EXPLORING THE CHALLENGES ENCOUNTERED BY ENGLISH AS SECOND LANGUAGE (ESL) UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE SKILLS: A CASE OF THREE TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS IN LESOTHO

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I declare that the above thesis is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

I further declare that I submitted the thesis to originality checking software and that it falls within the accepted requirements for originality.

I further declare that I have not previously submitted this work, or part of it, for examination at Unisa for another qualification or at any other higher education institution.

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ABSTRACT

This study explored the challenges that undergraduate tertiary students encounter in the development of communicative competence skills in three selected tertiary institutions in Lesotho. Adopting the qualitative approach, the study employed a case study design for data collection strategies which included face-to-face interviews with lecturers (n=11), focus group discussions with students (n=100) as well as classroom observations (n=18). The findings from the face-to-face interviews revealed that traditional teaching methodologies which are mostly employed in the language classrooms because of large classrooms do not enhance students' communicative competence. Furthermore, the findings from the focus group discussions showed lack of motivation to learn English language and the anxiety caused by the fear to speak the target language. Further noted from the observations is that lack of language exposure due to scarcity of interactive activities in the classrooms may further render students communicatively incompetent. On these premises, the study recommends that students should be exposed to language through activities that encourage interaction. Also recommended is that lecturers should balance fluency and accuracy activities so as to improve students' discourse, linguistic, interactional as well as strategic competencies. Finally, lecturers should create a relaxed atmosphere in their classrooms for all students, including the shy ones to freely express themselves, fearing no negative evaluation or communication apprehension.

Key terms

Language acquisition, Communicative competence, English as a second language, Language anxiety, Motivation, Socio-cultural theory, Translanguaging, Communicative language teaching, Interactive activities, Interlanguage fossilisation.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ALM	–	Audio lingual method
BAPC	–	Bachelor of Arts in Professional Communication
CAP	-	Curriculum and Assessment Policy
CAQDAS	-	Computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software
CLT	-	Communicative language teaching
Covid-19	-	Corona virus
ERC	-	Ethics Review Committee
EFL	–	English as a foreign language
ER	-	Extensive reading
ESL	-	English as a second language
FDGs	-	Focus group discussions
FLA	-	First language acquisition
GTM	-	Grammar translation method
HDC	–	Higher degree committee
IL	–	Interlanguage fossilisation
L1	-	First language
L2	-	Second language
LAD	–	Language acquisition device
LF	-	Female lecturer
LGCSE	-	Lesotho general certificate for secondary education

LH	–	Left hemisphere
LM	-	Male lecturer
LUCT	-	Limkokwing University of Creative Technology
MoET	-	Ministry of Education and Training
NUL	-	National University of Lesotho
PA	-	Process approach
POPIA	-	Protection of Personal Information Act
PPP	-	Presentation practice and production
RH	-	Right hemisphere
SCT	–	Sociocultural theory
SL2	–	Social L2 learning
SLA	-	Second language acquisition
SLT	-	Second language teaching
TBLT	-	Task based language teaching
UNISA	-	University of South Africa
ZPD	–	Zone of proximal development

CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND

1.0 Introduction

The field of second language acquisition (SLA) research explores the way English as second language learners attain communicative competence in second language (L2). Many communicative language teaching (CLT) theorists define communicative competence differently, thus differentiating it from linguistic competence. For instance, Canale and Swain (1980:35) define communicative competence as a linguistic term, denoting the speaker's grammatical knowledge of syntax, morphology as well as social knowledge about how and when to use utterances in appropriate contexts. Linguistic competence is also defined as the implicit knowledge of the language structure (Kamiya, 2006:70; Ohno, 2006:28; Celce-Murcia, 2007:47; Michaud, 2015:240; Remache 2016:188). Therefore, in this study, communicative competence can be understood as the tertiary students' balanced knowledge of linguistic rules and sociocultural behaviours of the use of the target language.

Research on SLA has been conducted from various perspectives over the years. According to O'Grady, Dobrovolsky and Katamba (1997:13), researchers intended to advance the way in which second languages were taught towards learners' communicative competence. They were also interested in determining how these languages were learned. This implies that SLA researchers are no longer interested in how second languages are learnt, but how they are acquired (Moulton, 2009:11). According to Krashen (2013:2), language learning occurs consciously through instructions in the classroom. Here learners' mistakes are corrected immediately as they arise. Language acquisition, on the other hand, occurs subconsciously, suggesting that learners are unaware that they are 'picking up a language' because of their unconsciously internalised or stored knowledge in their brains (Krashen, 2013:1). Language teaching could thus be viewed as stressing the importance of interaction between learners and teachers, with teachers no longer being sources of information or transmitters of knowledge, but becoming facilitators. Therefore, such SLA theories such as the behaviourism, mentalism (innatism), cognitivism (rationalism/developmentalism) and interactionism came into being (Lightbrown & Spada, 2006:30; Brown, 2007:55; Moulton, 2009:7; Richards, 2014:18; and

Richard, 2015:19). This study, therefore, sought to explore the challenges that English as a second language (ESL) undergraduate students at the three selected Lesotho universities encounter in developing communicative competence skills. The next section explains the statement of the problem.

1.1 Statement of the problem

The learning and acquisition of English as second language for attaining communicative competence in Lesotho has posed challenges over years. According to Ekanjume-Ilongo (2015:1159), the problem of learners' communicative incompetence in Lesotho is mainly caused by improper teaching methods. In this view, the Lesotho General Certificate for Secondary Education (LGCSE) English syllabus provides no other skills than just emphasising reading and writing. Taking the point further, Nikian, Nor, Rejab, Hassan and Zainal (2016:6) maintain that many teachers focus on teaching learners grammatical competence in isolation from other communicative competence aspects. As such, other language learning skills such as listening, speaking and reading have been overlooked in the syllabus. In the ensuing, students have faced challenges up to their tertiary level, where poor communicative competence skills can be observed.

This problem escalates further to a tertiary level because of students' improper foundation attributed to improper teaching methods at a secondary level (Khati & Khati, 2009:182). Also notable is Remache's (2016:187) claim that ESL students often find themselves quite incapable of expressing their emotions, feelings, agreement, disagreement, likes and dislikes, to mention a few in an English social context. Neither do students command relevant vocabulary to construct sentences to demonstrate their communicative competence. Such expressive inability is caused by students' lack of lexical competence which serves as a catalyst in L2 acquisition (Zareva, Schwanenflugel, Nikolova, 2005:572; Krashen, 2013:3).

Furthermore, Nkhi (2018:55) and Getie (2020:32) found students' inability to express themselves fluently in L2 as exacerbated by lack of practice because most of them have no discussion peers outside school, especially at home where their parents are mostly illiterate. Such a non-interactional experience may be attributed to Bourdieu's (1977) 'cultural capital' and 'habitus' as cited in Košutić (2017:153). Cultural capital is the state through which students who are from wealthy families are presented with more opportunities than those from poor families (Di Maggio, 1982:191; Bourdieu, 1986:17; De Graaf, 1986:238; De Graaf *et. al*, 2000:93; Košutić, 2017:155; Huang, 2019:45). For this study, such predisposition suggests that students who are poor will not obtain any help from their parents at home. As a result; they will not be as communicatively competent as their counterparts from rich families with literate parents. Moreover, Courage (1993:495), Curry *et al.* (2016:70) and Sibanda and Kajee (2019:1) agree that students who are well drilled by their guardians or parents from home perform better than those without any such home-based help. Furthermore, Ekanjume-Ilongo (2015:1162) states that tertiary students are communicatively incompetent because of the lecturer-student ratio. For the author, too many students in lecture rooms tend to force lecturers to employ teacher-centred methods, which do not promote interaction amongst students. The above assertions necessitate an inquiry into the challenges facing undergraduate ESL students in developing their communicative competence skills.

Anecdotal personal experience, discussing with colleagues and engaging students pointed to communicative competence as a challenge among ESL students. My colleagues groused about students' poor performance in oral presentations because of their inability to express themselves in English language. Also concerning for my colleagues has been students' poor grammar in written assignments despite their efforts to correct students' grammatical mistakes, instead of marking the content of the assignments. Apparently, students have challenges in developing communicative competence skills as also cited by many scholars. On this basis, the phenomenon of communicative incompetence should be tackled empirically to find out how best students can be helped to acquire, and to learn the target language for their communicative competence and performance.

1.2 The motivation for the study and the research gap

My motivation to explore the challenges that English as a second language undergraduate students encounter in the development of English communicative competence skills in the three selected tertiary institutions in Lesotho emanated from students' poor communicative competence in English language. Considering the limited scholarship on communicative competence in L2, especially in Lesotho, the study set out to investigate the challenges facing tertiary students in the development of communicative competence skills in English language. The findings of this inquiry are thus anticipated to shed light on students' acquisition of communicative competence skills. These challenges also appear to hinder students from engaging effusively in learning English for communication purposes in the classroom and in formal contexts or settings outside of the classroom. Additionally, the study sought to identify teaching approaches which could help in establishing a suitable model for teaching and learning of communicative competence skills not only in higher-learning institutions, but across the entire educational sector in Lesotho.

Few studies on tertiary students' acquisition and learning of English as a second language have been conducted in Lesotho. For instance, Khati and Khati's (2009:161-192) and Ekanjume-Ilongo's (2015:1157-1164) studies manly focused on tertiary students' low proficiency in English language without necessarily diagnosing the real cause of the communicative incompetency. Therefore, the purpose of the study was to explore the challenges that undergraduate university students encounter in the development of their communicative competence skills. At this stage, communicative competence could be viewed as basically comprising the skill, capacity and knowledge of the art of using the target language in different contexts. The study further sought to add a new dimension to the teaching and acquisition of communicative competence in English through the socio-cultural theory (SLT), on which lecturers would draw so as to apply to ESL classrooms. The study is also anticipated to aid students to acquire competence in real-life English (Raju & Joshith, 2018:180).

1.3 Research questions and objectives of the study

Doody and Bailey (2016:20) describe research questions as an investigation that can provide answers to a specific phenomenon or an interest. The study explores the challenges that English as a second language undergraduate students encounter in the development of communicative competence skills.

1.3.1 Research questions

It is against this background that the study sought to answer the following main research question:

What challenges do English as second language undergraduate students encounter in the development of communicative competence skills?

In order to investigate the research problem, the study is intended to answer the following sub-questions:

a) What communicative competence-related strategies do undergraduate students use in learning ESL?
b) What communicative competence-related strategies do ESL lecturers employ in their classrooms?

1.3.2 Objectives of the study

The study thus set out to achieve the following specific research objectives:

a) To describe the communicative competence-related strategies which undergraduate students use when learning ESL.
b) To identify the communicative-competence strategies which lecturers employ in the ESL classrooms.

1.4 Rationale statement

This study hopes to make both academic and practical contributions. The academic input rests in the fact that little is known about the challenges facing undergraduate students in developing communicative competence skills because of lack of studies in Lesotho. Therefore, there is a gap in research, which the present study aims to fill concerning such challenges for ESL undergraduate students in learning English language.

Moreover, the research hopes to make a practical contribution because the findings may encourage English teachers and lecturers, ESL students and curriculum planners to reflect on the present teaching methods used in the English language classroom with a view to fuse communicative approaches that may enhance students' communication skills in Lesotho. The findings may also offer the Ministry of Education and Training (MoET) and the policy-makers better understanding of English language learning and teaching at a tertiary level in Lesotho. The findings are then anticipated to shed light on language practitioners at the secondary school planning stage, where the problems seem to have emanated. Finally, the study would bridge the gap between the two stages which are secondary and higher education in terms of language learning and acquisition towards communicative competence and performance.

1.5 Thesis outline

Chapter One provides the introduction to the study. The chapter also presents the problem statement, motivation of the study and the research gap, research questions and objectives of the study as well as the rationale for or significance of the study.

Chapter Two reviews the theoretical and empirical literature pertinent to second language learning and acquisition and communicative competence underlying this study by Hymes (1972), Chomsky's (1965) competence and performance as well as Krashen's (1982) second language acquisition theory. The socio-cultural theory of language learning formed the basis for second language learning and acquisition as viewed in the study. Furthermore, the chapter reviewed the literature on language and brain which proved critical to language acquisition. This is because activities that lecturers in the context of this study design ought to trigger both the left and the right hemisphere instead of one (left hemisphere) which seemed to be the focus for most language teachers. The teaching approaches that can enhance students' competence in English such as communicative language teaching, task-based language teaching and scenario-based teaching are also explored as well as how they can be implemented.

Chapter Three presents the research methodology, thus outlining the design, the paradigm and philosophical underpinnings as well as data collection analysis tools and ethical considerations for this study.

Chapter Four presents, analyses and interprets the findings of the study. The themes derived from emerging codes during the thematic analysis are considered. Based on the discussions, the findings are then linked to both the theory and literature.

Chapter Five discusses the main findings of the study in relation to the aims of the study, data collection design and methodology as well as the existing theoretical and empirical literature.

Lastly, Chapter Six ends with the main findings on which the conclusions and recommendations are made. Finally, the chapter presents limitations and contributions of the study, as well as suggesting further research on the related phenomena following this study.

CHAPTER TWO

THE LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

The review of related literature is a critical examination of what has been written in relation to the problem under investigation (Bryman, 2008:26). Leedy and Ormrod (2005:64) stipulate that the review of related literature comprises the theoretical standpoints and the results of past studies that have been conducted in different parts of the world. The related literature on the theoretical underpinnings of second language learning and acquisition and communicative competence and performance in English is also reviewed in this chapter. The comprehensible literature review models of communicative competence as well as the theory that will guide the study will be expounded on in the literature chapter. This chapter then provides the conceptualisation of key concepts, theoretical framework, research question-based literature, and the overall summative perspective highlighting the implications of the literature for the study and the summary. The following section conceptualises key terms to this study.

2.1 Conceptualisation of key concepts

This section defines the key concepts as operationalised in the study.

2.1.1 Communicative competence

Communicative competence is the linguistic term which refers to the speaker's knowledge of language for a range of dissimilar purposes and functions as well as social knowledge about how and when to use utterances appropriately in communication (Richards, 2006:3).

2.1.2 English as a second language

English as a second language is the use or study of English Language by speakers of different native languages in an English-speaking environment (Vyomakesisri, 2017:21).

2.2 Theoretical framework

Language acquisition theories can be categorised into two groups, namely first language acquisition (FLA) and second language acquisition (SLA). The former posits that children acquire their native language easily to a degree of competency while the latter theorises that although people easily master their first language (L1), realising the same degree of proficiency becomes a challenge in second language (L2) (Lightbrown & Spada, 2010:37). Lightbrown and Spada (2006:29) classified FLA theories into the behaviourist, the innatist and the cognitive/developmental. These theories are reviewed in detail, considering SLA theories, criticisms and limitations as underlying this study. According to Brown (2000: 274), a SLA theory "is really an interrelated set of hypothesis and/or claims about how people become proficient in second language". Therefore, a rudimentary understanding of second language acquisition theories is crucial for and guides lecturers on providing suitable content for students (Taylor-Tricomi, 1986:60; Burden, 2006:19; Liu, 2015:142).

The enquiry therefore adopted Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory of second language learning and acquisition which underpins this study. This theory views language learning and acquisition as the product of interaction between lecturers and students. For communicative competence, students should be exposed to input that encourages them to interact amongst themselves, with a lecturer acting mainly as a facilitator. The theory has been found to answer the main question of the study, focusing on the challenges facing students in developing communicative competence and the teaching strategies employed by lecturers in their classrooms. Literature states that teaching methods which do not encourage an interaction amongst students in the classroom cause students' communicative incompetence. Literature further attests that lecturers teach many students in one classroom in which case have difficulty enhancing students' communicative competence. However, it is not clear how this problem can be averted. Therefore, this study aims to explore the strategies of encouraging interaction amongst lecturers and students in the classroom regardless of the lecturer-student ratio.

2.2.1 Socio-cultural theory of second language learning and acquisition

The socio-cultural theory (SCT) was developed Lev Vygotsky (1978), and sees learning as always closely interconnected with what students already know (prior knowledge). On this basis, lecturers should start expanding suitable experiences in order to achieve higher mental processes (Hamachek, 1995:33; Lantolf, 2006:73; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Turuk, 2008:245; Mustafa, Alias, Radzi, 2017:1169; Villamizar, 2017:95; Loewen & Sato, 2018:50). The theory has three main themes or constructs with others that are complementary to the theory as explained below. The theory stresses interaction as another means of developing students' communicative competence skills in the classroom. Interaction promotes comprehensible output which might come out as the input provided by lecturers to students (Shannon, 2011: 18). Students would in turn produce meaningful or comprehensible utterances (output) because of being in charge of their learning while lecturers are only facilitators, mainly helping them where they encounter communication breakdown while negotiating meaning amongst themselves. The following section expounds Vygotsky's zone of proximal development.

2.2.2 Zone of proximal development

The Zone of Proximal Development (ZDP) is for each child whose intellectual development is growing. The ZDP refers to the idea that there are certain problems that students are close to being able to solve at any given point in their cognitive development (Vygotsky, 1978:47; Hamachek, 1995:35; Lantolf, 2006:68; Pathan, Memon, Memon, Khoso& Bu, 2018:231).Vygotsky (1978:89) further defines ZPD as the space between the current growth level as determined by students' autonomous problem-solving and the level of prospective development through the help of an adult, a teacher or peers who are more capable by providing clues, reminders, gentle prodding, instruction or anything that can push them towards the edge of new knowledge (Hamachek, 1995:34; Dongyu, Fanyu1 & Du Wanyi, 2013:168). This notion implies a huge transformation in the cognitive growth of a learner when they are with more advanced classmates. Such a difference also suggests that students learn enthusiastically and promptly under the auspices of a mentor or a teacher.

However, other challenges are beyond students' capability to comprehend regardless of how clear and detailed an instruction might be. Vygotsky's notion is to explain the intellectual growth of students when they work individually. Nevertheless, the variance is made when they are aided by others who are more capable than them. One of the challenges stated by Ekanjume-Ilongo (2015:1163) is that lecturers do not encourage interaction amongst students in their classrooms because of large students' numbers. This implies that lecturers will not be able to monitor students' intellectual growth or their need to do in order to enhance students' communicative competence skills. As stipulated by Gee (1999:18), also noted is that students are not inventors of language, but they are inheritors of language from their lecturers. That is, they will be communicatively competent if lecturers interact with them in meaning negotiation because lecturers are seen as the inventors of language. Furthermore, I believe that only students with proper 'cultural capital' as postulated by Bourdieu (1986:17) as well those who are exposed to language out of school or 'home literacy' as purported by Courage (1993:494) will progress even if not monitored. Critical here could be the help by their parents or siblings at home.

However, Courage (1993:495) observes that lecturers and their students participate in a co-operative enterprise of teaching, research and learning as well as portraying teaching as a practice of welcoming outsiders into this initiative with all the expertise, social and pecuniary prospects unlocked by it. My question as the researcher will therefore be what can be done in cases where there are many students in a classroom, so that lecturers can be in a position to monitor all the students? My take on this matter is that including all students, whether privileged or under-privileged, will thwart what scholars such as Labov (1972), Smitherman (1977) and Sledd (1983) cited in Courage (1993:495) ridicule as 'academic language' that serves as a dialect of advantaged people who demand the dislodgment of the language and other cultural forms of destitute, ethnic minority students and the working class as the price for their integration into bourgeoisie.

The socio-cultural theory, however, discourages transmission of knowledge, but it encourages interaction between lecturers and students where lecturers act as mediators. This transmission of knowledge is what Freire (2014:73) terms 'the banking concept'. The banking concept of education sees students as containers or piggy banks wherein information is deposited and then withdrawn during examinations. I therefore, perceive the teaching and learning of English language as in Khati and Khati (2009), Ekanjume-Ilongo (2015) and Nkhi (2018), especially in the context of Lesotho, as inclining towards the banking concept because students are taught to pass examinations rather than developing communicative competence. However, Freire (2014:77) views communication as the means through which students' learning and acquisition of English language can hold meaning. Furthermore, this theory (SCT) helped the researcher to answer the main objective of the study, which is to find out the communicative competence-related strategies that ESL lecturers employ in their classrooms and whether those strategies help students in developing their communicative competence skills.

The zone of proximal development is a sort of midway within which a student cannot solve a problem alone, but can do that with the help of a lecturer (Wertsch, 1985:479; Hamachek, 1995: 422; Turuk, 2008:246; Lantolf & Beckett, 2009:462). In his view, instructions and learning can take place at this time because that is when students are motivated to learn (Vygotsky, 1978:89). It will be difficult for students to acquire communicative competence at this stage because lecturers could not help them to solve problems encountered. This is because of the teacher-centred approach employed in their classrooms which does not encourage an interaction at all, but only transmission of knowledge. Vygotsky's view coincides with Krashen's (2013:3) affective filter hypothesis that students learn better when their filter is down because the input will easily be conveyed to the LAD.

The input hypothesis is Stephen Krashen's endeavour to explain how the learner acquires a second language. According to Krashen (1982:20), students acquire second language when the comprehensible input is a bit higher than the current level of the acquired competence. Lecturers should teach or expose students to language structures beyond their knowledge. Concurring with Krashen's input hypothesis, Gass (1997:1) observes that "Input is perhaps the single most important concept of second language acquisition. It is trivial to point out that no individual can learn a language without input of some sort". This indicates that students acquire language in only one way, and that is through the comprehension of messages, or over the reception of a comprehensible input (Krashen, 1981). Comprehensible input is designated as 'i +1'. In Krashen's terms 'i' characterises a language at the student's existing level of language competence while '1' represents the subsequent level of competence in the natural direction of development.

Notably, an input hypothesis is pertinent merely to acquisition and not to learning. Therefore, Krashen argues for an adequate comprehensible input through which necessary grammar would be automatically acquired. As such, deliberate or explicit teaching of grammar is not necessary, since it can be acquired subliminally with the aid of the language acquisition device (Brown, 2007). This means that the acquisition of communicative competence in L2 will manifest in ESL students. On many occasions, students' motivation to learn increases when they are left to work alone and discover things by themselves. They would pay attention when given a solution to a problem that they failed to solve amongst themselves, so I agree with the view that students learn better when they are helped to solve problems that they cannot solve on their own.

This theory helped the researcher when collecting data in the students' natural setting to find out the causes of the challenges facing students in developing their communicative competence skills. It was easier to find out because the theory encourages interaction between lecturers and students in the classroom to see where students are lacking so that they can help them. This means that students' communicative competence skills will not be enhanced where interaction is minimal. Therefore, lecturers ought to perform scaffolding activities aimed at helping students to acquire communicative competence. The following section explains mediation and scaffolding as per the socio-cultural theory of second language learning theory.

2.2.3 Mediation and scaffolding

Vygotsky (1978:88; 1986:96) describes mediation as an illustration of tools. Furthermore, Pathan *et al.* (2018:236) and Schumm (2006:22) refer to mediation involves tools, the most substantial of which is language used by students to resolve problems. Further clarity of this notion is provided by Lantolf (2000: 198), suggesting a psychological mediation through the conceptual and semiotic tools, regarded as the palpable connection between humans and the somatic world that is mediated by material tools. For instance, Lantolf (2000: 198) adds that,

> …if we want to dig a hole in the ground in order to plant a tree, it is possible, following the behaviour of other species, to simply use our hands. However, modern humans rarely engage in such non-mediated activity; instead, we mediate the digging process through the use of a shovel, which allows us to make more efficient use of our physical energy and to dig a more precise hole…

This example suggests that students may use the social support as the cognitive foundation allowing them to ultimately solve more problems on their own. The social support may derive from more competent members, including more capable peers and adults in their social milieu. Such social support, especially from parents or guardians is crucial for developing the communicative competences required for success in the target language. It is therefore imperative to draw on the lexicon of the scaffolding and mediation practices that students cultivate outside school (Haneda, 2006:337; Rowsell & Pahl, 2015:1). However, students without any cultural capital have insufficient tools to mediate their immediate environments and develop their communicative competence skills (Bourdieu, 1986:23; Huang, 2019:45).My understanding is that comprehensible input is another tool for students' use to mediate their second language learning and acquisition.

The concept of mediation has been viewed by Turuk (2008:247) who defines it as the part played by more erudite other in the growth and life of the learner. Mediation involves helping the learner to move into and through the next layer of knowledge or understanding. Furthermore, Vygotsky (1978), cited in Turuk (2008:251), asserts that the secret of successful learning rests in the way the social interaction between two or more people with dissimilar levels of competence in the second language happens. Further suggested is the use of language to assist students to shift into and all the way through their ZPD is important for socio-cultural theory. Therefore, language learning is a mediated process in SLA. Here, inter-subjectivity is regarded as crucial for the notion of mediation (Pathan *et al*., 2018:234). Consequently, considering the concept as a momentous stage in internalisation, Wertsch (1998: 324) defines inter-subjectivity as a mutual understanding between the learner and the teacher. This is because more erudite people, mentors or teachers slowly lessen support and thus transmit the obligation to the learner. Mediation involves tools and roles played by one person in the cognitive growth of the child (Hamachek, 1995:422; Wertsch, 1998: 325; Lantolf, 2000:198; Pathan *et.al*., 2018:234).

The conception of scaffolding is central to both socio-cultural theory/activity theory and socio-cultural theory of second language learning and acquisition (Engeström, 1999:35). Scaffolding is thus defined in terms of the help which is given to the learner in order to meet their intellectual potential (Hamachek, 1995:422; Turuk, 2008:446). Donato (2000:34) describes scaffolding as a condition which is constructed by a teacher, peer or parent in which the learner can partake and augment their present abilities and knowledge to higher levels of performance. According to Nguyen (2022:5), scaffolding activities can be categorised in three types which are vertical, sequential and instructional. Vertical scaffolding entails the role played by parents or mentors by asking students more questions under any topic studied in class while sequential scaffolding take place when students partake in games which are aimed at improving their vocabulary and speaking skills. Lastly, instructional scaffolding is believed to be at the centre of teaching or in tutorials where a lecturer assists students in designing the learning chore (Nguyen, 2022:5). It was important therefore to find out the type of scaffolding offered in the development of students' communicative competence skills.

There are four subgroups of scaffolding in the process of instructional scaffolding and they are; conceptual, metacognitive, procedural, and strategic scaffolding Hannafin *et al*. (2013, cited in Nguyen, 2019:6).In conceptual scaffolding, lecturers drill their students to concentrate on the extent of the description of the problem which might be found within the task. On the contrary, metacognitive scaffolding supports students in organising their thinking, suggesting possible resolutions when working on a problem as well as thinking upon the continuous course of action during the analysis of and solution to the task. Students who have developed this kind of strategy tend to do better than those who have not (Hannafin *et al.*, 2014:652). Moreover, procedural scaffolding offers advice and backing to students on the basis of their understanding of the uses and functions of language. Lastly, strategic scaffolding instructs the students on wide-ranging strategies when analysing problems as well as approaching such a problem. For instance, students can apply this strategy when trying to find an alternative answer to answering quickly the cognitive gap in a verbal task (Bannert, 2002:145-146; de Jong, 2010:119; Nguyen, 2022:6). I was further interested in finding out how lecturers help students with low cultural capital to develop their metacognitive strategies which lead to good performance (Hannafin *et al.*, 2014:652).

Teacher-centred approaches offer no scaffolding to students because lecturers do not engage students in their teaching (Nguyen, 2022:4). Because of lack of interaction, neither do lecturers know the needs of their students in order to learn better. The SCT therefore recommends that lecturers should create a conducive learning environment where students can interact amongst themselves (Nguyen, 2022:5). Moreover, Cash and Schumm (2006:264) believe that scaffolding provided to students aid in their language learning and acquisition. Thus, such help is contracted or stopped in order to make the learner more autonomous. Instantaneously, Verity (2000:182) and Naval (2018:386) view scaffolding as an intellectual help provided to the learner in order to lessen their cognitive burden in the learning and acquisition of L2.Therefore, for scaffolding to succeed in a second language classroom, Sharpe and Michell (2005:47) put forward four conditions; the neophyte student should be assigned the chief responsibility for the task; the task has to be challenging enough to students so that in can stimulate their problem-solving skills; there should be diverse degrees of knowledge amongst students so that they can help one another should difficulties arise during the execution of the task; and, that experts or lecturers ought to show interest in helping less capable students to participate in the task.

2.3 The Importance of English language as a medium of communication

The importance of English language in the neoteric world and in many countries' educational systems cannot be underrated (Kamwangamalu & Moyo, 2003:35; Fang, 2010:112). On this basis, English is the most widely used language in various sectors which include communication and education. Michaud (2002:77) points to English as the principal foreign or second language that is taught and sought after in many countries in the world where it has a high status as the global medium of education, travel, entertainment, e-communication, and business. Similarly, Kamwangamalu and Moyo (2003:36) accord that English is not just a lingua franca of common people in many countries, but it is a language of prestige.

However, owing to its stature and higher social standing, both locally and internationally, English has a strong 'charm'. Nkhi (2018:55), Ekanjume (2015:1158) and Mohasi (1995:56) stated that despite having Sesotho and English declared official languages in the Constitution of Lesotho, most official documents are still written in English only. These include the country's Constitution, standard application forms and court documents (Johansson & Jonsson, 2006:23). Most parents, as a result of the supposed career benefits that English apparently offers, want their children to be educated at an English-medium school in order to be communicatively competent. As Granville, Janks, Mphahlele, Reed, Watson, Joseph and Ramani (1998: 259) assert that English has dominion over other languages because of the symbolic status attached to it. Concerning the value of English, Bourdieu (1991:55) introduces the notion of 'symbolic power', meaning that language is only powerful because of the symbolic status that people impute to it. This assertion corroborates Khati and Khati's (2009:163-164) view that English is spoken almost everywhere even in powerful institutions like the European Parliament and United nations. The need therefore to be communicatively competent in English is indispensable. The view perhaps coheres with the priority by some European countries where English competence is a condition for admission into their institutions and for awarding scholarships. This narrative suggests a research-appraised change in the teaching and development of tertiary students' communicative competence skills in English language.

English language is widely used in scholarly research. According to Johansson and Jonsson (2006:23) in Ekanjume-Ilongo (2015:1156), 85 percent of all scientific publications in the world are written in English or have a summary in English. Even publications which are written in other languages are summarised in English. Ekanjume-Ilongo (2015:1157) claims that "in spite of the high interest in English Language, teaching it as a second language has a lot of challenges and difficulties". This is an implication that teaching students who have a limited understanding of the language makes it pedagogically challenging for a lecturer to teach towards communicative competence and communicative performance. This assertion corroborates Clegg and Afitska's (2011:15) view that most countries which use English as a second language are faced with a daunting task of curbing high numbers of students who underperform in English. This underperformance is caused by various factors, which include an appeal to mother tongue whenever challenged in English and lack of comprehensible input that can enhance learners' communicative competence (Clegg & Afitska, 2011:19; Mohammed, 2018:1382). According to Krashen (2013:2), students acquire language subconsciously when they are mostly exposed to enough comprehensible input. I therefore believe that students should not be made aware that they are acquiring the target language; rather, they have to be aware that they are communicating, since the purpose of language learning is communication.

Many former British colonies in Africa such as Nigeria, Ghana and Zimbabwe have awarded English a special status in their education systems. As one of the former British protectorates, Lesotho recognises English as a medium of communication and also adopts it as a medium of instruction from grade four through to tertiary level of education (Lesotho Education Language Policy, 2019:1). Because of this perception of the status of English in the country, it is therefore imperative to enhance students' communicative capability to be independent users of English as a second language (L2). The perception is stipulated as follows by the Ministry of Education and Training (2009:16),

> In order to meet the life challenges and cope with different challenges, communication is important as a means to express ideas and feelings. Thus, the learners should have the ability to communicate effectively in words, symbols, colours, signs, sound, media (print, electronic), and actions. Therefore, learners should be helped to develop the following skills: listening, speaking, writing and reading.

The Curriculum and Assessment Policy (CAP) implies that students must be equipped with necessary skills, to make them communicatively competent in English as a widely used medium of communication in life. The policy also suggests that multiliteracies and multimodality approaches to teaching and learning must be adopted to discuss meaning-making through images, symbols, film clips, sound and videos (Godhe & Magnusson, 2019:128). These two approaches, multimodality and multiliteracies, are examined in Section 2.6. This further implies that the syllabus ought to espouse the communicative language approach (CLT) to learners' communicative competence. Adopting CLT would develop the learners' communicative skills, thus preparing them to be communicatively competent when reaching the tertiary level. In this way, learners should know when to speak, when not to speak, what to talk about with whom, when, where and how as these elements are integral to communicative competence (Hymes, 1972:270). The importance of communication as depicted in CAP, is considered the function of language which is carried out by in spoken language. Communication is also a social activity involving speech as the medium of communication that hinges on the knowledge and competence of the speaker (Widdowson, 1979:53; Remache, 2016: 187). Here, the speakers' ability to express themselves easily in the target language could allow them to communicate properly (Lightbrown & Spada, 2006: 44).

2.4 Language learning and ESL development

The behaviourist theory views children as learning to speak from other human role models through a process which includes rewards and practice (Cooter & Reutzel, 2004:29; Richard, 2015:42). According to Willis (1997:27), Moulton (2009:8) and Lightbrown and Spada (2006:34), teaching approaches such as audio-lingual and presentation, practice and production (PPP) are behaviourist, emphasising habit formation and the role of practice in English as a second language (ESL) in classrooms. In this view, language involves the formation of habits and controlled responses to previously rehearsed dialogues, resulting in teacher training which stresses mimicry and rote learning (Cooter & Reutzel, 2004:30; Lightbrown & Spada, 2006:40; Moulton, 2009:6). However, this theory prompted Chomsky's (1965:4) syntactic structures whereupon he purports his linguistic theory of generative grammar that shifted fundamentally from structuralism and behaviourism (Cadzen & Courtney, 1996:24; Taha & Reishaan, 2008:40).

The major purpose of Chomsky's generative grammar presented a way of analysing syntactic structures which consider this underlying level of form. To achieve the aim, Chomsky drew a radical distinction from Saussure's (1959) in Naoua (2016:3) 'langue' and 'parole' that differentiates between a person's tacit knowledge of rules of a language and the actual utterance of that language in real situations. He referred to the first distinction as competence (one's ability to use language) and second performance (the real demonstration of competence in speaking and listening) (Phillips & Tan, 2005:1; Taha & Reishaan, 2008:42; Naoua, 2016:29).

He argued that linguistics must concern the study of competence, not just confining itself to performance (Clark & Clark, 1977:45; Crystal, 1987:35; Ohno, 2006:29; Taha & Reishaan, 2008:44; Remache, 2016:185). This suggests that students must preferably be taught to be communicatively competent in English language before focusing on 'performance'. I believe that students cannot be taught how to use a language in situations that require listening and speaking (performance) without being exposed to how to use it first (competence) in the classroom. Performance could thus be understood as the product of competence and not vice-versa.

However, Chomsky's notion of competence met with criticisms by such researchers as Dell Hymes and Michael Halliday amongst others. Hymes (1972:271) opposes Chomsky's idea in that he excluded the socio-cultural aspects in his study of language. In consonance, Halliday (1970) in Remache (2016:185) refutes the dissimilarity between competence and performance as being of little use in a sociological context. Another researcher who drew on Hymes' and Halliday's notions of communicative competence is Munby's (1972:46) who asserts that socio-cultural factors must form the basis of language because it is the backbone of social interactions. On this basis, students must be taught to use language through interactions, not only with peers in the classroom, but also outside in their societies.

Drawing on Hyme's thought of communicative competence, Widdowson (1973:26) stipulates that students acquire the knowledge of grammar and knowledge of appropriateness, that is, how to use a language correctly in different contexts (Remache, 2016:184). Chomsky's view on language acquisition contrasts with the social cultural theory which sees language as the product of the society, with students having to interact with their classmates and the society. For that reason, the researcher believes that in learning and acquiring a second language, it is essential for students to develop ways of communicating with others using the target language besides phonological and lexico-grammatical knowledge. Adopting certain teaching strategies can stimulate an interaction between students and lecturers.

Interaction is thus central to second language acquisition. One of the ways through which interactionists explain how students acquire a second language is through input. According to Krashen (2013:5), Long (2017:415) and Loewen and Sato (2017:30), students acquire second language when the comprehensible input is a bit higher than the current level of the acquired competence. On this basis, lecturers should teach students language structures beyond their knowledge, further suggesting that messages delivered to students must be understandable even though they are higher than their current level. Lecturers should include students in making choices of the intended messages, drawing on what students like most because it can increase their motivation to learn. In agreement, Gass (1997:1) accords that "Input is perhaps the single most important concept of second language acquisition. It is trivial to point out that no individual can learn a language without input of some sort". Noted here is that students acquire language in only one way such as comprehending messages, or receiving a comprehensible input.

Notably, Krashen (2013:6) maintains an adequate comprehensible input as necessary for automatic acquisition of grammar. In this view, the deliberate or explicit teaching of grammar is not necessary, since it can be acquired subliminally with the aid of the language acquisition device (LAD) (Brown, 2007:16; Schutz, 2019:36). Lecturers could thus expose students to listening and reading materials so as to help them to learn grammar unconsciously, the reading process which I consider to lead to improved linguistic repertoire. Listening to the target language use could also expand students' lexicon, followed by writing down new words used for the first time around them; they could then check meanings of such words later in their dictionaries. As result, they could use newly acquired lexical items as part of their own lexicon in their future discussions with their lecturers and/or classmates.

According to Richards (2006:22), students should partake in classroom activities meant for promoting co-operation rather than individualism. Such activities can involve debates or role plays to allow students to interact with one another. Therefore, the Zone of Proximal Development (ZDP) in students would be improved; with slow students learning from the more advanced ones (Zhang, 2009:55; Lantolf, 2011:15). In the process, students could also easily listen to their classmates in group work or pair work, instead of over relying on their lecturers. This suggests that they are expected to take on a greater degree of accountability for their own learning as independent users of L2. For this to happen, lecturers should just be facilitating and monitoring for 'scaffolding', the means by which lecturers assist students against any communication breakdown or correction of mistakes during interactions (Lantolf& Beckett, 2009:462).

There are several emotive determinants for second language acquisition, including motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety (Patrick, 2019:42; Mhlongo *et al*., 2020:97). For Krashen (2013:8) and Patrick (2019:40), these variables both restricting and permitting factors for second language acquisition. On the one hand, restriction thwarts language students from fully using the comprehensible input. When this emotive filter is up, the comprehensible input does not extend to LAD. On the other hand, when it is down, it will permit the input to be conveyed to the LAD (Johnson, 2004:24; Krashen, 2013:3). As such, students should be motivated to learn because if they are not motivated, even good lecturers in terms of language teaching and facilitating will not be able to get through them. I have also witnessed this phenomenon in one of my English lessons that students with low motivation do not perform well. Lecturers, therefore, should ensure that they uplift students' spirit for finding English more interesting to learn in class.

The affective variables which act as the mental blocks are motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety (Krashen, 2013:3). If the learner's motivation is high, the input will likely reach the LAD, meaning the higher acquisition (Gardner, 1985:19; Noels, Pelletier, Clément, Vallerand, 2003:30; Lightbrown & Spada, 2013:40; Mhlongo *et al*., 2020:100). Furthermore, anxiety and low self-confidence can block the input from being conveyed to the LAD, hence no acquisition to take place (Young, 1990:50; Ganshow & Javorshy, 1994:61; Saito & Sammy, 1996:37; Dupuy, 1997:48; Raju & Joshith, 2018:183; Schutz, 2018:47). The above-mentioned postulations imply that lecturers should ascertain students' motivation and self-confidence so as to easily acquire second language, thus leading to their improved communicative competence in English. Motivation can also be cultivated by not interrupting students or overcorrecting their errors when speaking. Literature has shown a correction of such errors as causing students' loss of confidence and motivation. Therefore, students should be given time to play in class through activities which they like so that they can acquire the language unconsciously.

