learner or group, learner to learner and learners to learners during English lessons. Open-**ended questions will be asked during the interviews. Observationswill take part during the normal English class period for 30 minutes and the interviews are expected to last for 45 minutes after school. Being in this study is voluntary and under no obligation the participants should consent to participation. If they decide to take part, they will be given information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a consent form. They are free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason. There will be no reimbursement for participation in the study. The study will assist teachers, practitioners, and academics to emphasise and strengthen the practice of English as First Additional Language in the classrooms to enhance learners' communicative competence. Names will not be recorded anywhere and no one will be able to connect them to the answers they give. The answers will be given a fictitious code numbers or pseudonyms will be referred to in this way in the data, any publications, or other research reporting methods such as conference proceedings. The answers may be reviewed by people responsible for making sure that research is done properly, including the transcriber, external coder, and members of the Research Ethics Committee.

If you would like to be informed of the final research findings, please contact **Margaret Maja** on **084 479 7293** or **malewa.maja@gmail.com.** The findings are accessible for publication after completion of the study. Should you require any further information or want to contact the researcher about any aspect of this study, please contact the above mentioned researcher.Should you have concerns about the way in which the research has been conducted, you may contact my supervisor, **Professor Michael Van Wyk** at **012 429 6201** or **vwykmm@unisa.ac.za**. Alternatively, contact the research ethics chairperson **Dr M Claassens at mcdtc@netactive.co.za**of the **College of Education Research Ethics Review Committee**.

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet.

Yours Faithfully

Margaret Malewaneng Maja (Mrs)

SCHOOLS LETTER TO SEEK PERMISSION

4 Aalwyn Street

Cresslawn

Kempton Park

1619

The Principal

Mashemong Primary School

Tembisa

1628

Dear Sir

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT MASHEMONG PRIMARY SCHOOL.

I, **Margaret Malewaneng Maja** am doing research with **Professor Michael Van Wyk,** in the **Department of Curriculum and Instructional Studies** towards a **D Ed at the University of South Africa.** We are inviting you to participate in a study entitled: **Classroom interaction in teaching English First Additional Language learners in the Intermediate Phase**

The aim of the study is to identify and design components that should be included in a framework for the use of a classroom interaction-based approach as a teaching strategy in English as First Additional Language to enhance learners' communicative competence in schools. The study will assist teachers, practitioners, and academics to emphasise and strengthen the practice of English as First Additional Language in the classrooms. Your institution has been selected as I know you are using English as Language of Learning and Teaching in Intermediate Phase. The study will entail the **Intermediate Phase English teachers (one grade 4, one grade 5, and one grade 6 teachers).** I will also request teachers to assist in sampling **a group of six Grade 6 learners of mixed learning abilities for the focus group interview**.

The study will also involve photographing (photographing the setting of the classroom with no learners); audio videotaping **(video recording one-on-one and**

focus group interviews); and observations (observing the **activities, strategies employed, classroom environment, setting, interaction between the teacher and the learners, teacher to learner or group, learner to learner and learners to learners during English lessons. Open-**ended questions will be asked during the interviews. Observations will take part during the normal English class period for 20 minutes and the interviews are expected to last for 45 minutes after school. Being in this study is voluntary and under no obligation the participants should consent to participation. If teachers and learners decide to take part, they will be given information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a consent form. The participation is voluntary participants are free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason. There will be no reimbursement for participation in the study.

I want to assure you that names will not be recorded anywhere and no one will be able to connect them to the answers they give. The answers will be given a fictitious code numbers or pseudonyms will be referred to in this way in the data, any publications, or other research reporting methods such as conference proceedings. The answers may be reviewed by people responsible for making sure that research is done properly, including the transcriber, external coder, and members of the Research Ethics Committee. There are no foreseeable risks for taking part in this study.

If you would like to be informed of the final research findings, please contact **Margaret Maja** on **084 479 7293** or **malewa.maja@gmail.com.** The findings are accessible for publication after completion of the study. Should you require any further information or want to contact the researcher about any aspect of this study, please contact the above mentioned researcher.Should you have concerns about the way in which the research has been conducted, you may contact my supervisor, **Professor Michael Van Wyk** at **012 429 6201** or **vwykmm@unisa.ac.za**. Alternatively, contact the research ethics chairperson **Dr M Claassens at** <u>mcdtc@netactive.co.za</u>of the **College of Education Research Ethics Review Committee**.

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet

Yours Faithfully

Margaret Malewaneng Maja (Mrs)

LETTER TO THE PROSPECTIVE PARTICIPANT (TEACHERS)

4 Aalwyn Street

Cresslawn

Kempton Park

1619

Dear Prospective Participant

My name is **Margaret Malewaneng Maja** and I am doing research with **Professor Michael Van Wyk,** in the **Department of Curriculum and Instructional Studies** towards a **Doctor of Education** at the **University of South Africa.** We are inviting you to participate in a study entitled **'Classroom interaction in teaching English First Additional Language learners in the Intermediate Phase'**
The purpose of the study is to identify and design components that should be included in a framework for the use of a classroom interaction-based approach as a teaching strategy in English as First Additional Language to enhance learners' communicative competence in schools.I am conducting this research to find out how do Intermediate Phase teachers implement and interact in a classroom interaction-based approachwith the learners in English as First Additional Language?

I chose the Intermediate Phase (Grade 4-6) of your school because this phase is the preparation of English proficiency for further grades or higher education. I also chose your school because I know is using English as Language of Learning and Teaching in Intermediate Phase. I wish to observe the English classes and interview the English teachers and a group of six Grade 6 learners of mixed learningabilities. The approximate number of participants will be nine. I chose you because of your experience and excellencies. I have known you since I attended workshops with you and realized that you are the one who can provide suitable information for this study.

The study involves audio videotaping, observations, focus groups for Grade 6 learners and one-on-one interviews for teachers. Open ended questions will be

asked during the interviews. The observations will take part during the normal English class period and the interview is expected to last for 45 minutes after school. I request permission to video record the above mention activities except the observations. I also ask permission for photographing the classroom setting with no learners. Being in this study is voluntary and you are under no obligation to consent to participation. If you do decide to take part, you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a written consent form. You are free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason. The study will assist teachers, practitioners, and academics to emphasise and strengthen the practice of English as First Additional Language in the classrooms to enhance learners' communicative competence.

Your name will not be recorded anywhere and no one will be able to connect you to the answers you give. Your answers will be given a fictitious code number or a pseudonym and you will be referred to in this way in the data, any publications, or other research reporting methods such as conference proceedings. Your answers may be reviewed by people responsible for making sure that research is done properly, including the transcriber, external coder, and members of the Research Ethics Committee. Otherwise, records that identify you will be available only to people working on the study, unless you give permission for other people to see the records. Your anonymous data may be used for other purposes, e.g. research report, journal articles, conference presentation. Hard copies of your answers will be stored by the researcher for a period of five years in a locked filing cabinet at home for future research or academic purposes; electronic information will be stored on a password protected computer. Future use of the stored data will be subject to further Research Ethics Review and approval if applicable.

This study has received written approval from the Research Ethics Committee of the College of Education, UNISA. A copy of the approval letter can be obtained from the researcher if you so wish.

If you would like to be informed of the final research findings, please contact **Margaret Maja** on **084 479 7293** or **malewa.maja@gmail.com.** The findings are accessible for publication after completion of the study. Should you require any further information or want to contact the researcher about any aspect of this study,

please contact the above mentioned researcher.Should you have concerns about the way in which the research has been conducted, you may contact my supervisor, **Professor Michael Van Wyk** at **012 429 6201** or **vwykmm@unisa.ac.za**. Alternatively, contact the research ethics chairperson **Dr M Claassens at** mcdtc@netactive.co.zaof the **College of Education Research Ethics Review Committee**.

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet and for participating in this study.

Yours Faithfully

Margaret Malewaneng Maja (Mrs)

APPENDIX E

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THE STUDY

I, _____ (participant name), confirm that the person asking my consent to take part in this research has told me about the nature, procedure, potential benefits and anticipated inconvenience of participation.

I have read (or had it explained to me) and understood the study as explained in the information sheet.

I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and am prepared to participate in the study.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without penalty.

I am aware that the findings of this study will be anonymously processed into a research report, journal publications and/or conference proceedings.

I agree to the recording of the interviews.

I have been assured that I will receive a signed copy of the informed consent agreement.
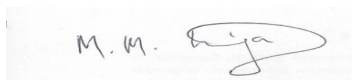
Name & Surname of participant (print)   Name & Surname of researcher (print)

                                          Margaret Malewaneng Maja

---   ---

Signature of participant   Signature of researcher

                                          M.M. Maja

Date: ---------------------------------   Date: ---

APPENDIX F

CONSENT LETTER REQUESTING PARENTAL CONSENT FOR PARTICIPATION OF MINORS IN RESEARCH PROJECT

4 Aalwyn Street

Cresslawn

Kempton Park

1619

Dear Parent

Your child is invited to participate in a study entitled **'Classroom interaction in teaching English First Additional Language learners in the Intermediate Phase.'** I am undertaking this study as part of my doctoral research at the University of South Africa. The purpose of the study is to identify and design components that should be included in a framework for the use of a classroom interaction-based approach as a teaching strategy in English as First Additional Language to enhance learners' communicative competence in schools and the possible benefits of the study are the improvement of learners' English proficiency. I am requesting permission to include your child in this study because the Intermediate Phase (Grade 4-6) is the preparation of English proficiency for further grades or higher education. I also request permission to video record the process. I expect to have seventeen (17) other children participating in the study. If you allow your child to participate, I shall request him/her to take part in a focus group interview and the process will be video recorded.