2.5 Communicative competence and performance skills

Communicative competence is the term originated by Hymes (1972) in reaction to Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance. By competence, Chomsky (1965) in Naoua (2016:46), meant the shared knowledge of an ideal speaker-hearer's set in a completely identical speech-community; such knowledge is referred to as grammatical. It enables a user of a language to produce and comprehend an infinite set of sentences out of a finite set of rules (Widdowson, 1978: 35; Kamiya, 2006:64). Chomsky focused only on linguistic competence without necessarily considering social factors of a language. Social factors of a language mean students' abilities to know when to use the target language properly in different communication contexts. Hymes, therefore, criticised Chomsky's notion of competence as abstract, and thus proposed a more nuanced goal of language teaching geared towards developing students' communicative competence.

As a way of addressing Chomsky's notion, Hymes embarked on an ethnographic exploration of communicative competence that included the communicative form and function in a fundamental relation to each other (Kamiya, 2006:65). This communicative form is explained by interactionists as the collaboration between students and teachers where teachers help students to construct meaning instead of transmitting knowledge to them. In order to develop student's communicative competence and performance skills, Richards (2006:14) and Feryok (2017:719) substantiate that a lecturer should create tasks which encourage collaboration between students wherein stronger students will help weaker ones to achieve fluency in the target language. Collaboration tasks and facilitation from lecturers can help students to develop their communicative competence and performance skills. The above-mentioned views concur with the socio-cultural theory which advocates interaction between students and lecturers, with the former developing their communicative competence skills, the latter just facilitating.

Furthermore, Chomsky's notion of competence mainly focuses on the grammatical aspect of a language without considering its social factors. As noted earlier, Chomsky views competence as the speaker-hearer's knowledge of their language in the same speech community, while Hymes examines contextual relevance as crucial for one's knowledge of language, also claiming that meaning in communication is determined by its speech community and actual communicative circumstance (Widdowson, 1979:45; Kamiya, 2006:64; Remache, 2016:184). In this way, language teaching should be geared towards developing students' communicative competence skills which are grammatically competent and socio-culturally proficient. Hymes also adds that competence should be taken more comprehensively to include knowledge of when to speak, when not to speak, what to talk about with whom, when, where and in what manner.

For students to know how to use language in various settings, the researcher believes that lecturers should create a classroom atmosphere to help them to work collaboratively, experiment with and discover things by themselves. Hyme's notion of language acquisition seems to have influenced other CLT theorists such as Widdowson (1978:53), Canale and Swain (1980:35), Saville-Troike (2003:49) who view acquisition and learning of language as also based on appropriateness, rather than on form alone. The implication of language teaching thus requires students to be taught not only the grammatical aspect of the language, but also its social aspects such as politeness strategies and background knowledge of the target language group (Halliday, 1973:29; Widdowson, 1973:40; Nauoa, 2016:15; Schutz, 2018:30). I therefore consider communicative competence as basically comprising the skills, capacity and knowledge, thus knowing the art of using the target language in different contexts.

Explored some gaps in Chomsky's conception of competence, Hymes's (1972:282) communicative competence found Chomsky's distinction of competence and performance too narrow to describe the language behaviour as a whole. Hymes explains that a linguistic pattern should deal with a heterogeneous speech community. Hymes (ibid), therefore, developed a model of communicative competence which differentiates between linguistic and sociolinguistic competencies. Linguistic competence is the ability of a speaker to produce accurately structured understandable utterances while socio-linguistic competence means what is appropriate or acceptable to say in a given setting. Hymes (1972:286) further included the two notions of knowledge and ability in his definition of communicative competence. He defines the two concepts as the knowledge of when to speak, when not to speak, what to talk about with whom, what and where in what manner (Hymes, 1972:283).

Unlike Chomsky, Hymes believes that knowledge of language must embrace different speech communities. Hyme's position on communicative competence implies that students should be taught what to say and how to appropriately produce such utterances in given settings without any difficulty. To develop students' sociocultural competence, Richards (2006:25), Loewen and Sato (2018:34) assert that students should be placed together in pair and group activities so as to build their lexicon, articulacy and confidence which can occur only if they are active participants. Through such an interaction they would be taught negotiation and collaboration, thus having adequate opportunities and self-determination. Students could also be negotiate meaning through clarification requests, confirmation checks and comprehension checks which serve as reactions to a communication failure (Loewen & Sato, 2018:288).

Besides, through clarification checks students could ask questions for seeking clarification from their teachers or group members. The researcher opines that the ability to seek clarification by students in the target language from their interlocutors suggests that collaboration is essential to develop for students 'communicative competence skills and performance in L2. Pre-arranged productive language games and activities such as role plays are also necessary for students to develop an understanding of meanings of language and learning correct grammar and phonation. Richards (2006:17) Celce-Murcia (2007:51) outline some of the activities such as interviews, information gap activities, language exchange, surveys, pair work and learning by teaching in classrooms as espoused by CLT. Figure 2.1 below illustrates the types of communicative competencies to be enhanced through the above-mentioned activities.

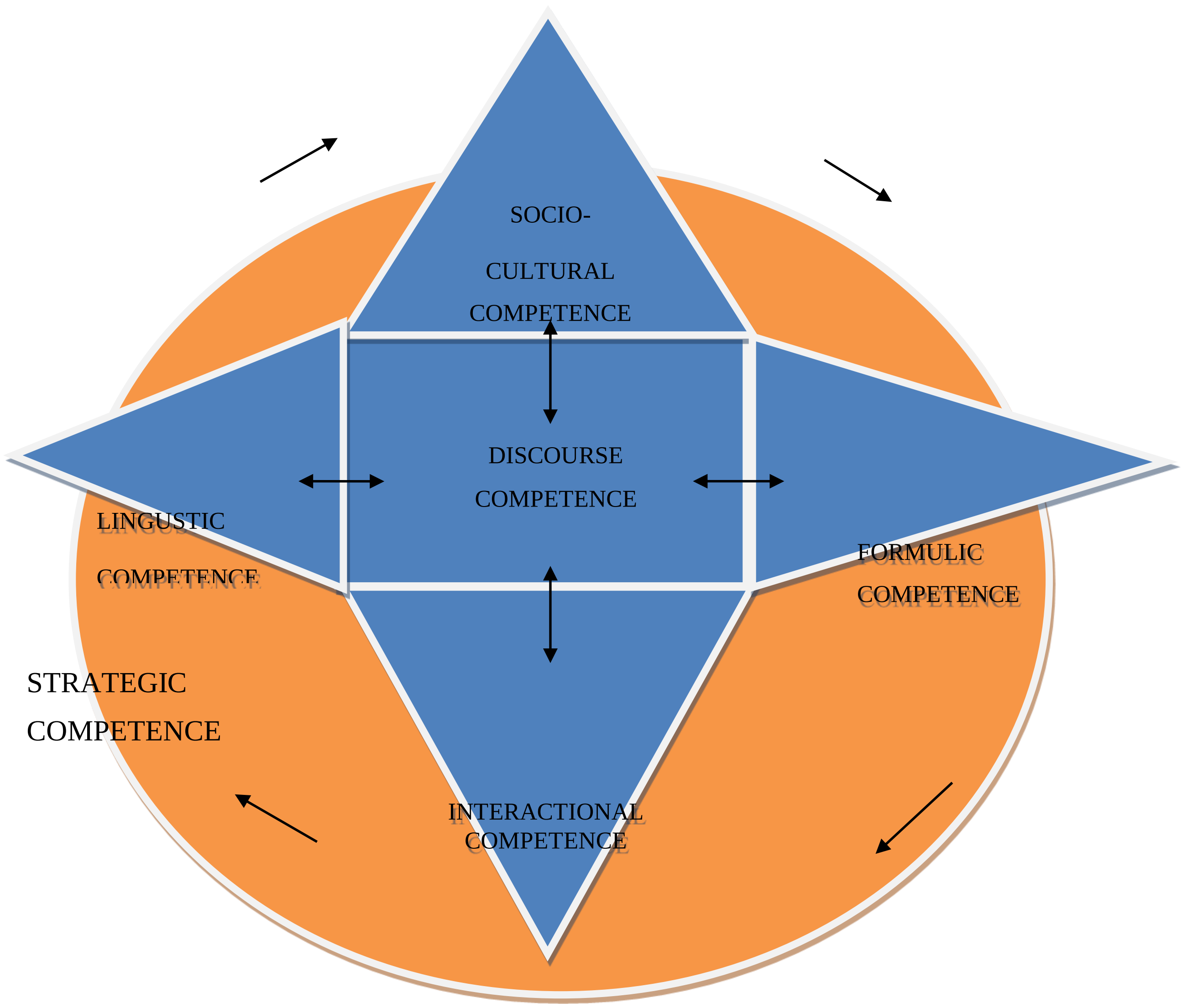

Figure 2.1 Revised schematic representation of 'communicative competence' (adapted from Celce-Murcia, 2007:45).

Celce-Murcia *et al.* (1993: 16) and Celce-Murcia (2007:45) refined Canale and Swain's model of communicative competence by adding two components. The model developed by Celce-Murcia comprises six components of communicative competence, namely socio-cultural competence, linguistic competence, discourse competence, formulaic competence, strategic competence and interactional competence. The six competences are discussed in turn below.

Socio-cultural competence, Celce-Murcia *et al.* (1993:19) and Celce-Murcia (2007:46), refers to the pragmatic knowledge of the speaker. For instance, the knowledge and appropriateness of language use derives from a social and cultural context as well as target language variations. The author continues to assert that a cultural or a social mistake can be more serious than a linguistic error during any given oral communication. In this regard, Celce-Murcia deliberates on pedagogical challenges facing ESL teachers in that they are more conversant with grammatical rules than the socio-cultural rules of the target language. This finding suggests that focusing only on grammatical rules would not be beneficial to students whose knowledge of the target language is limited. Teaching decontextualised grammar would further deprive students of other important competencies such as discourse, socio-linguistic or strategic competence which require interaction between lecturers and students. The above competence further implies that students should be taught drawing heavily on the target language's community traditions and literature.

The second competence discussed in this framework is discourse competence. Celce-Murcia (2007:46) defines discourse competence as the selection, categorisation and arrangements of words and utterances to achieve a unified spoken message. Discourse competence is central to this model, suggesting the communicative intent which intersects with socio-cultural knowledge and grammatical elements to express messages and attitudes as well as creating coherent texts (Bahaziq, 2016:112). To achieve socio-linguistic and linguistic competence, Celce-Murcia (2007:46) implies that students should be taught discourse competence at length since it forms a basis for a smoother acquisition of the afore-mentioned aspects. It is therefore important to further observe the kind of communicative activities employed by lecturers in their classroom to enhance this aspect.

Another form of competence in this model is the linguistic competence, which is defined as the knowledge of phonological, lexical, morphological and syntactic rules. In this view, linguistic competence comprises the bolt and nuts of communication, and it is also the most familiar and taught component of communicative competence. The guidelines provided in this model would help the researcher to pinpoint the precision of the communicative activities aimed at enhancing students' communicative competence.

The fourth competence is formulaic, which refers to those fixed and pre-fabricated chunks of language in everyday interaction (Celce-Murcia, 2007:47). In substantiating formulaic competence, Celce-Murcia (ibid) insists that fluent speakers of the target language refer to formulaic knowledge of the target language as often as they use the systematic linguistic knowledge.

Celce-Murcia's (2007:48) fifth component is interactional competent, which can within which are subsumed the following three sub-competences:

- Actional competence: knowing how to perform common speech acts and speech acts sets in the target language and involving interactions such as information exchanges, interpersonal exchanges, expressions of opinions and feelings.
- Conversational competence: it comprises such skills as opening and closing conversations, establishing and changing topics, interrupting and collaborating.
- Non-verbal/paralinguistic competence: subsumes the kinesics behaviour, proxemics, haptic behaviour and non-linguistic utterances.

According to Celce-Murcia (2007:48), interactional competence is important because performance of speech acts differs significantly from language to language. For instance, the ESL students should manage social introductions, demonstration of dissatisfaction and apologising in the target language. The author suggests that actional competence should be supported by the conversational competence related to turn-taking in the target language (Celce-Murcia *et al.,* 1993; Celce-Murcia, 2007:48). This is important because normal conversational practices in one culture are considered a rude behaviour in another. The awareness of both L1and L2 conversational norms thus help the teaching and acquisition of communicative competence. However, Kamiya (2006:66) claims that interactional skills are not easy for students to master because they are not taught overtly in the classroom. This postulation contrasts with the SCT which stipulates that lecturers should encourage interaction amongst students to use language in real situations. Therefore, their level of competence in the target language could be augmented. Interactional competence implies the researcher's focus on how students are helped to acquire different speech acts in the target language.

The last component is strategic competence. Strategic competence is the knowledge of using communicative strategies. For instance, overcoming problems in realising verbal plans, sorting confusion and partial or complete misunderstanding in communication and remaining in conversation as well as keeping it going in the face of communication difficulties as well as, playing for time to think implies that a student is strategically competent (Celce-Murcia, 2007:50). Strategic competence can be understood as the ability to improvise when faced with unexpected events or situations in communication.

On this basis, communicative competence implies that grammar cannot be taught in isolation from other aspects of language such as the knowledge of when to speak, when not to speak, what to talk about with whom, what and where and in what manner? The researcher therefore understands communicative competence as the term that includes the ability and ways of produce cohesive utterances in each communicative setting, the definition which coheres Hymes' notion of language structure contextual. This means that linguistic competence needs to be developed together with sociolinguistic competence. The figure below illustrates the evolution of communicative competence models as explained above.

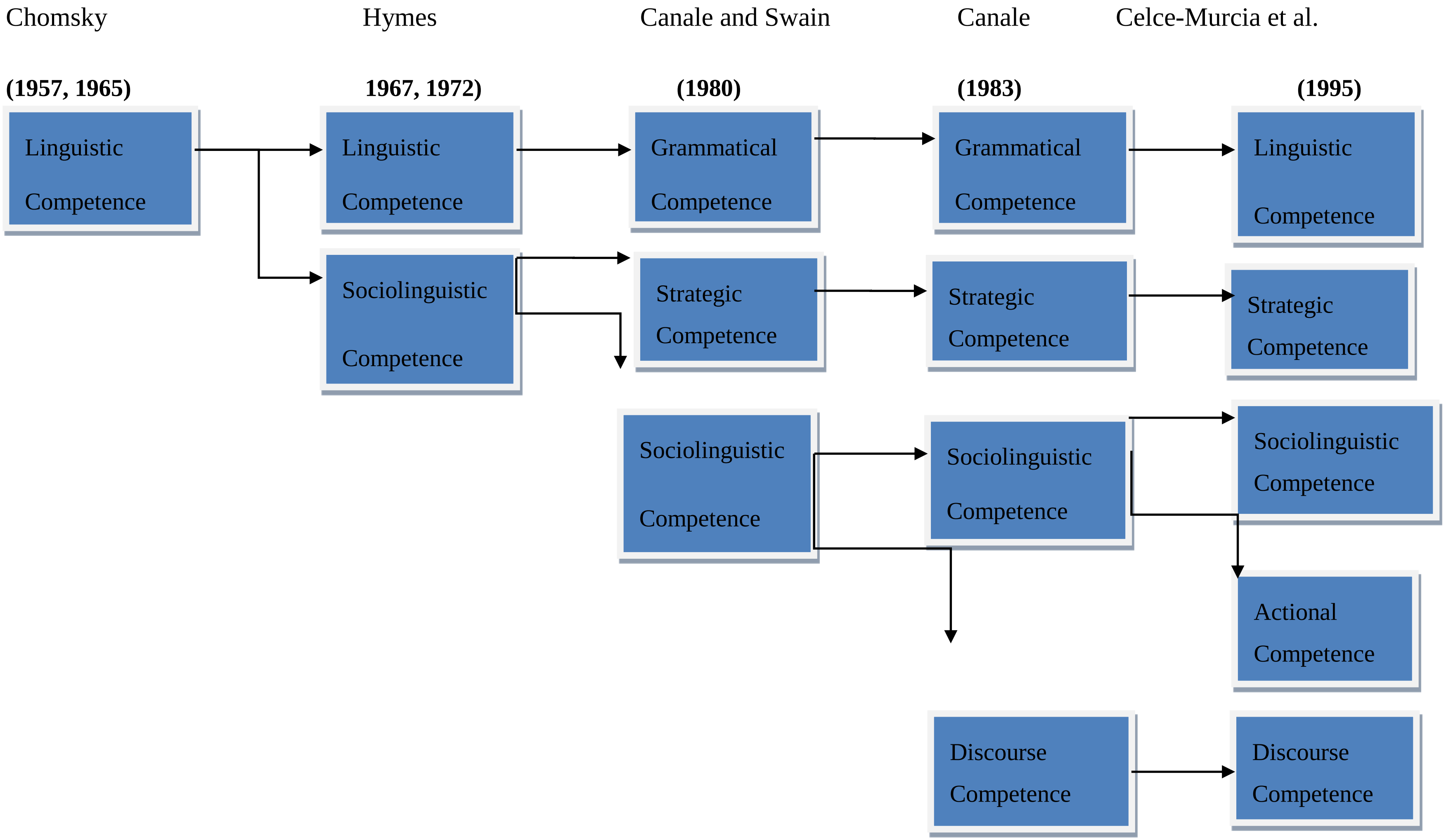

Figure 2.2 Chronological evolution of communicative competence (adapted from Celce-Murcia, 2007:43).

2.5.1 Communicative activities

Communicative activities play an integral part in language acquisition. They motivate students to communicate with one another and their lecturers as well as the other speakers of the language (Lee, 2000:74). Communicative activities serve the purpose of finding information, expressing oneself and learning the culture of a target language (Brandl, 2009:55). Lee (2000:75) asserts that communicative activities for students should be highly structured and relatively concrete. The author further explains that communicative activities are a form of enhancing learners' communicative ability. They should therefore be tightly structured to be more effective (Lee, ibid).

Communicative activities are described as being holistic because they embrace many parts of the lesson. Lee (2000:35) advises lecturers on how to judge activities which may burden students. The author further urges them to consider the following elements before structuring their tasks: Linguistic complexity: e.g. vocabulary, grammar and textual conventions; communicative stress: e.g. face-threatening topic or task, number of people involved and relationships of those involved; and, cognitive demands: familiarity with the topic, memory requirements and processing demand.

Through the influence of the above discussed communicative activities, Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei and Thurrell (1995:21) believe that communicative language teaching has become widely accepted as the leading goal of language education, and it is central to good classroom practice. Celce-Murcia *et al.* (1995:17) assert this as contrasting with the previous views in which grammatical competence was commonly prioritized. Communicative language teaching is concerned with the teaching of communicative competence in its holistic form and the activities designed best to facilitate learning (Savignon, 2002:8). In my opinion, there is a strong nexus between language acquisition and activities because they help students to use language in real-life settings. As a result, students would acquire the target language subconsciously (Krashen, 2013:3). For Xu Tsiang (2000: 35), Richards (2006:5), Ma (2009:44) and Rambe (2017: 56), key to CLT is that all activities designed and done in classrooms should be both communicative and student-centred, thus assisting in the goal of communication. Further, what lecturers and students do in the course of instruction can be segmented into two types. On listening exercise, it can be listening to sports broadcasting while on speaking it may be asking for directions to a museum. On reading, it could be understanding a sequence of guidelines, while on writing, it could be writing a covering letter for a job application. I therefore believe that these activities should be arranged based on the students' language level and competence in order to express themselves accordingly.

Richards (2006:14) makes a distinction between two types of activities used in a CLT classroom. There are activities that are aimed at enhancing students' accuracy and fluency in the target language. Fluency, on the one hand, is described as the normal language use taking place when a speaker participates in a meaningful interaction and then maintains comprehensible and continuing communication notwithstanding limitations in their communicative competence (Richards, 2006:14). My understanding therefore is that the language used in these activities is slightly higher than the current competence level of students. This notion of organising content higher than their current level of competence is supported by the SCT and (Krashen, 2013:5). Lecturers would therefore act as tools used by students to mediate, with lecturers or more advanced students helping other students through scaffolding (Lantolf & Poehner, 2014:8).

Furthermore, fluency is advanced by constructing classroom activities in such a way that students must negotiate meaning, utilise communication strategies and correct misunderstandings and work to evade communication cessations. However, I do not believe that students can be comfortable participating in activities whose language they do not understand. My argument is that most ESL students are unable to freely express themselves in a simple language that they understand. Furthermore, Richards (2006:14), Krashen (2013:3) and the proponents of SCT only advise that students be given a content above their level current level, but they do not show how that can be done to accommodate weaker students. The study therefore sought to find out measures to address this important issue. An accuracy practice, on the other hand, emphasises creating correct examples of language use (Richards, ibid). Accuracy examples include, *inter alia*, practising language out of context, guidance in choice of language and practising small samples of language (Richards, ibid).

Communicative activities help students to communicate fluently in the target language. The classroom activities should be planned in such a way as to involve students in the practical, realistic and functional use of the target language for meaningful purposes. Once the activities are planned in this manner, students would acquire what Celce-Murcia (2007:48) terms interactional competence. This type of competence is believed to be important by the author because it entails the knowledge of how to perform common speech acts in the target language such as information exchanges, interpersonal exchanges, expression of opinions and feelings (Celce-Murcia, 2007:48).

Moreover, interactional competence is further essential to students' comprehension of managing social interactions, airing their grievances or even apologising freely in the target language (Celce-Murcia, ibid). Based on the research questions of this study, the assertions around the communicative activities suggest that the study will also focus on how lecturers practice scaffolding as per the socio-cultural theory of English language learning in their classrooms thereby helping students to communicate effectively among themselves and other speakers of English. The researcher would also like to find out if lecturers implement different communicative teaching strategies which complement the activities aimed at enhancing student's communicative competence. The study further sought to find out if lecturers design the communicative activities pragmatically, authentically and purposefully.

2.5.2 Communicative language teaching

Communicative Language Teaching can be assumed as a set of values about the goals of language teaching, how students study a language, the varieties of classroom activities that best expedite learning and the roles of lecturers and students in the classroom (Richards, 2006:2).In this view, every language classroom ought to be dominated by activities that will help students to develop their communicative competence skills. Different researchers have various views on CLT. Such researchers as Savignon (1991:205) and Richards (2006:9) traced its introduction to the 1970s as a new approach to language teaching after the Grammar-Translation Method, Direct Method and Audio-Lingual Method (Richards, 2006:9).

Others could note its roots in the changes in the British language teaching tradition dating to the late 1960s (Altenaichinger, 2003:9 Richards & Rodgers, 2001:64). Wright (2010:45) claims that it emerged in the 1980s, and it remains the preferred approach by many language teachers/lecturers and researchers today. Still for others, CLT emerged from discontent with audio-lingualism which fashioned students who were taught how to memorise dialogues and then respond to drills, posing challenges for learners' communication with other speakers of the target language. CLT draws on Hymes's (1972) and Halliday's (1973) notions of communicative competence, which emphasised learning language for use to communicate in the target language with other speakers (Wright, 2010:46). Nevertheless, CLT is not a singular teaching technique, but it is a set of fundamental principles which can be interpreted and applied differently. These values include the following from (Richards & Rodgers, 2001: 172).

- Students learn a language by using it to communicate.
- Genuine and evocative communication should be the aim of classroom activities.
- Fluency is an essential aspect of communication.
- Communication comprises the incorporation of diverse language skills.
- Learning is a process of an inspired edifice and encompasses trials and errors.

In recent years, studies have shifted from communicative classrooms to form-focused classrooms. As such, an emphasis has been on providing grammar instruction within the communicative context of a particular academic subject or field because communication cannot occur outside the structure or grammar (Richards, 2006: 23; Ma, 2009:45; Wright, 2010:46). Therefore, the purpose of grammar is not just to memorise a rule, but to improve the ability to efficiently understand and deliver the intended meaning by reading books or other texts, making an oral presentations, writing science or history reports or working together with peers to carry out a scientific experimenting instructions (Wright, 2010: 46).In the CLT classroom, the lecturer shoulders a responsibility for shaping and responding to students language needs. That is, lecturers act as facilitators since CLT stresses learner-centredness (Richards & Rodgers, 2001:67; Rambe, 2017:60). Casual and personal one-to-one sittings can allow students-lecturer talks of which also enhance students' perceptions, learning styles, learning assets and learning goals (Wright, 2010: 46). The approach could further be done formally through ordering a needs assessment instrument (Wright, ibid).

2.5.2.1 Features and principles of CLT

CLT has its own characteristics. It emboldens task-based learning and emphasises language functions (Richards & Rodgers, 2001:72; Richards, 2006:30; Desai, 2018:49). Considering students' language needs, lecturers should select teaching materials that are as authentic as possible and then create enough activities mimicking real-life experiences in the classroom (Ma, 2009:44). The CLT could then be considered as a part of the teaching revolution process. As such, "teachers mould innovations to their own abilities, beliefs and experiences; the immediate school context; and the wider sociocultural environment" (Carless, 2004:659).Lecturers could design activities and present them comfortably to students in the CLT classroom. Include here could be activities which are considered to enhance students' communicative competence skills. Since the purpose of CLT is purely communicative, I believe that lecturers should design activities that target four language skills which are listening, reading, speaking and writing.

However, Littlewood (2007:244) claims that many teachers who try to adopt CLT in their classrooms are worried that the students appear not to use English as the medium of communication in their groups when assigned activities, the behaviour which poses challenges to CLT in classrooms. However, an interesting question based on the above finding would be whether teachers in this context move around in order to discourage students from solving the problems in their mother tongue in their classrooms? This is because both CLT and SCT encourage lecturers in the context of this study to practise scaffolding, and the only way to facilitate is by going around the classroom and helping students to tackle any problems arising in this way, the students would not feel like resorting to their mother tongue.

Nevertheless, CLT clearly stipulates that students' task is not only to master the knowledge, but also to put it into practice by communicating in the target language. For this to happen, they should keenly participate in the classroom activities. Engaging in such activities, both lecturers and students could see whether the knowledge has been attained. Furthermore, the question of students' native language plays a pivotal role in this regard. This is because students are prohibited from using their mother tongue in the CLT classroom as claimed by Thamarana (2014:67). However, Adil (2020:4) found that most lecturers in Saudi Arabia preferred employing grammar translation method in the CLT classroom because it helped to reduce any anxiety and stress in students; rather it instilled confidence in students when learning a target language through their mother tongue. I was also interested to find out if lecturers have similar experiences in Lesotho.

CLT comprises a number of principles. Firstly, it stipulates that students learn a language well when they use it to do things rather than through studying how it works and practising rules (Richards, 2006:2). CLT further seeks to promote the teaching and learning of language use in communication and to augment students' communicative competence (Rambe 2017:55). In this view, lecturers ought to teach English for communicative purposes (Halliday, 1973: 346 cited in Ma, 2009: 42; Andersen, 2017:1). Therefore, closer attention to teaching English for communicative functions could be perceived from the organisation of language teaching (Saville-Troike, 2012:179). Further, any kind of classroom activities should be designed in such as to help lecturers to fulfil the goal of teaching towards communicative competence. I will take teaching sentence structure as an example. Nkhi (2018:56) found that teachers in the grammar class taught students a certain type of sentence structure simply because it was the compulsory task in the syllabus. This teaching process was just for the language itself and not for communicative function. In contrast, I believe that if the sentence structure instruction is designed to meet students' communicative needs, they can instantly use what they have been taught to ask questions or describe a situation to other people. This ability to apply what they have learned means that their linguistic competence would have been enhanced. Against this backdrop, I presume lecturers who instruct the knowledge that can meet students'needs do teach for communication. Furthermore, the teaching itself would also become communicative.

Grammar instruction normally has dominated actual classroom teaching, with teachers spending much time on "grammar explanations, chorus reading, and vocabulary presentations" thus exposing students to the structure and form rather than the function of language (Sakui, 2004:157). In most cases, function matters more than structure. However, Endarto (2017:2) cautions that students should be taught to understand how a target language is structured in order to efficiently produce and analyse its function, the notion which coheres with interactionist advocacy within the framework of CLT.

For many language students exposed to language use, traditional grammar instructions can be tedious, thus obstructing their concentration in class. Therefore, adopting the communicative teaching method in grammar classes can change this whole situation. After completing the theory of instruction as suggested by Endarto (2017:2), lecturers can assign a context in daily life to students. For Sakui (2004:160), "most teachers thought they needed to teach grammar before giving learners opportunities to use and apply the target linguistic forms in communicative tasks". They can therefore pair students to engage in dialogues on learning tasks in the classroom. Practising and using the target language in a given context could make them realise the knowledge acquired. Furthermore, lecturers should design classroom activities in the context of the real world as much as possible to expose students to real-life conversations (Suemith, 2011:7). Zúñiga (2016:15) thus argues that classroom activities should be real to enhance students' four skills.

When students communicate with others in the real classroom communicative context, they use diverse forms of expression and words. Therefore, the question is how lecturers design the classroom activities in such a way as to reflect the real world. In language teaching, even if the forms of communication are diverse, there are some shared structures prevailing in daily communications of different students, as espoused by the CLT tradition. Furthermore; these features are also what lectures want to demonstrate to their students. Xu Tsiang (2000), cited in Ma (2009:44), generally classifies these communicative features as information gap, free choices and information feedback. According to Richards (2007:18), information gap arises due to “the fact that in real communication people normally communicate in order to get information they do not possess”. In this way, students must be given activities that are slightly higher than their current level in order to practise what they have acquired for authentic communication. This brings up the element of ZPD wherein students are given individualised support by lecturers and their capable peers through scaffolding activities to perform tasks (Raymond, 2000:176).This notion is consistent with the SCT theory which stipulates that students should be led in the right direction and supported through learning activities that function as interactive conduits in order to get them to the next level (Van Der Stuyf, 2002:7).

Free choice means that students can choose their means of communicating. Ma (2009:44) states that students’ choice of form and content is made under pressure, so equally important is that they are exposed to meaningful and comprehensible input for communicating spontaneously. On this basis, activities should be designed to enhance students’ fluency. However, Krashen (1982:15) warns that students must be given enough time, especially those that monitor over users. This is because they might end up being hesitant to speak, paying less attention to what the other speaker is saying (Patrick, 2019:11; Krashen, 1982:15). According to Krashen (1981:3; 1982:18), the monitor hypothesis explains the connection between acquisition and learning, describing the influence of the latter on the former (Altenaichinger, 2003:9). The monitoring function is the practical result of the learned grammar. The monitor hypothesis is the learning process meant to monitor or correct the learning progress and to suggest developments to what has already been learned (Wilson, 2000:2; Altenaichinger, 2003:9; Jordan, 2004:182). It provides reasons for using students’ learned knowledge which is overt (Romeo, 2000:1). Such editing is only possible or available impartially in given settings which include availability of time to apply that learned competence, and the knowledge of correctness of the relevant grammatical rules (Brown, 2000:278; Jordan, 2004:180).

As Krashen observed, competency realised through the monitor can only fine-tune a language created by the attained language proficiency. Therefore, the second language student can use the learned rules to monitor or to edit their language either before or after the moment of production (Taylor-Tricomi, 1986:65; Jordan, 2004:180; Bahrani, 2011:281). I have also realised that students who are introverts tend to be hesitant to speak during oral presentations because of the time allocated for each individual to speak. Introverted students are mostly monitor users or low input generators. As result, they spend too more time focusing on form than on the intended meaning (Seligar, 1980; Krashen, 1982:17). It is an overseer of one's output, and for monitoring and making changes or rectifications which may generate articulacy should an optimum amount of monitoring, or editing, be used by the student (Krashen, 1982:16). For this reason, it is worth noting that self-correction through monitoring is a likely suitable approach to learning a second language. Hence, students sought to be cognisant of their own tactics towards developing their communicative competence in second language. Similarly, lecturers should also reflect on their way of correcting learners' mistakes. However, Krashen and Terrell (1988:59), Spada (1997) and Mangubhai (2006:4) advise lecturers not to interrupt students' acquisition by correcting their mistakes; rather they should allow the natural order to take its course. It is for this reason that Patrick (2019:41) advocates greater use of the scaffolding activities as suggested by the SCT so that introverted or weaker students feel supported.

Finally, information feedback refers to the adjustment made by students on their communicative content according to the information provided by other speakers (Xu Tsiang, 2000, cited in Ma, 2009:44). The intention of one speaker might be to lodge a complaint, offer advice, voice their dissatisfaction or provide an update on a particular issue, while the other speaker' goal might be to resist or decline (Ma, 2009:44). For students to achieve the afore-mentioned adjustment, they should be communicatively competent in the target language. Therefore, Rambe (2017:62) suggests that students must be exposed to fluency activities aiming at exposing them to using the language naturally through engaging them in a meaningful interaction, and thus upholding comprehensible and on-going communication notwithstanding the limitation in their communicative competence. To acquire such fluency, Rambe (2017:62) further asserts that students ought to use communication strategies, correct misunderstanding and then avoid communication breakdown. Furthermore, fluency's emphasis is on the natural production of language, further engaging students in using correct language in grammatical terms and pronunciation (Richards, 2006:14; Rambe, 2017:62). A classroom drill of CLT leans towards helping students throughout the process of effecting their communicative tasks, thus improving their capability of judging the tone and attitude of the opposite speaker as well as the ability of making equivalent language reaction for realising their own communicative objectives (Thamarana, 2014:68; Rambe, 2017:44).

The third principle of CLT is that lecturers ignore students' errors. This means that fluency and appropriateness in English language classrooms should be preferred to structural correctness (Mangubhai, 2006:6; Richards, 2006:13; Thamarana, 2014:67). In cases where a lecturer feels like correcting an error, Mangubhai (2006:6) advises that they should use what he calls 'recast'. He provides an example of a student who says "Jill go to town" and then the teacher hearing that an error was made said instead, "Yes, Jill went to town". "This the teacher did with the hope that the student will have noticed a mismatch in the verb by her and the teacher". Lyster (1998) cited in Mangubhai (2006:6) asserts that it is hard for students to differentiate between feedback which confirms the content of what had been articulated from the one which is meant to give information on linguistic accuracy or logical appropriateness. Therefore, CLT primarily emphasises the passing of messages, a selection of words and the comprehension of intended communicative purposes.

Nevertheless, sometimes students become confused, especially with some new vocabulary or grammatical items in the course of the communicative activities. As they try to clarify content, students usually incorporate improper lexical items or wrong syntactic patterns into their meanings. Zareva, Schwanenflugel and Nikolova (2005:568) found that the increase in students' vocabulary suggests that their communicative competence will be high as well Therefore that teachers tend to spend most of their teaching on repetition drills as found by Sakui (2004:160), believing that knowledge of vocabulary on the part of students centres around fluency in the target language. On this basis, they would run counter to the accuracy principle, highly advocated by the traditional teaching methods. However, Richards (2006:15) advises lecturers to balance both accuracy and fluency exercises, to have them serve a similar purpose of steering students towards communicative competence. Furthermore, progressive lecturers, hence the proponents of communicative language teaching method, may oppose practices of correcting students' mistakes all the time in communication process, lest they may frustrate students (Adil, 2020:3). Nonetheless, this does not mean that mistakes should be ignored. My take in this matter is that lecturers can use different strategies to correct students' mistakes in a way that will not discourage them from speaking.

2.5.2.2 Task-based language teaching

Task based language teaching (TBLT) has its roots from communicative language teaching. One of its characteristics is that it is a learner-centred method that emboldens student interaction through evocative, goal-oriented and real-life tasks (Ellis, 2003:130; Nunan, 2004:50; Willis & Willis, 2009:3; Cochrane, 2021:422; East, 2021:46). Furthermore, TBLT is buoyed by research findings in the field of SLA in that it is created around many theoretical underpinnings, which view language learning and teaching from the psycholinguistic, cognitive-interactionist and the socio-cultural perspectives (Skehan, 2003:9; Nunan, 2004:8; Ellis *et al*., 2019:360). Since TBLT fundamentally accentuates the significance of the concerted interactions for language learning, the socio-cultural theory is central to the principles of TBLT (Ellis, 1999: 64; Ellis, 2003:133; Ellis *et al*., 2019:365; Feryok, 2017:710). Besides, Nunan (2004:8) asserts that "students learn to communicate by communicating", implying that for students to communicate, they should be exposed to tasks meant to help them to use language in real communicative contexts. For East (2021:35), lectures should pay attention to both fluency and accuracy tasks.

According to East (2021:35), fluency activities focus on meaning while accuracy tasks concentrate on form. Fluency, on the one hand, can be achieved through copious opportunities for students to interact in the target language. On the other hand, accuracy is attainable through negotiation of meaning as well as through input and feedback from a more competent collaborator in the form of a lecturer or a mentor (Ellis, 1999:64; East, 2021:35; Cochrane, 2021:422).From the socio-cultural perspective, Ellis *et al.* (2019:105) views learning as mediated and further transpiring when students have opportunities to interact with different kinds of artefact. Here, social interaction is essential to mediation (Lantolf & Poehner, 2014: 8). As a result, learning begins within an interaction between an expert (a lecturer or a more capable student) and a student who will manifest tin a co-construction of a ZPD on the part of a student (Ellis *et al*., 2019:105). In this situation, scaffolding occurs when one speaker with the superior proficiency assists another one with a lower level of proficiency to perform a speech act that they are primarily incapable of performing individually (East, 2021:31).

The employment of TBLT in a language class could be seen as having many pedagogical benefits. It is believed that students would develop their communicative competence skills, become confident, grow to be autonomous students, and accordingly, develop a widened comprehension of the language (Ellis, 2003:135; Nunan, 2004:10; Skehan, 1998; Willis &

Willis, 2009:5).Therefore, Willis and Willis (2007:1) avow that the engagement of students in real language use in the classroom is the most effective way of teaching a language. Problem-solving, discussions or games, which require students to communicate amongst themselves could be involved. According to Cook (2010:512), TBLT perceives second language learning as ascending from particular tasks that students do in the classroom. Furthermore, Robinson (2011:4) asserts that TBLT "places the construct of 'task' at the centre of curricular planning". This suggests that lecturers should plan their lectures in such a way as to make tasks dominant.

2.5.2.3 Second language learning and the brain

Brain plays a pivotal role in second language learning and acquisition. According to Danesi (2003:44), Saville-Troike (2012:72), Li and Jeong (2020:3) and Kourtidou *et al*. (2021:2) language is presented largely in the left half (or hemisphere) of the brain within regions well-known as Broca's and Wernicke's areas. These domains are named after these researchers for reasons that Pierre Broca, on the one hand, found that a region in the left frontal lobe seemed to be accountable for the capability to speak (or speech centre) (Wray, 1992:101; Danesi, 2003:27; Saville-Troike, 2012:72). Wernicke, on the other hand, observed that a proximate area around part of the cortex that processes audio is fundamental to language processing. Language activity is therefore not confined to one part of the brain, but the essential linguistic processes are characteristically contained in the left hemisphere (Van Lancker, 1987:54; Wray, 1992:1; Saville-Troike, 2012:73; Rastelli, 2018:105).According to Wray (1992:2) and Saville-Troike (2012:73), the left hemisphere (LH), on the one hand, is the one chiefly responsible for minute-to-minute conversion of information into code(s) and the ability of converting a code into a plain text of language in the normal individual. The right hemisphere (RH), on the other hand, is responsible for synthetic, creative and spatial, instinctive, divergent, rounded, parallel and appositional thinking (Krashen, 1981:75; Danesi, 2003:28; Hammers & Blanc, 2004:136). My synthesis of the whole hemispheric standing of the brain in relation to second language learning is that activities or tasks should be designed in such a way that will trigger both Broca's and Wernicke's areas responsible for both language processing and production. The table below summarises the functions of both hemispheres.

Table 2.1 Modal functions (Adopted from, Danesi, 2003:35).

Left-Mode Functions	Right-Mode Functions
Key discourse subsystems (phonation, sentence structure, etc.). Verbatim meaning Chronological relations Oral recollection Rational thinking (inferences, inductions, etc.) Conceptualising and a broad view. Scrutiny and direct thinking.	Stress and other prosodic subsystems. Representational, and emotive meaning Spatial relations Nonverbal recollection Instinctive and spatial reasoning Concretising and associating among things. Fusion and compound thinking.

Even though most of the research on neurolinguistics seems to focus on the left hemisphere as the major focal point in second language learning, Danesi (2003:35) Hammers and Blanc (2004:136) advise lecturers to incorporate two hemispheres when teaching. Furthermore, Vaid (1983:317), Cook (1992:572) and Wattendorf and Festman (2008:166) argue that language action occurs most in the right hemisphere. Danesi (2003:35) substantiates the above argument by citing non-clinical research done by neuroscientists in the mid-70s. The neuroscientists used "dichotic listening (sending signals to the brain via headphones), electroencephalograph analysis (graphing brain waves with electrodes), and a lateral eye movement (videotaping the movement of the eyes during the performance of some cognitive task). The findings generated by such techniques started casting further doubt on the idea that the LH alone was responsible for language. They showed, on the contrary, that the functions related to discourse programming-putting a message together to fit a situation, a topic, a need were controlled by the RH or else were inter-hemispheric" (Danesi,2003:35).

RH is also important for innovative tasks because of its anatomical edifice (Danesi, 2003:45). Moreover, its superior connectivity with other centres in the multifaceted neuronal lanes of the brain renders it a better purveyor of new information (Danesi, ibid). As Van Lancker (1987:54) puts it, "the left hemisphere knows what is being said while the right hemisphere knows how it is being said (with the kind of effect, mood or attitude) and who is saying it (what sex, age, and in some cases, which person)". This therefore suggests that both hemispheres will have diverse degrees of contribution to information processing on the nature of linguistic tasks. However, the two hemispheres should not be seen as oppositional, but as co-operating because they function in a corresponding way in carrying out of most highest-order tasks (Hammers & Blanc, 2004:136). The table below summarises the complementary role of RH in speech.

Table 2.2. Modal speech functions (adopted from Danesi, 2003:44).

Main L-Mode Functions Involved in Speech	**Main R-Mode Functions Involved in Speech**
Phonology	Prosody (rhythm, intonation, etc.)
morphology and word order	Iconicity (onomatopoeia, rhyme, etc.)
anaphora and deixis (substitution processes)	Implication (statement vs. question, suggestion vs. command, etc.)
verbatim meaning	metaphorical meaning
Grammar	message meaning

According Danesi (2003:37), teachers and lecturers should know more about the brain because it "provides a solid theoretical basis upon which the reformist paradigm can be rebuilt to meet the contemporary conditions and expectations". My belief regarding the above quotation is that English language lecturers should design tasks and activities as well as teaching in such a way that will be compatible with the brain. In order to engage both hemispheres for effective language learning, Danesi (2003:49) and Li and Jeong (2020:1) discourage lecturers from employing unimodal approaches such as the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) or Audio Lingual Method (ALM) whose focus is solely to develop the L-mode or LH. Instead, Li and Jeong (2020:1) suggest that lecturers should employ what they refer to as "Social L2 Learning (SL2)".The approach is confined within the strict boundaries of "social interaction" and as such, it views learning through the lenses of real-life environments within which students can "interact with objects and people, perform actions, receive, use and integrate perceptual, visuospatial, and other sensorimotor information, which enables learning and communication to become embodied (Li & Jeong, 2020:1)". This will further help students to mediate the environment around them through scaffolding from their mentors or more erudite peers (Lantolf, 2000:198; Schumm, 2006:22; Pathan *et al*., 2018:236). Worth noting therefore is that the SL2 approach advocated by Li and Jeong (2020:1) similarly resonates with a crusade in the far-reaching language science from usage-based language learning to conversational analysis and socio-cultural theory, which view language learning as a socially constructed process.

Furthermore, Danesi (2003:55) encourages lecturers to employ intermodal approaches to language teaching as follows:

- Permitting students to employ the new material to carry out every day verbal tasks, but only after they show the aptitude and inclination to do so.
- Avoiding teaching new things or discussing matters of form and structure during this stage. Thus, students should be exposed only to scenarios based on actual life events that necessitate students to practice their second language decisively and craftily in dealing with others without necessarily focusing on grammar (Di Pietro, 1987: vii; Almazova *et al*., 2021:5).
- Allowing students to find literary solutions to glitches in communication on their own. As per Di Pietro's Scenario Approach (1987:50), students should be stimulated to generate their own strategies for organising role-playing scenarios. The lecturer should act as a facilitator and a guide to individual students or groups as needed (Danesi, 2003:55; De Haan & Johnson, 2014:701; Ellis, 1999:19).
- Role-playing and working in pairs or groups are encouraged for most students even though some may not wish to partake. Those who might be unwilling to participate can be given other kinds of creative tasks (e.g. writing) (Danesi, 2003:54; Littlewood, 2007:244).

In cases where a student might need help to overcome some grammatical errors that has become an impediment to learning; then techniques that focus on L-Mode can be used in order to afford such a student an opportunity to re-learn the grammatical feature in question (Danesi, 2003:55). Such approaches should be adopted students' errors to escape any fossilisation. Similarly, techniques that focus on R-mode may be needed when a student shows lack of ability to apply a certain idea or structure in speech or text-construction (ibid, 2003:55).

Table 2.3. Modal learning style (adopted from Danesi, 2003:57).

Individual with an L-Mode-dominant Learning Style...	**Individual with an R-Mode-dominant Learning Style...**
Is less keen to talk instinctively, and seldom takes the initiative in exchanges. Displays a good control of basic lexis, but inferior overall aptitude to use vocabulary Innovatively. Utilises grammatical forms correctly, after having learned them thoroughly. is generally prone to be careful about their speech appropriateness. Recognises speech sounds individually (is good at spelling and pronunciation). Is less capable of extracting the meanings inherent in the novel verbal material. His/her intonation patterns tend to be dull is more capable of memorising abstract grammatical concepts. Is not good at body language.	Is more willing and able to engage in conversation, and generally takes the initiative in discussions Shows a richer and more varied vocabulary Is more inclined to using grammatical forms spontaneously, even before he/she controls them Is inclined to ignoring error in speech. Is aware mainly of entire words Has a greater comprehension ability of novel verbal input His/her intonation patterns tend to be more lively Is more inclined to memorising meanings rather than individual grammatical concepts. Is excellent at body language.

From the table above, it is obvious that students with a dominant L-Mode learning style would understand what they are doing more than those with a dominant R-Mode style. The belief is that lecturers cannot note that some students want to comprehend everything that they are learning, while others seem to be comfortable with understanding things insouciantly. Those who want to understand everything are L-Mode, and R-Mode dominant are casual learners, that is, they absorb things quickly and easily (Danesi, 2003:57). Interestingly, the researcher set out to find out how lecturers deal with these students (L-Mode dominant) and how they identify them in classes with large student numbers. This interest emanates from Ekanjume-Ilongo’s (2015:1163) finding that lecturers are unable to reach every student because of over-crowded classes. Consequently, a "hemispheric profile" of students is a framework for designating the kinds of modal focusing techniques suitable for particular types of students (ibid). Thus, students with dominant L-Mode ought to be given more clarifications and explanations as well as drills in order to be monitored under users during focusing stages as suggested by Krashen (1982:16).

2.5.2.4 The Affective domain

There are other factors that lecturers should consider in their inter-hemispheric or bimodal approach. According to Krashen (1982:31) and Brown (2006:153), some emotive determinants play a role in second language acquisition, including motivation, self-confidence and anxiety. Such variables serve as restricting factors to second language acquisition, suggesting that for acquisition to take place, students should be motivated to easily absorb input (Krashen, 1981:39). This restriction thwarts language acquirers from fully using the comprehensible input. When this emotive filter is up, the comprehensible input does not extend to LAD; when it is down, the input will be conveyed to the LAD (Karatas *et al*., 2016:387). As such, language acquisition will occur only when the filter is down (see Figure 4).

One of the variables responsible for lowering the filter is motivation because students can be interested to learn if they are highly motivated. The affective variables which act as the mental blocks are motivation, self-confidence and anxiety. If the learner's motivation is high, the input will likely reach the LAD, meaning that the acquisition will be higher (Gardner, 1985; Noels *et al*., 2003:111; Lightbrown & Spada, 2013; Almashy, 2018:145). Nevertheless, anxiety and low self-confidence can block the input from being conveyed to the LAD. This suggests that acquisition will not take place (Young, 1990:595; Ganshow & Javorshy, 1994; Saito & Sammy, 1996; Dupuy, 1997; Dörnyei, 2005:153; Karatas *et al*., 2016:383; Chan & Tang, 2022:156). The above-mentioned postulations imply that teachers should ensure high students' motivation and self-confidence in order to easily acquire second language, thereby leading to their communicative competence in English.

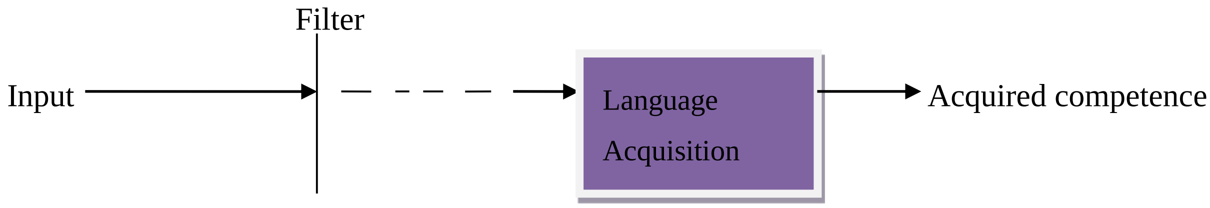

Figure 2.3 Operation of the affective filter (adopted from Krashen, 1982:32)

2.5.2.5 Language anxiety

Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986:128) define language anxiety as “a distinct complex construct of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviour related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of language learning process”. Horwitz *et al.* (1986:129) further incorporated three interrelated anxieties in their ideation of language anxiety. The first one is communication apprehension which relates to the fear of communicating with other students or people. AlHarbi (2017:136) found that most college students in Saudi Arabia experienced communication apprehension, especially during discussions with their teachers and classmates. The second is test anxiety which is the fear of formative and summative assessments. The last anxiety is the fear of negative evaluation which entails the concern about how other students view the speaker, especially during classroom presentations or discussions. AlHarbi (2017:136) also found that students were scared of speaking in the classroom during debates or presentations because they did not want to be negatively evaluated or laughed by others when committing some grammatical errors. Language anxiety can therefore occur in any setting in relation to how acts of language are performed. Furthermore, language anxiety can be studied under three related approaches, which are trait anxiety, situational anxiety and state anxiety (Tran, 2012:70; Zheng & Cheng, 2018:1; Alamer & Almulhim, 2021:2). Trait anxiety posits that any person in this case a student is likely to become anxious in any setting or situation (Spielberger, 1983, in MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991:87).Further key to the study was to find out if students in the three selected institutions experienced these anxieties and what caused such in the classroom.

2.5.2.6 Motivation

One of the affective filter variables which play an important role in language learning and acquisition is motivation, which is worth considering for this study during classroom instructions. As revealed elsewhere Ekanjume-Ilongo (2015:1163), Remache (2016:187), Nikian *et al.* (2016:6) and Nkhi (2018:566), students' motivation to learn English was mostly extrinsic, that is, they learn only to pass tests and examinations and not to be communicatively competent. Therefore, an important question is whether lecturers motivate students and through which activities and teaching strategies. For Gardner (2006:7), Lai (2013:91) and Almashy (2018:144), motivation is often utmost in the classroom context when students relish what is being taught. As such, certain instructional practices such as stimulating tasks and the promotion of co-operation amongst students (e.g., working as teams in pairs or small groups in order to accomplish a collective goal), can increase students' motivation (Dörnyei, 2005:112; Almashy, 2022:155). The figure below provides teaching practices that lectures can implement for the enhancement of students' motivation.

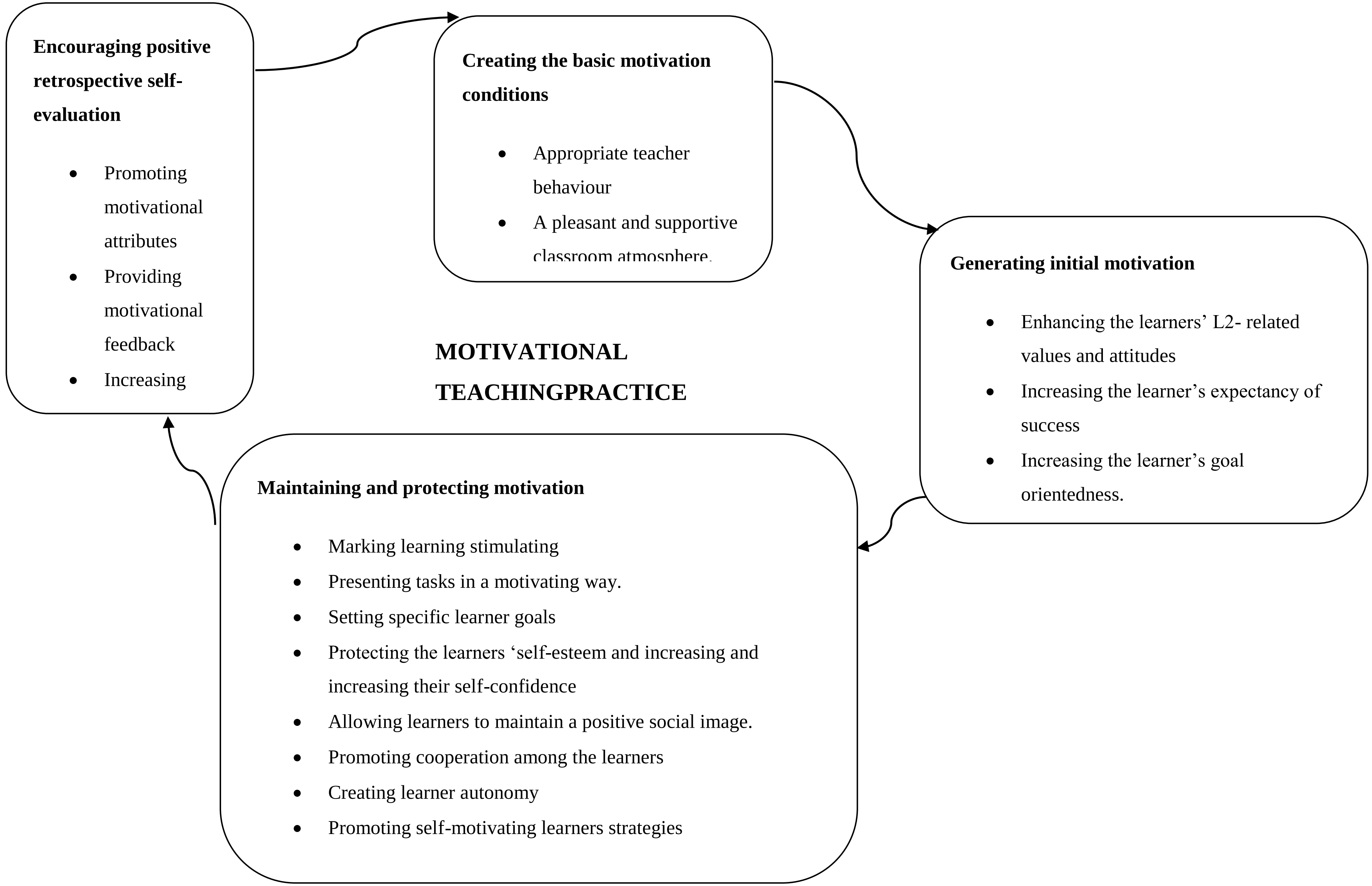

Figure 2.4 The Components of Motivational L2 Teaching Practice (adopted from, Dörnyei, 2005:112).

Furthermore, Dörnyei (2005:113) divides what he calls self-motivating styles or strategies into five main categories. The first strategy is commitment control, which focuses on helping to perpetuate or advance students' original goal commitment. This strategy can be done through provision of incentives or rewards to students to motivate them to even better. Another strategy is meta-cognitive control which is responsible for monitoring and guiding concentration as well as curbing needless procrastination. This strategy involves the identification of recurrent disruptions and how they can be eradicated in order for students to focus on the common goal. The third style is satiation control strategy aimed at reducing boredom and arousing more interest to the task. This can be done by adding a twist to the task in order to make it more interesting. Emotion control strategies can be employed in order to manage unsettling emotional states or moods as well as creating emotions that are favourable to implementing one's intentions. This style can be achieved through encouraging oneself (students in this case) or using relaxation techniques where learning becomes difficult. The last strategy is environmental control whose intention is to do away with the negative environmental influences and using positive environmental effects by making the surroundings a partner in the quest of a challenging goal. This strategy is similar to the second one because their focus is on eliminating distractions which might deter the learning process. I therefore believe that these strategies are central to ensuring that students are adequately motivated, so that the affective filter can be lowered, thus allowing the comprehensible input to be conveyed to the LAD.

Motivation can be characteristically scrutinised in terms of the intrinsic and extrinsic intentions of the student (Brown, 2000:164; Dörnyei, 2005:79; Lai, 2013:94; Almashy, 2018:144). Intrinsic motivation, on the one hand, refers to stimulus to carry out an activity because it is characteristically gratifying and thought-provoking, and this type of motivation usually results in high-grade learning and ingenuity (Brown, 2000: 162; Ryan & Deci, 2000:57; Almashy, 2018:144; Westin, 2019:8). This suggests that students will engage in activities designed to develop their communicative competence skills not only because they are going to be rewarded, but for their own sake. Furthermore, Ryan and Deci (2000:57) suggest that lecturers have a fundamental part in improving students' intrinsic motivation in the classroom setting through designing suitable activities aimed at arousing their curiosity to learn the target language. I therefore agree with Krashen (1982:31) that motivation is vital for lowering the filter, so that input can be easily conveyed to the LAD. I further agree, as an English language lecturer, that designing activities which are relevant to students' needs will indeed inspire them to want to know the target language intrinsically, and thus attain communicative competence. Extrinsic motivation on the other hand is the drive to do something because of a separable influential outcome. In this case, the basis of motivation is generally peripheral to the activity (Alamer, 2016:125; Westin, 2019:8). An example can be drawn from students who learn the target language in order to only score good marks, not necessarily to become communicatively competent. According to Deci and Ryan (1985:34), there are four types of self-determination theory of motivation, and they are external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation and integrated regulation. Students who learn a language in order to fulfil a graduation requirement or to obtain a job after graduating are oriented towards external regulation (Alamer, 2016:5; Ryan & Deci, 2000:61; Hardin, 2021:1).

It was highlighted in literature Section (2.3) that most parents because of the supposed career benefits that English language appears to offer, want their children to be educated at an English-medium school for them to be communicatively competent. Some students as a result may just learn English because they want to live to their parents' anticipation, or they might not want to disappoint their teachers. These types of students are oriented towards introjected regulation. Ryan and Deci (2000:61) assert that introjected motivation can be dominant because students may work harder, but they can experience anxiety which can hamper their learning. I believe that the anxiety might be because students are learning a language in order to satisfy their parents, and not because they want to do it for themselves. The identified regulation entails students who learn a language to enhance their personal development or to fulfil their personal aspirations (Alamer, 2016:5; Hardin, 2021:1). Furthermore, students who learn a language because they want to be communicatively competent and to fit well in the target community are oriented towards integrated regulation (Hardin, 2021:1). Considering the above notions, it is important for lecturers to be sources of motivation to students so that students can be inspired to learn the target language because they want to be communicatively competent and not only to pass tests and examinations.

Motivation can also be classified into two categories which are intergrativeness and instrumentality. According to Gardner and MacIntyre (1993:159), Brown (2000:162) Gardner (2001:1), integrativeness refers to an individual's disposition and curiosity in societal interface with affiliates of other groups, or a sincere interest in learning the second language so as to be nearer to the other language community. This suggests that students learn a language aiming to be communicatively competent, and to engage profusely with the target culture. I further believe that students' whose motivation is integrative strive towards acquire native-like competence, that is aspiring to be like the target population in terms of pronunciation or prosody. However, it would critical to find out the impact that these students might have on others whose motivation is to fulfil the requirement for graduation. This is because my understanding is such that students who learn a language just to pass do not necessarily take much interest in being proficient, and they can be easily intimidated to speak after those who are integratively motivated. The case in point is a debate or a presentation. In my view, supported by Leong and Ahmadi (2017:36), is that students who are intrinsically motivated sometimes become inhibited. That is, they feel chagrinned to speak because of other students' attention to them, especially those who are fluent due to their integrative orientation.

Furthermore, instrumental motivation, according to Al Ta'ani (2018:91), is the students' interest in learning a language for attaining indispensable qualifications and further cultivating occupational prospects. My synthesis here is that students who are instrumentally motivated are not necessarily interested in attaining native-like competence, but to be able to communicate competently to handle interviews for job positions or furthering a career. In the context of this study, especially few studies conducted in Lesotho by Khati and Khati (2009), Ekanjume-Ilongo (2015) and Nkhi (2018), reveal that students' motivation from both high school and tertiary was ultimately instrumental. They did not specifically conduct research on students' motivation in second language learning, but the fact that they found out that students learn English only to pass examinations basically translating into instrumental motivation. Other researchers, Adegbile and Alabi (2005:33), Hanadi and Majid (2003:199) and Chen (2018:104) found that ESL students are limited users of language because their motivation is mainly extrinsic. This finding suggests that students who are instrumentally motivated can be limited users of the target language.

The social-education Model

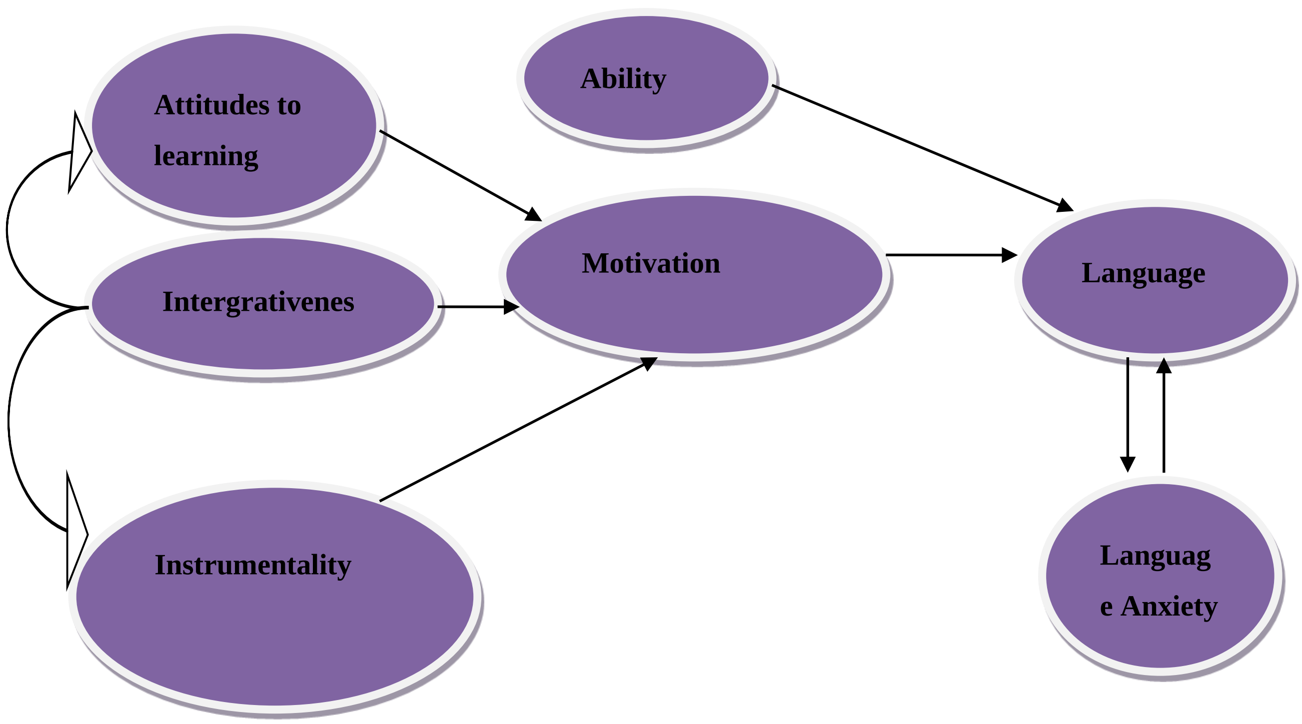

Figure 2.5 Gardner's socio-educational model (adopted in Lai, 2013:92).

Accordingly, creating a dependable atmosphere for the second language acquisition can also benefit students through involvement and communicative language learning (Danesh & Shahnazari, 2020:14). Apart from self-confidence and motivation, the affective filter hypothesis can also enlighten lecturers as to whether students develop positive or negative attitude towards monitoring their own learning. Even if teaching or input is 'clear', acquiring a second language is not necessarily guaranteed due to different factors in SLA and second language learning. Furthermore, both integrative and instrumental dichotomies of motivation boost second language learning and acquisition. As such, lecturers ought to be sources of motivation so that students can learn the target language with ease. However, my take on this issue of motivation is that integrative motivation should be mostly cultivated so that the learning of the target language can be inherent. That is, students should learn a language because they like it and not because of external factors such as rewards. My question will therefore be what will happen to students' communicative competence if they are not called for interviews or do not find jobs? It means that the language they would have acquired will cease to exist. But those who have modelled their learning around the target language culture and population will forever be in contact with the language. Students should not necessarily strive for native-like competence, but communicative competence is sufficient even though one cannot have native-like pronunciation or prosody.

2.6 Multiliteracies and modality

As stated in the background to the study, the Lesotho Curriculum and Assessment Policy stipulates that students should communicate effectually in words, symbols, colours, signs, sound, media (print, electronic), and actions (Ministry of Education and Training, 2009:16). In other words, different modes of language teaching must be adopted in order to develop students' communicative competence skills. According to Sankey, Birch and Gardiner (2010:853), multimodal learning environments permit delivery of instructional features in different sensual modes such as visual, aural and written. As a result, materials that are delivered in these ways may help students' perceptions, attention and value-added learning performance. Thus, even lower-achieving students can learn linguistic items from their homes, even seeking help from their parents or mentors while learning on their own that is enhancing students' ZPD (Vygotsky, 1986:57; Schumm, 2006:34; Lantolf, 2011:33).

In terms of developing students' communicative competence skills, multimodality can be advantageous for English teaching, since it affords multicultural classrooms' realities which incorporate ESL' students' perceptions; it also offers precedence to their learning practises and their identities (Mejía-Vélez, 2017:5). Hence, multimodality provides students with a sensory acuity progression for offering diverse learning styles. With its semiotic features, multimodality provides various modes and communicative resources, with maximum outcomes and benefits for developing students' communicative competence skills (Ajayi, 2009:50; Kress, 2010:19).

One mode of teaching can be the use of internet wherein students can interact every time they want. However, Nkhi (2018:55) found that one of the major reasons why students are grammatically incompetent is that language use in the social media which is informal, bearing short forms. Such forms are transferred to formal discourses in class, thereby interfering with teachers' and lecturers' efforts of enhancing learners' communicative competence. My opinion is that lecturers should encourage students to use formal language whenever they interact, so that their competence cannot be affected by unnecessary errors.

Another feature that takes place when multimodality and technology are employed together for second language teaching and learning is that it encourages new forms of reading and writing because students and teachers can easily use diverse semiotic resources (Mejía-Vélez, 2017:36). In this view, digital learning can develop students' communicative competence skills, especially now that there is no physical contact between students and lecturers due to Covid-19 pandemic. Messages can be delivered through Microsoft teams, Google classrooms or e-mails where students can learn alone or seek help from parents or mentors at home. Using the social media platforms such whatsapps or twitter can help lecturers to individually communicate with shy students privately where others are not present. This is consistent with the socio-cultural theory which stresses that students can improve their zone of proximal development with the help of a parent or a mentor outside the classroom (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007:26).

2.7 Communicative in-competencies

Literature reveals that most ESL students are not communicatively competent. For instance, Alami (2014:17) and Nikian *et al.* (2016:9), Remache (2016:187), Nkhi (2018:55) note students' problems with producing coherent and cohesive utterances, solving communication problems, creating grammatically correct utterances and uttering socio-cultural rules as in when to speak, when not to speak, what to talk about and to whom and in what manner. The authors assert that the above-mentioned problem is caused by traditional teaching methods and lack of activities given to learners for enhancement of communicative competence. This suggests that students' inability to demonstrate knowledge of linguistic rules coupled with inability to use those rules for effective communication compromise the intended meaning, since a student's proficiency in language use is reflected in their ability to master all aspects of communicative competence.

Students' communicative incompetence has been found to be a major communicative problem in many countries. Juhász's (2015:16) study on the conceptualisation of communicative competence in secondary EFL classrooms in Hungary found that learners are unable to speak the target language properly because teachers only focus on reading and writing for examination purposes. Another ESL researcher Michaud (2015:25) in selected Japanese senior secondary school found that ESL teachers are not fluent in English. They adopted teaching strategies not suitable for L2 classroom. Poor strategies include traditional teaching methods and lack of activities that improve learners' communicative skills (Michaud, 2015:19). This means that learners' progression from acquired competence from high school will not manifest in proficiency in the target language even at a tertiary level. Thus, this study sought to find out the challenges that students encounter in developing communicative competence skills and their level of communicative competence and performance in English as the second language at a tertiary level.

Regarding the challenges of ESL students in Lesotho, Ekanjume-Ilongo (2015:1164) notes that the LGCSE English syllabus does not make provisions for other skills such as listening and speaking, but it mainly emphasises on reading and writing. The author further asserts that teachers focus only on helping students pass examinations without substantially enhancing their communicative competence. In addition, Khati and Khati (2009:179) state that students are communicatively incompetent because teachers seldom involve them in their teaching through interactive activities such as debates, role-plays and presentations. Other researchers such as Adegbile and Alabi (2005:33), Hanadi and Majid (2003:199) claim that ESL students are limited users of language because their motivation is mainly extrinsic. As such, learners will learn the language just to pass the examinations and not to know how to be communicatively competent. It could be noted that students are unable to express themselves properly in the target language. This lack of expression can be attributed to teachers mainly focusing on helping students pass examinations without necessarily employing communicative activities that can enhance learners' speaking skills.

Another problem established by Remache (2016:187) from students' perspective is that they appear to have a limited vocabulary in English language which hinders them from using correct utterances when facing real communicative situations. This is inconsistent with Krashen's (1989:56) theory of input hypothesis which assumes that language is better acquired through the comprehension of messages instigated by the acquisition of vocabulary and spellings. Such students would understand utterances if their linguistic repertoire or lexicon is broad. Khati and Khati (2009:183) and Ekanjume-Ilongo (2015:1160) found that tertiary students do not know how to properly construct meaningful sentences.

Furthermore, Khati & Khati (2009:170) continue to add that "according to reports, the response to the preceding question is in the negative. From the educational reports of the University and the College of Education, it is clear that the level of proficiency in written English of the products of these two educational institutions is highly questionable". Ekanjume-Ilongo's (2015:1163) findings reveal that students are unable to express themselves properly because of student-lecturer ratio which does not favour lecturers. "Because of the high numbers, lecturers are not able to focus on the four basic skills of English Language - listening, reading, speaking and writing. These challenges may suggest that the teaching and learning of English at National University of Lesotho is languorous". On this basis, there is no comprehensible input designed for students, resulting from lack of interaction in the classroom, students will not be prepared for practical knowledge of the target language. The above finding echoes Krashen (1984:45), Long (1985:55), Gass and Mackey (1998:34), Van Lier (1996:25) Swain and Lapkin (1998:37),Mangubhai (2006:19), Baktir (2013:109) and Raju and Joshith (2018:180) in that language acquisition and learning happens better when students are involved in meaningful communication acts. This inquiry therefore aims to find out if this phenomenon is the case in other institutions in the country where English Language is taught as a second language.

2.7.1 Communicative competence-related challenges encountered by students.

There are several challenges that students encounter in the acquisition of communicative competence. The following sub-sections expound such challenges.

2.7.2.1 Traditional teaching methods

One of the major constraints for students' acquisition of communicative competence are what Celce-Murcia (2007) calls traditional teaching methods. Savignon (2002:6) argues that traditional methods of teaching selected institutions encounter similar challenges as highlighted in literature.

2.7.2.2 Translanguaging

Translanguaging has materialised as a new concept in bilingual education. Translanguaging is the capacity or ability to use two languages in a single lesson in the classroom (Williams, 1994 cited Baker, 2001:281; Baker, 2011:88; Canagarajah, 2011:401; Otherguy *et al.,* 2015:283; Özkan & ilhan, 2021:14). Macswan (2017:170) posits that different authors such as Bakhtin (1975), Jørgensen (2008), Jørgensen, Karrebæk, Madsen and Møller (2011), Otsuji and Pennycook(2011),Canagarajah (2011), Canagarajah (2013) and Nguyen (2012) have proposed terms or concepts that are similar to/and/are employed slightly differently from translanguaging and they comprise, heteroglossia, polylanguaging and polylingual languaging, metrolingualism, code-meshing, translingual practice and multilanguaging. Therefore, a multilingual standpoint on translanguaging recognises the existence of a distinct language and multilingualism, embracing students' right to be taught in their mother tongue language as well as the second language (Macswan, 2017:171; Celic& Seltzer, 2011:5; Zhou *et al*., 2020:235; Özkan & ilhan, 2021:14; Prilutskaya, 2021:1; Canales, 2022:3).

There is a backing from literature that advocates the use of mother tongue in language education and education in general as a move to undo the past and current wrongs that ostracised and discriminated against the use of L1 (Garcia & Wei, 2014:124; Makalela, 2015:200; Mgijima & Makalela, 2016; Hurst& Mona, 2017:129; Zhou *et al.,* 2020:234).For Baker (2011:289), translanguaging enhances students' academic language competencies in both languages (L1 and L2). Some scholars believe that students who began school in their L1 tend to perform better than most of their counterparts who started with L2 (Cummins, 1978:397; 2000b:16; Klaus, 2003; Thomas & Collier 1997; Stoop, 2017). However, Taqi and Shuqair (2014), Akbar and Taqi (2020:54) argue that translanguaging does not improve students' linguistic capabilities. Opposing the view, Estyn (2002:1) asserts that translanguaging allows students to alternate between languages. These views on translanguaging advocate strategies to enhance students' understanding of concepts in class, though their propensity of improving students' communicative competence skills could yet be determined. Of particular mention are students with poor command of English language from rural schools. It is therefore important to find out whether and to what extent the study reveal regarding the phenomena.

2.7.2.3 Native speaker fallacy

Another problem is what the researchers of second language acquisition SLA call native speaker fallacy. Kiczkowiak (2018:35) and Estévez (2019:5) argue that many models of communicative competence are based on what is called a native speaker fallacy. This notion means that students are expected to acquire not only the target language but the target culture as well. Xu (2000:36) asserts that if a learner commits a grammatical mistake, they will be deemed less proficient, but if they commit a mistake because of limited knowledge of target culture, their knowledge of target language would be questioned. Brown (1994:135), Long (2014:35) and Saville-Troike (2012:189) believe that native-speaker communicative competence is an impossible target for L2 student, and the student will doubtlessly be left frustrated. Therefore, Kiczkowiak (2018:35) opines that students should be taught English for developing communicative competence without necessarily focusing on native speaker like competence, since English is an international language.

Acquisition of native-speaker competence is what the authors call unattainable goal (Brown 1994:135; Long 2014:35). Xu (2000:40) suggests that students should be taught to be communicatively competent, but not be burdened with native speaker communicative competence. I believe that many ESL students might face challenges of acquiring native speaker competence because they are still in the process of attaining linguistic input in the target language. Students are not confident about the structure and rules of the target language, the feature which warrants a need for teaching them according to their levels of communicative competence. Thus, students should be taught how to be fluent in English since the purpose of language teaching is to communicate and not necessarily to master the accent. This is because English is now regarded as an international language does not belong to the British or the Americans anymore" (Kiczkowiak, 2018:44). As such, lecturers ought to convince students about the possibility of fully learning the language without achieving a native pronunciation. The reason is that 'perfect' accent would not thwart students from getting a proper communicative competence, neither would it encumber the real use of the L2 in its social or professional circles (Casteña, 2017:143).

2.7.2.4 Interlanguage fossilisation

Interlanguage fossilisation (IL) refers to the ostensible cessation of learning (Selinker, 1972: 215; Brown, 2000:231; Han, 2004:214; Saville-Troike, 2012:79; Chen and Zhao; 2013:18). In simple terms, fossilisation refers to the process in which improper language becomes a pattern, and it cannot be straightforwardly rectified. Moreover, fossilisation in second language acquisition according to Finneran (2020:12) refers to the listlessness of L2 learning notwithstanding auspicious classroom settings, as well as sufficient exposure to and practice with the target language and adequate motivation to develop. Irrespective of the amount of exposure students might have to target language, they still will not acquire communicative competence. This further suggests that it is impossible for students whose IL has fossilised to acquire native-like competence no matter how favourable the conditions may be. In consonance, Selinker (1972) cited in Chen (2018:103), notes that perchance, a sheer 5% of students will be successful in learning a second language, and they can realise native-speaker competence, for instance, saying that more than 95% of L2 students fail to arrive at the end of the interlanguage gamut. Therefore, I believe that it is unfair for students to be expected to acquire native-like competence for the given reasons.

Interlanguage fossilisation can be classified into diverse ways according to different criteria (Chen & Zhao, 2013:18). According to Selinker (1972), cited in Chen and Zhao (2013:18), fossilisation can be grouped into two main types in terms of forms. The first form is called individual fossilisation while the other is group fossilisation. I will investigate only one form of fossilisation because the study focuses on individual students. Therefore, individual fossilisation can be subdivided into two main types, which are error re-appearance and language competence fossilisation (Chen & Zhao, 2013:18). On the one hand, error re-appearance refers to those language occurrences whereby frequently corrected language errors recur (Chen & Zhao, 2013:18; Finneran, 2020:165). The understanding here is that no matter how hard lecturers try to correct students' errors, they will one way or the other find their way back whether in speech or writing. On the other hand, language competence fossilisation refers to the "fossilisation of pronunciation, syntactic structures and vocabulary in interlanguage" (Chen & Zhao, 2013:18). In this instance, students could not pronounce some words properly; nor could they analyse grammatical forms as in identifying the subject + verb agreement in sentences.

2.7.2.5 Social Media.

Social media have affected writing skills of many tertiary students. Fatimayin (2018:3) explains that the language used in the social media is becoming common in many students' formal writing exercises. Most tertiary students have developed the habit of applying the informal language of social media to their various academic writing activities such as essays, examinations, or assignments. This is an indication that the excessive use of social media has negatively impacted on the writing skills of students. Obi, Bulus, Adamu and Sala (2012), cited in Wilson (2018:265) explain that most students who regularly text on social media have developed and adopted strange writing habits that are unacceptable in formal writing such as abbreviating contracted words. Omoera, Aiwuyo, Edemode and Anyanwu (2018:1) emphasise that expressions such as 'u' for 'you' 'gr8' for 'great', 'urs' for 'yours' are among other odd patterns of writing made by students on social media even when writing academic texts. As a result of texting on social media on a regular basis, students have become accustomed to making many grammatical errors such as using contracted forms, without any punctuation where necessary as well as failing to start sentences with capital letters. This style of informal writing has become visible in their academic writing, and it is not acceptable as it could result in students failing their assessments. This further brings to mind if students are taught grammar together with other skills. It would also be interesting to find out if lecturers no longer focus on grammar as was the case before as stipulated in the literature.

Social media addiction also has a negative effect on student's reading skills. Kojo, Agyekum and Arthur (2018:48) point out that the major reason why students have lost complete interest in reading is due to the rise in social media addiction that has taken over their lives. This simply means that students are more likely to spend more time on social media than on reading. Consequently, there has been a sharp decline in the rate at which students read books in recent years. The less time students spend on reading books because of social media, the more they fail to develop reading skills that will sustain them during their studies and even in the future. I believe that students should be encouraged more to engage their schoolwork even if they are online. They can be encouraged to read academic articles to improve their vocabulary and writing skills. They can improve their writing skills by following scholars in different fields.

Furthermore, students should be encouraged to use formal language, with correct spellings even when they are 'chatting' with their friends to avoid transferring spelling errors to their formal work. Obaidullah and Rahman (2018:28) explain that students who are growing up in the era of social media cannot read books deeply, and they fail to maintain longer attention span while reading. As such, the reading skills of many students have become severely affected by their constant use of social networking platforms. This will further dent their chances of fully acquiring communicative competence because one of the ways through which students can enhance their competence is through reading (Krashen, 2013:6).