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and can be identified with your child will remain confidential and will only be disclosed with your permission. The responses will not be linked to your child's name or the school's name in any written or verbal report based on this study. Such a report will be used for research purposes only. There are no foreseeable risks to your child by participating in the study. Your child will receive no direct benefit from participating in the study; however, the possible benefits to education are to enhance learners'

communicative competence in English language. Again, you will not receive any type of payment for your child participation in this study.

Your child's participation in this study is voluntary. Your child may decline to participate or to withdraw from participation at any time. Withdrawal or refusal to participate will not affect him/her in any way. Similarly you can agree to allow your child to be in the study now and change your mind later without any penalty.

The observation in the study will take place during regular classroom activities and the interviews will be after school with the prior approval of the school and your child's teacher. However, if you do not want your child to participate an alternative activity will be available. In addition, should your child agree to participate in the study, you and your child will also be asked to sign the consent form which accompanies this letter. If your child does not wish to participate in the study, he or she will not be included and there will be no penalty. The information gathered from the study and your child's participation in the study will be stored securely on a password locked computer in my locked office cupboard for 5 years after the study. Thereafter, records will be erased.

If you have questions about this study please ask me or my study supervisor, **Prof Micheal van Wyk, Department of Curriculum and Instructional Studies, College of Education, University of South Africa.** My contact number is **084 479 7293** and my email is **malewa.maja@gmail.com**. My supervisor's email is **vwykmm@unisa.ac.za.** Permission for the study has already been given by the **Department of Basic Education and the Ethics Committee of the College of Education, UNISA**.

You are making a decision about allowing your child to participate in this study. Your signature below indicates you have read the information provided above and have decided to allow him or her to participate in the study. You may keep a copy of this letter.

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet.

Yours Faithfully

APPENDIX G
PARENTAL CONSENT FOR CHILD PARTICIPATION

As a parent, you are making a decision about allowing your child to participate in the study. Your signature below indicates you have read the information provided in the letter and have decided to allow him or her to participate in the study.

Name of child (Please print): ---

Name of parent/guardian (Please print) _____
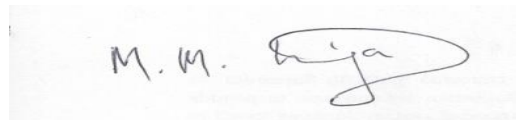
Signature of parent/guardian (Please print) _____

Date: --

Name of researcher (Please print)   Signature of researcher
(Please print)

Margaret Malewaneng Maja

A LETTER REQUESTING ASSENT FROM LEARNERS IN A PRIMARY SCHOOL TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH PROJECT

4 Aalwyn Street

Cresslawn

Kempton Park

1619

Dear prospective learner

I am doing a study on '**Classroom interaction in teaching English First Additional Language learners in the Intermediate Phase**' of my studies at the University of South Africa. Your principal has given me permission to do this study in your school. I would like to invite you to be a very special part of my study. I am doing this study so that I can find ways that your teachers can use to teach you better. This will help you and many other learners of your age in different schools.

This letter is to explain to you what I would like you to do. There may be some words you do not know in this letter. You may ask me or any other adult to explain any of these words that you do not know or understand. You may take a copy of this letter home to think about my invitation and talk to your parents about this before you decide if you want to be in this study. In your parents' letter, I asked permission to interview you and to sign an agreement form. There are no bad things or things that can make you feel bad when taking part in the study and also there is no payment for participation.

I would like to ask you questions regarding your English classroom. I want to assure you that there is no right and wrong answer. What you have to do is to give your feelings (opinions). You are allowed to discuss the questions with your partner, and give your opinions even if you differ from your partner or the group. Everyone's opinions' is welcomed. The interview process will be video recorded in order to remind me what you have said during the interview. I will not share your answers with your teachers or parents. The interview will take about 45 minutes.

I will write a report on the study but I will not use your name in the report or say anything that will let other people know who you are. You do not have to be part of

this study, if you don't want to take part. If you choose to be in the study, you may stop to take part at any time. You may tell me if you do not wish to answer any of my questions. No one will blame or criticise you. When I am finished with my study, I shall return to your school to give a short talk about some of the helpful and interesting things I found out in my study. I shall invite you to come and listen to my talk.

If you decide to be part of my study, you will be asked to sign the form on the next page. If you have any other questions about this study, you can talk to me or you can have your parent or another adult call me at 084 479 7293 or email me @ majam@unisa.ac.za. Do not sign the form until you have all your questions answered and understand what I would like you to do.

Do not sign this form if you have any questions. Ask your questions first and ensure that someone answers those questions.

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet and for participating in this study.

Yours Faithfully

Margaret Malewaneng Maja (Mrs)

APPENDIX I

WRITTEN ASSENT

I have read this letter which asks me to be part of a study at my school. I have understood the information about the study and I know what I will be asked to do. I am willing to be in the study.

Learner's name (Please print)   Learner's signature

--   ---

Date: --

Witness's name (Please print)   Witness's signature

--   ---

Date: --

(The witness is over 18 years old and present when signed.)

Parent/guardian's name (Please print)
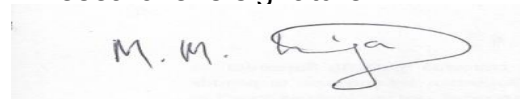
       Parent/guardian's signature:

--   ---

Date: --

Researcher's name (Please print)   Researcher's signature:

<u>Margaret Malewaneng Maja</u>

Date: --

APPENDIX J

OBSERVATION PROTOCOL

Study: Classroom interaction in teaching English First Additional Language learners in the Intermediate Phase

Setting: Classroom   Observer: Maja M.M

Role of observer: English class and lesson observation   Time: 10:00

Length of observation: 20 minutes

What to observe	Description of	Reflective notes (insights, hunches, themes
Activities		
Strategies employed		
Classroom environment		
Setting		
Interaction between Teacher to learners		
Teacher to learner or group		
Learner to learner		
Learners to learners		

APPENDIX K
INTERVIEW PROTOCOL (TEACHERS)

Project: Classroom interaction in teaching English First Additional Language learners in the Intermediate Phase

Time of interview: 14:30   Date:

Place: School A and School B   Interviewer: Maja M.M

Interviewee: Teacher Mothusi, Teacher Sekgobela, Teacher Phafola, Teacher Molobe and Teacher Thinani   Duration: 30 minutes

Description of the project, telling the interviewees about:

(a) The purpose of this study is to identify and design components that should be included in a framework for the use of a classroom interaction-based approach as a teaching strategy in English as First Additional Language to enhance learners' communicative competence in schools.

(b) My aim is to interview Intermediate Phase English teachers

(c) Pseudonyms will be used to protect your confidentiality.

(d) The interview will last for 45 minutes

(e) Ask the interviewee to read and sign the consent form.

(f) Turn on the recorder and test it.

Questions:

1.   How do Intermediate Phase teachers conceptualise and implement a classroom interaction approach with the learners in English as First Additional Language?

1.1   Please describe your role as an English teacher?

1.1.1   Mothusi: My role as an English teacher is to enhance this language to the children so that they can be able to use this language competently. Ehh, and again is to enlighten them with any aspect of contemporary events or scenarios that they are engaging with them in their community as well, and also to empower them to be the better adults of tomorrow.

1.1.2   Sekgobela: Eeh, my role in which way? My role as an English teacher, specifically in this school is to try and improve the level of English, the level of additional language, understanding of additional language, and to help

children to show that there is a different world from the world they are living in.

1.1.3   Phafola: Emm, my role I can say emm, I am an HOD and then I am teaching Grade 6 and Yaa, thank you.

1.1.4   Molobe: My role as an English teacher is to make sure that learners get skills that are needed in English, number one: listening and speaking, reading and writing skills, hand writing, and language and structure skills.

1.1.5   Thinani: As an English teacher, I'm here to teach learners how to write, how to read especially in English as First Additional Language.

1.2   How do you interact with your learners in EFAL?

1.2.1   Mothusi: You know English as a foreign language unlike our Pedi or Zulu languages and the others, ehh; firstly you have to become a learner actually. If you are in the classroom, you keep yourself in those learners' boots. That will help you to simplify the way you are going to present your lesson because the more you understand their interaction caution is not the same as they are hundred percent so you are putting yourself in that particular learner's boots, so that that particular learner can be able to understand. Therefore you will be able to take one step up to be the better or be fluent in English.

1.2.2   Sekgobela: As the FAL, my interaction with them is that I try to make it a communication language which we communicate even during breaks. Everything we do, we do together with them, and we try to at least do it in English so that they get used (picking up the hands) to that language and get used to play around with the language and the staff.

1.2.3   Phafola: Well, ehh, most of the time I use pictures, and then there are two types of pictures that I use. There is a big picture which is a chart, when I am teaching for instance I pick up a theme, like this term's theme is 'Emergency' and then everything will emanate from the picture. Whether I teach the comprehension for them to be able to comprehend, they need to understand the picture, the emergency, everything that goes with emergency. For instance, the paramedics needs to be there, the police needs to be there we talk about the fire-fighters they need to be there and then again, I will make it a point that the same chart is in an A4 (Showing the A4 page) page like this one. So, normally what I do I give the

vocabulary words? Those new vocabulary words, my learners will then point that this is a paramedic in the picture, pasted in their exercise books. Then they tell: this is a paramedic, this is a police man, this is a flame, and this is whatever that maybe it will be under those vocabulary words.

My theme embraces everything; it also deals with the language in context. In that emergency chart, I can even teach parts of speech, I can teach the prepositions using the very same words, using the very same vocabulary words, I will teach the sentence construction. Now, among the five works I've given using vocabulary words, I can say: pick up your own words and make your own sentences. That is what I normally do depending as I have said teaching adjectives, I don't focus on one thing at a time, I focus in many aspects every time because when I come up with an adjective, then I will say this word is an adjective, this is a noun, this is a pronoun and so on. Then I've covered the parts of the speech for the whole term.

1.2.4   Molobe: Ehh, first of all I like rhyming, or my learners always use to rhyme as part of listening and speaking. They are communicating through rhymes, action words all the staff, all that verbal language. Another thing that I interact with them is through reading comprehension skills, we read together, they can write and tell me how they feel. Ehh, those are the things I can say I interact with them. But I make sure that listening and speaking is the more I interact with my learners.

1.2.5   Thinani: I just use simple words and simple English because is a First Additional Language.

1.3   What do you understand by the phrase classroom interaction/ communication?

1.3.1   Mothusi: Classroom interaction is such a complicated concept because ehh, when you interact with learners you start ehh; you first have to know where the child comes from because some of the children are challenged in the classroom. You find ehh; they are affected by socio-economic factors like in our scenario kids who are from disadvantaged background. So it is very tough with those kids because you may find that some are challenged in their families, some are headed by only one parent, and they have financial difficulties. So again interaction means ehh, may be three groups of learners in the classroom the highly gifted, the average and the less

gifted. You have to interact the with them trying to digest what is their problem, and help them by going extra mile by extra classes support groups, and support lessons. That is the whole issue of interaction.

1.3.2 Sekgobela: The way you relate with your kids, the way you deliver, the way you receive, and the response you get from the deliverance that you give. The way you deliver your lesson and the way children give feedback to what you have delivered as a lesson.

1.3.3 Phafola: Well, it is in two ways, is either I give the instruction or then the learners communicate with me. I normally give instructions to learners and tell them what is to be done and this is not supposed to happen. But it is in two ways all the time. If they don't understand the instruction, they have to come back to me and say, Sir, we don't understand 1.2.3. Then I will clarify better to them.

1.3.4 Molobe: Classroom communication is when I'm communicating with my learners directly, giving them message of what is needed in terms of the language I'm teaching them especially in the skills of talking skills there should be interaction between me and them. I need to involve them fully instead of me being the teacher to display teaching. The learners should be the one who are more involved.

1.3.5 Thinani: The learners are participating but the problem is when coming to writing. They raise their hands and answer questions maybe in the form of a group and individually.

1.4 What is the importance of learning English as First Additional Language?

1.4.1 Phafola: Well ehh, it is not our home language that is our first advantage and another is if you check the weight of the home language and first additional language is not actually the same because those who are doing English as the first additional language, it is actually stronger than the first additional language. First additional language is actually a language that has been created as a second language. Remember; English is language across all the learning areas. Even when you go abroad you cannot use your mother tongue, to be able to socialise with the other people you have to use the international language which is English. So English is important.

1.4.2 Sekgobela: The importance, well I cannot say it is important more than the others. But the world today has made it a point that even though you go to

387

other countries the basics of English is there where people can try to understand you. So therefore, I can say the importance of it is to be heard, the importance of it is to be understood in a foreign land or country.

1.4.3 Phafola: According to me, is for the learners to be able to communicate and in our school per se, as we are speaking of English as a First Additional Language, remember that all the subjects are done in English. So is very very important for them to understand English. Then they will be able to understand what is required from them in other subjects. We are laying the foundation.

1.4.4 Molobe: The importance of learning English, as a country, it has been introduced that learners must have two official languages that our learners must believe into interact and compete with other learners outside so that can be learners who are competent learners in such a way that they must not only be closed. If they go outside they must be able to interact with the others so English is the official language which they need to use it all over.

1.4.5 Thinani: Is to communicate with other countries, have job interviews and even preparing learners for future secondary education.

1.5 How often do you use English language in your class?

1.5.1 Mothusi: Very often.

1.5.2 Sekgobela: I use English every time, every time. I do switch in other learning areas and in English lesson where you find a concept and you see blank faces (bowing down to show breaking up in communication), and for me to bring them back, I just switch for few seconds at least I have their attention back again so that I can run with the lesson.

1.5.3 Phafola: (Shaking his head with a smile) 99%, 99%.

1.5.4 Molobe: Always because is an English period I have to use it, only here and there they don't understand I have to switch to their language but not all the time.

1.5.5 Thinani: Most of the time.

1.6 How do you correct your learners' mistakes?

1.6.1 Mothusi: There are continuous assessments whereby learners are able to come up with unprepared speech and during that process where you are interacting with the learner, you rectify learners' mistakes and again when you are marking the essays you can call the child and say you see, by

commenting and calling the child you are taking the child somewhere and is better to give immediate feedback.

1.6.2   Sekgobela: After they make a mistake, I try to talk again the same word and let them repeat it and again if they say it wrong I will say it again and again so that they see that I was wrong actually here and I was actually supposed to say this instead of that.

1.6.3   Phafola: (With a smile) I consolidate all the mistakes of each and every learner and when is orally is one-on-one. Let me make an example like yesterday, they were reading, and they had a problem with the word "extinct" most of them. Then after the last learner has read, then I wrote the word "extinct" on the board and ask them, is anyone among you who can pronounce this word? Then they rose up their hands and read the word and I tell them that most of you did not read the word correctly, and then I gave them the correct pronunciation. I waited for feedback time.

1.6.4   Molobe: It depends on what mistake it is. Maybe they are doing English and speaking I correct it directly by speaking. If they say the word for example, doing language structure instead the learner saying, yesterday I was, then the learner say yesterday I am which means I need to directly correct the learner straight. But if is in writing, I need to do corrections with them together so that they must understand what is needed.

1.6.5   Thinani: When they pronounce and write the wrong spelling of words

2.   What are the teachers' experiences when using classroom interaction approach in English First Additional Language within the CAPS?

2.1   Do you implement CAPS in your EFAL class?

2.1.1   Mothusi: Yes.

2.1.2   Sekbobela: Ehh, Yes. I do that.

2.1.3   Phafola: Yes.

2.1.4   Mothusi: Yes I do.

2.1.5   Thinani: Yes.

2.2   Were you trained to implement/use classroom interaction in CAPS?

2.2.1   Mothusi: Yes.

2.2.2   Sekgobela: Yes, I did attend training for CAPS.

2.2.3   Phafola: Yes, remember I study the OBE, and then OBE was an approach to CAPS, so it helped me a lot and made it easier for me because I had a background for what to expect when I implement CAPS.

2.2.4   Molobe: Yes.

2.2.5   Thinani: Yes.

2.3   How long were you trained?

2.3.1   Mothusi: I think it was a period of three days.

2.3.2   Sekgobela: Ehh, it was, to be honest (smiling) it was about two hours. It was a length of it. I spent a day there but it was like that.

2.3.3   Phafola: For training CAPS I think it was two days full.

2.3.4   Molobe: I think it was two days.

2.3.5   Thinani: No, because I'm a new teacher.

2.4   What are your experiences in implementing CAPS in EFAL?

2.4.1   Mothusi: According to me, CAPS is a very good policy because ehh, it unlocks the potentiality of the child because for example, when you are presenting a comprehension, you can deal with all the skills concurrently, reading and viewing, listening and speaking ehh, all of them.

2.4.2   Sekgobela: Emm, I don't have that much experience, because I stared teaching last year actually.

2.4.3   Phafola: Well, to say, CAPS is learner-centered. My experiences are that it gives them, like the resources that I am having, the DBE books. In these books, learners work on their own pace, when I say: take out your DBE books, and open on this page, they have already done it at home. Sometimes they do it with their parents and sometimes with their peers. And then with me, it will be easier because I will only doing the corrections with them. We correct the mistakes that they have done. They did it themselves without me explaining. For instance, diminutives, I did not explain diminutive to these learners but most of them have already done it. They now know what we call a baby whale. They have got an idea of what is a baby whale then, it makes my work very easier. The CAPS teaches them to be independent not to rely on the teacher. That is why I say, if all learners can be like this in all the subjects, not only in EFAL. And if all learners can get the DBE books in all the subjects, and work on their own pace, and when you approach the work that needs to be done the following

day then it becomes easier. There is no way where the parents can say learners do not have homework because they have a daily homework in their DBE books. These books have weeks, they have week one, two, three, up to the week ten. Then for learners, is just to write dates.