2.8 Summary

In view of the suppositions mentioned above, it can be noted that second language learning and acquisition has posed challenges. Motivation as one of the variables seems to be essential in lowering the affective filter in order for the input to be conveyed to the LAD as espoused by Krashen (1982:31). Furthermore, it has been highlighted that students have to be integratively motivated, so that they can learn the target language inherently. Integrative motivation seems to be a suitable variable in language learning because students who are integratively motivated perform better than those who are instrumentally motivated (Rozmatovna, 2020: 942). Moreover, lecturers also ought to motivate their students to achieve communicative competence. They can design activities meant to help students to mediate through their group mates or mentors as well as lecturers themselves (Turuk, 2008:247).

Teaching language through interaction appears to be a thrilling prospect for language learning and acquisition. This is because interaction helps students to engage with one another in using language in real life situations. Interaction is advocated by the socio-cultural theory of second language learning which sees students as learning best when interacting with others. Lecturers in this case should practise scaffolding and communicative language teaching and task-based language teaching activities to enhance students' ZPD in classrooms (Vygotsky, 1978:89; Turuk, 2008:251; Lantolf & Beckett, 2009:462; Patrick 2019:41).

Also noting a crucial element in the acquisition of L2 is through the knowledge of cerebral hemispheres, it is therefore imperative for lecturers to apply suitable teaching strategies for either hemisphere. While the left hemisphere has been noted for language learning, the right hemisphere is arguably responsible for most actions. Therefore, lecturers should provide activities geared towards engaging both hemispheres (Danesi, 2003:57; Hammers & Blanc, 2004:136; Almazora *et al.*, 2021:5).

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology adopted for this study. The chapter is divided into two parts. The first part outlines how the research was conducted. The section thus describes the design of the study, population, sample and sample criterion, techniques and procedures of data collection, ethical considerations, as well as trustworthiness or rigour in the study. The second part presents data analysis, including coding, developing themes and interpretation of the data.

3.1 Research paradigms

A research paradigm is a rudimentary set of beliefs or worldviews that direct the researcher on how to carry out a research investigation (Patton, 2002:69; Creswell, 2013:20; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017: 26). Furthermore, a paradigm is a way of describing a world view that is informed by philosophical assumptions about the nature of social reality, or also known as ontology (Ponterotto, 2005:130, Chilisa, 2011:1). Ontology entails a belief about the nature of the world, and how researchers analyse data from themes to make sense out of the meaning imbedded in research data (Nguyen, 2019:2). A paradigm further describes ways of what institute the searcher's knowledge or epistemology, and axiology which is about ethics and value systems that researchers should consider during research (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017: 27). Lastly, a paradigm furthermore leads researchers into posing certain questions and the use of fitting methods to organised investigation known as the methodology which details how the world can thus be studied (Patton, 2002:69; Creswell, 2013:20).

Therefore, when choosing the paradigm for this study, I was influenced by the framework adopted by the inquiry and the consequent literature as well as how the study would be carried out. When deciding on the methodology of this study, I asked myself which paradigm would be commensurate with my views about the nature of reality. I also regarded two perspectives when selecting the paradigm for this enquiry. Ponterotto (2005:128) outlines two perspectives, which are idiographic and nomothetic research. The former postulates that an individual should be understood as a complex and unique entity, while the latter posits that an assessment should specifically focus on revealing general forms of behaviour that have a normative base. On the one hand, writing that is idiographic is very expressive and thorough in presentation, and an example for such detailed writing can be a case study (Ponterotto, 2005:128). On the other hand, writing that is nomothetic is usually unbiased and objective with a focus on far reaching findings (ibid, 2005:128). My writing was therefore influenced by an idiographic perspective, since I understood my participants as unique and complex individual entities. The theoretical framework denotes the kind of theories which informed my choice of the topic as well as the research questions which I could ask, the kind of literature that would be reviewed, methods of collecting data, and how it could be analysed and interpreted (Chilisa, 2011:4; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017:36; Nguyen, 2019:4). The afore-mentioned elements helped me in choosing the appropriate paradigm, and they are illustrated in Figures3.1and 3.2below.

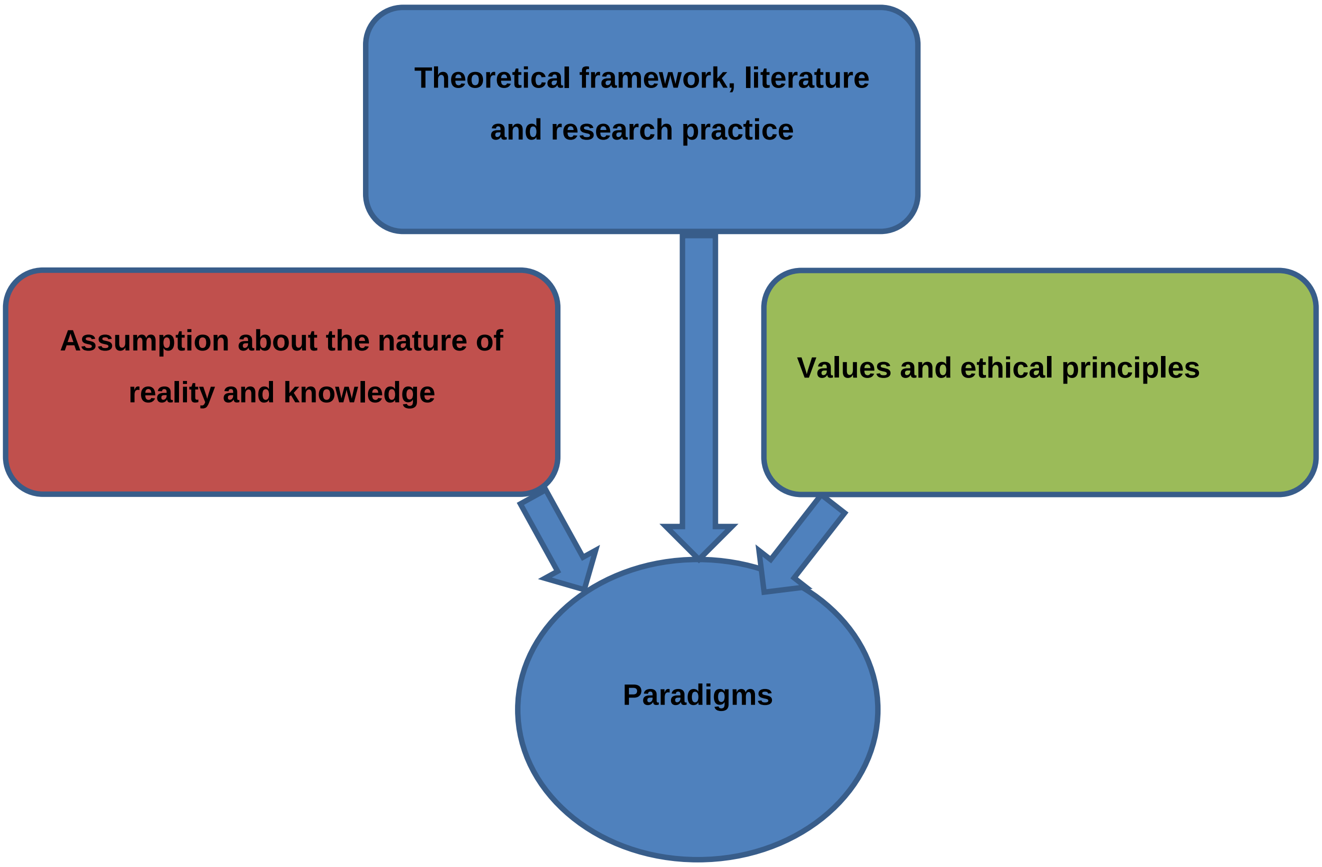

Figure 3.1 Factors influencing the choice of a paradigm (adopted from Chilisa, 2011:3)

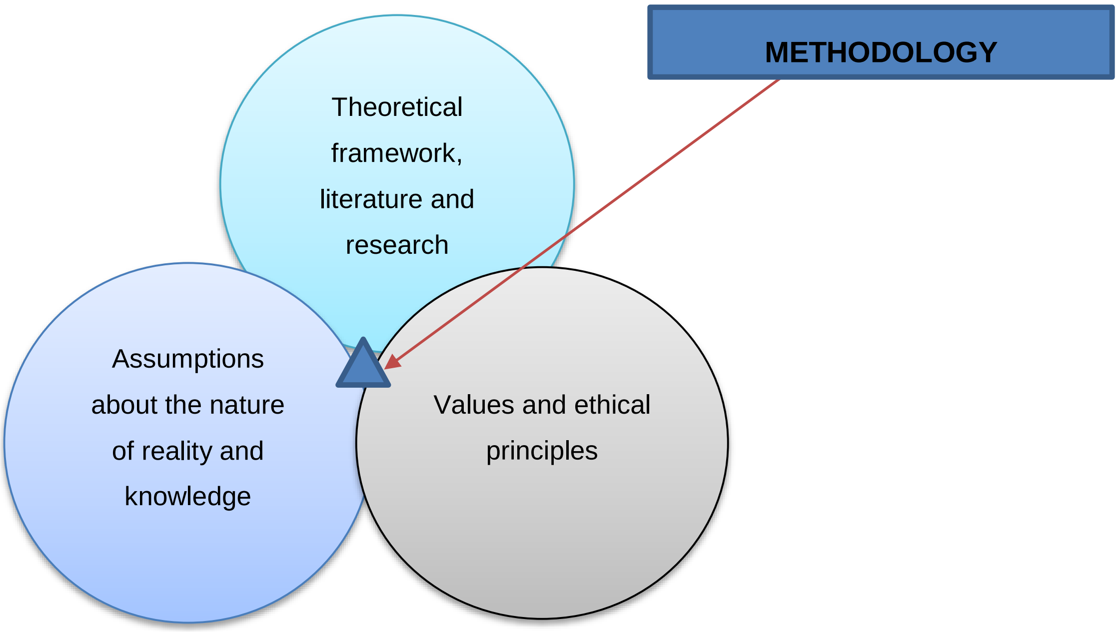

Figure 3.2 Methodology as convergence of three parts (adopted from Nguyen, 2019:4)

3.1.1 The interpretivist/constructivist paradigm

The interpretivist researchers consider an interpretive inquiry as more subjective than being objective (Thanh & Thanh, 2015: 26; Rashid *et al*., 2019:10; Park *et al*., 2020:4). This suggests that conclusions from data were modified by my individual bias. Regarding the question of reality, their ontological perspective is that it is socially constructed (Creswell; 2003:35, Mertens, 2009:470; Chilisa, 2011:8). This implies that I had to emphasise attempts at understanding the participants and their analysis of the world around them. Schwandt (2000:192) views interpretivists as anti-foundationalists thus opposing the idea of only one precise method or a certain path to knowledge. This means that I used different data collection techniques such as observations and interviews in order to achieve multiple realities.

Furthermore, Walshman (1995:78) substantiates that there are no correct or incorrect theories in constructivism. However, Walshman (ibid) advises that they should be decided upon on the basis of how motivating they are to researchers. On the question of knowledge, their epistemological standpoint is that it is subjective and idiographic because it is socially constructed and mind-dependent (Ponterotto, 2005:128; Chilisa, 2011:8). In this way, I studied the phenomenon in depth before applying my understanding, instead of making predictions. Regarding the question of ethics, the interpretivist researchers' axiological point of view is such that they assume responsibility that the result of research will echo the value of the researcher when attempting to present a balanced report of the findings (Kivunja, 2017:34).

In constructivism, researchers draw their constructs from the field through examining the phenomenon of interest. Interpretivists suppose that since reality is mind-constructed and mind-dependent as well as knowledge-subjective, the inquiry is heavily influenced by the researcher's values which will in turn inform the paradigm of choice appropriate for the study, and the subsequent topic under inquiry (Chilisa, 2011:9; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017:33). A study employing an interpretive paradigm makes use of both observation and interpretation in data collection (Creswell, 2009:5). Such an approach involves the collection of information about an event or a phenomenon through observation while interpretation entails the creation of meaning from the collected data by drawing inferences between the information and some theoretical patterns (Deetz, 1996:193; Barbie & Mouton, 2001:27).

The interpretation of data in an interpretive study strives towards understanding the phenomena through the people's meanings (Schwandt, 2007:314-317; Barbie& Mouton, 2008:28; Park *et al.*, 2020:4). The interpretive paradigm, therefore, emphasises the need to analysis research, resulting in better understanding of the world from the individuals' subjective observation of realities (Reeves & Hedberg, 2003:55; Rashid *et al.*, 2019:10). This further suggests that I viewed the world through the eyes of the participants, thereby drawing conclusions based on their stories and feelings about the phenomenon under investigation. Table 3.1 below summarises the paradigms which I compared before choosing the one suitable for my study.

Table 3.1 A summary of selected paradigms (adopted from Chilisa, 2011:5)

	POSITIVIST/ POST-POSITIVIST PARADIGM	**CONSTRUCTIVIST/ INTERPRETIVIST PARADIGM**	**TRANSFORMATIVE/ EMANCIPATORY PARADIGM**	**POSTCOLONIAL/ INDIGENOUS RESEARCH PARADIGM**
Reasons for doing the research	To discover laws that are generalisable and govern the universe	To understand and describe human nature	To destroy myths and empower people to change society radically	To challenge deficit thinking and pathological description of the formerly colonised and reconstructed body of knowledge that gives hope and promotes transformation and social change among the historically oppressed
Philosophical underpinning	Informed mainly by realism, idealism and	Informed by hermeneutics and phenomenology	Informed by critical theory, postcolonial discourses, feminist theories, race specific theories and neo-Marxist theories	Informed by indigenous knowledge systems, critical theories, post-colonial discourse, feminist theories, critical specific theories and a neo-Marxist theories
Ontological assumption	One reality, knowable within probability	Multiple society constructed realities	Multiple realities shaped by social, political, cultural, economic, race, ethnic, gender and disability values	Socially constructed multiple realities shaped by the set of multiple connections that human beings have with the environment, the cosmos, the living and the non-living.
Place of values in the research process	Science is value free, and values have no place except when choosing a topic	Values are an integral part of social life; no groups values are wrong, only different	All science must begin with a value position; some positions are right, some are wrong.	All research must be guided by a relational accountability that promotes respectful representation, reciprocity, and rights of the researched
Nature of knowledge	Objective	Subjective; idiographic	Dialectical, understanding aimed at critical praxis	Knowledge is relational and all the indigenous knowledge systems built on relations

What counts as truth	Based on precise observation and measurement that is verifiable	Truth is context dependent	It is informed by a theory that unveils illusions	It is informed by the set of multiple relations that one has with the universe
Methodology	Quantitative, correlation, quasi-experimental; experimental; causal comparative survey	Qualitative, phenomenology, ethnography, symbolic interaction; naturalistic	Combination of qualitative and quantitative action research, participatory research.	Participatory liberating and transformative research approaches and methodologies that draw from indigenous
Techniques of gathering data	Mainly questionnaire, observations, tests and experiments	Mainly interviews, participant, observation, pictures, photographs, diaries and documents	A combination of techniques in the other two paradigms	Techniques based on philosophic sagacity, ethno philosophy, language frameworks, indigenous knowledge systems and talk stories and talk circles

3.1.2 Inductive and deductive reasoning in research

There are various ways through which researchers can use their minds for them to better comprehend what is not known. Chief amongst them are two reasoning approaches which are inductive and deductive approaches (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:31; Saunders *et al.*, 2009:124). Deductive reasoning, on the one hand, involves finding a theory, deriving a hypothesis, and then testing it (Woiceshyn & Daellenbach, 2018:5; Park *et al.,* 2020:6). In this view, researchers use the already tested theories to come up with their own set of hypotheses. This kind of approach is oriented towards quantitative methodology because "it provides the basis for mathematical proofs in mathematics, physics and related disciplines" (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016:19). Inductive reasoning on the other hand entails the collection of data and rigorous observations to make inferences about the larger population wherein the sample was drawn (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:125; Leedy & Ormrod, 2016:19; Woiceshyn & Daellenbach, 2018:6).

In inductive logic of research, the researcher first collects data through interviews or observations (Creswell, 2014:100). The questions asked are usually open-ended for participants to be able to express themselves regarding the phenomenon under study. Furthermore, data are analysed to create themes or categories after collection. The researcher then looks for patterns, generalisations, or theories from categories or themes, and then poses generalisations or theories from past experiences or literature (Creswell, 2014:100).The qualitative inductive logic is further illustrated below in

Figure, 3.4 below. Moreover, Ary *et al.* (2010:6) state that inductive research can be categorised into two systems, namely which are perfect and the imperfect inductions. The former posits that a researcher must observe every example of the phenomenon, while the latter suggests that the researcher examines only a sample of a group and then surmises from the selected sample what constitute the characteristic of the whole group (Ary *et al.*, 2010:6).

My reasoning therefore during data collection was inductive. I adopted an imperfect induction because I examined only an example of the phenomenon. As a result, the findings of this study were not generalisable. Furthermore, I interviewed and observed participants in their natural settings to find answers to my research questions. I did not test any hypothesis, but I wanted to find out the challenges that students encountered in their development of communicative competence skills. However, I must also admit that my thinking was also a bit deductive because I used a number of theories subsidiary to the main theory of the study to answer some questions. While could not build my own theory, I used the tested theories to find answers. Figure 3.3 below summarises my approach to the study.

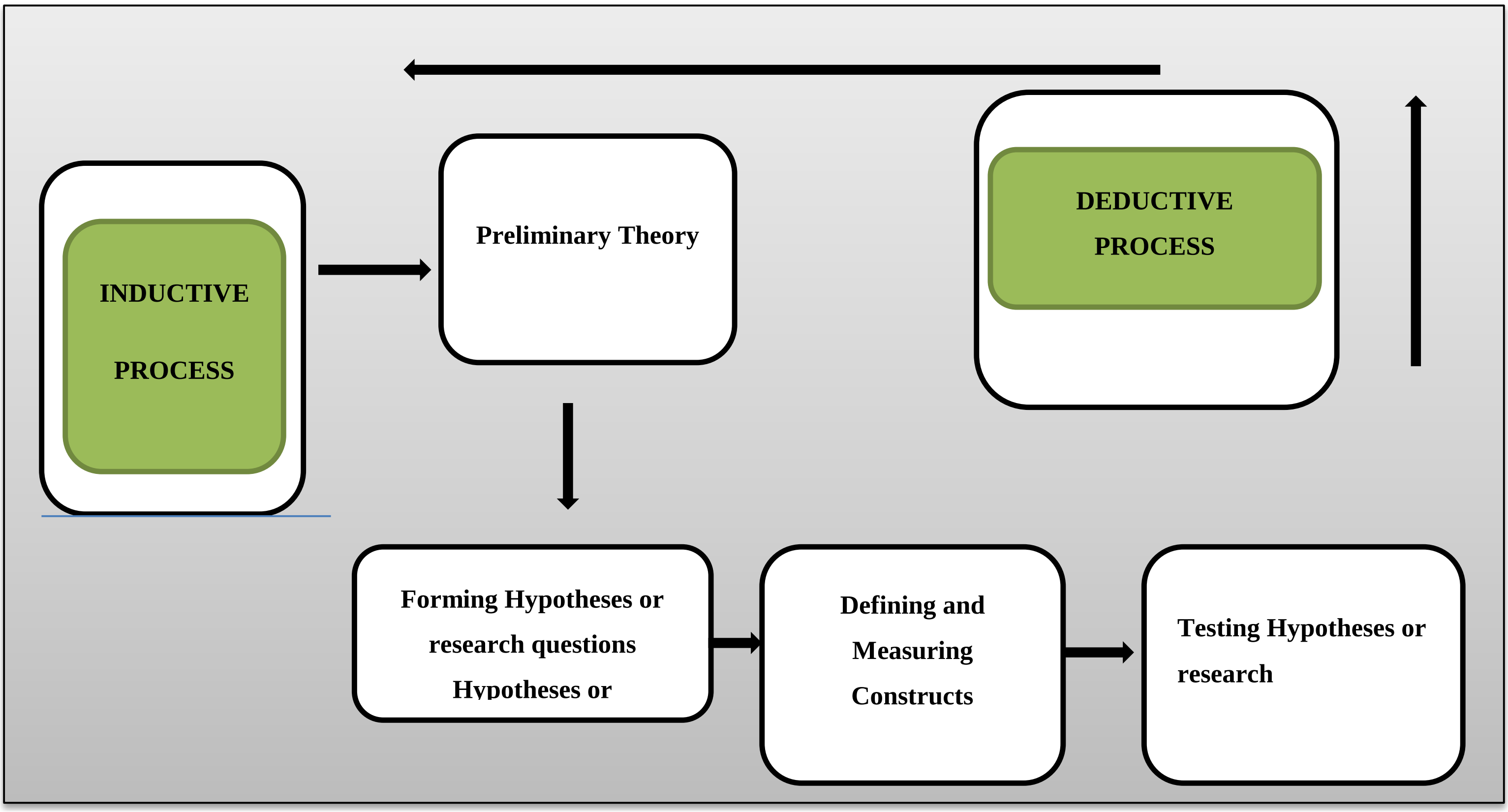

Figure 3.3 The theory building process (adopted from McShane, 2003:604)

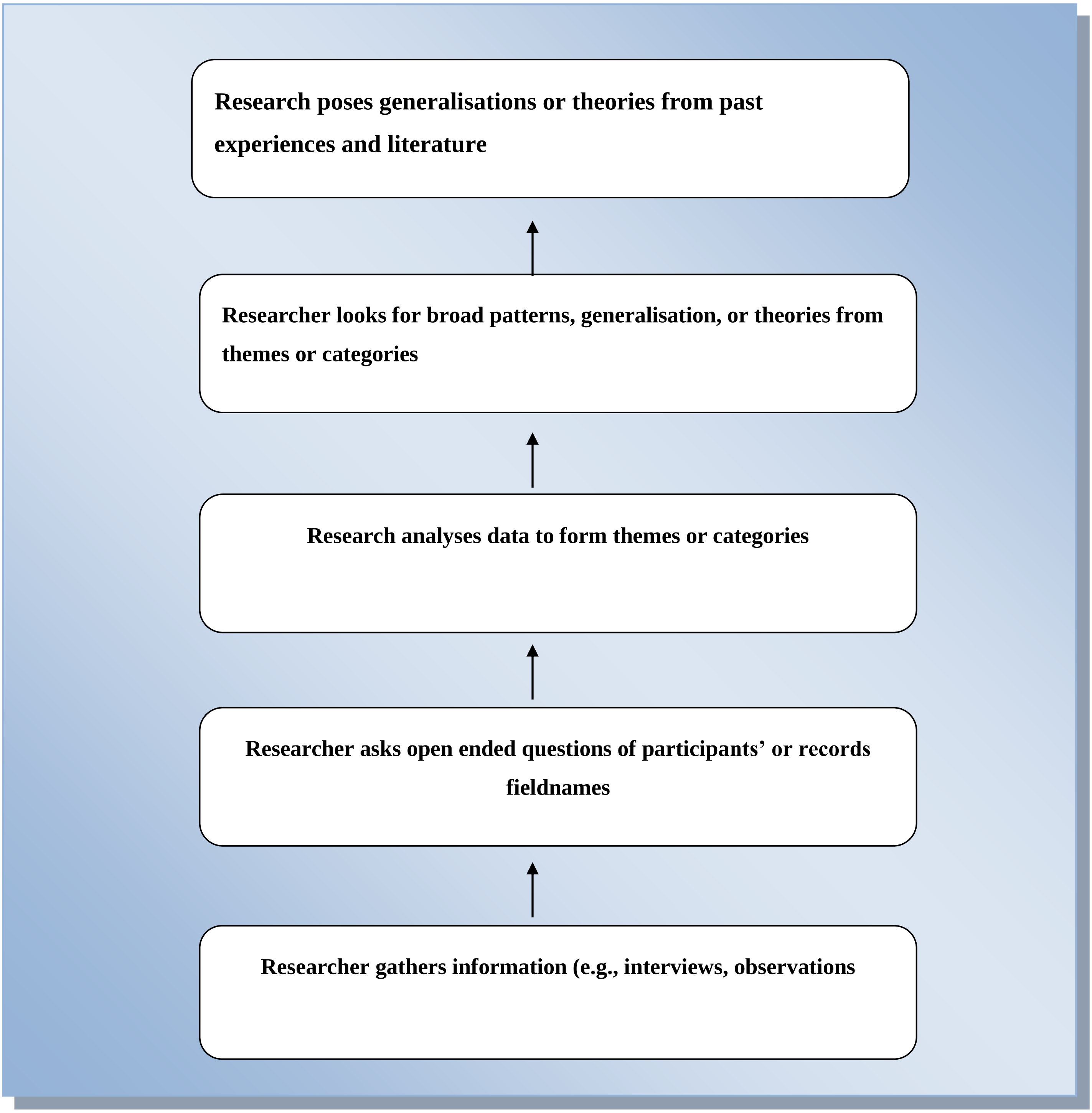

Figure 3.4 The Inductive Logic of Research in a Qualitative Study (adopted from Creswell, 2014:100)

3.2 Methodology

As described by Igwenagu (2016:5), research methodology refers to a set of organised processes used in research. The qualitative methodology and the quantitative methodology are the most popular methodologies in research. This study therefore employed the qualitative methodology, which is presented below.

3.2.1 Qualitative research

In this study, a qualitative research approach was adopted. The rationale for the approach is that the researcher views the nature of reality through the interpretivist lenses when attempting to comprehend human experiences (Chilisa, 2011:9; Jalongo & Saracho, 2016: 161). This approach suggests that the researcher attempted at understanding both lecturers' and students' experiences in the development of communicative competence skills in English in their classroom setting. Denzin and Lincoln (2005:8),Cropley (2015:5), Jameel, Shaheen and Majid (2018:1), Mohajan (2018:2) and Aspers and Corte (2021:599) see a qualitative research approach as normally based on a situated activity which studies things in their natural setting and makes sense of the phenomena in terms of the meanings people assign to them. Therefore, Creswell (2014:236) describes qualitative research as an approach that is used to investigate an individual's interpretations and responses to social problems.

According to Creswell (2014:235), the process of research for qualitative researchers is usually emergent. This implies that the original plan for the enquiry cannot be firmly set. The reason is that most of the stages during the execution of the qualitative study might change after the researcher enters the field for data collection (ibid). For instance, I had to modify some of my questions because of other occurrences that I did not anticipate, thus changing the forms of data collected. The purpose of the qualitative research is therefore to find out more about the problem straight from participants and to devise the means through which to acquire the information from them (Creswell, 2014:235). Qualitative researchers are' bricoleurs' or handymen and women who have a habit of creating and instinctively putting together an assortment of data gathered from numerous sources in order to advance a general understanding of an occurrence (Polit & Beck, 2017:687).

Moreover, qualitative research focuses on the description and interpretation and might as well lead to the creation of new theories or an assessment of an organisational process (Ospina, 2004:2; Hancock, Ockleford & Windridge, 2007:7; Johnson & Christensen, 2012:29). Leedy and Ormrod (2005:132) assert that a qualitative research method is typically used to answer questions about the complex nature of a phenomenon and to understand the phenomena from participants' perspective. When conducting qualitative research, an iterative process begins with a research question which the study intends to answer, and then a research design that serves as a method of investigation is also decided on. Furthermore, data collection tools are also devised, with the data analysed and the findings reported (Busetto *et al.*, 2020:2). An iterative process of research is illustrated in Figure3.5below.

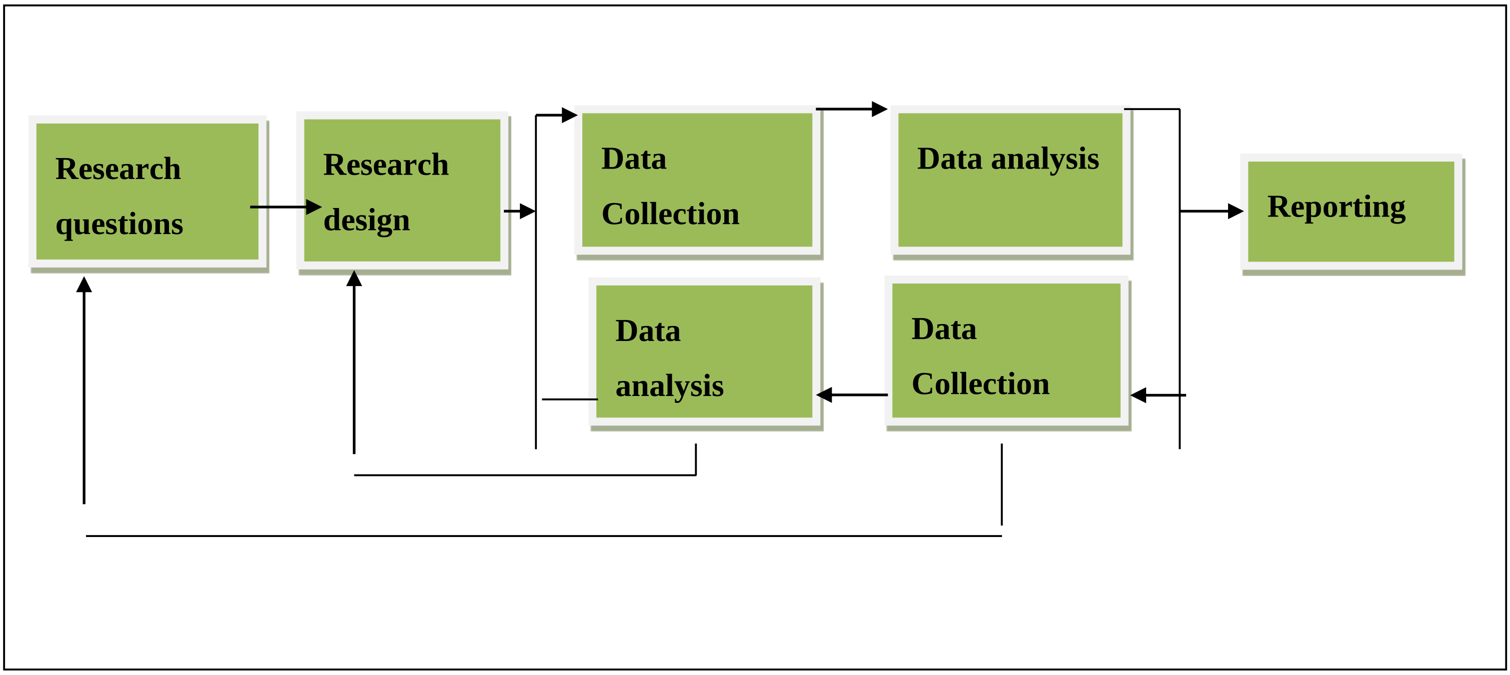

Figure 3.5 Iterative research process (adopted from Busetto *et al.*, 2020:2)

Qualitative research guide researchers in trying to understand people through social and cultural milieu within which they act and live (Myers, 2009:8; Aspers & Corte, 2021:600). The case in point is that the study employed this approach in order to deeply comprehend how lecturers taught students for realising communicative competence and performance in English as a second language. I also tried to establish the challenges faced by students in developing their communicative competence skills, and the factors influencing such challenges. In qualitative research, data gained from respondents is articulated in a descriptive and non-directional form (Creswell, 2003:40). Qualitative researchers consider the researcher's ability to interpret what they see as critical in comprehending any given social phenomenon (Leedy & Omrod, 2005:133).

Furthermore, some qualitative researchers believe that there is no single or definitive truth to be discovered. Instead, there may be numerous perspectives held by different individuals with each of these viewpoints having equal validity or fact (Creswell, 2014:234). It is in this sense that Leedy and

Omrod (ibid) compare a researcher to an instrument which is able to perform its task analogous to that of a sociogram, rating scale, or intelligence test. One important note to consider about qualitative research is that it "aims for less distance between the researcher and the researched. In fact, they use the word participants rather than subjects in order to convey the idea that research is conducted with rather than on people in the study"(Jalongo & Saracho, 2016:161). Therefore, I conducted the research with the participants who helped me with the questions that the study sought to answer.

Qualitative research has five common designs which are the case study, ethnography, phenomenological study, grounded theory, and content analysis (Leedy& Ormrod, 2005:135; Creswell, 2014:236). Ormrod and Leedy (2008:131) believe that qualitative approaches to a study of this kind have two things in common; they focus on the phenomena that occur in the natural settings and entail studying those phenomena in all their intricacy. It is for this reason that I adopted the qualitative approach for this study because it was critical to understand any social phenomenon, for it enhanced an interpretation of what I saw.

However, qualitative approach is believed to be one-sided because it does not follow statistical process. It is based on the researcher's interpretation of the research problem found on the views of the informants, hence its subjective nature of the enquiry (Cohen *et al*., 2011:21; Holtzblatt & Beyer, 2015:14). Furthermore, it might not be easy for another researcher who is elsewhere to conduct the same study and obtain similar results as does a quantitative approach (Williams &May 1998, cited in Daniel, 2016:93). Another challenge facing qualitative researchers is that they limit their results to a specific group of people under study, instead of reflecting on the wider population or generalising (De Vaus, 2014:7; Shank & Brown, 2007:27). This further suggests that my findings may not be reflective of other institutions which did not partake in this study.

3.2.2 The research design

A research design is a method of investigation adopted by the researcher to find out previously unknown facts (Creswell, 2009:175-177). According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010:141), a research design is a complete plan for answering the innermost research problem. Other researchers such as Babbie and Mouton (2008:74), on the one hand, perceive a research design as a plan or outline for researching while, on the other hand, Mouton (1996:107) delineates research design as a tool that helps the researcher to predict what the appropriate research decisions are likely to make the most of the validity of the ultimate results. A research design provides the whole a structure for the measures made by the researcher, the data that the researcher gathers, and the type of data analysis employed by the researcher. In other words, a research design is the planning of how the data were gathered and analysed (Leedy& Ormrod, 2010:141; Boru, 2018:1).

Qualitative enquiry has a number of designs. Before selecting a design for my study, I had explored some qualitative designs so as to see the one suitable for the study. I focused only on qualitative designs consistent with my qualitative enquiry. Creswell (2014:236), and Leedy and Ormrod (2016:258) outline the following six qualitative designs: case study, ethnography, content analysis, phenomenological study, narrative, and grounded theory study. Creswell (2014:236) further recommends these designs for their popularity and ease of use. Furthermore, Polit and Beck (2010:263) provide a few qualitative research designs and their discipline, domain and area of inquiry. They are summarised below in Tables 3.2 and 3.3 below.

Table 3.2 Distinguishing characteristics of different qualitative designs (adopted from Leedy & Ormrod, 2016:258)

Design	Purpose	Focus	Methods of Data Collection	Methods of Data Analysis
Case study	To understand one person or situation (or perhaps a very small number) in great depth.	One case or a few cases within its/their natural setting.	• Observations • Interviews • Appropriate written documents and /or audio-visual material.	• Categorisation and interpretation of data in terms of common themes. • Synthesis into an overall portrait of the case(s).
Ethnography	To understand how behaviours reflect the culture of a group.	A specific field side in which a group of people share a common culture.	• Participant observation • Structured or unstructured interviews with "informants" • Artefact/document collection.	• Identification of significant phenomena and underlying structures and beliefs. • Organisation of data into a logical whole (e.g., chronology, typical day).
Phenomenological study	To understand an experience from the participants' point of view.	A particular phenomenon as it is typically lived and perceived by human beings.	• In-depth, unstructured interviews. • Purposeful sampling of 5-25 individuals.	• Search for "meaning units" that reflect various aspects of the experience. • Integration of the meaning units

				into a "typical" experience.
Grounded theory	To derive a theory from data collected in a natural setting	A process including, human actions and interactions and how they result from and influence one another.	• Interviews • Any other relevant data sources.	• Prescribed and systematic method of coding the data into categories and identifying interrelationship. • Continual interweaving of data collection and data analysis. • Construction of a theory from the categories and interrelationship.
Content analysis	To identify the specific characteristics of a body of material.	Any verbal, visual, or behavioural form of communication.	• Identification and possible sampling of the specific material to be analysed. • Coding of the material in terms of predetermined and precisely defined characteristics.	• Tabulation of the frequency of each characteristic. • Descriptive or inferential statistical analyses as needed to answer the research question.

3.2.2.1 Case study

The research design for the inquiry is the case study. In a case study, a researcher gathers wide-ranging data on individuals, programmes, or events on which the inquiry is focused (Leedy &

Ormrod, 2005:143; Yin, 2018:25; Tomaszewski *et al*., 2020:2). Furthermore, Merriam (1998:25) and Yin (2018:44) define a case study as an experiential method that examines a current phenomenon or the case in profoundness and inside its context in the real-world, particularly when the limitations between a phenomenon and the context might not be visibly apparent. Moreover, Creswell (2007:245) and Creswell and Creswell (2018:14) describe a case study as a qualitative approach in which the researcher investigates a single case or multiple cases or systems over time through in-depth data collection strategies, which entail various sources of information such as documents and reports, interviews, audiovisual material, and observations.

In this study, my focus was manly on investigating the individual and collective teaching and learning or the acquisition of communicative competence and performance in English as a second language, and the challenges that students encountered in developing their communicative competence. At times, I paid attention to a single case possibly because of its distinctive or exceptional qualities which could promote a certain understanding or inform practice for similar situations (Creswell, 2003:10; Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:135). Miles and Huberman (1994:25) demonstrate a graphic denotation of a case study, viewing it looking like a circle that has a heart which is situated at the centre as depicted in Figure 3.6 below. The heart is therefore the focus of the study, whereas the circle describes the circumference or edge of the case. Concurring, Stake (1995:2) illustrates a case as the 'bounded system' using of the Greek symbol **Θ** (Theta) to show the case as an integrated system. This suggests that what is outside or beyond the edge or boundary will not be investigated (Sinha, 2017:99; Yin, 2018:65).

Furthermore, For Stake (1995:2), a case study is not a methodology, but it is a choice of what a researcher wishes to investigate or study. Meeting the requirements of a case study, I stated the boundary of what I intended to study. In other words, I limited the sample people with whom to conduct interviews and observe, as well as the time spent on both interviews and observations. The number of participants was decided, based on the data saturation principle which is as shown in Section 3.1.10.1.This I did in line with Stake (1995:2) and Merriam (1998:28) who caution that the phenomenon will not be adequately bounded to be a case if there is no end nor boundary to determine the number of people to be interviewed or the number of observations to be conducted. Therefore, I determined the number of participants for interviews and observations before conducting the study.

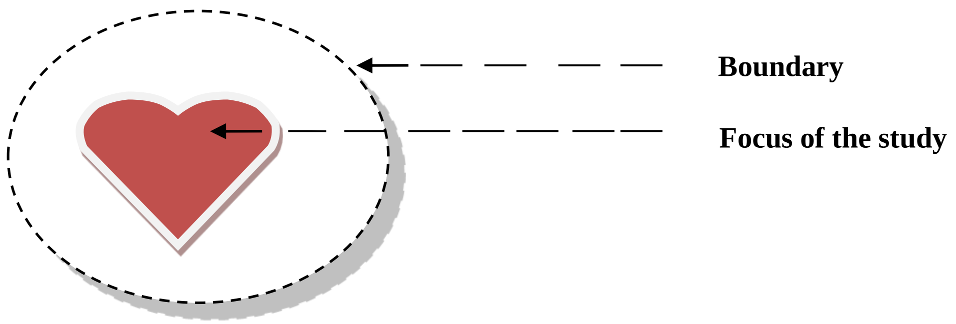

Figure 3.6 Graphical representation of a case study (adapted from Sinha, 2017:99)

Case studies can be categorised into classic single case and classic multiple case studies (Merriam, 1998:40; Polit & Beck, 2017:674; Sinha, 2017:100; Diop and Liu, 2020:7). Single-case designs, on the one hand, are best for researchers whose aim is to study an exceptional or an extreme case, or to corroborate on as well as challenging a theory or in cases which the researcher could not access prior to their current research (Baxter & Jack, 2008:549; Sinha, 2017:100; Yin, 2018:84). Single cases can be two-fold: a single-case or holistic designs and single-case or embedded designs. Multiple-case designs, on the other hand, are more suitable in instances where the researcher's interest is to use more than one case to gather data from various sources and draw conclusions from the facts (see Figure 3.8). They are also made up of two types which are multiple-case or holistic designs as well as multiple-case or embedded designs (Yin, 2018:83). They serve to confirm or corroborate evidence which enhances validity of the study. Multiple-design cases may necessitate the use of more than one investigator, and training may also be needed to cover certain aspects such as the reason for the study, the type of evidence to accumulate and what variations might be probable (Sinha, 2017:100).