2.4.4 Molobe: Ehh, according to me, CAPS does not have any problem. All I can say is that here at Gauteng we are experiencing a challenge because instead of us implementing CAPS only to see aims and objectives we cannot because there is a strategy that has being introduced by the MEC, Barbara Crease the (Gauteng Primary Literacy and Mathematics Strategy) (GPLMS) to improve Maths and Language to our learners that is the only one that is giving us a challenge because we cannot manage CAPS on its own. We are linking it with other activities because you will find that the GPLMS activities are affecting CAPS on its own because GPLMS is based on quantity not on quality. There are lot of activities that are involved there so truly speaking you can't see whether CAPS is the best method or not but, CAPS on its own is good.

Thinani: CAPS is good because it encourages learners to take part rather than teacher participation only.

2.5 Do you think that CAPS will improve the classroom interaction?

2.5.1 Mothusi: Yes it will.

2.5.2 Sekgobela: Well I believe if it is implemented and we are trained enough, I believe it can improve it, I believe it can improve.

2.5.3 Phafola: It has, it has, not a matter of it will. To me, is already doing that ehh, I don't know, I don't know if you happen to listen to Z FM (pseudonym). There is a spelling B every morning at 6:45 from Monday to Friday where you hear learners spelling words, it is so encouraging. They have started some few weeks ago and you have to register your school. I've already registered my school. I've registered my learners and I'm waiting for their turn to come. I won't be there, because this happens in the morning while I'm still at home. They just phone; it becomes the radio station and the learner and is very much interesting.

2.5.5 Thinani: Yes, but if more time can be added because they take time to understand.

2.6   If yes, why and if no, why?

2.6.1   Mothusi: Remember when we compare it to the former curriculum we use to do, more especially that you were doing matric but you were vocally not able to say something in front of the other learners but with CAPS, it allows all fusses of teaching the learners to show up their potentialities.

2.6.2   Sekgobela: If implemented properly.

2.6.3   Phafola: Yes

3.   What beliefs and attitudes are held by teachers and learners when a classroom interaction is used in the teaching of English as First Additional Language?

3.1   Are you knowledgeable in classroom interaction?

3.1.1   Mothusi: Ehh I cannot say that I am 100% knowledgeable but I can implement it, but I'm still learning.

3.1.2   Sekgobela: Yes

3.1.3   Phafola: I can say yes I am though I'm not yet there. I still need some workshops, more inputs guidance and so forth.

3.1.4   Molobe: I am

3.1.5   Thinani: Yes.

3.2   What do you think about classroom interaction?

3.2.1   Mothusi: Firstly as a teacher, classroom interaction starts from the lesson plan that you have to interact with, because if you did not plan for interaction, you'll never interact in the classroom. You have to prepare yourself before you go to the classroom and that will help you again in the question of time management that is very important whereby you have to categorise your lesson plan in minutes that will show you that in fifteen minutes I have to have done this, and five minutes I should have done this. When you are doing this, you find the gifted child grabs the lesson content very easily. Then you cannot waste your time focusing on the gifted child while another child is suffering there. You better give the gifted child the more challenging work and interact with the less gifted child.

3.2.2   Sekgobela: I think is the best way of teaching because you as a teacher you get to learn new things from those children and you get to explore and it becomes as a real life whereas you are still in a classroom base and when you interact with them you get to know actually how far is their

thinking capacity how much do I need to put in at this stage and it gives you the pace you should go with.

3.2.3   Phafola: Classroom interaction is when talking to our learners on one-to-one, maybe in groups, individually, in pairs but there is where my learners given are expressing themselves so given the some guidelines for writing and all those things are needed. The time when we are together working using the rhymes, using the pictures, and using all that Medias may be to get the aims of objectives of what I'm aiming to get. That is interaction.

3.2 4   Molobe: It makes learners to open up in learning.

3.3   What do you do in your EFAL classroom to enhance communicative competence?

3.3.1   Mothusi: Through debates. We have debates that set by Teacher Sekgobela at school. We also allow learners just to come and brief us what they have read in the newspaper. Therefore, it enhances their language competency.

3.3.2   Sekgobela: Emm, emm, during my first weeks, I allow them to speak in any language they are comfortable with, in the first two weeks whereas I am speaking in English. And then we grow from there, and they get comfortable and comfortable and I'm not that fussy teacher, who would say (showing hard force) you are going to speak. I'm not that kind of a person who forces but I allow them to actually take that step by step to a certain extend that they now feel more comfortable.

3.3.3   Phafola: I give them different activities and don't dwell too much on debates. I think debates are outdated somehow hence I dwell on symposiums. I give them the same topic. Yaa, I know that debate is monotonous to these kids. But I usually come up with one topic and each and every one has to go and prepare and come with own points based on the topic. Whereby, they are not opposing each other but having the very same topic. They go and do some research. For example, I give them the old topic like, 'The pen is mightier than a sword' I give them, and don't explain anything. There is no affirmative and negative side. All of them have to say what they want to say. All what I want to do is to enhance their vocabulary. Because somebody will come and ask what is a pen or what is a sword? And they start to explain giving their own expressions.

3.3.4   Molobe: Most of the time I encourage these learners like if you can get there at the corner, there are daily news. First of all in the morning my learners will tell me the news. Which means I'm going to select maybe five learners, they tell me the story of what they saw on the road, like I tell them that now you have to go and read the newspaper. Till you see an event happening, and see that this event is important, then you come and report. So in the morning, together with my learners will be reporting what we saw in the morning they have seen on the street or where they stay, or yesterday at school. After that we communicate and we also have chart there that we use to communicate. That chart has got different activities that are happening and my learners will tell me about the pictures about what is happening, who is doing this, where is happening and how. So after that we are going back to our books. We write everything that we have seen there or talking about. Then we use the DBE books where we write stories for comprehension purpose and the learners will discuss the story or the comprehension. Then we talk one-to-one answering the questions based on the comprehension. The language structure also has been involved. The moment we are doing comprehension test we are involving language and structure but most of the time writing and drafting the activity will be done there.

3.3.5   Thinani: I implement group discussion, drama or role-play. I ask two or three learners to interact.

3.4   What are your beliefs in using classroom interaction in teaching the English language?

3.4.1   Mothusi: My belief is to see each child progressing from one level to the other. If I see something like that then there is something I am doing because it changes someone's life.

3.4.2   Sekgobela: Well my belief is, if you are open enough and if you talk to them they will give feedback and you will also know as yourself that how do I step in and how do I implement and other things I want to implement because you interact with them. They will also give you an idea of how can you bring in a new concept if there is a need. You are challenged to do that

and if you interact with them they bring you to a conclusion where you can say let me introduce this concept.

3.4.3   Phafola: My beliefs are these: When we interact, we are sharing ideas and that is the fundamental basic of interaction. To share experiences, to share whatever. You may know something that I don't know, we learn from each other. And I learn more from these younger ones. They will come up with some fascinating ideas in such a way that even yourself as a teacher you are challenged. I am not shy to tell them that I learn from you. So when they come up with the work that I don't understand, some ambiguous words, I sometimes tell them that I have to do some research. And then I come back and give them feedback because I learn some few words from them.

3.4.4   Molobe: Ehh, my belief when using the classroom interaction, learners in the classroom must be flexible. Obviously if your learners are not flexible, that is why you can find that the class is restless, and if the class is restless learners won't get what you want because, in the class we have different types of abilities. We've got different types of learning barriers. There are those learners who cannot learn by writing but learn by doing and learn by acting. If you interact with them by using different methods then you will find out where the other learners need support and those learners who are not involved you will be able to fully involve them. We must not forget that the class include inclusion, so when we do all this interaction we must involve all different types' of learners. We have to involve all our learners directly because some cannot write from the chalkboard, cannot work without having pictures. So that is where you need to interact with these learners so that at least the classroom should be active.

3.4.5   Thinani: I believe that learners will understand even if they cannot understand me but when discussing in groups and role-playing can understand and learn from the others.

3.5   Tell more about this progression, do you see it orally or in writing?

3.5.1   Mothusi: Ehh look, those kids some of them are hyperactive which means they do not concentrate they just want to finish everything at the same time only to find out that they are jumping important facts they have to learn. In orally, vocally and in writing. I have got a child who sits here (pointing the

chair next to him) actually it does not mean that she does not know, she is very good but she needs time. When you tackle each and every question, you tackle a question and after that, direct a question to her. I will ask her girl, are we on the same par? If she feels pressured I go straight to her table and show her that this you must do it like this and this like this. Not to say the child cannot do that but is because is grasping very very slow. But the sooner she has grasped, she is gone.

3.6   What language do you use in your EFAL class?

3.6.1   Mothusi: I use English, just simple English.

3.6.2   Sekgobela: I use English.

3.6.3   Phafola: My view is classroom interaction ables the learners to communicate to the others.

3.6.4   Phafola: The language is none other than English. I sometimes code switch when I test them. I just say, for example, I remember the other day, ehh; we were talking about the word 'extinct'. I asked it in their mother tongue because I wanted to find out that do they really understand it. That's where the code switching comes in.

3.7   How is the learners' attitude towards the classroom interaction?

3.7.1   Mothusi: They are positive.

3.7.2   Sekgobela: Well, to be honest, they loving it. They enjoy it because they have moved from the education that it has been forced to them (showing forced by hands), and now here is a person who is coming asking us actually what is this and what is this. It is a positive attitude.