Moreover, Yin (2018:84) states that the most important characteristic in designing case studies is the knowledge to choose between single and multiple case study designs. In this way, the researcher should decide before collecting any data on whether they will be employing a single-case or multiple cases in their case study. According to Yin (2018:82), there are five single-case rationales which make up a single case study. These include revelatory, critical, common, unusual, and longitudinal cases. Longitudinal case studies comprise the same single case at more than two varied intervals, i.e. observations, the feature which has not been examined in this study. The type of observations that I conducted are also explained in depth in (Section 3.1.6.1). In a revelatory case, a researcher observes and analyses a phenomenon which was difficult to access in the past two inquiries.

On the contrary, a third rationale for a single case is known as a common case. The purpose here is to capture the conditions and circumstances of an everyday situation daily. The reasons could be valuable lessons given about the societal processes associated with a particular theoretical importance. Further, a single case arises when the case embodies an intense or a typical case, which deviates from the theoretical normalities or even day-by-day incidents. Besides, the critical case aids researchers in determining the theory for the study. That is, it is intended to test the theory whether it can help in answering the questions raised by the study. Lastly, the single case can represent a significant contribution to knowledge and theory building by confirming, challenging or extending the theory (Yin, 2018:85). Such a study could even help to refocus future research in the field.

Moreover, Yin (2018:84) highlights that a single-case study is like a single test. As a result, most of the same circumstances that validate the choice of a single experiment can also justify it (a single-case study). For instance, if I were to adopt a single case study in the context of my study, I first would have tested if the principles of the socio-cultural theory are true for language teaching and learning. The theory encourages interaction between teachers and students in the classroom for language fluency. Therefore, I would have tested if indeed interaction helped students to be communicatively competent in the target language. I would have focused on only one institution because it has been stated that single case studies focus on one phenomenon or quintain to be examined, and that the single institution would serve as a single case to be studied (Stake, 1995:3; Stake, 2006:4; Sinha, 2017:99; Yin, 2018:85; Diop & Liu, 2020:7).

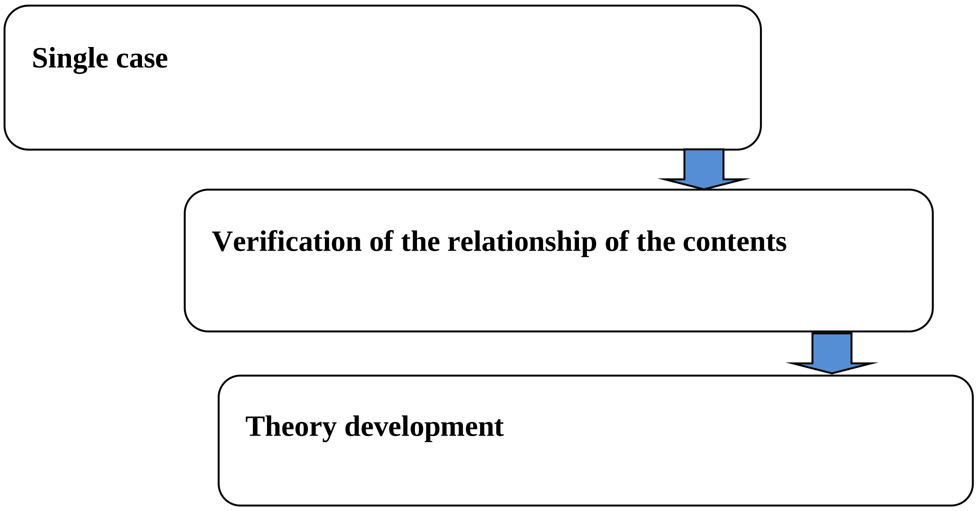

Figure 3.7 Single case study (adopted from, Diop & Liu, 2020:10)

The same case study may contain more than a single case. When this occurs, the case study has used a multiple-case study design; such designs have increased in recent years (Diop & Liu, 2020:10; Tomaszewski *et al.*, 2020:3). A common example can be a case study of a small group of public versus private universities. Each institution would be the subject of its own fieldwork, and the multiple-case study would first cover each university as a single case study before arriving at findings and conclusions across the individual case studies. Data from a multicase study typically come from the cases studied, but the researchers may gather other data than case data (Yin, 2018:85). In such case, researchers are likely to rely on what is already known about the quintain, and may study it further (Stake, 2006:8). Multiple-case study designs have distinctive advantages and disadvantages when compared to single-case study designs. The substantiation from multiple cases is frequently considered more convincing, and the general multiple-case study is thus regarded as being more robust (Herriott & Firestone, 1983, cited in Yin, 2018:91). At the same time, the rationale for single-case designs cannot usually be achieved by the multiple cases. The unusual or extreme case, the critical case, and the revelatory case, all are likely to involve only single-case studies (Yin, 2018:85).

Stake (1995:3) states that a case study has three main types which are intrinsic case studies, instrumental case studies and collective case studies. Intrinsic case studies are carried out to comprehend a certain case in question. Furthermore, instrumental cases are undertaken for exploring a specific case so as to have a clear understanding of an issue, a theory, or a group of individuals. Finally, collective case studies are examined in order to shed light on a phenomenon (Stake, 1995:4; Cohen *et al.*, 2007:255; Crowe *et al.*, 2011:2). Given the above types of case studies, I therefore scrutinised the theory for this study, and decided on employing both the instrumental and collective case studies. I set out to understand the challenges that undergraduate ESL students encounter in their development of communicative skills.

The reason for integrating two cases into this study is that I wanted to see how lecturers teach students towards communicative competence; I was eager to examine how their teaching methods enhanced students' communicative competence skills. Observing how they taught, my enquiry was oriented towards an instrumental case study. Consequently, I was also interested in examining the phenomenon from different cases (institutions) to gain an in-depth understanding, especially from different institutions, thereby having my inquiry inclined towards a collective case study. Furthermore, I adopted a multicase study, not just a single case (institution) (see Figure 3.8below), in order to examine the quintain hoping to draw attention to the challenges students encountered in developing their communicative competence.

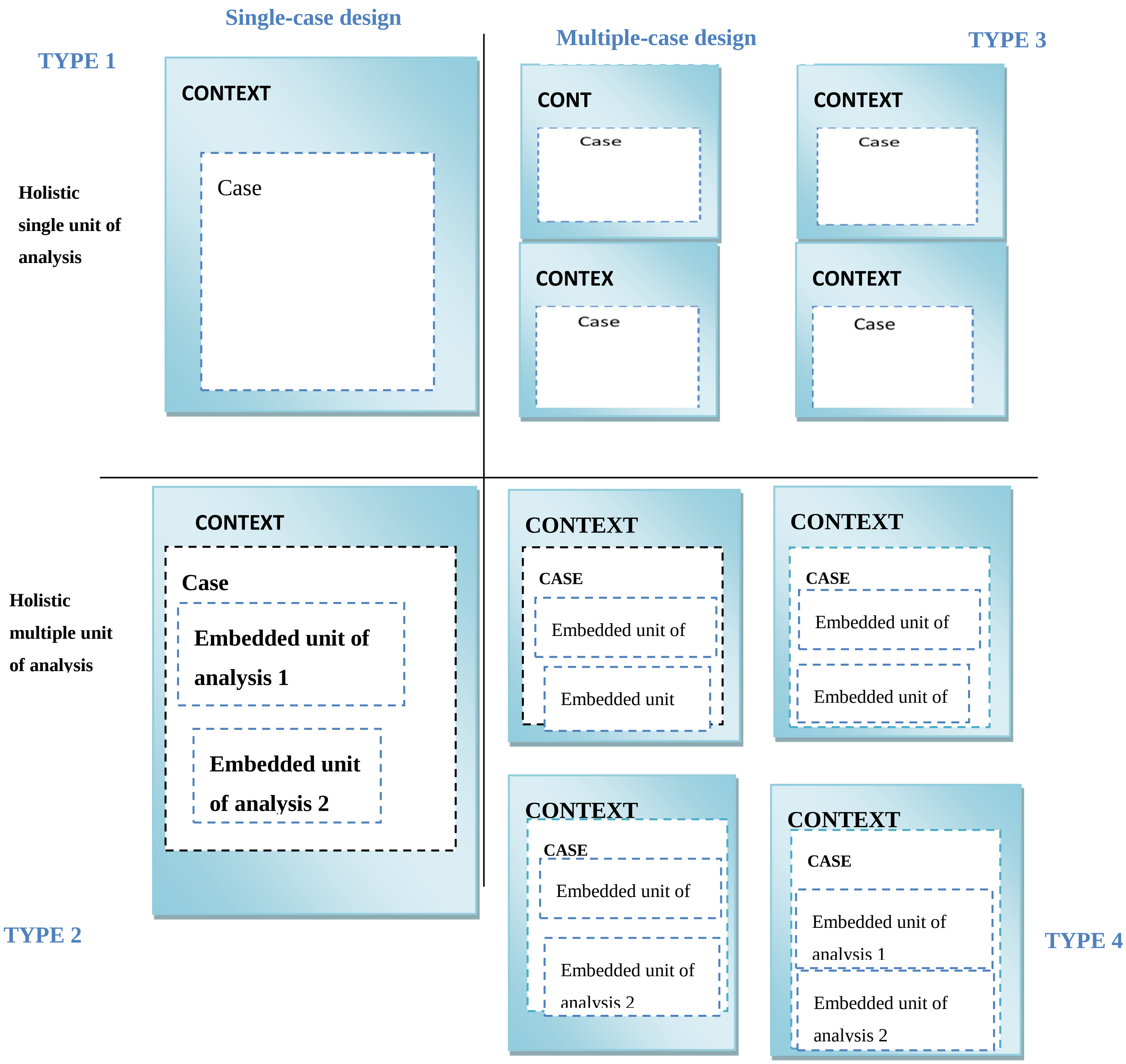

Figure 3.8 Basic Types of Designs for Case Studies (adapted from Yin, 2018:84)

A case study was therefore appropriate in learning further about a little known or a situation that is not well understood (Burns, 2010:5). A case study was fitting in this context because I wanted to explore a little-known phenomenon brought about by lack of research in Lesotho into the phenomenon among the tertiary ESL students in developing communicative competence skills. While selecting the design appropriate for this study, I heeded Yin's (2002) in Yazan (2015:140) advice that novice researchers, like me, should decide on the design which provides the highest instrumentality in answering their research questions as well as considering the effectiveness and limitations of each design and some risks to be avoided when putting each of them into practice. It was also valuable for examining how an individual or programme varies over time, possibly as the result of certain conditions or intercessions (Leedy& Ormrod, 2005:135; Rashid *et al.*, 2019:11). So, when choosing the case study design, I followed Adelman *et al.'s* (1980) and Nisbet and Watt's (1984) cited in Cohen *et al.'s* (2007:256) strengths and weaknesses of case studies which are summarised below. I also considered the potential snags of the case studies and how that could be avoided as outlined in (Crowe *et al.*, 2011:7).

Case studies have some advantages that make them attractive to educational evaluators or researchers. The following are Cohen *et al.'s* (2007) observations:

- Case study data, paradoxically, are 'strong in reality' but difficult to organise. In contrast, other research data are often 'weak in reality' but susceptible to ready organisation. This strength in reality is because case studies are down-to-earth and attention-holding, in harmony with the reader's own experience, and thus provide a 'natural' basis for generalisation.
- Case studies allow generalisations either about an instance or from an instance to a class. Their peculiar strength lies in their attention to the subtlety and complexity of the case in its own right.
- Case studies recognise the complexity and 'embeddedness' of social truths. By carefully attending to social situations, case studies can represent something of the discrepancies or conflicts between the viewpoints held by participants. The best case-studies are capable of offering some support to alternative interpretations.
- Case studies, considered as products, may form an archive of descriptive material sufficiently rich to admit subsequent reinterpretation. Given the variety and complexity of educational purposes and environments, there is an obvious value in having a data source for researchers and users whose purposes may be different from our own.
- Case studies are 'a step to action'. They begin in a world of action and contribute to it. Their insights may be directly interpreted and put to use; for staff or individual self-development, for within-institutional feedback; for formative evaluation; and in educational policy-making.
- Case studies present research or evaluation data in a more publicly accessible form than other kinds of research report, although this virtue is to some extent bought at the expense

of their length. The language and the form of the presentation is (we hope) less esoteric and less dependent on specialised interpretation than conventional research reports. The case study can multiple audiences. It reduces the dependence of the reader upon unstated assumptions and makes the research process itself accessible. Case studies, therefore, may contribute to the 'democratisation' of decision-making (and knowledge itself). At best, they allow readers to judge the implications of a study for themselves (Cohen *et al.*, 2007:256).

Strengths

- The results are more easily understood by a wide audience (including non-academics) as they are frequently written in everyday, non-professional language.
- They are immediately intelligible; they speak for themselves.
- They catch unique features that may otherwise be lost in larger scale data (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.
- They can be undertaken by a single researcher without needing a full research team.
- They can embrace and build in unanticipated events and uncontrolled variables.

Weaknesses

- The results may not be generalisable except where other readers or researchers see their application.
- They are not easily open to cross-checking; hence they may be selective, biased, personal and subjective.
- They are prone to problems of observer bias, despite attempts made to address reflexivity.

Table 3.4 Potential pitfalls and mitigating actions when undertaking case study research (adopted from Crowe *et al.*, 2011:7)

Potential Pitfalls	**Mitigating actions**
Selecting/conceptualising the wrong case (s) resulting in lack of theoretical generalisations.	Developing in-depth knowledge of theoretical and empirical literature, justifying choices made.
Collecting large volumes of data that are not relevant to the case or too little to be of any value	Focus data collection in line with research questions, whilst being flexible and allowing different paths to be explored.
Defining/bounding the case	Focus on related components (either by time and/or space), be clear what is outside the scope of the case.
Lack of rigour	Triangulation, respondent validation, the use of theoretical sampling, transparency throughout the research process.
Ethical issues	Anonymise appropriately as cases are often easily identifiable to insiders, informed consent of participants.
Integration with framework	Allow for unexpected issues to emerge and do not force fit, test out preliminary explanations, be clear about epistemological positions in advance.

3.3 Research Methods

As explained by Goundar (2012:11), research methods are various techniques applied in research. The research methods used in qualitative research include the interviews, observations, historical documentation, and focus groups. Face-to-face interviews, classroom observations and focus group discussions (FDGs) were used to collect data for this study.

Table 3.5 Classroom observations and interviews as well as their dates on which they took place per institution

Participants and their institutions	Data collection methods	Dates
Institution 1 **Students and Lectures**	Observations (+2 observations) FDGs (20 students) Face to face interviews (4 lecturers)	April 2022
Institution 2 **Students and Lecturers**	Observations (+ 2 observations) FDGs (20 students) Face to face interviews (3 lecturers)	April 2022
Institution 3 **Students and Lecturers**	Observations (+2 observations) FDGs (60 students) Face to face interviews (4 lecturers).	February to April 2022

3.3.1 Observations

Non-participant observations were employed in this study to gather data on the type of teaching strategies that lecturers employed in their classrooms, and how such approaches affected the development of students' communicative competence skills. Usually, observations as a tool to gather data are advantageous because they provide the researcher with accurate live data from natural settings (Creswell, 2014:239; Jalongo & Saracho, 2016:165).The lecturers allowed me to observe their classrooms, following an introduction to the students, as to who I was, before classes commenced. I was also given an opportunity to introduce myself to students. Therefore, I observed five hundred and seventy-nine (n=579) students from the three institutions twice and there were others who were observed once, and I observed them as they were taught, especially the kind of behaviour they displayed during instructions and how they interacted with their lecturers. Students were therefore assigned labels or pseudonyms; female students were labelled as SOf1, SOf2…while males were assigned SOm1, SOm2 etc. My observations were guided by the adopted socio-cultural theory of second language learning, which stipulates that teaching methods employed in the classroom ought to encourage students to construct and negotiate meaning amongst themselves (Hamachek, 1995:33; Lantolf, 2006:73; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Turuk, 2008:245; Mustafa, Alias, Radzi, 2017:1169; Villamizar, 2017:95; Loewen & Sato, 2018:50). The profiles are provided in Table 3.6 below.

Table 3.6 Profiles of the students observed (n=579)

Gender		**No.**	**%**
	Male	**456**	**79**
	Female	**123**	**21**
Age	**17-21 Years**	**400**	**69**
	22 Years and above	**179**	**31**
Language	**Sesotho**	**499**	**86**
	Others	**80**	**14**

According to Marshall and Rossman (1989:79), Cooper and Schindler (2001:374) Cohen *et al.* (2011:415) and Ryan (2019:40), observation is the methodical account of the events, activities and artefacts of a group or a social setting. Moreover, Morrison (1993), cited in Cohen *et al.* (2011:416), states that observations permit the researcher to collect the data on the physical setting which entails physical environment and how it is organised. They also allow the researcher to gather data on the human setting i.e., how people are organised, the features and make-up of individuals and groups under observation, for example, class and gender. Observations also aid the researcher to collect data on how they interact in their setting. For instance, how interactions take place either formal or informal, deliberate, unintended, verbal, or non-verbal. Lastly, they enable researchers to gather data on the programme setting which can be in the form of teaching approaches, how resources are put together as well as an organisation of curricula (Morrison, 1993; cited in Cohen *et al.*, 2011:416). Observations can also be naturalistic (Fraenkel *et al.*, 2015:445; Ryan, 2019:40). That is, participants can be studied in their own natural environment or setting without the researcher changing their behaviour (Manolov & Losado, 2017:2).

Flick (1998:137), on the one hand, offers five dimensions to consider besides observations:

- Structured, systematic and quantitative observation versus unstructured and unsystematic and qualitative observation;
- Participant observation versus non-participant observation ;
- Overt versus covert observation;
- Observation in natural settings versus observation in unnatural, artificial settings (e.g., a 'laboratory' or contrived situation);
- Self-observation versus observation of others.

On the other hand, Cooper & Schindler (2001: 375) recommend three dimensions that can be considered alongside observations:

- Whether the observation is direct or indirect: the former requiring the presence of the observer, the latter requiring recording devices (e.g., video cameras);
- Whether the presence of the observer is known or unknown (overt or covert research), whether the researcher is concealed (e.g., through a one-way mirror or hidden camera) or partially concealed, i.e. the researcher is seen but not known to be a researcher (e.g. the researcher takes up a visible role in the school);
- The function taken by the observer (participant to non-participant observation).

There are different roles that researchers play or assume during observations. They can assume a non-participant role, as complete observers, observers as participants and indirect role players (Kawulich, 2005:3; Baker, 2006:174; Cohen *et al.*, 2011:256; Walshe *et al.*, 2011:1049; Polit & Beck, 2017:731; Ciesielska *et al.*, 2018:34). On the one hand, participant observation is the process in which the researcher takes part in the activities that participants perform in their natural setting whilst observing them. On the other hand, in non-participant observations, the researcher does not interact or takes part from the group activities that they are observing. They just observe from a distance how participants behave in their natural setting (Cohen *et al.,* 2007:256; Manolov& Losado, 2017:1). Furthermore, complete participation is the definitive level of participation as the researcher decides to go native and examines a group in which they are already affiliated (Spradley, 1980; in Barker, 2006:175; Adler & Adler, 1994:380). An example can be a researcher observing their colleagues in their natural setting in which he/she already works or lives. It is in this case that Adler and Adler (1994:380) assert that researchers act as group members and not researchers, so that they do not inexplicably "alter the flow of the interaction". For an observer as a participant, the role of the researcher is to be more drawn in with the participants' innermost activities or actions, but he or she does not fully subscribe to the membership goals and ideals (Adler & Adler, 1994:380).

Throughout this phase of observation, the researcher might forge relationships with participants, such that they end up becoming friends (Barker, 2006:177). Observations can also be covert or overt depending on how a researcher decides to go about them. Covert observations ensue when participants are not aware that they are being observed. According to Kawulich (2012:3), it is uncommon that covert observations would be fitting into a research study but, participants are encouraged to change their actions or to act differently from their normal behaviour when they know that they are being observed which in some way may be considered appropriate. Therefore, the effective way of observing is through the overt observations in which participants are mindful of the fact that they are being observed, and they are not in any way, concealing the fact that they are solely being observed for the purpose of research (Kawulich, 2012:3).

I employed both complete and non-participant observations during data collection in this study. I became a non-participant observer in institutions where students were not familiar with me as the researcher. However, I was introduced to such students before observations, so that they could feel free and not to alter their behaviour when they saw me in their classrooms. I also had to explain the purpose and then described how the process would unfold. I also provided an observation sheet to the lecturers detailing what I was going to observe and why. Most lecturers seamed at ease during observations, and they carried on with their teaching as though I was not around. Some were not comfortable especially during my first visits, but I could see that their nerves had settled in the second round. One lecturer even decided not to return my call on the day of the observation. As result, I was unable to observe him. The situation in which participants alter their behaviour while under observation is known as the Hawthorne effect (Oswald *et al.,* 2014:53). The participants may change their behaviour because they know that they are being observed. So, I decided to use an overt observation so that participants knew that they were being observed. This helped to curb the Hawthorne effect because students acted normally as though I was not in their midst. This behaviour helped me to gather raw data from an uncontaminated social environment being examined (Oswald *et al.*, 2014:53).

Furthermore, I applied the six-step procedure for Hawthorne effect lessening as suggested by (Oswald *et al.*, 2014:59). The steps are as follows: evaluating the participants, creating non-threatening feeling, introducing one another, developing a connection, forming comfortable signal, and lastly, forming a link between discussions and an area of interest. Firstly, I evaluated my participants with whom I was going to engage and their environment as well as how they might behave towards me as an outsider. I further planned my behaviour and how I would look to the participants in terms of clothes to wear (Oswald *et al.*, 2014:60). The authors assert that wearing formal clothes might create a threatening atmosphere that alters participants' behaviour. Thirdly, I introduced myself as a researcher to the participants and how the processes would unfold as well as what was expected of them. The fourth step involved developing a connection with the participants. Oswald *et al.* (2014:63) argue that creating an understanding between the researcher and the participants is of paramount importance because it improves the level of communication as well as developing trust which would in turn increase the quality of data being collected. However, Oswald *et al.* (2014:63) caution that this step can be quickly established; it cannot be created in a few days, weeks or months even depending on the participants and the frequency of contact. Oswald *et al.*, (2014:63) outline the following helpful steps during conversations:

- Having an open and tolerant body language towards participants;
- Sustaining some eye contact with the participants;
- Frequently nodding and showing an interested smile;
- Trying as much as possible to agree with the participants, because developing a relationship is all about finding likenesses with one another;
- Trying to compliment them where necessary;
- Making use of past exchanges with the participants to build on for future discussions.

The fifth step entails the creation of a comfortable signal. As such, I had to make sure that the students were relaxed, without their having any problem with being observed in their natural setting (classrooms) of their learning (Oswald, 2014:65). The last step involved forming a link between the discussions and the area of interest. This link was done so that students would not be scared, thus changing their behaviour during observations. The intention therefore was to see if the methods employed permitted an interaction amongst students. I asked lecturers, especially those with large classes' permission to use a video recorder, so that I could capture incidents in some corners where my eyes could not reach. The process of recording was also disclosed to students before classroom observations. But I did not use it in small classes because I could see every place in the classroom and students' reactions. Therefore, a video recorder was used in some classes, and it was positioned at the rear corner of the classroom just next to the observer to capture incidents of non-verbal conducts and the instructional process of L2 learning. Holtzblatt and Beyer (2015:16) advise that it is not adequate to use one's ears and eyes only while observing actions taking place in the investigated sites, but that it is also crucial to complement the notes with either audio or video recording. I also drew up an observation schedule that allowed me to tick categories which permitted me to focus more on what was going on in the classrooms.

3.3.2 Face-to-face interviews (n=11)

An interview involves asking questions and getting answers from the selected population (Creswell, 2014:244). This can be telephonic, face-to-face, of a focus-group discussion, structured, semi-structured or unstructured (Creswell, 2012:200). Therefore, data in this study were collected through face-to-face interviews which were largely conversational with 11 (n=11) lecturers from the three selected institutions. Interviews were primarily employed, observing the Lesotho's Covid-19 protocols to probe responses from lecturers on which communicative competence-related strategies they used to enhance students' communicative competence, the communicative competence-related challenges encountered in teaching English, and the communicative competence-related challenges facing the students in learning English. Therefore, I interviewed eleven (n=11) lecturers from the three institutions about the kind of teaching strategies that they employed in their classrooms and the kind of challenges that their students encounter towards the development of their communicative competence skills. Lecturers were assigned labels or pseudonyms; female lecturers were labelled as Lf1, Lf2…while males were assigned Lm1, Lm2.

Table 3.7 Profiles of the lecturers interviewed (n=11)

Institutions	Lecturers Interviewed	Qualifications	Gender
University 1	Lm1	PhD Language, Linguistics& Literature	Male
	Lm2	PhD Language Education	Male
	Lm3	PhD Linguistics	Male
University 2	Lf1	MAEd. Language Ed	Female
	Lm4	PhD Communication in Languages	Male
	Lm5	PhD-Pursuing Journalism	Male
	Lf2	PhD-Pursuing Communication in Languages	Female
University 3	Lf3	MAEd Language Education	Female

	Lm6	MA Linguistics	Male
	Lm7	Honour's Literature	Male
	Lm11	PhD Communication Sciences	Male

Leedy & Ormrod (2005:146) state that interviews focus on facts, past and present experiences, and participants' perspectives on a phenomenon. I therefore probed answers from lecturers concerning their past and present experiences in relation to teaching and learning of English. Bryman (2008:25) agrees that interviews fit well with the interpretive approach to research as they provide an interaction between the researcher and participants in order to get to know each other better. In an interview, both the interviewer and the interviewees ask for clarity in questions and statements that are made (Creswell, 2005:234). Participants were allowed to ask questions where they did not understand or needed clarification. Data in this study were collected through one-on-one interviews, focus group discussions as well as classroom observations. From the university's sample, three lecturers as shown in Table 3.7 above were interviewed per institution. It was hoped that they were the type of participants who were not hesitant to speak and who could share their experiential ideas comfortably in one-on-one interviews given their impeccable experiences with English language teaching (Creswell, 2014:245). The researcher asked lecturers questions in line with the research objectives of the study. A tape recorder was used in all interviews for later reference as not all information was easily recorded on paper.

3.3.3 Focus group discussions (n=100)

I employed focus group discussions with students to obtain their insights into the challenges that they encountered in developing communicative competence skills. A focus group discussion entails gathering people from analogous backgrounds or skills together in order to deliberate a particular topic of interest (Nyumba, Derrick & Mukherjee, 2018:23). It is a type of qualitative research in which participants are asked questions about their insights, attitudes, beliefs, and opinions (Nyumba*et al.*, 2017:25). In a focus group discussion, participants are at liberty to talk to other group members. It usually consists of 8 to 12 participants led by an interviewer (researcher) in a flexible discussion of various topics of interest (Krueger & Casey, 2000:20).

I therefore acted as an interviewer in focus group discussions with hundred (n=100) ESL students from the three selected institutions to find out their views on challenges encountered in developing communicative competence skills and their overall experiences in learning English. I was introduced to students by their lecturers and what I was going to do. I was given some minutes to introduce myself and to explain my research to the students. I mentioned to them that they were not going to be forced to participate in the study, but that participation was voluntary. I further told them that they were free to withdraw at any time they wanted. I therefore tried as much as possible to convince students to participate in the study by explaining to them the importance of their participation. I also provided participants with informed consent forms which they signed before participating in the study as advised by Newman *et al.* (2021:4).

During the discussions, the students were free to express their views. Some were sceptical at first because they thought I might share what they said with my colleagues, fearing of being in trouble with their lecturers. I assured them that their information was going to be used only for the purposes of the study, and therefore I would protect their anonymity. I also sent the questions to students before visiting them for the FDGs. The purpose was for them to familiarise themselves with the questions before answering and to choose the kind of questions which they would feel free to answer, especially with the lecturers who introduced me to the students prior to FDGs. The students became receptive to the process, and I obtained rich data that answered the questions of the enquiry. The table below provides the profiles of students who were interviewed in the focus group discussions.

Table 3.8 Profiles of the students in FDGs (n=100)

Gender		No.	%
	Male	76	76
	Female	24	24
Age	17-21 Years	65	65
	22 Years and above	35	35
Language	Sesotho	100	100

3.4 Ensuring rigour

I used the four steps or criteria proposed by Guba and Lincoln (1989:156) to show trustworthiness in my findings. I also employed triangulation, member-checks, and audit trails as well as reflexivity in order to ensure rigour.

3.5 Trustworthiness

It refers to the systematic rigour of the research design, the credibility of the research, the believability of the findings and the applicability of the research method (Rose & Johson, 2020: 435).

3.6 Credibility

Credibility is the assurance made regarding the truth of the research findings (Nowell *et al.*, 2017:3; Korstjens & Moser, 2018:121). In this study, credibility was ensured by representing the research findings as conceivable information taken from the participants' original data, and it was analysed and interpreted correctly in line with the participant's original views. I did not exaggerate the participants' view on the topic under discussion, but I interpreted them as they were. As a way of enhancing the credibility of the finding of the study, I adopted Whittemore *et al.* (2001:534) strategies for quality enhancement. Qualitative researchers must strive to establish confidence in the truth of the findings for the particular participants and contexts in the research. I further followed Lincoln and Guba (1985:316) two phases involved in enhancing the credibility of findings. The first step entails conducting the study in a way that heightens the plausibility of the findings, while the second step involves taking necessary steps to ascertain credibility to the external consumers or readers (Lincoln & Guba (1985:316; Polit & Beck, 2010:492; Whittemore *et al.,* 2001:530; Nowell *et al.*, 2017:3).

3.7 Authenticity

Authenticity refers to the degree to which researchers impartially and truly show assortment of different truths. It arises in a research report when it portrays the experiences that reflect the manner in which participants' lives are lived (Whittemore *et al.,* 2001:530; Polit & Beck, 2010:492). A research report has authenticity if it offers readers an indirect experience of the lives of participants which is being defined, and therefore permits readers to develop a heightened thoughtfulness to the matters being described (Polit & Beck, 2010:492).

3.8 Triangulation

Another strategy that I used to enhance the credibility of my findings is triangulation. Triangulation refers to the use of numerous referents to draw inferences about what establishes the truth (Polit & Beck, 2010:497; Creswell, 2012:259; Lemon & Hayes, 2020:605). I used different data collection techniques or methods triangulation such as face-to-face interviews, focus group discussions and observations in order to corroborate evidence from different individuals (Polit & Beck, 2010:498 & Creswell, 2012:259).Furthermore, I scrutinised each data source and then found a proof to support themes. On this basis, the study was precise with the information drawing on numerous bases, individuals, or procedures. In that manner, it encouraged me to report with both accuracy and trustworthiness (Creswell, 2012:259).

3.8.1 Member checking

Member check was also employed in this study for the purposes of credibility. It is a process through which the researcher asks one or more participants to verify the accuracy of the report in the study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985:315; Polit & Beck, 2010: 499; Creswell, 2012:259). After completing the report, I took it back to some participants of the study in the three institutions in order to verify if their views were captured accordingly. I also discussed the findings with some lecturers from the three institutions regarding their implications to the teaching and learning of English language towards communicative competence.

3.8.2 Audit trail

To ensure the dependability and confirmability of the findings or data, I employed the audit trail strategy. Carcary (2020:167) explains that an audit trail in qualitative research is a record of how a qualitative research was conducted and how conclusions were made by the researchers. Korstjens and Moser (2018:121) narrate that confirmability is based on the idea that the data or findings of the research study can be verified by other researchers. Moser (2018:121) points out that the process of doing an audit trail involves the transparent description of the research steps taken from the beginning of a research task to the gathering and reporting of the data. The records of the research process are kept throughout the study. Korstjens and Moser (2020:167) highlight that when executing an audit trail, an auditor or a second party will thoroughly read the qualitative research, its methodology, findings and conclusions, and then audit the entire research processes and verify the findings. Thus, to ensure the trustworthiness of this inquiry, I maintained a record of all the research activities throughout the research process. Thereafter, I sent my work to an auditor who reviewed, audited and authenticated my study in order to ensure that the findings were the participants' original opinions, not my views. I also sent the copy of my study to my colleagues for their input and constructive criticism.

3.9 Transferability

Transferability refers to the applicability of inquiry and findings (Nowell *et al.*, 2017: 3). In this study, the descriptions of the research setting, participants, and direct quotes from participants were discussed, so that those who sought to transfer the findings to their context could judge the transferability. It was my obligation as the researcher to deliver an adequate descriptive data in the study report so that readers could assess the suitability of the findings to other settings (Guba & Lincoln, 1985:316; Polit & Beck, 2010:493).

3.10 Dependability

Dependability establishes the stability of findings over time (Korstjens & Moser, 2018:121). In this study, dependability involved the participants' assessment of the findings, analysis and recommendations of the study in such a way that all elements were supported by the data as originally received from participants of the study. Moreover, Nowell *et al.* (2017:3) reiterate that dependability can be achieved by ensuring that the research process is sound, it can be traced, and it is well documented. Another way through which the research process can exhibit dependability is for its procedure to be audited as explained in Section 3.1.7.3.3, above (Nowell *et al*., 2017:3).

3.11 Reflexivity

Reflexivity refers to a qualitative researcher's engagement and self-conscious reference to themselves in the knowledge production, and the continuous scrutiny and elucidation of how they have subjectively affected the research processes and results (Dowling, 2008:2; Jootun *et al.*, 2009:45; Roulston, 2010:116; Nowell, *et al.*, 2017:3; Creswell & Poth, 2018:44). It is a process that necessitates crucial self-reflection, which means being vigorously engaged in the research process (Marshall & Rossman, 2016:118; Palaganas *et al.*, 2017:427). It is in the course of the research that researchers often find themselves pondering on the ways through which their own objectives, characters, principles, viewpoints, practises, belief systems and social identities have moulded the research project (Roulston, 2010:117; Palaganas *et al.*, 2017:430; Subramani, 2019:7).Therefore, I also contemplated about how the research project may possibly have affected, touched on and transmuted me as an individual as well as a researcher. Nonetheless, Reay (2007: 611) contends that reflexivity is all about providing as full and truthful occurrence of events during the research process as possible, especially when explaining the stand of the investigator in relation to the research. Therefore, reflexivity plays a pivotal role in rendering the research process open and translucent (Palaganas *et al.*, 2017:431).

3.12 Scope of the study

The scope of the study refers to the parameters under which the study will be operating (Simon & Goes, 2013:20). The study was restricted to Maseru district. Three tertiary institutions were selected to participate in this study. Samples for qualitative studies are usually lesser (Leedy& Ormrod, 2005:140). As a result, findings from those studies are not broadly generalisable. The parameters comprised the population, subject and the nature of participants amongst others. The study focused on the teaching and learning or acquisition of communicative competence and performance at the tertiary level. In particular, the study explored the communicative-related teaching strategies that lecturers employed in their classrooms.

3.13 Target population

Goddard and Melville (2005:19) refer to population as a group of interest to the researcher. In unison, Creswell (2014:250) describes population as any group whose attention is guided by the researcher when conducting a study. For this inquiry, the population referred to lecturers and students of English language in the three selected tertiary institutions.

3.14 Sample and Sampling procedure

Bryman (2008:60) refers to sample as the division or representative of the population under investigation. Samples for qualitative studies are usually lesser (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:140). As a result, findings from those studies are not broadly generalisable. This implies that my findings were not generalised to other institutions, but they were generalised to the sampled institutions. Maximum variation sampling as perchance the most broadly utilised method of purposive sampling was employed in this study. It entails purposefully selecting persons, participants or settings with differences depending on the scope of interest (Polit & Beck, 2017:696). The sample was therefore purposively and conveniently selected based on the involvement with English as a module or course. The lecturers were selected based on their experience as English second-language practitioners. A minimum of five-year experience as a lecturer was considered. Participants in this study consisted of undergraduate student teachers of English Language, students who majored in English language, Journalism and Communication students and those who take it as a module from the three selected institutions.

The selected students who participated in this study did not have similar traits. So, I asked lecturers from the selected institutions to help me with the selection of those who were from government, church or privately owned schools. Since I was involved with one of the selected institutions, I did not influence or lead participants to answers that might have proved my pre-conceived theories or expectations. I also asked lecturers from my institution to help me to select students on my behalf, so that I might not be tempted to choose those who I thought may give me what I wanted. I practised neutrality in all institutions that I visited; I did not have any pre-conceived ideas during interviews or classroom observations in relation to my topic that might influence the findings of the study. Findings from this study are reported exactly the way participants in all institutions reported them. Furthermore, my English language students did not participate in this study because I might be tempted to use their challenges in English language as the basis for the findings in this study; thus, I decided to ask my colleagues to help me with their students.

3.14.1 Data saturation

According to Polit and Beck (2017:702), there are no specific fixed rules based on the sample size in qualitative research. The authors assert that a sample size in qualitative studies ought to be centred around the information needed for the study. For that reason, I was guided by the principle called data saturation. This means that I sampled as far as new information was no longer obtainable and repetition or overlap was accomplished (Polit & Beck, 2017:702; Morse, 1995, in Hennink *et al.*, 2019:1).Saturation is the construction of rich data within the process of investigation by paying attention to scope and replication, thus, in turn, creating the theoretical facets of the investigation (Morse, 2015:587; Saunders *et al*., 2017:1895).On the one hand, scope is the exhaustiveness of data which covers not only the area or domain, but also the profundity of the topic. This suggests that I had to explore all aspects of the phenomenon as well as interviewing more participants who had experienced the phenomenon under study to broaden the scope (Morse, 2015:587; Polit & Beck, 2017:702). I had initially planned to interview nine lecturers from three institutions and seventy students, but I increased the sample size in order to reach saturation.

Moreover, Polit and Beck (2017:703) and Saunders *et al.* (2017:1902) observe that saturation can be realised with a rather smaller sample if participants are good at sharing and deeply reflecting on their understanding or experiences of the phenomenon as well as communicating efficiently. There was therefore no need to drastically increase the number of lecturers because they could easily reflect on their experiences concerning the phenomenon under investigation, and they were effective communicators. I had to adjust only the number of students to include more of those who majored in English language and that is when saturation was achieved. Replication, on the other hand, means data from a number of participants can have vital features in common. Even though, nothing is precisely the same, details will always be different. However, participants or groups of participants may possibly have similar responses or reactions even to dissimilar experiences under the circumstances with some common features (Morse, 2015:588).

Surely, researchers may decide to ignore or disregard data which they think are insignificant and aim at things that seem relevant. However, Morse (2015:587) warns that inconsequential and less relevant data should be kept on the side-line should a need arise later to recognise their worth and adequacy. That is, data that appear to be irrelevant should be kept because it might be needed later in the study or during analysis. The aim is therefore to produce enough exhaustive data that can brighten the dimensions, patterns, and categories of the phenomenon under investigation (Polit & Beck, 2017:702). These categories contribute to researchers' comprehension of the phenomenon that they might be exploring or investigating and are twice illuminating. Firstly, researchers are edified when the data within a category expand, intersect, or overlap (Morse, 2015:587). Furthermore, their comprehension of the phenomenon becomes greater, extra evident, steadier, and more organised. Secondly, this understanding renders researchers niftier, and capable of learning where to look to study more about the phenomenon as well as distinguishing the resemblance between seemingly dissimilar instances and opposing data (Morse, 2015:588; Polit & Beck, 2017:703; Saunders *et al.*, 2017:1902). As a result, as the phenomenon strengthens, becomes more apparent, steadier, more solid, and more established, research will undoubtedly become saturated or overlap with the researcher definitively becoming certain (Morse, 2015:588).