3.7.3   Phafola: You know the learners do not behave the same, but now we are talking about the majority of learners. They find it enjoyable. When is time for EFAL they enjoy it more than the other language because of this interaction. Yes they enjoy it. What we normally do, they are sitted in groups and I mixed the stronger ones with the weaker ones. In each group I make sure there are two learners that I am sure that they will explain to the others. So they find it very much easier. And they help each other and when is time for assignments; I always tell them that don't leave your peers behind. Always carry your peer with you. When you see your peer writing something wrong, just look at me and say (pinching his eye). If I'm not

starring at you just shake your head to your peer (shaking his head to show that is wrong).

3.7.4   Molobe: They really enjoy it because I can see that most of the time, even though some three or four weeks after reopening, I even allow them to express themselves in their home language. Because they were still in the first weeks but now you can even feel that these learners really enjoy expressing themselves in English.

3.7.5   Thinani: Others are shy but they can communicate.

3.8   How is the learners' attitude towards the EFAL?

3.8.1   Mothusi: They are very positive but with courage, Im left with six pages in a classwork books. They actually love the language.

3.8.2   Sekgobela: Because of the way I introduce it because of the way I do it, everyone wants to learn it, you know, everyone wants to speak it and everyone wants to imitate me (patting his chest) by speaking it.

3.8.3   Molobe: They like it.

3.8.4   Thinani: They like English.

3.9   If positive, how do you see that your learners enjoy EFAL, if negative, what do you do to urge them to love the EFAL?

3.9.1   Mothusi: As a teacher you'll never be too strict but, you try to create the atmosphere whereby learners see you as a parent and the learner is able to tell everything that is feeling about. That means learning become easier because some of the children you find that they have problems in the family. One day while I was sitting there (pointing the front table) I saw her crying and I became worried. Because when I measure the IQ of the child, if I put that child in grade seven classes, she will make it then, I went to the child's desk and say wipe your tears and I went to SBST. I have a member of SBST and a female teacher and take the child to that particular teacher. Then you find that when the parents are not staying together, sometimes the child feels lonely and miss one parent is not staying with. So when that particular learner is in the classroom, during the time of the lesson, those things come back. So have to interact with the relevant department because some of the things I'm not good with.

3.9.2   Sekgobela: Now, if another learner is speaking in Setswana or another language, one will tap him and say Hi *man wena* that language, try this one. And that gives you confidence that you are going somewhere.

4.   What teaching strategies do Intermediate Phase teachers employ in a classroom to enhance the communicative competence in English as First Additional Language?

4.1   What teaching strategy or strategies do you normally use when teaching EFAL?

4.1.1   Mothusi: You know I believe in charts. Something like this one (grabbing the charts bind together) these are charts that keep the learner through the lesson and I actually fold them because they get lost. If you take the chart with the picture there it unlocks the child's memory to know what the teacher is all about and what is supposed to write. Another thing, because of lack of resources we cannot go far. Our children like seeing things when they learn and they become so attentive. These grab their attention and every time when they come to the class, they become curious and say what is our teacher going to use? That is why in my class I don't have too much absentees.

Normally the so called GPMLS is a strategy itself but the other strategies are very challenged that you have to move around whereby you interact with less gifted child to give them support during the lesson and give them the activity that is par to their abilities.

4.1.2   Sekgobela: It is that of, I come with the concept, and then my strategy is like tomorrow I will teach them about compound nouns, today will I give compound nouns and let them go and find out what it is. They construct it by themselves and they come back. What I do now is whatever they did not find; I explain to them. It gives them an exposure, is a self-learning where they are led as well, you do it and somebody comes back and shows you if you have done it wrong here there is a right way to do it.

4.1.3   Phafola: The most effective strategy for me is pictures and charts and is the most effective one. Remember that there are learners who don't want to read at all. When I give them this A4 paper (showing the paper), with the pictures, what they will be doing is start to colour, and when I take some rounds, and when they colour for instance, the flame with a green colour, I

will correct them and say what is the colour of the flame? What is the different between the fire and the flame? All those things and really it enhances their vocabulary. When we use the charts and the pictures it enhances their vocabulary. Even the weaker ones they will learn that let me run and they will be able to do the drawing and the colouring to keep what they have in their minds and they will then ask, What is the work of this person and they will for example, the policeman and I will ask what can't you write it? And they start to write.

4.1.2 Molobe: The strategy that I use is most of the time I'm using the direct approach. The direct approach is when I use the pictures that I have with me and then learners will be talking one by one. I also use the spelling of words. Which means that learner will spell the words and give the sounding of the words. They even underline the most important words. Like when we are talking about the comprehension you find that in the comprehension, there are those characters the most important one. That is where we use the direct approach. The letter sound, sometimes if they don't understand the word, I refer them back. What is the first letter of the word? (letter alphabeting strategy).

4.1.3 Thinani: I use the resources, charts and flashcards.

4.2 How do you provide opportunities for classroom interaction?

4.2.1 Mothusi: As you can see my classroom has books, the book corner there, learners who have finished their work, they go there and read. What I want to see is I want to see the child reading and being competent in English. As long as they visit all these books that are here, and they read them, then it makes me happy.

4.2.2 Sekgobela: Emm, there are always those children who are intelligent who always want to answer so I give them an opportunity first and now when we are moving (moving with hands) to a simpler questions, push them aside a little bit and I spot those who want to interact but are shy, so I give those ones an opportunity. That's how I do it.

4.2.3 Phafola: That one I will provide it clear that, the gifted learners most of the times want to monopolise the opportunities and in such a way that they will always want to shine and suppressing the less gifted ones. But what I normally do I take the gifted ones and mixed them with the less gifted and

instruct them to monitor, and check on their work. I give the gifted learners different work from the less gifted and I know that they will finish quickly than the others. Then after I say they must monitor the less gifted. And in that way I will say, Peter, you go to Tom, then Elizabeth go to Grace and John. That is how I help them.

4.2.4   Molobe: I used to give flashcards, or flash words. So which means my level of flashing will be different. If Im flashing the sentence, the simplest sentence that I'm going to show them; the opportunity is given to learners who are struggling to spell the words. I'm using different level of activities.

4.2.5   Thinani: I walk around when learners are doing their tasks and help learners with special needs.

4.3   Which interactive activities do you employ for the classroom interaction in EFAL? Provide examples.

4.3.1   Mothusi: Drama and another thing is I just take one child who has jokes, just to make jokes using the English language, where that particular child has a problem they have to help him. I also have the idea of, I'm still going to sell it to my principal where ehh, the children that I see are gifted, let's say we have a function at school, and we make them programme directors. But I'm still going to discuss it with the principal.

4.3.2   Sekgobela: Emm, the activities, we have textbooks, and we also have the CAPS but then I just give them activity and then we move around helping each other and those who can, they come and say Sir, this one I can do but we do it this way, and the we have those interactive ways, and now is a learner to learner.

4.3.3   Phafola: Emm drama, poem, and then spellaton.

4.3.4   Molobe: I've done role-play once with my learners role-playing the story from the DBE books. The story tells about the two girls who save the boy's life. They were from school and saw the boy fell from the tree and he was seriously injured. Lucky enough those girls were from the First Aid class having a First aid kit. So, learners came and demonstrate how they helped this boy. The boy was lying down there and he cannot move and he could not do anything. That is where we were role-playing and it was interesting. I did see that we have emergency people who can help because they were dramatizing how they can help.

4.3.5   Thinani: Role-play, flash cards and storytelling.

4.4   How do these activities prompt learners to speak English?

4.4.1   Mothusi: You know even if is a learning curve to them, but they are trying because learners who are paying attention plus or minus 88% of them to their studies excel very well and they also encourage those who are weak to also take part. Because by spreading the entire gifted child to the less weak, therefore they become very free and express themselves in English, because sometimes you'll find that they are shy but when they spread themselves amongst them, they also feel part of the group.

4.4.2   Sekgobela: We have unprepared speech, we also have unprepared reading and sometimes I say in a certain day this is what we are going to speak about. And then we do it that way.

4.4.3   Phafola: Now here is a challenge, here is a script (showing the paper). Right this script is a book. Then I'm John and you are Tembi. You must make it a point that as I am John you must go and read the scripture and Tembi must also go and read the scripture. When you come now is a time for drama, you must speak. Add what can go with what you have read from the script itself. So it helps them.

4.4.4   Molobe: You know the one of the role-play, I wished if there were no too much activities to write. Now because we are using GPLMS, you find that we do not give learners opportunities to speak. But I did see that the role-play is where the learners can express themselves. They will show their skills, they will show their strength and is where you can see the strength of the learner.

4.4.5   Thinani: The role-play makes learners to participate and they will say something.

4.5   Do you have discussion activities with your learners?

4.5.1   Mothusi: Ehh, it always comes once in two weeks, and it also involves cotemporary events, whereby can just put a topic on the board let's say "Migrate labours causes family disruption" do you agree? Then they start discussing, they discuss -then one learner will write down the points on the chalkboard and then we finalise the topic. But it is better for kids to argue. That unlocks the analysing skills, if they are able to argue they are able to critically analyse and even to reason.

4.5.2   Sekgobela: Yes, we do.

4.5.3   Phafola: Yes I do, depending but, it starts from the second term whereby they have discussion activities. It depends; discussion might be at the end or at the beginning of the lesson, depending on the ultimate goal.