3.15 Ethical considerations

McMillan and Schumacher (2001:196) state that ethics deal with beliefs about what is right or wrong, accurate or inaccurate, and good or bad. For conducting this study, it was vitally important to obtain permission from the relevant authorities. Obtaining such permission would, in turn, allow me to avoid going to other people's workplaces without consent (Creswell, 2012:321). I applied both morality and fairness criteria to my ethical conduct as stipulated by Kivunja and Kuyini (2017:28). The morality criterion denotes the fundamental moral values I maintained during the research while fairness refers to the researcher's ability to be impartial to all research participants in the course of data collection, ensuring that their rights are sustained (Akaranga & Makau, 2016:2; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017:28). I further observed the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics (2016:1) which states "that all research activities are conducted with scholarly integrity, excellence, social responsibility and ethical behaviour". In this way, I avoided putting the participants at any risk that is doing no harm to them thus having my conduct reflective of research integrity and accountability. As such, I treated the participants equally, and interpreted the data as objectively as possible, reflecting on the participants' views when drawing my conclusions for the study.

Furthermore, I asked the Registrars of the three institutions permission to conduct research in their premises, after which I was referred to the Deans of respective faculties and heads of the English Departments in the sampled institutions. I obtained permission from the selected institutions with an introduction letter from the Department of English Studies at the UNISA College of Human Sciences. Participants were informed of the procedures and devices to be used during the interviews, as well as the way the process would unfold. I also explained the Protection of Personal Information Act (POPIA) to the participants to address their information privacy. However, owing to the incessant spread of the corona virus (Covid-19) which has restricted any contact, I adhered to the social distancing measures as advised by the World Health Organisation and the UNISA's Ethics Review Committee (ECR) on the kind of studies to be conducted.

Similar to the procedure that I followed with the introduction letter to the Registrars, I introduced myself to participants with an introduction letter from the Department of English Studies at the UNISA College of Human Sciences for them to believe that the research was authentic (see appendix

G, for the participants' letter). Both the researcher and participants wore face masks and maintained two-metre social distance. Hands were sanitised with an alcohol-based hand sanitiser before and after interviews and classroom observations. I also arranged with lecturers from the selected institutions to obtain their timetables to sit in during their lectures. Each class was observed twice. With focus group discussions, I sought assistance from the lecturers responsible for the subjects in order to help me with access to students and provide a venue for interviews. As for the face-to-face interviews with lecturers, I asked for help from the lecturers concerned for venues where we could conduct the interviews.

3.15.1 Autonomy

Autonomy is the ability to deliberate about a decision and to act on that decision (Polit & Beck 2017:122). I therefore provided participants with information about the study including the purpose, benefits, and involvement. The approach allowed them to reflect on the request and make informed decisions. A copy of the information of the study and the informed consent were provided. Voice recording was done after obtaining permission from the lecturers and students. The information on the recording was included in the information sheet and informed consent. Information obtained from the participants would be kept under lock and key for a period of five years, and it would be used only for the sole purpose of writing papers and for presentation in conferences. Participation in the study was voluntary, and individuals partook once they signed informed consent. Pseudonyms were used in order to protect the identity of the participants.

3.15.2 Beneficence

Beneficence refers to minimising harm for maximising benefits of study participants (Polit & Beck 2017:121). This study was not harmful in any way to the participants. There were debriefing sessions where students could openly share their experiences, thereby assuring them that their participation was in no way to expose them to any harm or victimisation. I also explained to the students the purpose and benefit of participating in the study, drawing on Akaranga & Makau's (2016:6) caution that researchers should not overstate or understate the importance of the study.

3.15.3 Non-maleficence

Non-maleficence is the protection of study participants from physical and psychological harm and exploitation (Akaranga & Makau, 2016:6; Polit & Beck 2017:140). In this study, participants who were not comfortable to continue participating in the study were free to withdraw at any time without imposing fear on them. It was of paramount importance, especially on the part of students that they became free to express themselves whichever way they felt was right. As Leedy and Ormrod (2016:102) put, participants should not be "subjected to unusual stress, embarrassment, or loss of self-esteem". I made sure that participants were happy, especially student participants who felt that their little contribution would make a huge impact on the future teaching and learning of English.

3.15.4 Justice

Justice refers to the study participants' right to fair treatment and their right to privacy (Polit & Beck 2017:124). In this study, the selection of the study participants was based on the inclusion criteria, using the selected sampling techniques. Furthermore, I assured all the participants that their identities would not be exposed in the study, but they would be kept anonymous.

3.15.5 Researcher's positionality

Researcher's positionality refers to ones' understanding of the world and their stance in relation to the approach that they decide to espouse concerning a research project (Savin-Baden & Major, 2013:71; Palaganas *et al.*, 2017:427; Holmes, 2020:1). My study adopted an interpretivist paradigm because of viewing the reality as being constructed by participants that is being mind-dependent coupled with personal knowledge (Chilisa, 2011:10). I was highly influenced by my values since this inquiry was value-bound and value-laden, that is, my values apprised the paradigm used by the study and the data collection techniques as well as how the data were analysed and interpreted. Moreover, I acknowledged the value-laden disposition of this study by detailing my values and bias linked to the topic under investigation that might have interfered with my impartiality (Chilisa, 2011:10). I therefore, developed my positionality in this study through Savin-Baden and Major's (2013:72) three crucial steps towards reflexivity. The first step entails locating oneself about the subject which is basically about acknowledging my personal standpoint that had the potential to influence the study. I had to ask my colleagues to select students from different backgrounds to participate in the study to eliminate any bias that I might have regarding the topic under investigation. Thus, I could not choose my students to participate in this study for the same reason. Another step involves locating oneself about the participants, that is, I individually reflected on how participants viewed me as well as that I might have not been fully aware of how both the participants and I have shaped our personalities. The last step means locating oneself in about the context of research and its process, meaning I had to admit having influenced my study and its context. Therefore, I considered myself an outsider when I entered the field by adjusting my position in the study to Marshall and Rossman's (2010:2) explanation that qualitative research is conducted in the real-life settings, drawing on several methods that venerate the humanity of the participants in the research study. I therefore sought to comprehend students' experiences concerning the phenomenon under investigation, by involving myself deeply in their world (Marshall & Rossman, 2016:118).

Furthermore, my supervisor kept guiding me throughout the study by ensuring that I adhered to the ethics during data collection and interpretation. I had to pronounce myself, my values, philosophical bias, connection to the participants and the proximity to the topic in acknowledgement of the supposition about the subjective outlook of this enquiry (Chilisa, 2011:11; Holmes, 2020:4). I also dealt with the delicate issues regarding the access and entry to the site of the study (Kawulich, 2011, cited in Chilisa, 2011:11). I had to develop trust, connection, and genuine communication strides with the participants so as to record even the delicate nuances of implication from their expressions (Chilisa, 2011:11).

3.16 Data management and analysis

This section constitutes the second part of the chapter which explains the processes involved in managing and analysing data as obtained through different modes of enquiry. Management of data in qualitative research is reductionist. That is, it encompasses the conversion of masses of data into lesser, manageable pieces (Polit & Beck, 2017:755). Therefore, after collecting the data before analysis and interpretation, I separated observation notes, activity data and personal reflectionsfrom audio and video recordings. Walshe *et al.* (2011:1053) advise researchers to quickly decide if they integrate observation data and interviews before the data could proliferate to avoid confusion, even losing it. Walshe *et al.* (2011:1053), Lin (2009:133) and Polit and Beck (2017:754) further caution researchers to organise their data using a software called a CAQDAS (Computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software) tool or similar. Furthermore, researchers can use a reflective practice to manage data produced in qualitative research to combine their data better. Data should be protected for probable future use through validation of research findings, establishing priorities, or re-analysing (Lin, 2009:135).

The following steps are cited as key to data management. These are protection of participants, confidentiality, storage of data keeping the records, ownership of data, and the sharing of data (Lin, 2009:132). The process in which data gathered by the researcher are protected is known as confidentiality (Lin, 2009:135). Ways of achieving this goal include changing the forms of documentation, doing away with participant identifiers as well as transcribing and coding data (Lin, 2009:135; Sutton & Austin, 2015:229). I also made sure of storing audio and video tapes in a secure place that could be accessed by me alone. Transcripts and field notes were also kept safe where unauthorised personnel could not have access, all of which I did to protect participants' information as advised by Lin (2009:135). Participants were advised to share information that they would not regret later, and they were also given an option to withdraw should they feel uncomfortable to continue. For data storage, I made hard copies in the form of transcriptions as well as soft copies which I stored in my Google drive and burned it in a disc. These data will be kept for the period of five years. According to Lin (2009:136), it is therefore crucial for researchers to be specific about the ownership of data. This means that data can be owned by the funders of research, research institutions, or in some cases, by research participants as well as researchers (Lee, 2009:136). Data, in this case, are owned by me as the researcher, and its sharing will be handled by UNISA. The above-mentioned steps are comprehensibly summarised in Table 3.9 below.

Table 3.9 Proposed steps for researchers to follow in the management of qualitative data (adapted from Lin, 2009:136)

Components	**Take-Home Messages and Checklist Items**
Confidentiality	Researchers should take the responsibility to protect their data. A rigorous procedure should be put in place throughout the research study. Participants' personal information should be encoded or removed from public view.
Protection of participants	Researchers have the primary responsibility for protecting participants in their research studies. Researchers should be honest, respectful, and sensitive to potential problems. Building rapport and trust is important in conducting qualitative research.
Storage of data storage and record keeping	Data should be backed up and accessible as soon as possible.

	Data may be stored in many forms and should be well organised, accurate, complete, and accessible to authorised persons only. Researchers should know the policies of the facility where they work or the agencies that funded their research.
Sharing of data	Data sharing is required to advance knowledge and science. The mode of data sharing depends on the ownership, sensitivity, and complexity of the data set. Researchers should be familiar with policies related to data sharing.
Ownership of data	Funding agencies, research institutions, participants, or researchers might own the data, which should be made clear before beginning the research. Researchers should be aware of the issues surrounding the ownership of data and their obligations to the data in the process of research planning and implementation.

The researcher went through the six interconnected phases involved in a qualitative data analysis and interpretation as outlined by (Creswell, 2014:246). The first phase was to make the data ready and to organise it for analysis. This procedure of organising data involved the storage and transcription of the data and then I analysed it manually (Creswell, 2014:247). Data from observations were analysed by hand or manually as well as the other from face-to-face interviews and focus group discussions. The second phase involved exploring and the coding of data. Coding included reading via the data warehouse and then putting in place the phases involved in coding (Creswell, 2014:248). These coding phases were categorised into text fragments and then ascribed code labels to the fragments based on the importance the text segment endures (Creswell, 2014:249). The codes were then used in forming a description of the key phenomenon of the enquiry and then established based on the data which occurred (Creswell, 2007:230; Rossman & Rallis, 2012:150). Codes were also grouped together thereby forming bigger themes that were utilised in the study as main findings.

Furthermore, I started analysing the first data set from face-to-face interviews after I had completed the interviews. This was done in line with Ary *et al*. (2010:481) Palmer and Coe (2020:9) who assert that analysis of data in qualitative studies begins straight away as soon as the researcher receives data from face-to-face interviews or focus group discussions. This process helped me to decide on the type of analysis to be suitable for the type of data that I was collecting. I therefore looked at different qualitative analysis types, and I narrowed them to types which were content and thematic analysis. The comparison of these methods is depicted in Table 3.8 below. I therefore decided to employ thematic analysis because I wanted to categorise, analyse and report patterns (themes/categories) within the data corpus (Braun & Clarke, 2006:80). Furthermore, as suggested earlier, thematic analysis is a flexible and constructive research instrument which provides rich and exhaustive as well as multifaceted data (Braun & Clarke, 2006:82; Guest *et al.*, 2012:10; Byrne, 2021:3).

Table 3.10 Comparison between thematic and content analysis (adapted from Palmer & Coe, 2020:14)

Thematic Analysis	**Content Analysis**
• Cuts across data.	• Thematic analysis considers latent (developing themes) and manifest content (developing categories) in data, content analysis chooses between the two.
• Attention to description by participants.	• Content analysis does not give attention to context data.
• Searching for core concepts and themes.	• Content analysis identifies core concepts and then counts frequency.
• Coding, collecting codes under subthemes and themes comparing emerged clusters compromise data analysis.	
• Uses the voice of the participants to describe and then synthesise.	
• Requires creativity from the researcher (Vaismoradi *et al.*, 2013:399).	

3.16.1 Thematic analysis

Thematic analysis is a technique for classifying, scrutinising, and reporting categories or themes within data sets (Braun & Clarke, 2006:79). It marginally unifies and describes raw data set in depth. It also often goes beyond the description and analysis by interpreting numerous phases relating to the research topic (Boyatzis, 1998:67; Braun & Clarke, 2006:79; Braun& Clarke, 2013:175; Vaismoradi *et al*. 2013:402 Ngulube, 2015:9; Kiger & Varpio, 2020:2; Byrne, 2021:2). Having provided a brief definition of thematic analysis, one might want to know further what constitute a theme, according to Braun and Clarke (2006:82), can be established by researchers because it might be accorded a substantial space in some data pieces while it might not be considered as significant in other data items. Therefore, the determination rests solely on the researcher.

Moreover, there are a number of ways through which patterns or themes can be identified within the dataset. According to Braun & Clarke (2006:83) and Byrne (2021:6) thematic analysis is mostly rooted in the following orientations: latent versus semantic themes; theoretical versus inductive thematic analysis and constructionist versus essentialist/realist versus thematic analysis. In semantic approach, researchers do not analyse data beyond its surface meaning, but they interpret without attaching any meaning to them. That is, the researcher reports exactly what the participants said. On the contrary, a thematic analysis within the latent approach attaches meaning to what data reveal. Thus, researchers go beyond what the participants have said by examining or identifying the implicit ideas, theories and conceptual interpretations within the data set (Braun & Clarke, 2006:84; Palmer & Coe, 2020:15; Javadi & Zarea, 2016:35).

Additionally, in essentialist thematic analysis, the ontological and epistemological reflections direct the researcher's understanding about their data and how it can be interpreted (Braun & Clarke, 2006:85; Byrne, 2021:6). In this study, I applied the latent thematic analysis because I went beyond the explicit or surface meaning of the data set. My view of the participants' assumptions was subjective because I used my own words and thoughts to interpret what they told me. I also identified themes in the data inductively. That is, I analysed the responses from the participants through the inductive thematic analysis, by critically reading through the data to classify meanings related to the topic of the study. Moreover, pieces of the data with similar meanings were clustered together and then assigned codes, and the same pieces of text could be incorporated into many categories created from the data set (Frith & Gleeson, 2004:42).

Furthermore, themes in an inductive process are firstly identified and thereafter comprehensively connected to the data (Boyatzis, 1998:4; Braun & Clarke, 2006:84; Javadi & Zarea, 2016:34; Labra *et al*., 2019; Varpio *et al*. 2019; Byrne, 2021:7). On this basis, there is a strong nexus between themes and data, which found to be commensurate with the data. However, Braun and Clarke (2006:83) warn that themes derived from data in inductive approach may not have any link with what participants were asked as well as any theoretical inclination towards a topic. I did not have any prior coding structure nor a frame during data analysis or any analytical presumptions, but I was guided by data throughout the process. In this way, the analysis was not openly motivated because I had intended for the analysis to present rich data in general (Braun & Clarke, 2006:83). While I had no pre-existing assumptions regarding the analysis, I considered the theoretical and epistemological underpinnings and related constructs, noting how they might impact on the findings (Braun & Clarke, 2006:84; Javadi & Zarea, 2016:35).

I analysed the data thematically following Braun and Clarke's (2006:87) six phases of thematic analysis. The six steps are as follows:

- Familiarisation with ones' data
- Generation of primary codes
- Searching for themes within data set
- Review of themes
- Definition and the naming themes
- Producing the final report.

3.16.2 Familiarisation with ones' data

The first step entails familiarisation with one's data. During this phase, I organised my data and then transcribed them verbatim. Transcription is an important step because it prepares data for thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006:87). While transcribing, I also had to translate some Sesotho words and phrases because some of the participants answered some questions in Sesotho while others were code-switching. I also had to listen to recorded interviews as well as visiting my field notes as a way of getting to know and understand my data better. As I was getting to know my data better, I immediately started to code, looking for themes from the corpus data (Braun & Clarke, 2006:88).

3.16.3 Generation of primary codes

Coding is the term which is used to refer to a word or phrase used to summarise chunks of sentences or phrases within the data set (Miles &Huberman, 1994:56; Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007:565; Braun & Clarke 2016:9; Javadi & Zarea, 2016, 34; Saldaña, 2016:4).There are six coding phases or types which are in vivo, process, initial, focused, axial, and theoretical coding (Corbin &Strauss, 2008:195; Saldana, 2016:55; Rogers, 2018:891). The afore-mentioned steps are divided into two cycles with the first cycle made up of in vivo, process and initial coding, and the second cycle consisting of focused, selective or intermediate, axial and theoretical coding (Saldana, 2016:55). The study adopted in vivo, initial or open and focused coding. In vivo coding entails using the exact participants' words while coding. Rogers (2018:890) asserts that this coding method "results in rich data for studies". Focused coding is the second cycle method which transforms raw data into prominent categories (Glaser, 1992:39; Corbin & Strauss 2008:195; Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008:160; Ngulube, 2015:11; Saldana, 2016:240). Open coding is the preliminary stage of coding wherein data are converted into codes (Ngulube, 2015:11; Ary *et. al*., 2018:483). At this stage the properties of data are described through the segmentation, comparison, analysis and categorisation (Strauss & Corbin, 1990:74; Corbin & Strauss 2008:195; Flick, 2002:177).

Therefore, during this coding stage, I began by organising data analytically and in a way that made sense. I further condensed data by coding it into smaller lumps of meaning (Miles & Huberman, 1994:11; Alhojailan, 2012:43). There are various ways through which researchers can code, and the coding approach that one wishes to implement is often decided upon by their viewpoint and research questions that they wish to answer (Saldana, 2016:22; Maguire & Delahunt, 2017:3358; Rogers, 2018:891). Thus, my main aim was to address specific research questions. As a result, I analysed the data bearing in my mind that the data ought to reveal or capture some elements of the research questions, so this was the part where I applied a theoretical thematic analysis because I could not divorce myself from the theory espoused by the study (Braun & Clarke, 2006:84; Maguire & Delahunt, 2017:3355). For this reason, I coded each piece of raw data that were pertinent to or revealed something fascinating about my research questions (Decuir-Gunby *et al.*, 2011:143;Saldaña, 2016: 70; Maguire & Delahunt, 2017:3355; Ary *et al.*, 2018:483). Sometimes, I would code every piece of data while other times I did not (see Tables, 3.9 and 3.10). Moreover, I did an inductive analysis wherein I employed line-by-line coding so that every line in every raw data excerpt was coded (Flick, 2002:178). This I did in instances where the data bore no relationship with the research questions. I used open coding in cases where I did not have afore-set codes. However, I created and improved codes as I immersed myself in the process of coding (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008:160). The data were coded with the research questions in mind and the tables below display coded data from the data collection tools adopted by the study which are face-to-face interviews, focus group discussions and classroom observations.

1. Initial codes from lecturers' interviews

The lecturers' codes seemed to revolve around the following codes:

- Translanguaging
- Interactive approaches
- Communicative and scaffolding approaches
- Traditional approaches
- Discovery and mediation

After these themes emerged from data, I reduced them to the following themes after discarding those which overlapped.

- Translanguaging
- Communicative and interactive approaches
- Traditional approaches

2. Students' initial codes

Students' challenges for developing communicative competence skills were assigned the following labels.

- Grammar challenges
- Poor treatment
- Low self confidence
- Demotivation
- Lack of exposure
- Social challenges
- Lack of motivation because of favouritism
- Unqualified teachers and lack of confidence
- Laziness
- Language anxiety

After identifying the above codes from students' excerpts, I further reduced them to smaller categories as advised by Miles and Huberman (1994:11), Ary *et al.* (2018:483) and Alhojailan (2012:43) that final conclusions can be arrived at after condensing and summarising data. Therefore, I combined codes which appeared more than once into one category. After collating the codes, I obtained the following categories.

- Lack of exposure
- Language anxiety
- Lack of motivation
- Low self confidence
- Deficiency in grammar

These categories will be comprehensively expounded on in chapter four. It should further be noted that the above codes were identified manually. Braun and Clarke (2006:89), Maguire and Delahunt (2017:3358), Ary *et al*. (2018:494) advise that the other way to analyse data is through the use of software even though it is not that important. I tried to use the coding software, but I spent most of my time trying to understand how it worked, so I ended up not using it because it wasted my time. Furthermore, Saldana (2016:28) and Ary *et al.* (2018:494) assert that coding manually permits a researcher to manipulate data easily as well as having control over their data. As for classroom observations' data, I did not transcribe it, but I relied heavily on my journal and field notes. The first column in a classroom observation sheet (see Table 3.11) outlines my focal areas while observing lecturers during classroom instructions. I wanted to see the kind of activities given to the students, the kind of strategies employed by the lecturer and students' reaction during the instruction, also noting whether there was any interaction at all between the lecturers and students. After coding, I placed the codes together to see if they belonged together. Thereafter, I established categories and then I linked them together to create major categories or themes as advised by Ary *et al.* (2018:486).

Table 3.11. Classroom observation sheet

Classroom Observation Coding Sheet		
Focus areas	**Preliminary codes**	**Categories**
a. Is there any interaction between lecturers and students? b. What kind of teaching approaches do lecturers employ? c. How do students react to these approaches? d. Are there any activities for students?	• Role plays • Oral presentations • Group discussions • Pair discussions • Lecturing (leading to students' boredom, restlessness, fiddling with their mobile phones and sleeping). • Tasks • Movie analysis • News analysis • Drafting infomercials (individual presentations) • Radio presentations • News gathering and reporting • Debates • Cognitive demand	Traditional methodologies Mixture of communicative approaches (CLT, TBLT, scenario approach).

3. Preliminary observation codes

3.16.4 Searching for themes

The third step in thematic analysis entails the searching of themes. So, as explained previously, a theme is a frequent piece of data that keeps appearing across the data set. In this stage, I started by collating the codes so that I could find an overarching or predominant theme. This I did in line with Braun and Clarke's (2006:89) view that the long lists of codes can now be arranged into prospective themes. The codes that I sorted were largely descriptive, meaning that they captured many interesting patterns pertinent to the research questions. Moreover, Braun and Clarke (2006:89) state that researchers can now make use of graphic representations to help them to arrange various codes into themes. I therefore decided to adapt Braun and Clarke's (2006:90) thematic map as my visual representation of the themes.

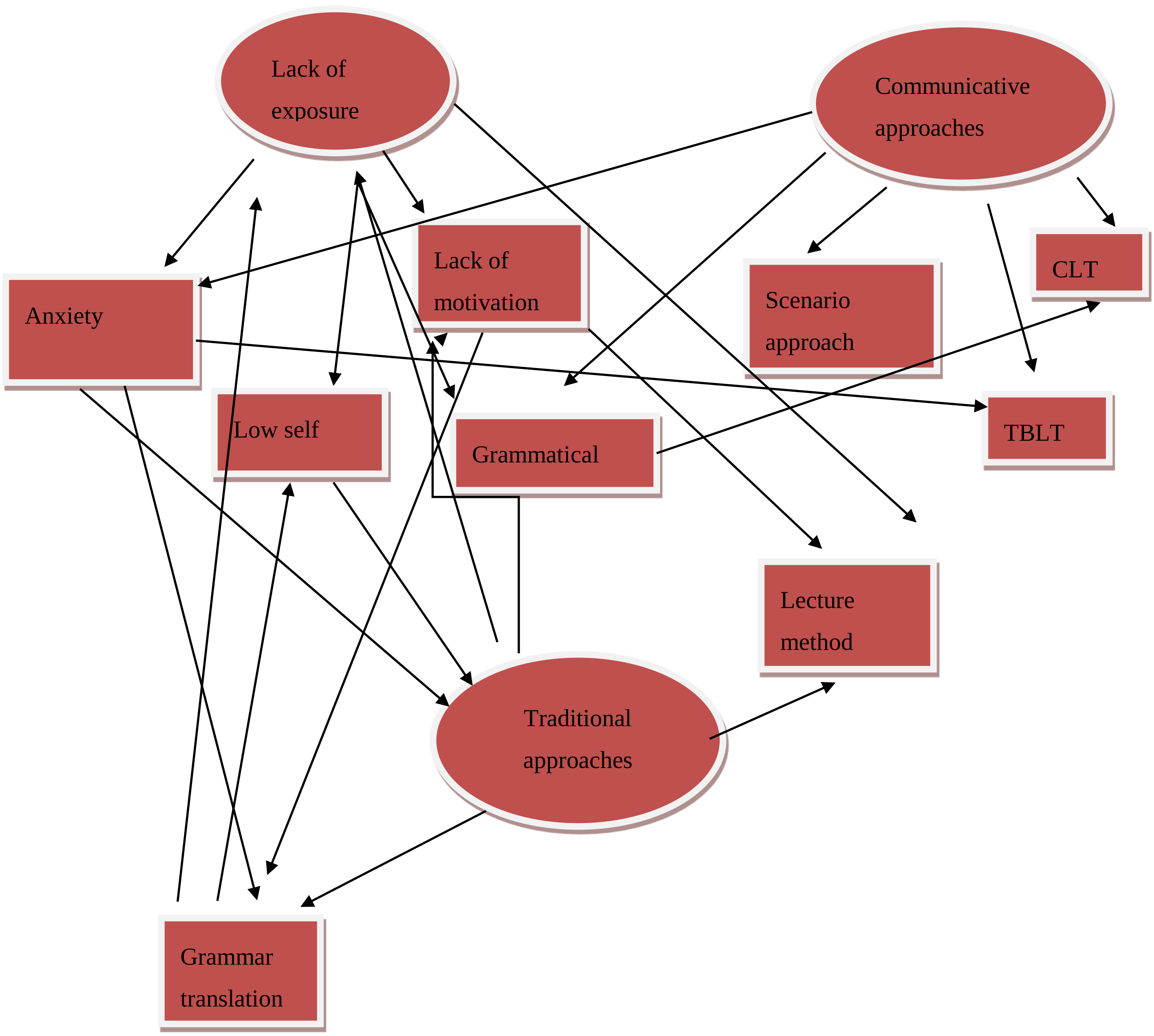

Figure 3.10 The initial thematic map showing themes and their sub-themes

The generated themes which emerged during the collation of codes displayed in Figure 3.10 come from students' interviews, lecturers' interviews and classroom observations. The initial themes are displayed together with their sub-themes and the excerpts of the data were coded in accordance with them (Braun & Clarke, 2006:90). The map further shows the relationship between themes and the sub-themes. For instance, there is a relationship between lack of language exposure and language anxiety. The relationship is that students who are not exposed to the target language become anxious when they have to communicate with their lecturers or their colleagues. It is important to note that some of the themes might not be final for further analysis and interpretation. The next step which was followed during the coding and analysis of data is explained further below.

3.16.5 Review of the themes

As I immersed myself in the process of data analysis interpretation, I kept breaking data further into smaller chunks and this bore the emergence of other themes on top of the ones already identified (Alhojailan, 2012:43). I kept reviewing the data with some of the themes either amended or discarded. Braun and Clarke (2006:91) stipulate that some of the themes might not be supported by data. As a result, they can be discarded. For instance, I discarded lack of motivation because it overlapped with low confidence. Other themes may also be collated while others can be broken to form other themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006:91). According to Maguire and Delahunt (2017:3358), themes should be consistent, and they also ought to be separate from one another. I followed the steps as outlined by Maguire and Delahunt (2017:3358) while reviewing my themes:

- Do the themes make sense?
- Are the themes supported by the data?
- Does it appear as though I try to fit too much into a theme?
- Do themes superimpose, are they surely distinct themes?
- Do themes appear within themes (subthemes)?
- Are there perhaps other themes that can emerge within the data?

3.16.6 Definitions and naming of themes

This is the ultimate modification of the themes and the objective here is to recognise the outstanding characteristics of what each might theme possess (Braun & Clarke, 2006:92). As I was refining my themes, I had made sure if the theme said something about the research question and where there were subthemes, I asked myself if and how they interrelate with the main theme before making a final decision regarding them. Lastly, I had to check if there was any relationship between the themes. There were instances about whose other themes I was not sure; thus, I consulted one of my colleagues who was familiar with the thematic analysis, and she provided feedback on themes that needed modification; my supervisor also played a vital role in making necessary corrections.

3.16.7 Producing the final report

When I arrived at this phase of analysis, exactly after locating a prospective pool of themes, I therefore commenced presenting and reporting the data. The display of data is essentially designated in terms of reduced, logical and methodical presentation of the collected information (Miles & Huberman, 1994:10). This orderly presentation can be made by graphs, charts or tables, but for qualitative analysis, presentation is manly done by participants' quotes or themes from the data to expand each theme (Miles & Huberman, 1994:10; Braun and Clarke, 2006:93; Alhojailan, 2012:40; Ary *et al*., 2018:491). The purpose of this thematic analysis was therefore to show the reader how data were reduced through coding and how the themes were developed. Some analyses just mention the themes without necessarily demonstrating how codes and themes came about. I also wanted to convince the readers of the plausibility and merit of the data analysed in this study (Braun &Clarke, 2006:93; Ary *et al.*, 2018:491). The developed themes and sub-themes of this study are explained in the following chapter. The following section outlines the challenges that I encountered during the collection of data.

3.17 Challenges encountered during data collection

The first challenge that I encountered was as the result of Covid-19. The virus was at its peak during the first month of my data collection and classes were mostly conducted online, so it became very difficult to get hold of students for group discussions since most of them were at home. The same challenge was encountered during observations. I was unable to conduct classroom observations on time because there was no physical conduct. Some lecturers cancelled our appointments at the last minute, thus causing an inconvenience and unnecessary expenses on my part. Other lecturers were difficult especially during interviews wherein they wanted me to change the direction of the study, which was indeed difficult because the study had been approved by my supervisor and the HDC; otherwise, the committee could have rejected the proposal from the onset if it made no sense.

Some lecturers did not want to admit that some of the approaches that they were using in their classes did not encourage interaction amongst students, nor enhancing students' communicative competence skills. Surprisingly, most lecturers accepted that they had failed their students because of the way they taught them, but they were able to enhance their teaching through research. Furthermore, one lecturer (Lm1) gave me a hard time in granting me an opportunity to interview him. He went further to discourage his students from participating in the focus group discussions, resulting in their refusal to participate. Nor did he respond to my messages to confirm the date for observing him, despite his previous acceptance or promise. It was indeed disheartening coming across such instances, especially of PhD holders who I thought would be co-operative and facilitate my fieldwork following their experience.I had to make arrangements with students who were away on teaching practice, thus incurring extra costs not budgeted for. In the next chapter, the challenges facing ESL undergraduate students in developing their competence skills are discussed.

3.18 Summary

This chapter has presented the methodological processes followed for data collection for this study. Different data collection strategiesas well as the philosophical underpinnings which informed the study have been considered. Included are face-to-face interviews, focus group discussions, observations as well as the design, that this multiple case study adopted for this inquiry. Qualitative approach, with its inductive dimension, coupled with the interpretivist paradigm, the lens through which I viewed the world of the participants has also been presented. Furthermore, ethical considerations and critical trustworthiness criteria were explained. Ethics are considered as an important practice to which researchers must strictly adhere while collecting data (Akaranga & Makau, 2016:8; Newman *et al*., 2021:4). Akaranga and Makau (2016:8) assert that ethics are key toencouraging the main aims of the study in the form of acquisition of knowledge, promoting the truth in research by eluding errors that could arise because of false information provided and fabricating or distorting information. I therefore provided the correct information from the participants without distorting their words. The chapter also highlighted how data for this study were managed and analysed as well as the steps followed during that analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents and analyses findings from face-to-face interviews, focus group discussions as well as observations. The data are analysed thematically, in response to the research questions of the study. The analysis is divided into three parts: the first part entails the analysis of students' interviews while the second part deals with lecturers' interviews. Lastly, the data from classroom observations are analysed.as noted earlier, the study sought to answer the following questions:

- What challenges do English assecond language undergraduate students encounter in the development of communicative competence skills?
- What communicative competence-related strategies do undergraduate students use in learning ESL?
- What communicative competence- related strategies do ESL lecturers employ in their classroom?

4.1 Challenges that English as second language undergraduate students encounter in the development of communicative competence skills

Data analysis in this section is divided into two data collection techniques. These are focus group discussions with students and face-to-face interviews with lecturers.

4.1.1 Findings from students' interviews (n=100)

The following themes emerged from focus group discussions with students.

- Lack of exposure
- Language anxiety
- Lack of motivation
- Deficiency in grammar

4.1.2 Lack of exposure

Most of the students complained about their poor background. They cited not being adequately exposed to English as the major reason for not being confident enough to communicate with others. Some students pointed out that:

"Our teachers from the schools that I attended never spoke to us in English, but they always spoke Sesotho. We were taught English in Sesotho and we always spoke Sesotho within the school campus" (SF1).

However, one student seemed to sympathise with her former teachers by expressing the following:

"For me, it is different, our teachers tried their best to communicate with us in English, but the situation changed outside of the classroom where we spoke Sesotho amongst ourselves. Even most of other teachers spoke to us in Sesotho, so I think I could have improved if the school environment was purely English" (SF11).

Students further stated that it was indeed difficult to speak confidently. Some also mentioned that they are from rural areas where there is no radio to at least listen to or television to watch, so they are always behind in everything. Some cited that most people including their parents were illiterate, so they have no one to at least practise away from school. One student complained as follows:

"The fact that most of our parents from rural areas did not attend school is a major challenge because they could not help us with our English assignments, and I used to return incomplete assignments as a result. It is now very difficult here when we compare ourselves with students who are from private schools because their English is way better than ours" (SF6).

The above comments from students (SF1), (SF11) and (SF6) suggest that students are somewhat discouraged that their communicative competence skills will not be enhanced. It is likely therefore that those students do not enjoy learning English at their level considering their poor background.

Furthermore, overcrowding in classes was another problem that students cited for their poor proficiency in English. They stated that attention was given to few students while others were never exposed to speaking. This is what one male student said:

"We were 70 in our class and it is still the case even here because we are 90 in one classroom, so it becomes difficult for lecturers to expose us to necessary language skills such as listening or speaking" (SM2).

They did mention, however, that it was not the fault of their teachers because they could not reach all of them; rather they were too many, hence the focus was only on those who participated or whose names were known. One student commented as follows:

"I believe that speaking is the most important skill because we are expected to communicate in English especially in classes, so if our speaking abilities are not enhanced because of large classes, there is no way we can speak the language confidently" (SF9).

Another student added that he was not satisfied with his level of English language because of lack of exposure to other aspects of language. He expressed his dissatisfaction as follows:

"I major in English language, and the only thing that we are exposed to is how to teach grammar. We are not equipped with necessary skills that will help us to be good teachers after completing the course, so for me exposure does not only rests in us as students being able to listen to the radio or the ability to read. But I believe that we can be adequately exposed if all four language skills are equally taught. I am saying all these because I am going to teaching practice next year. Does this mean that I am going to teach those students grammar only? I do not want that to happen because I do not want to be like my high school teachers who taught us only grammar" (SF4).

The above comment suggests that some students are disgruntled with the way English language is taught. This may further imply that most of them are communicatively incompetent in English language. The comment may also indicate why some of them seemed to be uninterested during instructions during observations in some classes.

4.2.3 Language anxiety

Concerning language anxiety, students provided different reasons why they always become anxious. One of the reasons cited as their greatest challenge was that of classroom presentations. The students mentioned that standing in front of others and speaking English made them sweat. They cited that one of the reasons for the fear to speak was brought about by the fact that their English was not good at all. One student expressed the following:

"Whenever I have to speak, especially during presentations, I feel so scared. One of the reasons is my English. Whenever we make grammatical mistakes, other students laugh at us, so it is really difficult to speak under such circumstances" (SM20).

Another student had a similar concern which was caused by his classmates. This is what he said:

"Our classmates from private schools are the ones who intimidate us because their English is so good, so much that you see some lecturers smiling whenever they roll their tongues. So, for me it becomes so difficult to speak especially after they have spoken" (SM15).

One student substantiated the above statement with the following response:

"I am easily intimidated by these students who speak like Americans because they always dominate us even in group discussions, so I cannot speak after them at all. What am I going to say and with what accent because I speak English in Sesotho accent? I wish I had gone to an English-medium school as well because I was going to show them what I am made of" (SF13).

Another response from (SM21) raised an important issue that needs close attention from lecturers as follows:

"When we try to speak English in class, there are those who think they know better and they always laugh at us, so it discourages us".

It is therefore probable considering the above comments that these students are the ones who hide behind others during classroom discussions because they are afraid to speak. Others might as well develop a negative attitude towards English language.

Furthermore, other students mentioned that teachers from high school discouraged them from speaking because they favoured those who spoke with particular accent over those whose accent was not fancy. That played a negative role because it is now affecting them since they were not given enough time to speak. One student mentioned that:

"I never had a chance to speak in class, even when there were debates competitions, only those from private schools were always at the fore front. That made some of us feel inferior because we never get to stand before others, and that is why I do not feel comfortable to stand and speak English before people" (SM25).

Corrections of mistakes by their former teachers and their current English language lecturers seem to be another cause of anxiety. One student verified such corrections as in:

"One lecturer once stopped me while I was speaking; he corrected me and after that correction, I had forgotten everything that I had intended to speak. I just stood there tongue-tight and my

presentation was gone. I wished he could have listened and then corrected me after I had finished" (SF14).

Another student added that:

"I am a shy person, so if somebody interrupts me while I am speaking, everything just vanishes. The same applies to other students who will be laughing at us even if our lecturers do not interrupt us. Kannete (really) they make us so uncomfortable, that is why I do not like to speak in class" (SM17).

A further comment which was rather surprising was as follows:

"I am from an English medium where we were twenty at most in the classroom, so I got anxious when I had to stand before many people" (SF19).

The above comment seemingly implies communicatively competent students as also prone to anxiety.

The findings from students further reveal that intimidation went beyond the classroom setting. Apparently, the students who were affected here were mostly majoring in Journalism while others in Broadcasting. This is what one Journalism student said:

"Hmmm, where do I even begin? It is so challenging with my level of English, especially when I have to go outside to gather news. I once had to interview a white person and the interview lasted longer than I had anticipated because the white man kept correcting my mistakes every time, I tried to ask him a question. I was no longer comfortable at all" (SF27).

Another student from Broadcasting added the following:

*"I am a Broadcasting student, and it is so challenging to broadcast anything in English. Sometimes we are asked to take turns during our radio programmes in class. Our lecturer mostly likes to take part and we sometimes have to ask her questions. One time, I was sweating, and my voice was shaking because I did not know which questions to ask. These exercises are important because they help us to prepare for life after school, but I sometimes wish that they were done in Sesotho because iyhoooo…English"! (*SF30)

The above comments seem to imply that students faced challenges in English which might obstruct their future. Such students' motivation might be low.

Improper teaching approaches as mentioned by most students seem to be another cause of language anxiety. One student complained as follows:

"I am from an English language medium school where everything was done in English. Even ladies who were sweeping the school yard communicated with us in English. Our teachers never spoke Sesotho in class as they were expatriates. We were greatly exposed; however, I feel like my English is declining because here we are taught in Sesotho and English. Furthermore, lecturers come to class, teach and then go out or they sometimes read for us and then leave" (SF29).

This remark gives the impression that students who have been exposed to English from high school might see their level of communicative competence drop because of lack of exposure.

Accent seemed to be another issue that causes language anxiety to students. This is what one student said:

"I am from rural areas where we spoke English in such a way that people can hear clearly what I am saying; so this issue of fake American accents by other students make us appear as though we are not speaking proper English. It makes us uncomfortable and most of us decide not to speak at all" (SM32).

Another student added more to what (SM32) expressed. This is what the student added.

"This issue of accent is so ingrained in our minds that we find lecturers from other countries who speak differently from us as boring because of how they pronounce some English words. So, most students like to listen to lecturers who speak with British or American accent. This is because our teachers from high school told us that people who speak with such accents knew English" (SF40).

The above comments seem to suggest that students are not comfortable to speak English language because of what they were subjected to previously. It is therefore probable that students who have a negative attitude towards English are those from previously disadvantaged backgrounds.