4.5.4   Molobe: The discussion activities are when we are speaking about the chart, the theme posters. These posters have different activities in one. You find that there is birthday, there is this and this. That is where you find that we have time to discuss.

4.5.5   Thinani: Group discussions

4.6   When do you involve learners in discussion activities?

4.6.1   Mothusi: Like I said, every two weeks, as our CAPS lessons takes two weeks and therefore throughout that two weeks there are other things because the CAPS is not expecting me to endorse or to put everything that can help the learners like let say I bring today's newspaper, and I let someone to read and what do we think about this and by doing this, learners start discussing about the matter.

4.6.2   Sekgobela: Almost every time because I have learnt one thing that if it is me who is giving the lesson always, it ends up not being a lesson, it ends up being a teaching.

4.6.3   Phafola: Usually is once per month.

4.6.4   Molobe: During listening and speaking period, and most of this periods are on Monday.

4.6.5   Thinani: To improve speaking and self-confidence.

4.7   Do you use role-play in EFAL class? When do you use the role-play?

4.7.1   Mothusi: I use role play in English, Science and Life skills so sometimes I inter-mingle the lessons so some start rapping in English which is the area where the child is stronger. Taking that poem and start wrapping that poem, then it becomes very interesting to other learners.

4.7.2   Sekgobela: Yes, for example if we are doing verbs, then I get two people come to the front tell them a scenario, they will do it, and then we pick up the verbs from that scenario.

4.7.3   Phafola: You know in Tembisa we have the newspaper called Tembisan. So, every Fridays they come and sell the paper. Learners know that every Friday they must come having something to buy the paper. If they don't

have I borrow those because we know that the families are not the same. But most of them they really come with the money to buy the paper. So, I encourage them to read the paper and then encourage them to spend time on television listening to news, interact with your peers, take the newspaper you have bought and read a certain story to your parents. After readning the story then make it a point that you are telling the parent a story but now without reading it. Tell what happened in that particular story. That is how I instil reading.

4.8.4   Molobe: There are different books at the reading corner, where I put different reading books like magazines so that my learners when they finish writing all the time, they move to the corner and take a book and read. Another thing that I use to instill the love of reading is through paired reading, they read while the others are listening. Then, I do group reading, as those who are struggling can feel covered when they are reading with the others.

4.8.5   Thinani: They read storybooks and I encourage them to read at home.

4.9   How do you instil the love of reading?

4.9.1   Mothusi: Unfortunately our school is under renovation, library is one of ways of instilling the love of reading and I always tell the learners to go to library and read a book and the next day they tell about what they have read. This encourages children to read more and some will even go over to internet.

4.9.2   Sekgobela: I'm one person, I grew up without knowing or without being exposed to such things even though we were forced to do that but there was no much exposure but I have couple of books there and I tell stories and encourage them to read. For example, I've never been to KZN but I can tell you a lot about KZN. It is because I was reading. Most of also want to know and I explain in such a way that we don't have money but we have a lot of books that we can read and that can show us about going out and when we actually go out is just going there but we have actually being there but mentally.

4.9.2   Phafola: You know in Tembisa we have the newspaper called Tembisan. So, every Fridays they come and sell the paper. Learners know that every Friday they must come having something to buy the paper. If they don't

have I borrow those because we know that the families are not the same. But most of them but most of them they really come with the money to buy the paper. So, I encourage them to read the paper and then encourage them to spend on television listening to news, interact with your peers, take the newspaper you have bought and read a certain story to your parents. After readning the story then make it a point that you are telling the parent a story but now without reading it. Tell happened in that particular story. That is how I instil reading.

4.9.3   Molobe: There are different books at the reading corner, where I put different reading books like magazines so that my learners when they finish writing all the time, they move to the corner and take a book and read. Another thing that I use to instill the love of reading is through paired reading, they read while the others are listening. Then, I do group reading, as those who are struggling can feel covered when they are reading with the others.

4.9.4   Thinani: They read storybooks and I encourage them to read at home.

4.10   Do learners like telling or listening to stories?

4.10.1   Mothusi: Ehh, not all of them but sometimes the learner learn from the other learner. Those who are very good in storytelling, ehh, I saw that there is a motivation to other learners who do not have strong points in storytelling. When they tell stories they motivate those ones, so today I heard this story let me go and research. And also you know kids like impressing the teacher.

4.10.2   Sekgobela: A lot, a lot especially when we have to talk about those fire night stories our grandmothers telling us stories and they will come out and talk about them.

4.10.3   Phafola: They like to listen to stories. More especially when I read stories. They --------like--------they-------like it (pulling the words expressing learners like stories). They like listening to me telling the stories. They like listening to learners who can tell stories. You will find that they are quiet to be honest and when you see the maximum participation and when you ask that particular learner that, where are we? Because I usually tell them that when someone is reading the story, do not read that person but read the book. If I'm reading for you, you must read with me silently. When I ask you where

are we, you must be able to show me. Even when your peer is doing that that is what I'm expecting.

4.10.4   Molobe: They enjoy it but that not much like when we speak in groups. They are alone when they need to express themselves. You find that you have to call them, you come. Only few learners who do not have stage fright. But I encourage them because you find that they cannot express themselves in English but I encourage them to use their own language. Then I ask the other learner to interpret for usIn English.

4.10.5   Thinani: Most but others not.

4.11   What types of stories do you prefer telling your learners?

4.11.1   Mothusi: Animal stories and political stories. But because these learners hear what is happening, if you ask learners to tell you about Jacob Zuma, the child has something to tell.

4.11.2   Sekgobela: I prefer telling true stories, mixed with myth so that they can understand where most of the stories are a myth but here is a true story coming from that myth. Yaa, I enjoy telling true stories.

4.11.3   Phafola: (Laughing) Folklore, and most of the interesting stories.

4.11.4   Molobe: We've got the novel stories and short stories, short stories in a form of a poem. So in the poem is where they use to enjoy because they use rhyme and they do not know that they are reading in the other way t while they are talking.

4.11.5   Thinani: They like the fairy tales like Cinderella story.

4.12   Do you think that learners usually show their personalities when telling stories?

4.12.1   Mothusi: You know there are learners who have potentials, when they demonstrate the actions that are happening to the story it empowers the learners. When the learners telling the story, they have to show what is actually happening in the story. So the person who is actually listening becomes curious and the demonstration helps the others. It always unlocks most of the learners' potentiality.

Remember when you are telling the story you have to show the emotions of the story so that the person who is listening can tell the main theme of the story.

4.12.2   Sekgobela: A lot, even when they are writing. You know you get to know them through their writhing and through their storytelling. Some will say a friend, and I have learnt that if a child is talking of a friend, they speaking of themselves. I have experienced that.

4.12.3   Phafola: (Breathing heavily) I wish you were in my class today or yesterday. I started with Vusi's story and I have a girl who was abused, sexually abused by an older man. The girl was so brave to tell her mother. The mother decided to open the case. They went to court.   They went through of all the procedures I explained to these learners. Intermediary, what is an oath, because the young girl was asked what is an oath? When they heard the story, one of the learners was crying. It was so painful when I ask why you are crying. Only to find that the very same thing happened to her during the holidays and the police are busy with the case. So in answering you "yes" it helps them. The story I told them, they took it very seriously and it helped some of them. They learn what you are supposed to do if such thing like this happens to you. Rather than blaming yourself so, you don't have to blame yourself.

4.12.4   Molobe: Yes because sometimes when we are reading a story that is interesting, you will hear them saying wow! But if it is sad, as I tell my learners to close their eyes and take as if they are in that situation, the moment they close their eyes, they take a picture and visualise it and tell me that Ma'm, when I closed my eyes, I imagine that that boy was in pain, so when they closed their eyes they saw the seriousness of it.

4.12.5   Thinani: Their facial appearance shows that and the way they react.

4.12.1   How often do you use debate in your EFAL lesson?

4.13.1   Mothusi: Actually I have done it three times since this term.

4.13.2   Sekgobela: I am a public speaking and debate coach and I do it almost twice in a week. Just to let them speak the language.

4.13.3   Phafola: Not very often.

4.13.4   Molobe: To be honest, we've done debating once. That is where I was telling that boys are better than girls. Because I gave them an activity as a group, then the activity was done mostly by girls. Then I said, 'Ok boys are better than girls'. Then they said boys are not better than us ma'm and also

boys started saying girls are not better than us then there was a debate there.

4.13.5　Thinani: Maybe once a month.

4.14.6　Do learners like debating in EFAL?

4.14.1　Mothusi: Not all of them. Some are shy, and through the help of other teachers, they empower the skill of stage confidence.

4.14.2　Sekgobela: (Excited) I have a few that love it. They are people who are like me who do not want to see things in one way. There is a lot who love and enjoy it.

4.14.3　Phafola: Not all of them. Only the intelligent ones like it. But most they do not like debate.

4.14.4　Molobe: I think they don't like it maybe because we are not the one who arenot giving them an opportunity. But the time we did it because it was about them, they were competing. Boys wanted to tell girls that you are not even better than us. But are only those gifted learners and the other ones you have to push them.

4.14.5　Thinani: No, maybe is because I'm not used to it.

4.15　What do you think can be done to improve the interaction during the English lesson?

4.15.1　Mothusi: If you want to see the kids progressing well, never switch to the home language.

4.15.2　Sekgobela: A person should be confident, you know if you are confident, and even the mistake you did just be free and come down to the level of those kids, the intelligence of their age.

4.15.3　Phafola: I think the foundation should be reading. Because much you can talk in English, if you cannot read and write, (shaking his head). You are going nowhere. With our learners, there is a problem of reading. But the crop of 2014, which in 2011 were in the lower classes, to be honest with you, I wish I have come with the records and show you. In each of every 40 and 41 learners, only four learners cannot read. Four in each class (stressing that). So what I can say is: 'There is a light at the end of a tunnel'. So it means that the first hurdle of reading, we have started to (paint) the field of reading. Now we have to move to the next one. Now we need to move to reading with understanding. Because you can read nicely

but if you don't understand and you don't even to involve the punctuations, it doesn't help.

4.15.4   Molobe: Ehh, you know what, really to be honest I like English myself. I can say I like language but now the thing that is happening which makes our learners not to perform the way we expect them to perform, is lot of activities and paper work because if I can show you now, there is a book that I am recording in . You need to teach now and record, teach now and record. There is no time to let the learners to speak and express themselves in speaking. I don't have time with these learners to sit down and express ourselves because what is needed is only quantity of work. That is why there is no quality in our work because quantity is forcing us to do and complete the syllabus.

4.15.5   Thinani: By encouraging learners to speak English every day, to listen and even to communicate around

4.16   Is there anything you like to say I did not ask?

4.16.1   Mothusi: Ehh, discipline, you know learners respect the educator, who is well prepared, and that thing reduces ill disciplinary actions in the classroom. If you are well prepared, you are always strong in what you are doing. Learners will always be disciplined. Unlike you find learners making noise when you are, teaching not to intimidate them but they should know what are they here for and what is expected from them.

4.16.2   Sekgobela: EEm, one thing that I have seen is I don't think our learners today value the education or value whatever they learn now. Because what they have learnt today, tomorrow you must start first to remind them and say remember, remember. But there is that eager to learn but there is no more that thing that when they get home there is someone who says that now, what have you learnt? Can we expand on it? Our parents neglect this education. Some of them even today still believe that is the language of oppression. They ask themselves why I should help you with these. All home works will be done but this one will not be done.

4.16.3   Phafola: (Wow, laughing, ehh) is the involvement of parents. I think if the parents can be involved these learners of the 21st century are better than the other learners. The only problem is parents are not involved. Some

parents when they come to school they don't even know in which grade is the learner. So that is the problem that we are having.

4.16.4 Molobe: For now there is nothing but what I can say is I wish what you are interviewing me on can be implemented.

4.16.5 Thinani: The classroom discipline is a problem

APPENDIX L

FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW PROTOCOL (INTERMEDIATE PHASE LEARNERS)

Classroom interaction in teaching English First Additional Language learners in the Intermediate Phase

Place: School A   Date:

Time: 14:30   Duration: 30 minutes

Interviewer: Maja M.M   Interviewees: Intermediate learners

                                                   of mixed learning abilities

Description of the project, telling the interviewees about:

(a) The purpose of this study is to identify and design components that should be included in a framework for the use of a classroom interaction-based approach as a teaching strategy in English as First Additional Language to enhance learners' communicative competence in schools.

(b) My aim is to interview a group of six learners of mixed learning abilities in Grade 6 classes.

(c) Pseudonyms will be used to protect your confidentiality.

(d) The interview will last for 45 minutes

(e) Participants will be asked to be video recorded.

(e) I will turn on the recorder and test it.

Questions:

1.   What knowledge, beliefs and attitudes are held by learners when a classroom interaction is used in learning English as First Additional Language?

1.1   Tell me about your English classroom.

School A

1.1.1   Sindi: Our English classroom is interesting is fun. We learn more new words we didn't even know they exist. Our teacher is very nice and very nice as First Additional Language. We really enjoy doing it.

1.1.2   Thabile: Our English classroom is fun and understandable even though sometimes we get more difficult staff but we enjoy and we still learn some more things.

1.1.3   Thabisile: My teacher is kind and helpful she understands what we are saying and she can help us with the work.

1.1.4   Sesi: Our English classroom is fun and we need to learn and sometimes our teachers can be hard on us but we still care and we still want to learn.

1.1.5   Lebo: In our class is fun to learn and my teacher is kind. There is nothing difficult about our English classroom. We learn everything and we are very glad.

1.1.6   Sipho: Well my English classroom is good and fun because we learn something from the dictionary and we learn to understand the dictionary.

1.1.7   Thabang: My English classroom is good because we learn words that come from the dictionary. We get the spelling test.

1.1.8   Boyboy: In our English classroom some words are not difficult but we learn some new words.

School B

1.1.9   Lihle: My English classroom is fine, nice and kind; we love each other and also free to talk to our teacher. That is very nice because our English teacher is very sweet.

1.1.10   Pontsho: Our English class is fun as our teacher helps us with the new words. She tells us what to do what to write and what is wrong.

1.1.11   Lesego: Our class is so playful and is making noise. When we say you are making noise, he does not care and is repeating the same thing.

1.1.12   Josi: Our class is very noisy and we are the prefects. When we say you are making noise they say you too are making noise (shrinking her face). Our teacher is very kind to us and we answer her questions when we don't understand.

1.1.13   Thato: My class is noisy but they are intelligent (knocking his head). Our teacher is kind, teaches us, ehh what can I say? When we make noise he calls us and give us work to do.

1.1.14   Smolly: I'm happy because I passed grade 4 to grade 5. Our teacher is so fun and kind to us.

1.1.14   Thato: My English teacher is friendly and is like a father to me.

1.2   What language do you use when you interact/communicate in your EFAL classroom?

School A

1.2.1   Sipho: We use English in our English class.

1.2.2   Thabile: We use English but sometimes if you don't know a word the teacher says we must use our language.

1.2.3   Thabisile: They teach us English in our English class.

1.2.4   Thabang: In our English class, we do all things but there are some children who do not know how to speak English, then the clever ones go to the other children and help them.

1.2.5   Lebo: We use English in our classroom and when you don't know how to describe the other word we use our home language.

1.2.6   Sindi: We use English in our classroom and sometimes when is difficult we use our home language.

1.2.4   Sesi: I feel excited if, if the English period comes because it teaches me everything about my life

School B.

1.2.5   Lihle: We always use English because there are many words we have learned. Yaa, in English.

1.2.6   Josi: We use only English but words that we do not understand; our teacher describes them with Sepedi.

1.2.7   Thato: We do speak English but those who do not understand we explain in our mother tongue.

1.2.8   Whityboy: We always speak English in our class. Those who do not know they speak their own language.

1.2.9   Coolboy: Me myself we talk English and those who do not know English we show them how to talk English.

1.2.10   Shygirl: We also speak English in our class and the words we do not understand our teacher tells us.

1.2.11   Lesego: We always speak English when is the subject of English.

1.2.12   Smolly: In our class we talk English but when we don't understand our teacher helps us.

1.3   How do you feel when learning or using English?

School A

1.3.1   Thabisile: Is sometimes fun as our home language is not English. And at home sometimes they ask me why I like English too much then I say aaahh *nna* I'm always learning so that when I meet someone who do not know my language I can communicate in English.

1.3.2   Sindi: When, when I talk English is really fun and sometimes we get some bombastic words which we don't understand we just try to carry on so that we learn. We learn everything because every day we learn.

1.3.3   Thabile: When I talk English I feel comfortable because is the way of learning and I can develop more things when taking English.

1.3.4   Sipho: Emm when the English period comes, I feel excited and feel comfortable more than my mother tongue.
          Lebo:When I'm speaking people get surprised that I learn English more than my mother tongue.

1.3.5   Thabang: I feel happy when my teacher comes then if he talks to me I say 'Hoo!' this guy is talking loud because and I am scared the way is talking. Then I move back with my chair and then I feel scared Joo! This teacher, then I goes like this (covering his face).

1.3.6   Busi: I feel happy because there is nowhere you can go without knowing English.

1.3.7   Boyboy: In English I feel welcomed to speak English because if I don't know something there is always someone who is guiding me.

School B

1.3.8   Pontsho: I feel happy because I learn new things and our teacher tells us everything we do not know and the things that we can do better than before.

1.3.9   Thato: I feel like a new person after waking up in a new world. I feel very happy and challenge my teacher

1.3.10   Lesego: Ifeel very excited and feel like going to an English school.

1.3.11   Josi: I feel comfortable because our teacher is very good and explain the words that we don't understand like 'evacuate'. We get excited because is going to be fun in the class.

1.3.12   Smolly: I feel happy because I learn something new every day. At home when I don't understand I ask my mom to explain for me.

1.3.13   Lihle: I feel happy and I feel like a new person. Sometimes I feel like going to a new school and meet other new learners. I feel intelligent, brand new and feel like going to talk to a president and challenge him to see that we are intelligent and we want to be wealthy and provide education for us.

1.3.14   Whityboy: I feel happy because some of my friends do not know how to speak my home language and we are together we speak English.