4.1.4 Lack of motivation

Regarding the issue of motivation, students gave several reasons for their lack thereof. Some students revealed that they were not motivated enough to study in general, so English language was no exception. Most of them mentioned that they learned only for obtaining a degree, so immersing themselves in studying was not what they wanted. One student commented as follows:

"I do not want to lie I am not here because I wanted to be educated; I just want to pass and get a degree. That is why I am not getting good marks in English because I am not interested in speaking it" (SF45).

Another student apparently had a different motivation to learn English, and he expressed the following:

"I wanted to be an English language teacher because I heard that teachers are paid better that than most civil servants, and it is not hard to find a job as a teacher. I just want to complete the course and then start looking for a job" (SM33).

An interesting comment was raised by (SF35) regarding her reasons for majoring in English language. This is what she said:

"I did not want to be a teacher, but I was forced to be one by my father who is an English language teacher. I wanted to be something else, so I am just doing this teaching thing for my parents" (SF35).

The responses from students seem to indicate lack of interest in the acquisition and learning of English, and this makes it possible for them to be communicatively incompetent.

Most of the students further reported their lack of confidence in English because of their poor backgrounds, so they expect lecturers to be their sources of motivation. Their comments therefore seemed to suggest that lecturers could not come to class to teach and then go out without motivating them. For them, motivation is very important because it makes them feel like they are on the right path. Some say they did not have enough information about their courses of study, so if lecturers motivate them enough, they can do better and even those students who are negative can change their attitudes if motivation is sufficient. Below are some of their comments.

"As an aspiring journalist, I always expect my lecturers to tell me more about journalism and the kind of contribution I can make. I want to be a good writer, so this means that my English lecturer ought to inspire us so that I can be a good writer. For me, an inspiration can be in the form of inviting some journalists or editors who can give us some good tips when it comes to news writing" (SF36).

Another student seemingly agreed with (SF36)'s suggestion as follows:

*"Our lecturers play an important role to our learning. It does not matter in which subject, so their motivation makes us want to be like them or to be even better than them" (*SF38).

Motivation seems to be an important factor for students' learning. So, if students believe that they can learn best when they are highly motivated, it is possible based on their comments that motivation can greatly help them to improve their English language skills.

4.1.5 Deficiency in grammar

Grammar appeared to be one of the factors that students revealed as a challenge. Students who cited this were mostly those who attended English-medium schools. Asked about what their challenge was concerning grammar, the students mentioned that they were not taught sufficient grammar at high school. This is because their teachers focused on their spoken skills more than anything else. As a result, they became more competent in spoken discourse than in written language. One student expressed the following:

"I seriously have a problem when it comes to written English. I always get the spelling wrong and I write as though I am speaking" (SM55).

Another student added by saying the following:

"Writing is my weakness because we never get to write a lot at high school, so it becomes a real challenge for me whenever I have to write" (SF52).

When asked about the causes of grammatical challenges besides not being taught enough grammar, most revealed that social media impacted on them negatively because of their ample exposure to it. This is how one student expressed her feelings:

"I make silly grammatical mistakes when I have to write formally because of the short forms that we use when we chat with my friends. We use contracted forms and we also do not follow any grammatical rule. This impacts us negatively because we tend to transfer those mistakes to our formal writing" (SF50).

A group of students from one institution also complained that their grammar was not good, especially in academic writing because they do not understand the academic language. They highlighted that their curriculum is designed in such a way that their English language lecturers come to class with what they have been told to teach by their superiors. As a result, lecturers do not have control over the content. They went further to show that they are mostly given scenarios to apply the language, and it was difficult to apply what they are not taught. This is what one student observed:

"Our module which I thought was English language when I arrived here is called communication and study skills. So, we are using scenarios to apply the language that they think we know from high school. It is not always the case because we were never taught academic writing in English. I do not know what kind of language to use when writing because I only understand the language of compositions and comprehensions" (SF60).

Another comment further highlighted students' dissatisfaction, and one student stated:

"Our lecturer was complaining about our written language. She told us that we use colourful English which is not applicable in academic writing. What is surprising is that we are not taught how to write, but they expect us to write properly" (SM62).

Students who complained about lack of exposure seemed to have fewer problems with grammar, which they considered one component of language to which they were mostly exposed from high school. So, they claimed to have committed fewer grammatical errors in writing. One may assume that students who were exposed to spoken discourse could not write properly.

4.2 Lecturers' interview (n=11)

Eleven lecturers were interviewed in relation to the kind of challenges facing students in the developing communicative competence. The purpose of the interviews was to find out if lecturers would corroborate the challenges that students revealed to have been barriers to the development of their communicative competence skills. This I did because lecturers are the ones teaching these students and know the challenges facing them.

4.2.1 Findings from lecturers on challenges that students encounter in their development of communicative competence skills

What challenges do students encounter when speaking English?

One of the challenges which lecturers outlined was students' fear to speak. Lecturers stated that students, especially those from rural areas shy away from speaking in many classes. One lecturer further revealed that some students lack confidence as illustrated below:

"...you realise that even when they want to say something, it becomes hard because the language scares them away. They might have answers or to contribute somehow, but they are not confident enough to say what they want to say. So maybe lack of exposure it will be lack of exposure if we go back to high school" (LF2).

The problem seems to cut across all levels because earlier comments from students seemed to suggest that new students had challenges because of their backgrounds, but one lecturer seemed to imply that even senior students at the tertiary institutions have the same problem. The lecturer expressed the following:

"Even the senior students become hesitant when they approach my office because they cannot speak to me in Sesotho since I am not a Mosotho. This indeed creates problems for them. I always hear them talking outside my office, and only few of them will knock and enter while most of them walk away. It is even worse for first years that come to my office and then speak Sesotho with me unbeknownst that I cannot speak Sesotho. They take some time trying to express themselves" (LF1).

Another lecturer observed the challenge from a different angle, and this is what he said:

"...in each and every group, there are these students who are always talking and they participate a lot and they always bring up ideas. However, some like I have said, will be hiding behind others. I have learned that these students do not participate because they do not want to talk since they are afraid to speak" (LM2).

A similar observation was made by LM3 who said the following:

"Some of them have a fear to speak in front of their peers because they do not want to be laughed at when they are being ungrammatical" (LM3).

The above comments suggest that it is possible that students are grammatically incompetent in English, further implying their inability to write texts that are coherent because of their lack of cohesive devices.

What causes students' poor communicative competence in English?

Students from rural and government schools seemed to be mostly affected by poor English as reported by lecturers because of their disadvantaged background. Reporting the phenomenon, one lecturer mentioned the following:

"…but when it comes to students who are from rural areas, English to them is something written because when you ask them to speak; you'd see them shaking and sweating, but when they write, you'd say yes I want to meet this student. But when you start talking to them, they start stuttering and stammering because of self-conscience" (LM3).

One lecturer further stipulated that English is only a medium of instruction for some teachers at high schools, and not for students because teachers sometimes communicate in English; they do not encourage their students to communicate in English amongst themselves. This in turn becomes a challenge later when they study in tertiary institutions because they cannot express themselves profusely in the target language due to lack of exposure. The lecturer said:

"They come from mostly government schools, so they are almost at the same level. You don't find people who are really excelling to say these ones are perfect. You would find some people who need to be polished, after which you would realise that oh they also realise their potential" (LF1).

What challenges do students encounter when they write English?

Another challenge cited by the lecturers is students' poor grammar. Most students who seemed affected in this regard are those from private schools. The lecturers further postulated the problem as likely to affect such students throughout tertiary education because it cannot be corrected at the highest level, but it can be easily corrected at high school. They added that students from public schools were far better at grammar because they were mostly exposed to it throughout their high school years. One lecturer commented as follows:

"… *When it comes to writing now, you see lots and lots of problems. What used to be a problem was that students were able to write better, but now tables have turned because they speak better English* *now. However, their writing is now very poor, and you wonder as the teacher as to what had happened"* (LM11).

The above statement was supported by (LM3) who also observed the following:

"Students from private school will excel when you talk to them, but when it comes to writing, they would write as though they were speaking…eehh… you'd see a litany of information or sentences, but it will just be information on a sheet with no commas, no punctuations and no full-stops as though they are speaking. It shows that to them emphasis has been put on speaking and less on writing".

Another lecturer seemed to hold a similar sentiment, justifying students' grammatical incompetence as follows:

"Students from English-medium schools as they are called in Lesotho mostly had an interaction in English with their teachers than those from rural areas. But if you give a student from a public school a book to read, they will read it cover-to-cover because they do not have television or computers, so they scrap of any detail from the book and that is why it is easier for them to construct correct sentences in English than their private school counterparts. So, my observation is that private school students are very poor grammatically because they are always busy with technology where they listen to stuff from their tablets and their written English is horrible, in the end" (LM5).

One lecturer generally complained about the lower standard of English displayed by students than that displayed in the past when the standard was a bit higher in the students from high schools.

"we are having a challenge that some of the students we are taking over... we are receiving from high school are not yet ready language wise, they still need a lot of help which we cannot offer at tertiary. Because at tertiary we assume they have a certain level of competency, which will enable them to sail through their studies, yet that is not the case for all of them especially considering what you were highlighting in the background that you know, the standards have lowered a bit even the passes that are being admitted are a bit lower than in the past. Meaning that some of the students should be taught more, you know to be given that background, the basics of language before they proceed which we are not able to do at tertiary" (LF2).

Poor English skills displayed by students do not seem to sit well with other faculties who shift a blame to the Department of English in one institution, and this appeared to annoy (LF2) who further commented as follows:

"So, you find that eehh… other faculties are always complaining, blaming us 'what are you doing in English?' Your students cannot even write a complete sentence (laughing), so they don't understand that we can't cover all that here because we are now focusing mainly on the academic skills. Of course, we teach them writing but we focus on citing, eehh… how to write a good essay- the language, sentences and the like- we try to do the remedies where possible but it's no longer as intense as high school. So that's our major challenge I wish something could be done right from high school because that is where they get the language, the basics, the foundation is laid there".

Lecturers also appeared to be concerned over the electronic social media to which students are amply exposed. Their linguistic competence suffers because of bearing English which is ungrammatical. For instance, when stressing the difficulties that students encounter in using grammar accurately, one lecturer expressed the following:

"…they are so ignorant of the rule restrictions that they write words such as, fishes, sheeps and mouses…they also overgeneralise the rule in the past tense by producing words like, goed, speaked and weared, quited"(LM11).

Another concerned lecturer was added that students use short forms even in formal writing. The concerned lecturer said:

"Some of them use short forms unnecessarily, and they are not even aware how dangerously it affects them. I use the adverb 'dangerously' on purpose because of one student who wrote 'fiend' instead of friend and 'cunt' instead of can't. I asked her to look for meaning of those nouns and she was so disappointed after realising that their carelessness will land them in trouble one day. This is the kind of words they use in social media" (LM3).

Additionally, most lecturers reported many students as having inadequate motivation to learn. They further reveal that when they group students for discussions, only few groups would be discussing the topic at hand, with the rest just discussing irrelevant issues. They also do not like to communicate in English even when they are exposed to it in the classroom. This is how some lecturers commented:

"In most cases in their group discussions, they will be communicating in Sesotho and when they see me approaching, they would switch to English. So, it's a bit challenging because ideas that you generate with your mother tongue become a challenge when you try to translate them into English because in most cases they do not come out as you had intended them to. So, it would be ideal for them to discuss in English, which, I do not want to lie, is impossible"(LM5).

Another lecturer added a twist to (LM5) regarding students' refusal to communicate in English.

"I try by all means to make them speak English, but some will tell you straight in the face that English is not their thing which sometimes to me is an issue of attitude. They will also tell you that they want to say it in Sesotho if you ask them to give you an answer"(LM6).

Students' refusal to communicate in English during discussions seems to confirm most of their reluctance to speak in class during classroom observations.

Lecturers' views on the students' challenges towards the development of their communicative competence skills corroborate the students' views that grammar seemed to be one of the challenges facing students. Also revealed is that most students from rural areas or public schools are afraid to communicate in English because of lack of exposure. However, only one lecturer stated that he expected his students to be as good as first language speakers. This finding also validates what some students revealed about some lecturers or teachers who wanted them to speak like native speakers. Lastly, motivation was revealed to be a barrier to students' development of communicative competence. This finding further corroborates what some students revealed in terms of their motivation to learn.

4.3 Communicative competence-related strategies that ESL lecturers employ in their classroom

Data analysis in this section is based on face-to-face interviews with lecturers.

4.3.1 Findings from lecturers' interviews (11).

The following themes emerged from face-to-face interviews with lecturers.

- Translanguaging
- Communicative and interactive approaches
- Traditional approaches

4.3.1.1 Translanguaging

Most lecturers whose L1 was Sesotho revealed that they were expected to teach in English since it was regarded as the medium of instruction, but they sometimes or mostly explain some concepts in Sesotho. Even those who did not speak Sesotho mentioned that they allowed their students to speak in Sesotho in cases where they get stuck, but they would thereafter ask other students to translate for them and other students who might not understand English.

"I teach bilingual students, so it is of utmost importance that I use both languages in class because I have realised that they understand better when you explain most of the concepts in Sesotho. It also enhances their translation skills because they can think in their own language and then translate their answers to English" (LM11).

From his observation, another lecturer expressed the following views:

"If you come to class and start speaking English throughout, you'd see students who are not happy at all given the background of most of them. By the time you ask them questions, they will ask you to repeat what you were saying in Sesotho because they would genuinely have not understood. So, using both English and Sesotho encourages my students to participate fully" (LM10).

A similar observation was made by (LM5) regarding students' expectations in the use of translanguaging.

"I may not understand Sesotho but in order to accommodate everyone when someone is stuck, I would say how do you say that in Sesotho and then ask the class to translate so that everyone participate because at times you are discussing issues and then people become emotional and

expressing themselves in English is impossible. Once they become emotional, I will say it's okay express yourself in Sesotho and then I throw it back to class. In this way, my students tend to feel free when their language is used".

The above comments imply that students are not comfortable with the direct method; rather, they become at ease once lecturers employ translanguaging.

Most lecturers who were language practitioners reported using both English and Sesotho in their classrooms because their aim was to decolonise the curriculum. Their aim is therefore to change students' mind set by knowing that their L1 is equally important, for them, students should not feel ashamed of their language. Even though they want their students to be communicatively competent in English given its global status, they further found it imperative to include students' native languages so that they could appreciate both languages.

4.3.1.2 Communicative and interactive approaches

The findings from lecturers' interviews also revealed that lecturers used different communicative and interactive strategies aimed at enhancing students' communicative competence skills. Although some strategies were not clearly defined in terms of what they were designed to achieve, most lecturers seemed convinced that they served a communicative purpose. One lecturer expressed the following about his communicative approaches:

"I am more of a progressive lecturer who is more into socio-cultural theory. I also implement post-modernist approach where I believe that for a student to learn better, they have to do things on their own, and so my approach is that I use project approach method whereby I give them tasks to do. They come back to the class and then do presentations…I also use cooperative learning where I put them in groups of three and then they do whatever they have to do. As they work in groups, I walk between groups to make sure that they participate" (LM1).

Another lecturer seemed to apply a different approach from the above-mentioned one. This is what she said regarding her approach.

"For me, the one that is outstanding is pair work because they are forced to communicate unlike when it is maybe a group of four or five of them you find that there are some who remain passive but when there are two, they are forced to exchange communication and because I teach them communication and study skills; they are forced to communicate in order to apply what they'll be learning" (LF1).

One lecturer came up with two different approaches from discussions which were seemingly not used by many lecturers interviewed. The lecturer outlined the strategy as follows.

"Infomercials also best engage students in communicative discourse. By virtue of being lengthy, commercials that could run for between 5 and 30 minutes, you have the advantage of engaging even those students who would normally shy away from actively participating in class work. Each student therefore has a role to play, not only in crafting the infomercial script, but in the actual exchange/discourse" (LM7).

Lecturer (LM7) provided one of his approaches in a different class as in:

"With my first year film students, I have had to exploit the film pitching exercise through which every student is able to stand in front of the entire class to pitch their stories".

One lecturer stipulated that he liked to see students discover things for themselves because they mostly come up with information that he was not even aware of.

For me, it is more comfortable using the approach where students discover or do most of the learning themselves… (LM5).

Regarding the correction of students' errors or mistakes during or after presentations, most lecturers mentioned allowing the students to speak and then correct their mistakes after presentations.

"if it's in the presentations I do not correct anything because if you ask a student a question mid presentation you have destroyed that presentation because most of the time they memorise their presentations so if she does not remember where she was with her presentation even if you remind her where she was you have destroyed the presentation because of a small thing that that you could have talked about it. So, if it is not an error of facts but a phonological error, I just keep quiet and the presentation continues as though nothing happened as long as the content is correct" (LM3).

A similar sentiment was echoed by (LM6) who stated the following:

"Well, I do not usually do it there and there as most of the time I jot down all the mistakes and then at the end I address all the mistakes that they have done and also try to bring the summary of the presentation. Initially I used to do it that way when I started to teach this module, but I learned that by the time you stop them and say do not say that but say this it kind of discourage them and it causes

panic to some of them so I decided that let me just jot down the points and at the end I will provide my comments" (LM6).

One lecturer stated to be correcting students immediately after committing errors, while others mentioned that their correction depends on the kind of mistakes. This is what one of the lecturers said:

"We correct each other on the spot. But it depends on how (laughing) you correct them, for some wouldn't want to be humiliated and then you get actually that no this one is no longer comfortable, so let it pass and then get back to it later with others, it's a common error we don't say that isn't supposed to be like this oooh yes oooh yes and then we continue" (LM5).

There was an interesting revelation from one lecturer who seemed rather unsure when she corrects students' errors, thereby expressing the following:

"Eehh… what I normally do is I don't correct right away unless it is something that is… maybe that I feel like it will distort the whole message or affect the understanding of others. Otherwise, I just leave them to present and finish. And after that I'll try to find a way of correcting those, I think are necessary to correct but I avoid making too many corrections when they are speaking because it affects them; it even lowers their confidence if you keep interrupting, correcting a student. They won't feel comfortable continuing so I would rather let them complete their presentation if the message is clear, err sometimes I even overlook them, but when it is written, now my correction is very strict on written, on spoken… yes here and there especially if I find it necessary. After they finish what they are presenting or saying. But yeah, even grammar I normally don't correct but you find that some will correct themselves after speaking they realise no then they correct- or others can, you know students they can shout here and there to just let them correct each other" (LF2).

The above comments may render the students confused and unconfidentto speak, fearing to be interrupted every time they commit an error. Also noted is the case of one student who could not finish her presentation after being interrupted in one classroom observation.

Considering what students revealed as one of the challenges they face in speaking English, lecturers were asked what they do in cases where some students laugh at others when making some mistakes. It appeared that most lecturers did not anticipate this and as a result, they seemed short of answers; however,one lecturer strongly emphasised that he does not tolerate such behaviour from other students who make others feel small.

"I tell them every day that if another student makes a mistake and then others laugh at them to ridicule them, I can expel them for good from my classes. For that I can answer for myself before the Council or the Senate as to why I expelled such a student because no one is supposed to make other feel uncomfortable" (LM3).

The above response was necessitated by students who complained that they were shy to speak English because others laughed at them when they were being ungrammatical. They seemingly needed some protection from their lecturers should they be laughed at.

Another question was in relation to the challenges encountered when employing communicative approaches. Some lecturers stated that they taught larger classes, so it was a bit challenging because methods such us discussions do not need large groups of students for them to be affective. One lecturer expressed the following:

"Discussions become ineffective in big classes because some students can successfully hide behind others, and that way they do not serve the purpose of communication" (LM3).

Similarly, (LM6) further added the following comments:

"Well, that depends entirely on the size of the class. You may find that in other cases, we have big classes and students mostly become passive. Some will be discussing issues out of the class which means that once you group them to discuss, you actually give them time to gossip, most of them even do it in Sesotho, pretending to be speaking English once they see you approaching".

The issue of class size seems to be a stumbling block to smooth implementation of discussion as one of the communicative approaches aimed at enhancing students' communicative competence skills. Students also appear to be resistant to this approach by deciding not to fully participate in discussions. This was further evident in one of the classroom observations where students seemed to discuss other things than the topic to be discussed.

Another problem that some lecturers raised is that students do not discuss in English even when the purpose of the exercise is to expose them to spoken discourse.

"In most cases in their group discussions, they will be communicating in Sesotho and when they see me approaching, they would switch to English. So, it's a bit challenging because ideas that you generate with your mother tongue become a challenge when you try to translate them to English because in most cases they do not come out as you had intended them to. So, it will always be ideal for them to discuss in English which I do not want to lie is impossible" (LM5).

Another lecturer (LF1) further added by expressing her observation as follows:

"They mix. When you come to their group they pretend they were speaking English. When you go to the other you will hear that the group which I have just left they are continuing in Sesotho and you have to remind them that we are in class and they are supposed to communicate in English. You are going to give a presentation; you are not going to present using Sesotho so you should stick to your English language".

The comments above made by lecturers seem to suggest that students are likely to face challenges in their developing communicative competence skills in English language, especially their discourse competence.

4.3.1.3 Traditional approaches

Because of the challenges cited above regarding some teaching approaches, most lecturers stated that they resort to a lecture method. Some further revealed that they use a lecture method in larger classes while others stated that most students do not participate in other classroom activities. All lecturers interviewed reported to be using a lecture method when introducing new concepts. Some lecturers expressed the following.

"It depends on the level of our study of the students. For first years, you find that you are dealing with people who are not familiar with the journalism jargon, so for the first six lectures, I teach

them. It becomes bottom down kind of approach so that they get to know the concepts first before I expose them to other methods" (LM5).

Another lecturer seemed to have no option but to lecture students especially if they appear not to understand some concepts.

"…at times when I realise that they are totally clueless of things, I resort to what I call direct instruction which is called lecturing approach…" (LM1).

Some issues appeared to be beyond some lecturers' control and as a result, the resorted to lecturing. This is what one of the affected lecturers said:

"Currently because of Covid-19 we are forced to use lecture method when we have physical classes because we cannot mingle with the students" (LF1).

Another lecturer who appeared to employ several traditional methods in one lecture commented as follows:

"Lecturing is predominant but this other two are happening within lecturing. A direct method is one of them; direct method is when you teach using the target language only. I do also use grammar translation, but I do not use it more often" (LM3).

Given the above comments regarding the lecturers' strategies in their classrooms, a lecture method appeared to be dominant. From their comments it could be noted that lecturers strive to implement interactive strategies, despite the challenge of large classes involving passive students not easily reached by lecturers. This further suggests that students' communicative competence skills would not be easily enhanced.

4.4 Communicative competence-related strategies that undergraduate students use in learning ESL.

Data analysis in this section entails data analysis from students.

4.4.1 Findings from students' interviews (n=100).

The following themes emerged from the data gathered from the target students.

- Reading and writing extensively
- Communicating in the target language
- Seeking help from their lecturers

4.4.1.1 Reading and writing extensively

Most students showed that they readmanybooks and materials on the internet as a way of enhancing their communicative competence in English. They indicated that reading helps them to discover new words and how such words are used in different contexts. Some students expressed the following.

"I have learned to read a lot because reading different materials has increased my vocabulary. It has also exposed me to different jargons that I did not know. It is important therefore for me as a journalism student to know how to use the language properly especially when writing since newspapers are read by different groups of people" (SF65).

One student mentioned something different in relation to what compel them to read. The student said:

"Our lecturers force us to read, so I have made it my responsibility to buy newspapers so that I can see how stories are written and the kind of language used" (SM70).

Other students mentioned their reading and watching television which help them with their spoken English.

"I still apply what we were taught at high school. We were always told to watch televisions so that we could hear how different speakers of English pronounced words as they speak. That is where I fell in love with the American accent because I watched most of their shows. That strategy worked for me because I can speak English like Americans do" (SF66).

Another student had a different perspective on how she could improve her speaking skills. She revealed the following:

"As a journalism student, I like to watch these news channels such as eNCA, Aljazeera and others, so it helps me to see how they report news and the kind of language they use while reporting. One day I want to see myself as an international journalist, so good command of English will open the doors for me" (SF63).

One student teacher reported to be volunteering at the high school where she had previously attended in order to sharpen her skills during school holidays.

"I was the best student during my high school days, so the principal told me that I was always welcomed. I therefore decided to volunteer during holidays. So I teach Grade 8 students English language under the guidance of my former English language teacher. In this way, I am able to practise different teaching methods that we have been taught and I get to see the effectiveness of each method. When teaching these learners, I improve my writing and speaking skills" (SF64).

Furthermore, another student also reported to be volunteering at one of the agencies during school holidays in order to improve her English.

"I study all African Languages and I major in English and Sesotho, so I aspire to be a translator. I therefore volunteer at one of my lecturer's agencies where we translate different documents from Sesotho into English or vice versa, so translating these documents has helped me a lot because I come across a variety of jargon. My writing has improved a lot and I am now able to speak correct English most of the time when I speak. I wish my classmates can also volunteer so that they can gather some experience" (SF72).

4.4.1.2 Communicating in the target language

Besides reading and watching television, students revealed that their attempts at communicating amongst themselves in English. Even though there are many challenges that they encounter when communicating in English, some students mentioned the kind of techniques used to overcome such challenges. Some students commented as follows:

"I know that it is hard to communicate in English within the campus because most of us are shy, however, I make it a point that I speak English during group discussions. I also consult in English

because I have an opportunity to speak English only at school. At home or outside we speak Sesotho, so I have decided to help myself at school so that I can improve" (SM56).

One student added the following:

"I have a joined a debate club even though it is not active, and I also try my best to communicate in English outside the classroom even though some would be like ooh these ones think they are better! But at least I get to speak it at home so for me it's not much of a hustle because I grew up speaking in almost every day" (SF80).

Students' comments imply their limited reliance on the lecturers in developingtheir communicative competence skills, but they seem to take an initiative outside the classroom.

4.4.1.3 Seeking help from lecturers

Another strategy that most students reported to be using is to consult their lecturers where they do not understand. Students mentioned that they consult their English language lecturers even with assignments from other courses because they are all taught in English. Although it was not a strategy that seemed to be used by most students, many students who used this approach stated that it helped them a lot because most of them were shy to speak in class, so they would consult their lecturers on one-on-one basis, also obtaining some help where necessary. The students who used this strategy expressed the following:

"Consultations with my lecturers have helped me a lot because I have realised that they pay attention to students who take their studies seriously. I am one of those shy students who seldom speak in class, but I always consult and that has helped me a lot" (SM 52).

Similarly, one student added the following comments:

"We do a lot of writing especially in journalism courses, so I always seek help from my English lecturers in cases where I encounter challenges" (SF68).

Some students further mentioned to be seeking help from their lecturers and from other students who are good at particular skills. This is what one student said:

"I usually get help from my classmates. My grammar was very poor, and my lecturer ordered some students who were very good with writing to help us and they explain some concepts better than lecturers themselves" (SM51).

4.5 Findings from classroom observations (n=18)

In this section, analysis of the classroom observations likewise reveals themes, which arecommensuratewith the data from students' and lecturers' interviews. The reasoning behind carrying out the classroom observations after the interviews as explainedbefore was to provide additionaltriangulation by establishing whether the lecturers' and students 'views of what transpired in the classroom attuned with the observations. Therefore, the classroom observations intended to reveal what happened in the classrooms as compared to what both lecturers and students had recounted in their interviews in relation to the teaching strategies employed by lecturers and the challenges facing the students. Possibly, theseobservationsopposed or confirmed the lecturers' views on the strategies reportedly employed in their classrooms.

Furthermore, the classroom observations have additionallyshown the students' conduct in the classrooms, and how their responses corroborated what they reported in their interviews. It is vital toconcede that it was going to be difficult to run away from the prospect of both the lecturers and students altering their behaviour, especially knowing that they were being observed. However, as explained in Chapter Three, Section 3.1.6.1, I decided to use an overt observation, with the participants being aware of being observed. The purpose was to curb the Hawthorne effect because I believed that students would act normal as though I was not in their midst. So, I observed the practices of lecturers and students, noting whether students would react similarly to what their lecturers had alluded to in their interviews. I also observed what students reported as the challenge(s) in the classrooms in the development of their communicative competence skills.

I observed eighteen classes (n=18) with a total number of 579 students, especially what was happening during lectures. I observed both lecturers and students' roles and interaction as well as students' reaction to the approaches by the lecturers.Therefore, different themes emerged, which I reduced to only two because of overlaps, so the remaining themes encompass everything that I observed during classroom observations. Lecturers seemed to employ similar strategies in their classrooms. I also took the atmosphere generated in the classrooms as well as the physical arrangements during data analysis. This was also supported by notes taken during the classroom observations which also helped during the interpretation of the data.

The following themes emerged from data gathered from classroom observations.

- Traditional methodologies (lecture, direct and grammar translation methods)
- Mixture of communicative approaches (CLT, TBLT, scenario approach).

4.5.1 Traditional methodologies

This section entails the first observed strategies employed in the classrooms. As I sat down and observed the teaching practices and methodologies in the classrooms, I noticed that traditional methods were mostly employed in all the classes. However, the lecturers employed such traditional teaching strategies, still trying by all means to engage and interact with their students.

Below is the summary of the class observations. The observation schedules are not put in order because some classes were observed twice, while others once; I also began with those, which, in my opinion, were lengthy with many activities. I have also provided my synthesis notes under each class that was observed. It is therefore important to highlight that thecomments made in the "observer's notes" focused largelyonthe interaction between students and lecturers, teaching methods as well as the types of activities employed in the classroom.

Observation schedule 1

Date: 11 April 2022	**Module: Language Education**
Start time: 7:00	**Year: 3**
End time: 7:50	**Topic: Theories**

Description of the lesson/class:

There were 45 students in the classroom: 15 male and 30 female students. Students were seated in rows and the atmosphere seemed to be a relaxed one. There was one big black board where the lecturer wrote some notes for students. Students used their notebooks to write notes while others were typing on their laptops. There were umbrellas at the front and at the back because it was raining that day. Some students were shaking because it was cold outside, and the broken windows did not help either. The class was divided into two parts: the first part was led by the lecturer of the class (LM1) while the second was led by his assistant (LAF1). The class was therefore mainly conducted in English because the lecturer (LM1) was an expatriateunderstand Sesotho. The students were then asked questions, but most of them did not participate at all. The lecturer focused only on students whose hands were up, but it was only a section of five students (SOm1), (SOf1), (SOm2), (SOm3) and (SOm4) who were answering questions. Nothing was done to encourage the students to participate, especially those whowere sitting at the back. The second part was different from the first one because students were led into a discussion, focusing on a topic as theclass. They were toldtodiscuss “how the use of technology in relation to connectivism theory in the English language classroom in the context of Lesotho high schools (Grade 11) can help learners to learn better”.

Table 4.1 Data from classroom observation 1

BEHAVIOUR	PARTICIPANTS	DIRECT QUOTES	OBSERVER'S INTERPRETATION
Interaction with lecturer	SOf3, SOf4	*"Mam can we not discuss in groups, it's very cold to move from one place to the other "*(SOf3).	Hesitant to discuss in groups.
Interaction with other students	SOm1, SOm2,SOm3, SOf1,SOf3,SOm4, SOm5,SOm15, SOm11.	*"Guys let's discuss quickly so that we give ntate chance to address us"* (SOf4). *"Alright then can anyone tell us what they think about the topic"* (SOf4).	She (SOf4) wanted the class to quickly discuss so that I could address them about my research topic and their assistance in allowing me to interview them in FGDs. (SOf4) was chosen by her classmates to lead the discussions. She asked her classmates a number of questions and she seemed in charge of the class because her classmates listened to her and provided answers when

			chosen to speak. They were communicatively competent in English, and they only expressed themselves in English
Lecturer's role	LAF1	*"Girls where are you? You can't expect boys alone to participate"* (LAF1).	The lecturer did not know students by their names. She kept asking them their names, especially those who raised their hands to answer questions. She kept asking girls to participate because boys were mostly participating.
Students' reaction		*"I can send them notes or audios via google classroom for them to discuss even if they are not at school"* (SOm5).	Most of the students seemed to understand the topic and most of their answers were applauded by the assistant lecturer.
Discussing answers	SOf6,SOf7,SOf9, SOm10, SOm13	None	They were discussing and comparing their answers.

Answering their phones	SOf20, SOm31	None	These students kept going outside to answer their mobile phones. SOf20 even decided to stand at the back near the door next to where I sat.
Post observation			Students seemed to enjoy the exercise because they responded well to the one who was leading the discussions. They were very active.

The observer's notes

Lecturer (LM1) was sitting in front, and it was his assistant who was facilitating the discussion. LM1 lectured for twenty minutes before handing over to LAF1. The students were very active and providedanswers only in English. The student who was appointed to act as a leader did not disappoint either because she kept asking questions in instances where she needed clarification. What I realised was that male students (SOm1), (SOm2), (SOm3) and (SOm4) were mainly the ones participating until the assistant lecturer called on the female students to come to the party. The class was not huge and almost every student was free to express themselves in fluent English. I was sceptical at first when their lecturer (LM1) stated in our interview that they were not struggling at all and that they were communicatively competent in English. However, I observed their competence, and that they were not shy at all in expressing themselves in English. Furthermore, most students, especially males (SOm1), (SOm2), (SOm3) and (SOm4) spoke in their Sesotho accent albeit using correct language.

Observation schedule 2

Date: 28 March 2022 **Module: Functional English**

Start time: 12:00 **Year: 1**

End time: 2:00 **Topic: Sentences**

Description of the lesson/class:

There were 55 students cramped in this classroom which seemed to accommodate 30 students maximum. There were 45 female and 10 male students. They were first-year students who appeared to be uneasy. They were seated in rows and there was no space for the lecturer to move in between the rows.Because of lack of space, I had to sit in front of the class next to the door. I was unable to sit at the back where I would do during most of the classroom observations that I conducted. I therefore had to focus on students' every move from the front. I tried as much as possible to relax and smile all the time so that I could minimise the Hawthorne's effect. Students appeared relaxed and seemed to continue with their class as usual. The lecture lasted two hours in which the lecturer did most of the talking, with minimal engagement with students.

Table 4.2 Data from classroom observation 2

BEHAVIOUR	PARTICIPANTS	DIRECT QUOTES	OBSERVER'S INTERPRETATION
Interaction with lecturer	SOf 26, SOm25, SOm32, SOm27.	*"Sir, a sentence is a group of words that have a meaning"* (SOf 26). *"I think that a sentence contains a noun, verb and subject"* (SM32).	Students were mostly attentive and passive. They answered questions where the lecturer needed some answers.

Interaction with other students	SOf 34, SOf, 35, SOf 36, SOf 36	None	Some students at the back appeared to whisper amongst themselves and they seemed to discuss answers
Lecturer's role	LM 2	*"Soccerplay boys during their spare time"* (LM11).	He spoke English for most of the time and he spoke Sesotho only in cases where he clarified some issues. However, he did not allow his students to answer in Sesotho; he strictly told them to speak English.
Students' reaction	None	None	They were all listening to what the lecturer was saying.
Playing with phones	SOf30, SOf31, SOf33.	None	Some students, especially those seated at the back were busy with their mobile phones, and not paying attention to what was being said. I could only hear the uproar and murmuring because they looked as if they wanted to

			answer, but I did not hear any answer from them.
Murmuring during lecture	SOf19, SOm22, SOf34, SOm34, SOm28	None	
Post observation			Lecture method seemed to be the preferred strategy by the lecturer because there was no other method employed than the lecture method.

The observers' notes

The lecturer mostly lectured to the students, but he tried as much as he could to engage them. He spoke English for most of the time and he spoke Sesotho only in cases where he clarified some issues. However, he did not allow his students to answer in Sesotho; he strictly told them to speak English. I, therefore, realised that most students would want to answer questions, yet facing challenges of answering in English, even though they appeared to have answers. For instance, he was teaching them how to develop a paragraph and the definition of a sentence. He, therefore, asked them what a sentence is, the question to which the students provided different, but wrong answers. He then constructed the following sentence: "*soccer play boys during their spare time*". He asked the students if the answer was correct or wrong. I could only note some commotion, coupled with murmuring among the students who apparently wanted to answer the question. However, the students' self-expression in English was a problem.

The second observation took place a week after the first one above. Students were given a reading assignment which they had to discuss in the following lesson.

Observation schedule 3

Date: 4 April 2022 **Module: Functional English**

Start time: 10:00 **Year: 1**

End time: 12:00 **Topic: Paragraph development**

Description of the lesson/class:

There were 55 students cramped in this classroom which seemed to accommodate 30 students maximum. They were first-year students who appeared to be uneasy. They were seated in rows and there was no space for the lecturer to move in between the rows. The arrangement was still the same as that of the previous week - 4th April 2022. I was still sittinginfront, but I changed the spot and sat near the window, this time because it was very hot. I also wanted to have a view from another angle which was different from the one I had the previous week. The lecturer was rooted at the front because there was no space for him to move in between rows. The lecture lasted for two hours in which the lecturer did most of the talking, without any engagement with the students.

Table 4.3 Data from classroom observation 3

BEHAVIOUR	**PARTICIPANTS**	**DIRECT QUOTES**	**OBSERVER'S INTERPRETATION**
Interaction with lecturer	SOm27, SOf26, SOm 29.	*"A paragraph sir has to begin with a topic sentence, and it ends with a concluding sentence"* (SOm27).	Students were given pair work to discuss how to develop a paragraph. The lecturer then asked a few questions after pair discussions.
Interaction with other students	SOf38,SOf39	*"No* ***hae joalo****, you have to mention all the elements"* (SOf38) ("it is not like that").	Students were given pair work. They discussed for 30 minutes and then they were asked questions. During discussions, I could hear some code-switching.
Lecturer's role	LM2	*"Is it all you can say? Ok you also have to mention what the main body entails, alright?*(LM11)*"*	He spoke English for most of the time and he only spoke Sesotho in cases where he clarified some issues. However, he did not allow his students to answer in Sesotho; he told them to strictly speak English.
Students' reaction		None	Students were taking notes as the lecturer

			was clarifying some of the issues.
Post observation			The lecturer employed both the lecture and discussion methods. Students discussed in pairs and thereafter the lecturer summarised their answers and then started lecturing.

The observer's notes

The lecturer reminded the students what they had done the previous week and the reading assignment which he had given them. He took out some papers and then gave them to students. He further ordered them to work in pairs and then analyse the paragraph that he had just given to them. It appeared as though the lecturer wanted to move around the classroom to see if all the students were discussing, but I could see that it was impossible because there was no space to manoeuvre in between. I was also unable to capture all students' actions because of the limited space. I also had to sit in front because there was no space at the back. After 30 minutes of discussions, the lecturer then asked students questions to which students responded well. They seemed different from the previous week, and they answered questions only in English. They seemed motivated and I assumed that it was because of what the lecturer was doing. He said good things about students who provided correct answers, and most of them seemed eager to participate.

Observation schedule 4

Date: 17 March 2022 **Module: Communication and Studies English**

Start time: 12:00 **Year: 1**

End time: 2:00 **Topic: Parts of speech**

Description of the lesson/class:

There were not too many students in this class. Before commencing, the lecturer gave a paper to one student who appeared to be the class rep. The piece of paper was actually the attendance register which I saw when one student who was seated in front of me signed. I was unable to count the students because of their number, but I referred to the register and there were 65 students in the classroom scattered all over the classroom. There were 50 female and 15 male students. Unlike in other classes where students mostly sat in rows, there was no proper sitting arrangement in this class. There was therefore insufficient space for the lecturer to move about and he mostly taught standing in one place. I found a spot at the back where I sat and observed the instructional process. The lecturer then introduced the topic of the day, telling the students to take out their notebooks. He approached the white board and started writing notes. After writing he explained the notes and then asked students some questions.

Table 4.4 Data from classroom observation 4

BEHAVIOUR	**PARTICIPANTS**	**DIRECT QUOTES**	**OBSERVER'S INTERPRETATION**
Interaction with lecturer	SOf40, SOf41, SOf43	*"Sir I did not understand the last part of what you have just said, may you please repeat"* (SOf41). *"I quited immediately after receiving my money"* (SOf40).	The student wanted the lecturer to repeat because she was taking notes and the lecturer might have been fast that is why she missed that last part. The student did not realise that she made a mistake by adding the suffix -ed to the verb 'quit', which remains the same even in the past tense.