1.3.15   American girl: I feel happy and excited and our teacher teaches us like Americans.

1.3.16   Thato:I feel like telling my teacher to go aside and become an English teacher.

1.3.17   Coolboy: At home we talk English with my friends and help the others.

1.4   How do you interact/communicate with other learners in English classroom?

School A

1.4.1   Busi: Our teacher does not want us to communicate because in our class because most of the learners like to make noise.

1.4.2 T   habile: We communicate when using simple words because some do not understand me they say I am more powerful than the other ones.When they speak the word that i don't understand, I ask them to translate into simple English.

1.4.3   Thabang: I communicate with other learners, because others cannot write the name and characters and I say, teacher, this boy does not know how to write this word so can you help us?

1.4.4   Lebo: I interact with the learners that they must talk home language then I can help with English.

1.4.5   Sindi: Oh well! In our English class is really simple because we speak simple English we understand. But if you go to that "Shakespeare language, they get really mixed up, as I said when you speak bombastic words as I have said, our teacher gonna help us.

1.4.6   Sesi: Well, in our class some learners do not know English proper so we help them to understand or call the teacher to help them.

School B

1.4.7   Josi: We communicate in English in our class but sometimes we communicate in Sepedi because there are some who do not know English.

There are some children who need help in English. We teach them and show them how to write the correct spelling.

1.4.8   Lihle: We communicate with the others in English because there are learners who do not know English. We tell them to practice not to make noise. We respect each other and tell to practice and we improve.

1.4.9   Lesego: We communicate with the other children when we are doing a group work and we learn from each other.

1.4.10   Coolboy: We teach people who do not know so that they can be clever

1.4.11   Pontsho: I learnt a lot from the new words.

1.4.12   Josi: It is 'oath' because it teaches us that when you talk to our adults and we must not tell other children lie because a lie is a sin.

1.4.13   Lihle: My teacher knows that I feel sad when I don't know something; I don't want to be a bad person in my work. I just want to be a good girl and help each other.

1.5   What are the activities you mostly enjoy in the English classroom?

School A

1.5.1   Sindi: I enjoy spelling test, when we read and tell stories and we express our feelings and when we tell stories we become relieved.

1.5.2   Thabang: Ehh in the activity of reading, because I am a prefect in my class, if the teacher is not in the class, I go in front and tell them to take out their DBE English books and open page so and so then I help them to read.

1.5.3   Thabile: When we are doing poetry because poetry is part of English that helps us to explore feelings and to show the world that we have more opportunities than they have. And the other activity is when we are doing public speaking because is the way of communicating but is also showing the people how they should become bigger and better.

1.5.4   Sipho: Me I like spelling test the most and writing stories because the spelling test they call the words and we write them and help us how to spell the words.

1.5.5   Boyboy: I like storytelling and reading loudly and I express myself in reading.

School B

1.5.6   Josi: when we read the stories and sometimes we talk to our teacher, and ask us what is the story about and tell us to tell stories to our peers. I feel happy when I tell a story and think that I will be a writer one day.

1.5.7   Whityboy: The activity that I like is when writing a dialogue and telling a friend the things that we do.

1.5.7   Thato: I like when reading stories because I read about what is happening around the world and my life. But not telling about my family.

1.5.8   Lesego: I like when I go in front of the class and telling stories without reading it. Just telling it from my heart.

1.5.8   Pontsho: I like when telling stories because I learn something from the story.

1.5.9   Lihle: I like it when we are talking about verbs because verbs are the most important in our lives because we always do things. The thing that you are doing is a verb. The teacher knows when we are speaking about verbs; she just let me to write them on the board. My class know that I am clever. I can explain to my class more than my teacher because I am on their same level. There are other children who come to me and sit around and talk about verbs and I help them because I don't want to be clever than the others. I want to be clever all of us and say we are clever!

1.5.10   American girl: I like when we read stories and doing rhyming words like Americans.

1.5.11   Thato: The activity that I like is reading because all learners are paying attention and all eyes are on you. Those who are playing can learn something from me and stop playing.

1.5.12   Lesego: The activities that I like are the subject of Life skills because we exercise.

1.5.13   Josi: The activities that I like in English is telling our own stories because it reminds me in grade 4 when our teacher says she wants someone who can tell the story by not practicing it and then I was the first one to tell the story

1.5.14   Smolly: I like to tell stories and if I don't know a word I ask teacher what does that word mean.

1.6   Is there anything you want to say I did not ask?

School A

1.6.1 Boyboy: Emm verbs, some verbs are difficult and some are not difficult.

1.6.2 Thabang: You didn't ask us about the nouns because the other children does not know the nouns, when the teacher says what is the noun and the teacher ask the prefect to come forward to tell the other learners what is a noun then we tell them.

1.6.3 Lebo: You didn't ask us how our teacher treats us. The teacher is kind, helpful; we do learn more from him.

1.6.4 Thabisile: When our teacher is teaching us he helps us to understand words, and if you are playing in the classroom, he will make sure that the words that he is teaching gets into your head.

1.6.5 Busi: The most thing that I hate in my class is that the most teachers like the T teacher does not treat us the same. He likes the other and he does not like the others.

School B

1.6.6 Thato: We should get extra studies, read more books, and tell my teachers to teach me and my parents too.

1.6.7 Josi: I think we should do it in front of the whole school and sometimes to win the certificates and sometimes the bottles and things that we can write in class with them.

1.6.8 Lesego: I think it should be done around the world because we can communicate in English not Sepedi and if you go around the world you will not speak Sepedi.

1.6.9 Pontsho: When you talk to your friend you don't recap by speaking your language but by speaking English. You say something in English and you learn even when we have difficulties but you must say it in English you can teach her something in English.

1.6.10 Smolly: When I get home I read more books and I read articles in the newspaper when I don't understand I ask my mom and if my mom does not know I take a dictionary and if I don't understand it in the dictionary she explains it in Zulu.

1.6.11 Lihle: In this school they have to get dictionaries for us so that we all have to know and be clever than now. We have to read and practice and don't be shy when you see the president ask him what is this word, don't be shy.

When I grow up I don't want to work for someone. Someone has to work for me. I want to be my own boss and the president.

1.6.12   Whityboy: I think we should all get reading books that are written in English.

1.6.13   Thato: Mem, can I continue to what you have said? Asking his predecessor, the president's son must work for her.

1.6.14   Shygirl: When I get home I practice speaking in English with my friends. The words that I don't know they tell me.

1.6.15   Coolboy: We have to have more books to read for everybody at school.

1.6.16   Josi: I think we must write our own books in English because we want to be the writers.

APPENDIX M
ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

13 May 2015

Ref#:2015/05/13/90233522/18/MC
Staff #:Mrs MM Maja
Staff Number#:90233522

Dear Mrs MM Maja,

Decision: Approved

Researcher
Mrs MM Maja
Tel: +27 12 429 6201/ +2784 479 7293
malewa.maja@gmail.com/31368891@mylife.unisa.ac.za

Supervisor
Prof M.M van Wyk
Department of Curriculum and Instructional Studies
College of Education
Tel: +27 12 429 2598
vwykmm@unisa.ac.za

Proposal: Exploring classroom interaction in English First Additional Language in the intermediate Phase at Ekurhuleni North District of Gauteng Province

Qualification: D Ed in Curriculum Studies

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the College of Education Research Ethics Review Committee for the above mentioned research. Final approval is granted for 2 years.

For full approval: The application was reviewed in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics by the CEDU ERC on 13 May 2015.

The proposed research may now commence with the proviso that:
1) The researcher/s will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.
2) Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study, as well as changes in the methodology, should be communicated in writing to the College of Education Ethics Review Committee.

University of South Africa
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge City of Tshwane
PO Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile +27 12 429 4150
www.unisa.ac.za

Carina Barnard
Editing/Translation

6 Villa Monte Verde	082 558 9993
Lynnwood Manor	012 804 5802
0081	carina.barnard @absamail.co.za

Declaration

To whom it may concern:

I hereby confirm that I edited the thesis

CLASSROOM INTERACTION IN TEACHING ENGLISH FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE LEARNERS IN THE INTERMEDIATE PHASE

by

Margaret Maja

CJ Barnard
25 November 2015

APPENDIX O
TURNITIN REPORT

turn**it**in Turnitin Originality Report

DEd Thesis by Margaret Maja

From Final Thesis (Ded01)

- Processed on 01-Dec-2015 11:56 SAST
- ID: 607897040
- Word Count: 98317

Similarity Index

27%

Similarity by Source

Internet Sources:

5%

Publications:

1%

Student Papers:

25%

sources:1

18% match (student papers from 03-Jul-2014)

Class: DEd01

Assignment:

Paper ID: 437814222

2

6% match (student papers from 18-Jun-2014)

Class: DEd01

Assignment:

Paper ID: 435482532

3

1% match (Internet from 23-Aug-2014)

http://basu.nahad.ir/uploads/creswell.pdf

4

1% match (Internet from 10-Jan-2014)

http://www.thinkingcaps.co.za/uploads/1/0/5/5/10556732/int_english_fal.pdf

5

1% match (Internet from 14-Sep-2013)

http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR17/rogers.pdf

6

1% match (Internet from 10-Jun-2014)

http://bib.convdocs.org/docs/7/6468/conv_1/file1.pdf

7

1% match (student papers from 14-Jun-2014)

Class: DEd01

Assignment:

Paper ID: 434740720