		"Yes sir I quit immediately after receiving my money" (SOf40).	The student laughed and quickly corrected herself after the lecturer had corrected it.
Interaction with other students	None	None	The class was mostly dominated by the lecturer and students were only passive.
Lecturer's role	LM5	*"Ooh! I see, so you quit after receiving your money? What a clever move"* (LM5)!	The lecturer used recast to subtly correct the student's mistake. The student realised her mistake and she quickly corrected herself. The recast used by the lecturer gave an impression that it worked without making the student shy after the mistake.
Students' reaction	None	None	Students were busy taking notes, most of whom seemed tired, probably because of being hungry; the class

			commenced at midday and they were still in class at lunch time.
Whispering during instruction. **Dozing off and sleeping**	SOf38, SOf40,SOf44, SOm45 SOm46, SOf48, SOm50	None None	Some students, especially those seated at the back, were busy whispering and laughing amongst themselves, paying no attention to what was being said. Some students were dozing off while others were asleep. I do not believe that these students wrote the notes or understood what was being said by the lecturer.
Post observation			Lecture method seemed to be the preferred strategy by the lecturer because there was no other

			method employed in the class.

The observer's notes

The lecturer used both English and Sesotho in his classroom. He mostly lectured in English, but he explained with examples mostly in Sesotho. This strategy seemed to work because most students understood, and they were able to answer when asked questions. The lecturer even allowed some of the students who I saw struggling in English to answer in Sesotho. For those who were trying and yet committing some grammatical mistakes, the lecturer would use recast and I realised that students were not anxious because they were not even aware that they were being corrected as they were speaking. For instance, one student (SOf40) said while trying to construct a sentence using the past tense; *"I quited immediately after receiving my money*". The lecturer did not interrupt the student, but after the student had finished talking, he said; *"Ooh! I see, so you quit after receiving your money? What a clever move"!* The student quickly corrected himself and said, *"Yes sir I quit immediately after receiving my money"*. What I observed therefore was that the student did not feel ashamed because the lecturer encouraged him to speak by not telling him directly that he made a mistake. There was a bit of interaction in this class, and I assumed it was because the lecturer used both languages to teach.

Observation schedule 5

Date: 1 February 2022 **Module: Academic English**

Start time: 8:00 **Year: 1**

End time: 10:00 **Topic: Essay Writing**

Description of the lesson/class:

There were 100 students in this room. There were 81 female and 19 male students. The class was bigger, and it accommodated students well. The lecturer was able to move from one end to the other in between one long row. He had to keep moving while teaching so that students who were seated at the back could hear him as well. The class seemed to be interrupted by late arrivals of many students. The lecturer was mostly interrupted and had to pause to allow the late coming students to settle down.

Table 4.5 Data from classroom observation 5

BEHAVIOUR	PARTICIPANTS	DIRECT QUOTES	OBSERVER'S INTERPRETATION
Interaction with lecturer	None	None	Students were mostly attentive and passive. Some students were writing notes while others folded their arms.
Interaction with other students	None	None	The class was mostly dominated by the lecturer and students were only passive.
Lecturer's role	LM6		The lecturer wrote notes on the board. He then explained the notes to students. There were no questions asked to students.
Students' reaction	SOf51,SOm52,SOf46 SOf47	None	These were students who folded arms while others were busy writing notes. I therefore assumed that they were bored.

Playingwiththeirphones	SOf47, SOf46, SOf49 SOm53	None	There are students who were busy with their mobile phones during the lecture. Most of these students were girls who seemed to be busy with their mobile phones. Some were even smiling, an indication that whatever they were discussing on their phones was better than what was being said by the lecturer.
Discussing while the lecturer was teaching	SOf47, SOf46, SOf49 SOm53		These students appeared to discuss something outside the classroom. They were whispering amongst themselves and laughing.
Post observation			Lecture method seemed to be the strategy that was preferred by the lecturer because there was no other method that was employed beside the lecture. There were no questions asked to

			students, but the lecturer gave students notes and then explained the notes without engaging students.

Observer's notes

Dominant in this class were the lecture and direct methods. The lecturer taught only in English, without giving the students any chance to talk. Some students who seated at the back appeared not to concentrate at all. From my observation, I therefore assumed that students' lack of concentration was due to their large number in one classroom and that the lecturer did not reach all of them. There were no activities in which the students were engaged.

Observation schedule 6

Date: 8 February 2022 **Module: Academic English**

Start time: 8:00 **Year: 1**

End time: 10:00 **Topic: Note taking skills**

Description of the lesson/class:

This was the second observation of the same class. The setting was still the same as the previous week. There were still 100 students in the classroom. The lecturer introduced a new topic to students who listened and wrote notes just as they had done before. Some students were arriving late, thus seemingly affecting the lecturer's rhythm which was typified by pauses for the late coming students to settle down. Once resuming the presentation, the lecturer did not move about as much to reach even students at the back as he had done in the previous week. I therefore assumed that students at the back seemed disinterested because the lecturer did not move to the back while teaching.

Table 4.6 Data from classroom observation 6

BEHAVIOUR	PARTICIPANTS	DIRECT QUOTES	OBSERVER'S INTERPRETATION
Interaction with lecturer	SOf58,SOm48,SOf49 SOf52,SOf59	*"Sir I do not have to write everything that you are saying, but I can write what I think makes sense"* (SOf49).	Students were mostly attentive and passive. Some studentsanswered some of the lecturer's questions. One student who provident an answer seemed confident about her answer and most of her classmates nodded to show their approval even before the lecturer could respond.
Interaction with other students	None	None	The class was mostly dominated by the lecturer and students were only passive.
Lecturer's role	LM6	*"Can anyone tell us what note taking skills entails"* (LM6)? *"Ok that might be right, isn't it class"* (LM6)?	The lecturer wanted to see if students understood what he was saying about note taking skills. The lecturer seemed to test whether other students felt the same about the answer.

Students' reaction	SOf55,SOf60, SOf65,SOf51	*"Yes sir it is"* (SOf55,SOf60, SOf65,SOf51)	Some students who were seated next to one another at the back next to me answered the question with a chorus. Students then listened to what the lecturer was saying. He started lecturing after that brief question and answer session.
Playing with their phones	SOf50, SOf49,SOf57	None	The students were busy with their phones and the lecturer even told them to stop what they were doing. They were asked a question to which they failed to provide an answer because they were not listening.
Noise makers	SOf50, SOf49,SOf57, SOF61		The students were discussing something amongst themselves, and they were even giggling. They were expelled from class for their disruptive behaviour.

Post observation			Lecture method seemed to be the strategy that was preferred by the lecturer because there was no other method that was employed beside the lecture.

The observer's notes

The lecturer did not do much in terms of student engagement in his teaching. He was the authority, and the class was teacher-centred. The reason for this teacher-centredness seemed to be influenced by the large class over which the lecturer appeared to have no control. The lecturer therefore taught for two hours. He tried asking questions in the middle of his lecture, but only a few students seated in the front answered the questions. There was nothing much happening in this classroom and students seemed to be bored. This was made evident by their restlessness, especially those at the back who were constantly whispering and laughing; they kept quiet and pretended to be writing notes when the lecturer looked at them. Despite having the second observation of this class, nothing had notably changed from the previous lesson because the lecturer was still the one dominating the class just like the previous session.

Observation schedule 7

Date: 27 April 2022 **Module: Discourse analysis**

Start time: 2:00 **Year: 3**

End time: 2:50 **Topic: Discourse cohesion (textual)**

Description of the lesson/class:

This was a class of 40 students, 30 females and 10 males. The classroom room could accommodate 70 students, suggesting that 40 students were fairly comfortable. Students sat in rows, with much space still remaining for the lecturer's movement in between. The students sat on flipping built-in chairs and they were scattered all over the classroom because there was enough space. I was introduced to the students before the lecture commenced and then I went to sit at the back to observe from there. The lecturer began by summarising what had been done the previous day which I heard from his summary as grammatical cohesion. After the summary, the lecturer introduced another topic and then started lecturing.

Table 4.7 Data from classroom observation 7

BEHAVIOUR	PARTICIPANTS	DIRECT QUOTES	OBSERVER'S INTERPRETATION
Interaction with lecturer	SOm11, SOm16, SOf13, SOf17, SOm19.	*"Sir I do not understand the difference between grammatical cohesion and discourse cohesion"* (SOf13).	Students appeared not to understand what the lecturer was saying. The lecturer therefore had to answer the questions by making examples.
Interaction with other students	SOf25,SOm21,SOm26 SOm30,SOf33,SOm22	"Nna ha ke utloe what sir is saying, uena u utloile" (SOm22) ("I do not understand…did you hear")? "Letho" (SOm26) ("Nothing")!	Students seemed confused and were asking one another questions seeking clarification. The lecturer's task seemed to be a difficult one because most of his students appeared not to understand. He tried to make them discuss, but students were still

			muttering amongst themselves.
Lecturer's role	LM3		The lecturer only taught in English and I assumed that students could have understood some of the concepts if they were explained in Sesotho.
Students' reaction	SOm11, SOm16, SOf13, SOf17, SOm19,SOf25,SOm21,SOm26 SOm30,SOf33,SOm22		Students seemed restless, they were whispering and shrugging their shoulders; an action which I assumed took place because they did not understand.
Post observation			Lecture method seemed to be the preferred strategy that by the lecturer because it was dominant in this classroom. However, students were given pair work for a few minutes and then the lecturer continued lecturing. I therefore assumed that students could have understood better if the lecture

			employed translanguaging in his classroom because most of the students did not understand the topic of the day.

The observer's notes

The lecturer taught only in English throughout the lesson. He told students to discuss in pairs although it was for a very short time. His students seemed to struggle with the concepts and the manner in which they asked questions appeared as a desperate move to understand. The students further seemed to be misunderstanding the lecturer, because they kept uttering the sound *"mmmhh..."* whenever they missed a word from what the lecturer was saying, and he would repeat the word and then they kept quiet. The pair work given to the students appeared ineffective as the students at the back were discussing irrelevant issues and the lecturer did not even bother to check if they were indeed discussing what they were told to discuss. The lecturer did not ask students to share with him, what they had discussed instead he continued with the other item under the topic which was being discussed. Another point observed is that the lecturer spoke with a peculiar accent, resulting in students 'interval interruptions seeking some clarity while he was speaking; they seemed confused about his pronunciation of certain words.

Observation schedule 8

Date: 27 April 2022 **Module: Applied grammar**

Start time: 12:10 **Year: 3**

End time: 2:50 **Topic: Vocabulary**

Description of the lesson/class:

There were 42 students in this class seated in rows. There were 30 female and 12 male students. The class was conducted mainly in English because the lecturer was an expatriate. The students fitted well in the classroom which appeared to accommodate around 100 students. They sat on theflippingbuilt-in chairs, and not in any particular order and thus scattered all over in the classroom.

This was the class of third-year English language students' teachers. The lecturer did not move around the classroom, but she spent the whole lesson standing beside the white board. She left the white board only if a student wanted to write on the board the word that they could not pronounce. The lesson seemed to be the continuation of the previous one on 'vocabulary' because the lecturer did not introduce anything new to students. Rather, she asked them to refer to the hand-outs that they had been given the previous week. She then continued from where they had stopped the previous week.

Table 4.8 Data from classroom observation 8

BEHAVIOUR	PARTICIPANTS	DIRECT QUOTES	OBSERVER'S INTERPRETATION
Interaction with lecturer	SOm 41, SOm39, SOf44, SOm57.	"*Vocabulary Madam is word stock, lexicon/lexis or all words in a language that are understood by a person or particular group of people"* (SOm41).	The lecturer appeared satisfied with the answer, and she provided her own examples based on the response from the student.
Interaction with other students	SOm41, SOm56, SOf 63, SOf65, SOm70	None	Students were discussing answers amongst themselves. Some used their mobile phones to confirm their definitions. They seemed to enjoy the exercise.
Lecturer's role	LF2		The lecturer did most of the talking, but she

			tried as much as possible to interact with students through questions. She also provided examples to some of the answers provided to students.
Students' reaction	SOm41, SOm40	"..Mam *I have a word here that I cannot pronounce, can I write it on the board so that you help with how it is said"* (SOm41)	Some students went to the board to write words that they did not know how to pronounce. The lecturer engaged students because they provided different answers, and that showed that most of them had done the work before coming to class. Students were interactive and they seemed to enjoy the exercise because most of them provided answers voluntarily.
Post observation			The lecturer was the one leading the class in discussions, and students were very receptive because they

			answered questions willingly.

The observer's notes

The lecturer was an expatriate, so this means that she did not speak Sesotho at all. Her classes were purely conducted in English, but she allowed those who did not understand to ask questions in Sesotho and then she would choose one of the classmates to translate the question into English for her or an answer in cases where answers were provided in Sesotho. It appeared as though she gave students some work to do alone before they met. This is because she did not introduce anything new to them; but she started by asking the students to share with her what they had read. Her students were participating, and she helped them with their answers by providing examples. The lecturer further advised her students to bring dictionaries to class, especially on topics such as vocabulary. She also told them to bring British English dictionaries for recommended spellings. The students were a bit confused because they seemed unsure about the difference between British and American English. Most of them appeared to be only aware of the American English spellings. For instance, she wrote two pairs of words on the board *'centre'* and *'center'*, *'chemist'* and *'drug store'*. She then asked students to differentiate between the words and the spellings. However, the students could not differentiate until they corrected them together as a class.

Observation schedule 9

Date: 1 March 2022 **Module: Investigative journalism**

Start time: 10:00 **Year: 2**

End time: 12:00 **Topic: News writing**

Description of the lesson/class:

There were 30 students in this classroom. There were 27 female students and only three males. The classroom was small but enough for 30 students. Every student in the classroom had a newspaper in their hands. Students did not sit in any particular order as they were scattered all over the classroom. The lecturer issued a classroom attendance form to the class representative who signed and then passed it on to others to sign as well. There was one row between tables where the lecturer moved from the front to the back. The lecturer then introduced the topic for the day.

Table 4.9 Data from classroom observation 9

BEHAVIOUR	PARTICIPANTS	DIRECT QUOTES	OBSERVER'S INTERPRETATION
Interaction with lecturer	SOf 70, SOf72, SOf75, SOf76.	*"Mam I read but I do not know what to say in English"* (SOf75).	Students did not respond to the lecturer's questions. It appeared that most of them did not read the story that they were told to read. I assumed therefore that they read but the challenge was to summarise in English.
Interaction with other students	None	None	The class was mostly dominated by the lecturer and students were only passive.
Lecturer's role	LF3	*"Didn't I tell you to read your newspapers"* (LF3).	The lecturer appeared irritated because most of the students seemed not to have done the work that they were told to do.
Students' reaction	SOf71, SOf73,SOf74	None	Some students looked at each other as though they did not know what their lecturer was talking about.

Murmuring during lecture	SOf79,SOf78, SOf70	None	Some were busy whispering to one another as the lecturer was talking.
Post observation			The lecturer tried by all means to interact with her students, but they were not receptive. She therefore decided to lecturer them for two hours.

The observer's notes

The lecturer tried by all means to interact with her students, but they were not receptive. What surprised me the most was that the lecturer appeared to be recapping the previous lecture before starting a new topic. She tried all her best to make them communicate, but students did not respond; as a result, she resorted to a lecture method because she seemed not to achieve the interaction that she had anticipated. However, I could see that the lecturer wanted to make her students speak, but she appeared not to know which approach to use in order to engage her students. She tried asking them questions, but only a handful answered. They seemed bored, and others appeared to have brought newspapers that they did not even read. Some were asked to provide the summaries of the stories that they had read, and they summarised in Sesotho to the lecturer's dismay.

Observation schedule 10

Date: 3 March 2022 **Module: Digital story telling**

Start time: 12:00 **Year: 4**

End time: 2:00 **Topic: Elements of a good story**

Description of the lesson/class:

There were 20 students in this classroom, and they were seated in a moon like shape. There were 15 female and five male students. These were senior students who seemed relaxed. This was made evident by the way they interacted with their lecturer. They were laughing and answering questions freely in English, and they also gave an impression that they were enjoying the lesson. The lecturer employed the lecturer method, but there was a lot of interaction between himself and the students.

Table 4.10 Data from classroom observation 10

BEHAVIOUR	PARTICIPANTS	DIRECT QUOTES	OBSERVER'S INTERPRETATION
Interaction with lecturer	SOf33, SOf46, SOf20.	*"Can I bring my love life into a story sir to make it spicier"* (SOf46).	Students seemed to enjoy the discussion with their lecturer.
Interaction with other students	None	None	The class was mostly dominated by the lecturer, but he actively engaged his students in his teaching.
Lecturer's role	LM11	*"You have to make sure that you bring your personal experiences to your story"* (LM11).	The lecturer enthusiastically engaged students who actively participated even though he was the one mainly speaking.
Students' reaction	SOf33, SOf46, SOf20, SOf32, SOm30	"We get you sir" (SOf33).	Students were laughing and patting one another at the back

			every time the lecturer said something funny.
Post observation			The lecturer employed the lecture method, but he was able to engage his students in his teaching. Students seemed relaxed and they were receptive.

The observer's notes

The lecturer was the main speaker in the classroom. However, he was so energetic that his students became so attentive. It seemed like his students were very fond of him. He spoke only English, but he had a way of attracting his students' attention. Although he was lecturing, he was able to engage his students in his teaching because he explained some concepts and then asked students questions who in turn answered him. He allowed them to use Sesotho when they answered sometimes, and it seemed like that encouraged them even more. He made examples to which students could relate and it made them want to be part of the class because all of them were participating.

4.5.2 Mixture of communicative approaches

In this section approaches that encouraged interaction are discussed, just as they transpired in the classroom.

Observation schedule 11

Date: 5 April 2022 **Module: News gathering**

Start time: 8:00 **Year: 4**

End time: 10:00 **Topic: Radio news gathering**

Description of the lesson/class:

There were 35 students in this class seated in rows, 30 females and five males. The students fitted well in the classroom which might accommodate around 70 students. All students were wearing masks except for the lecturer who put it off when she began teaching. The lecturer began by giving students some hand-outs which seemed to be the lecture notes. She also asked some boys who seated in front to help her to set up a projector. The lecturer introduced a concept; then after 30 minutes, she grouped students in groups of five and gave them clear instructions as to how the discussion was to be held. Students were allocated another 20 minutes for discussions while the lecturer went around the class monitoring the groups. I sat at the back and had a full view of how students interacted with one another.

Table 4.11 Data from classroom observation 11

BEHAVIOUR	**PARTICIPANTS**	**DIRECT QUOTES**	**OBSERVER'S INTERPRETATION**
Interaction with lecturer	SOf70,SOm75, SOf77	*"I think that we have to report news in an honest manner for the sake of credibility"* (SOf74).	Students seemed relaxed and they expressed themselves freely.
Interaction with other students	SOf78, SOf79, SOf80, SOm76, SOm81	"*Ehlile e joalo kea lumela, but I see it differently"* (SOm76) ("Yes I agree that it is like that").	Students were heard code-switching every time they discussed amongst themselves.
Lecturer's role	LF3	*"Alright tell me more, what measures do we have to take to ensure that our reporting is credible"* (LF4)?	The lecturer did not talk a lot for students were the ones doing the talking. The lecturer just guided students' discussions with questions.

Students' reaction	SOf70,SOm75, SOf77SOf78, SOf79, SOf80, SOm76, SOm81	*"Mam please give us five more minutes; we are going to answer your question"* (SOf81).	The atmosphere in this classroom was a relaxed one and students were enthusiastic with all the tasks. They spoke voluntarily and freely.
Post observation			Students expressed themselves freely in this classroom because the lecturer made them to feel good about themselves. They were relaxed and receptive as well.

The observer's notes

Most of the groups were discussing in Sesotho and they would switch to English once they saw the lecturer approaching. Others however did not mind the lecturer as they continued their discussions in Sesotho, and the lecturer appeared not to mind them as well, but those who had questions would call their lecturer for clarification. They mostly asked the questions in English even those who discussed in Sesotho. After 20 minutes, the lecturer told the students to stop because the time was up. Students went back to their seats and then the lecturer began by asking them questions from what they had been discussing. The students were really interactive, and half of the class were participating. What I realised was that the lecturer focused more on students who seemed shy and those who did not raise their hands when she asked a question. Some did not speak at all but they spoke only when the lecturer told them to say something in Sesotho. They seemed more comfortable with expressing themselves in Sesotho as opposed to English. The lecturer then told them to go and record what they had just said and then sent their recordings to her via whatsapp, but the recordings were to be done in English. Also observed was that the lecturer wanted everybody to participate even those who were not comfortable with speaking English.

Observation schedule 12

Date: 12 April 2022 **Module: Cinematography**

Start time: 2:00 **Year: 3**

End time: 4:00 **Topic: lighting**

Description of the lesson/class:

There were 24 students, 16 females and eight males in this class who were seated in a horse-shoe manner. The lecturer had given a soft copy picture prior to the lesson which was supposed to be analysed by the whole class. Before commencing with the lesson, he asked the students to take out their laptops to start analysing the picture. Most students did not have laptops, so the lecturer projected the picture on the wall where every student could see it. (See Appendix F, for the picture that was analysed). The lecturer did not talk that much, but his students were the ones doing the talking.

Table 4.12 Data from classroom observation 12

BEHAVIOUR	PARTICIPANTS	DIRECT QUOTES	OBSERVER'S INTERPRETATION
Interaction with lecturer	SOf 15, SOm15, SOf20, SOm23, SOm25	*"Sir I see nine people on the boat and one who is drowning, and two people who try to pull up the person who is drowning, and there is also a shark approaching which wants to eat that person. It is dark where the shark is coming from. There is also a person on the boat*	The lecturer began by asking students what they saw on the picture. One student narrated what he saw on the picture

		with what looks like a spear in his hand, and he wants to stab the shark before it can bite the person drowning" people try to rescue the person. There is light where the (SM25).	
Interaction with other students	SOf22, SOf26, SOm29, SOm30, SOf31.	*"Hmm, this is tricky, light and darkness"* (SOm31)! *"There is no hope for this person, this shark is going to swallow him/her"* (SOm22).	There was a bit of panic and anxiety amongst students who tried to work out what light implies on the picture. Different answers popped up during discussions.
Lecturer's role	LM10	*"So what role does light have on this picture? What can you say about the light"* (LM10).	The lecturer did not do much, but he was just asking questions and providing clues to students.
Students' reaction	SOf22, SOf26, SOm29, SOm30, SOf31, SOf20	*"Sir I think light in this case represents hope, so this person will be saved"* (SOf20).	Students looked very interested in trying to interpret the picture in relation to light.

Post observation			The picture that was given to students to analyse seemed to stimulate students' thinking ability. They provided different interpretations of the picture, and their lecturer appeared pleased with students' contribution and thinking.

The observer'snotes

The lecturer prepared a projector for the display of the picture because most of the students complained that they did not have laptops. After projecting the picture, the lecturer asked his students to analyse the picture in terms of how lighting could be used when shooting movies or short videos. All students were very receptive and each of them gave their own analysis of how lighting was used in the picture. The lecturer seemed very pleased because all his students were participating. All the students expressed themselves fluently in English, but the lecturer communicated with them in both Sesotho and English. The lecturer then summarised students' analyses and he further highlighted the importance of lighting when shooting. The class seemed to run smoothly until the time was up.

Observation schedule 13

Date: 26 April 2022 **Module: Public speaking and presentation**

Start time: 10:00 **Year: 2**

End time: 12:00 **Topic: Impromptu speech**

Description of the lesson/class:

This was a class of 20 students, 16 females and 4 males who sat in rows. It was observed that the lecturer of the course just facilitated because most of the work was done by students. Students were therefore assigned tasks on impromptu speeches. This was the only class in all the classes from the three selected institutions that was observed in which students were given a number of tasks to perform amongst themselves. The impromptu speeches were carried out in groups. One group elected a representative who presented on behalf of each group. There were four groups of five students each.

Table 4.13 Data from classroom observation 13

BEHAVIOUR	PARTICIPANTS	DIRECT QUOTES	OBSERVER'S INTERPRETATION
Interaction with lecturer	SOm3, SOf6, SOf19, SOm22, SOf10.	*"Gender based violence can be described as the use of force against another gender for example, when a husband abuses his wife"* (SOf10).	The first presenter seemed very confident, and she had a very good command of English. The lecturer sat down and jotted some notes on the piece of paper as students were speaking and he asked some questions.
Interaction with other students	SOm3, SOf6, SOf19, SOm22, SOf10.	*"Guys rona re fumane e thata hore, let's research*	Students had to convene in their respective groups to

		quickly" (SOf6) (we got a very difficult topic).	discuss their topic before presenting. There was a lot of code-switching during their discussions.
Lecturer's role	LM8	*"Remember that a group with good points will get good marks, so make sure that you elect someone who will represent your group well"* (LM5).	The lecturer asked questions after students had presented before allowing other students to ask the presenters.
Students' reaction	SOm1, SOf4, SOm3, SO6, SOf19, SOm22, SOf10, SOf6, SOf9.	*"shebang kapele"* (SOm1) (Be quick).	Students seemed anxious while doing research on their mobile phones because they were given only ten minutes per group to organise their topic. Others were purely discussing in Sesotho.
Post observation			The presentations seemed to go well, and students were asking one another questions as well as making arguments in cases where they did not understand one another.

The observer'snotes

During the impromptu speeches, the lecturer came to class with a box full of papers. He then called students in their respective groups to come forward. Each representative of a particular group would dip their hand in the box and come up with a piece of a folded paper in which was a written topic. All groups were then given 10 minutes to discuss the title of their presentation and then one representative presented on behalf of the entire group. It was the similar issue to the others as mentioned that most of the students discussed in Sesotho, but their presentations were done only in English. One female student presented first for her group, and she had a very good command of English which I realised intimidated the second presenter from another group. After the impromptu speeches, the lecturer reminded the students about a formal presentation scheduled for the following week on the assignmentgiven in the previous two weeks.

The second observation took place after three days from the first one above. The students were told to prepare for oral presentations.

Observation schedule 14

Date: 29 April 2022 **Module: Public speaking and Presentations**

Start time: 11:00 **Year: 2**

End time: 1:00 **Topic: Oral presentations**

Description of the class:

This was the second observation of this class. Students were going to engage in oral presentations. Each member in every group was supposed to play their part in presenting their points. It appeared that students divided their work amongst themselves. They all wore black formal clothes, as observed in other classes during oral presentations, the feature which probably indicated the culture of the university. Even their lecturers wore black clothes. It was observed that three of the five groups had prepared slides while the other two did not. Their lecturer sat in front on the right side of the classroom with a pen and a paper. I sat at the back of the classroom with my journal and a rubric. I recorded the behaviour and students' interactions as well as some quotes which I thought were important. Students who were not presenting sat down quietly while awaiting their turn to go to the front to present their points. There was a projector and a laptop used for presentation slides by the students.

Table 4.14 Data from classroom observation 14

BEHAVIOUR	PARTICIPANTS	DIRECT QUOTES	OBSERVER'S INTERPRETATION
Interaction with lecturer	SOm1, SOf4SOm3, SOf16, SOf19, SOm22, SOf10, SOf6, SOf9, SOm11	*"The number of proportional seats will be determined by the number of voters who voted for the party country wide"* (SOf6). *"The results will be examined by IEC"* (SOm11).	Most of the students had a fair command of English, but there was a pattern of improper pronunciation of some words.
Interaction with other students	SOm1, SOf4,SOm3, SOf6, SOf19, SOm22, SOf10, SOf6, SOf9, SOm11, SOf2, SOm5, SOm9	*"Are the elections valued in Lesotho according to what you have just said? If yes how"* (SOm9).	Students who sat down asked those who were presenting questions after their presentation. There was still an issue of poor pronunciations of some words.
Lecturer's role	LM 8	*"So how is the number the number of seats calculated in our political system"* (LM5)?	The lecturer sat down and jotted some things in his paper. He also asked some questions.
Students' reaction	SOm9,SOf2	*"You did not answer my question because you are not sure. What kind of*	Some of those who were seated were jotting some points down as others were

		an officer are you going to be" (SOm9)?	presenting. They also argued asked questions amongst themselves.
Low self esteem	SOf1, SOm1, SOf2	None	Some students lacked confidence and they were shaking and stuttering. I assumed that it was just a stage fright.
Post observation			Students appeared fairly prepared, and their arguments showed that they did make research before coming to class. There were some students who seemed to lack confidence and those who mispronounced some words.

The observer'snotes

Before the presentations commenced, the lecturer gave all the groups his marking rubrics. I was also given one by the lecturer as well so that I could see what was expected from students. I was therefore interested in poise, enthusiasm, elocution, and mechanics as described on the rubric. (See appendix H, for the described elements on the rubric). Students who were comfortable with expressing themselves in English during presentations seemed relaxed and confident. They appeared like people who were used to presenting in front of large audiences. Others tried their best to look relaxed, but I saw one student whose hands were shaking, and she could not hold a paper in which she wrote her points down. While she did not appear scared of the language, she looked uncomfortable with being looked at by many people. My observation was that many students committed many performance mistakes because they were scared of being watched by others as they presented and not that they could not express themselves freely in English.

In terms of elocution and mechanics, it was observed that most of the students were not that sharp especially when pronouncing some words. Most students kept pronouncing verbs such as **determine** /dɪ'tɜ: mɪn/ as *determaene* /dɪ'tɜ: maɪn/, **examine** /ɪg'zæm.ɪn/ as '*examaene'* similar to *'determaene'* in terms of their phonetic transcription. I was not surprised however to hear such pronunciation because some of their lecturers in other observed classes pronounced them exactly like that. There were many words that many missed because of how they were pronounced but the ones afore-mentioned appeared many times. I could also tell by how some students pronounced words that they were either from private or public schools. Those students who I suspected were from rural schools had a problem with pronouncing nouns or verbs beginning with a '**v**'. They had difficulty pronouncing the voiced '**v**', realising it as a voiceless '**f**'. I even assumed that maybe it was because we do not have the 'v' sound in Sesotho. For instance, some would say "*falue*" instead of '*value*'. The presentation was well organised, and the lecturer seemed clear about what he expected from his students. The students were very receptive as well because they gave an impression that they were used to being exposed to interacting more often amongst themselves and with their lecturer. After the presentation, the lecturer took out some notes that he had been taking as the students were presenting. They discussed those points together as well as the mistakes they committed during their presentation.

Observation schedule 15

Date: 18 March 2022 **Module: English I**

Start time: 11:00 **Year: 1**

End time: 1:00 **Topic: Oral presentations**

Description of the lesson/class:

There were six groups of five students per group. There were 20 females and 10 males. I said at the back next to the lecturer, but there were two chairs in between which separated us. Students did not wear formal clothes like the ones observed from the other institution who wore formal black clothes. There were no marking rubrics given to students prior to their presentation. All the groups did not prepare slides, but they read from their small note pads while presenting. The lecturer had a piece of paper where she was jotting down some points as students were presenting.

Table 4.15 Data from classroom observation 15

BEHAVIOUR	**PARTICIPANTS**	**DIRECT QUOTES**	**OBSERVER'S INTERPRETATION**
Interaction with lecturer	SOf100, SOm90, SOm89, SOm92, SOf95.	*"Achee Madam, now you have ruined my presentation because I've forgotten what I was going to say*" (SOf100)!	The lecturer's correction while the student was presenting seemed to have disrupted the student's presentation.
Interaction with other students	SOf85, SOf86, SOm91.	*"Guys I don't think I am ready to present"* (SOf85).	Some students seemed anxious about the presentations, but most of them appeared relaxed.

Lecturer's role	LF4	*"You do not present about but you present on something right class"* (LF5)?	The lecturer sat at the back. She corrected students immediately after committing mistakes. She also asked them questions a lot and did not give students a chance to ask their classmates questions.
Students' reaction	SOf95, SOm89	*"Madam may you please stop correcting us during presentations, Kannete it disrupts our momentum, and we end up forgetting what were going to say"* (SOm89).	Students unanimously agreed that their lecturer should stop correcting them during presentations. It appears to make them uncomfortable.
Post observation			The presentations were a bit tense may be it was because students were scared to commit mistakes. The lecturer's corrections seemed to play a negative role on students' confidence because most of those corrected went straight to their seats and did

			not finish what they wanted to say.

The observers' notes

It seemed that students were not fully prepared and the majority looked panicking. The lecturer kept interrupting and correcting them, as them as they made mistakes. For instance, one student said *"I am going to present about the way in which…"* the lecturer interrupted the student and said *"you do not present about but you present on something right class?* The student then said *"achee Madam, now you have ruined my presentation because I've forgotten what I was going to say"*. The student immediately rushed to her seat without completing her presentation. This was not the case with the previously observed class where corrections were done after the presentations. Students therefore seemed not free at all and most of them were very anxious. Most of them did not use the language pertinent to the subject they were presenting on as well as poor spelling mistakes some of which were missed by the lecturer when correcting them. After the presentation as the lecturer provided overall remarks, and one student asked the lecturer to allow them to finish their presentation first and then correct them later. Half of the class agreed with their classmate and thereafter the lecturer promised not to repeat the same mistake next time.

Observation schedule 16

Date: 22 April 2022 **Module: Communication studies in English**

Start time: 10:00 **Year: 1**

End time: 12:00 **Topic: Oral presentations**

Description of the lesson/class:

This class also held oral presentations. There were three groups of six students in each group. There were 15 female and three male students. There were no prepared slides and students read from their small pieces of papers as they were presenting. Students did not wear any formal clothing and seemed relaxed. The lecturer introduced the presentations and then sat down where he appeared to jot some notes or points while students were presenting. He sat in front near the window,listening to students' presentations. I also sat at the back of the classroom and observed from there.

Table 4.16 Data from classroom observation 16

BEHAVIOUR	PARTICIPANTS	DIRECT QUOTES	OBSERVER'S INTERPRETATION
Interaction with lecturer	SOf46, SOm44, SOf50	*"Sir how many minutes is one speaker allocated"* (SOm44).	Most students appeared uncomfortable taking too long on the stage.
Interaction with other students	SOf40, SOm44, SOf46, SOf45, SOf49, SOm50, SOf53.	*"Guys who wants to start? I will summarise your points"* (SOf46).	Some students appeared anxious when they had to present.
Lecturer's role	LM7	*"Make sure that you answer questions from the floor properly because I award marks for good answers"* (LM7).	The lecturer introduced students to what was going to be their presentation. He then sat down where he jotted down some points as students were presenting. He also clarified some issues concerning students' presentations. The lecturer further appeared to encourage students to ask one another questions with some of his statements.

Students' reaction	SOf40, SOm44, SOf46, SOf45, SOf49.	*"What did you say we have to do to avoid plagiarism? I did hear properly"* (SOm44).	Students who were not presenting sat quietly, but they did ask questions at the end of every presentation.
Those who did not answer questions	SOm44, SOf46, SOf53.	None	There were students who did not answer questions. Some of them were even tongue-tied during presentation. They spent a few minutes and then said nothing.
Post observation			It was observed that most students were shy to present. They took a few minutes presenting and were unable to answer some of the questions asked by the audience.

The observer's notes

The class appeared fairly prepared. There was no marking rubric, but students seemed to know what was expected of them. They were expressing themselves freely, but most of them still committed grammatical mistakes and showed inability to use the language pertinent to the subject they were presenting on. The lecturer kept quiet for most of the presentations and appeared only at the end. He corrected students' mistakes, and he was very firm because most of the mistakes which students committed because it appeared that some of those mistakes were twice corrected in one of their classes. He further reprimanded them for not taking notes or jotting down points as others were presenting so that they could ask relevant questions or make sound comments. He also reminded them that asking questions was the skill that they needed to master and platforms such as that was perfect one for them to learn and improve their competence in English. They did not even ask questions even when lecturers asked them to ask those who were presenting questions regarding their presentations. It seemed that most of them did not know what to write so asking questions would therefore be a challenge.

Observation schedule 17

Date: 25 April 2022	**Module: English for journalists and writers II**
Start time: 10:00	**Year: 2**
End time: 1:00	**Topic: Ambiguity**

Description of the lesson/class:

There were 35 students in this class seated in rows. There were 25 female and 10 male students. There was enough space in between the chairs for the lecturer to move to and fro. All students wore masks except the lecturer who was talking. The lecturer introduced the topic for 30 minutes and then told the students to discuss. Students discussed in groups of six, with the lecturer movingaroundthegroups to check the students' work and clarifying some issues. I sat at the back from where I observed what was happening in the classroom.

Table 4.17 Data from classroom observation 17

BEHAVIOUR	PARTICIPANTS	DIRECT QUOTES	OBSERVER'S INTERPRETATION
Interaction with lecturer	SOf65, SOf62, SOm70, SOm63.	*"The cabinet has collapsed"* (SOm70). *"I shot an elephant wearing my green jacket"* (SOf65).	Students appeared confident with their answers. The lecturer told them that they were correct.
Interaction with other students	SOm66, SOf64, SOm74, SOf77, SOm75.	*"Na ke nepile*"? (SOf74) (I'm I correct?).	Students were discussing amongst themselves and even comparing their answers. Some were discussing in Sesotho.
Lecturer's role	LM9	"*Alright class please control your voices, there are other on-going classes, so let us not disturb them".*	Students were too excited and therefore made a lot of noise during their discussions. The lecturer went around the groups checking how students were doing. He also answered some questions that other groups asked.
Students' reaction	SOf65, SOf62, SOm70, SOm63.	"*E re ke bone your answers"* (SOm80).	Some students moved from group to group

	SOm66, SOf64, SOm74, SOf77, SOm75, SOm79, SOm80.	(“Let me see your answers”).	comparing answers. Code switching was mostly heard as students discussed amongst themselves. Students seemed to enjoy the task because all of them participated.
Post observation			The lecturer seemed happy with what he saw from students. They voluntarily answered questions and that gave an impression that students enjoyed the task. They also answered purely in English even though some were heard discussing in Sesotho.

The observer’snotes

The atmosphere in the classroom seemed to be a relaxed one. Students were shouting on top of their voices during discussions, and they appeared to enjoy the task.Most of the discussions were done in Sesotho, but questions were asked in English. While the lecturer appeared not to mind, he strictly demanded answers in English. Students were told to come up with ambiguous newspaper headlines to attract interest from readers. One student from one of the groups gave the following headline:*the cabinet has collapsed*. The lecturer then asked all the groups to disambiguate the heading and students provided different options and meanings. Different headings were provided and then discussed by the whole class. Students seemed motivated to speak, including those whose inputs were ungrammatical had their versions not corrected, the task which appeared to motivate students to participate more actively.

Observation schedule 18

Date: 27 April 2022 **Module: Script writing**

Start time: 8:00 **Year: 2**

End time: 10:00 **Topic: Character development**

Description of the lesson/class:

This was the film course whose aim was to teach students how to develop scripts for film making. There were 20 students in this class who were scattered in the classroom, without following any sitting pattern. There were 16 female and four male students. The lecturer introduced the topic for 15 minutes and then told the students to come up with their own characters. They therefore discussed in groups of four for 45 minutes. I sat at the back where I observed the classroom activities from. The lecturer was moving around the classroom helping other groups which needed clarification and/ or had questions. The class was held in the film studio, with big lights as well as cameras in the room. There were few seats in the space enough for 15 students. There were 20 chairs in all in the studio.

Table 4.18 Data from classroom observation 18

BEHAVIOUR	PARTICIPANTS	DIRECT QUOTES	OBSERVER'S INTERPRETATION
Interaction with lecturer	SOf20, SOf19, SOm27, SOf21, SOm24.	*"Sir, do I have to create a problem for this character and then a solution as the story unfolds"* (SOm27)?	Students seemed eager to perfect the task.
Interaction with other students	SOm27, SOm23, SOf18, SOf29.	*"Ntjoetse then ketlacho if hona le*	Some students were sharing ideas amongst

		problem" (SOf18) ("Tell me then I will say if there is a problem).	themselves. They mostly code switched.
Lecturer's role	LM6	*"Guys hopolang two crucial aspects of this task; the problem le solution ea eona which might be encountered by the character in a story"* (LM12) ("Guys remember two crucial aspects of this task; the problem and its solution which might be encountered by the character in a story").	The lecturer kept reminding his students the demands of the task. I therefore assumed that he wanted the students to perfect the task. He could be heard code switching as well sometimes.
Students' reaction	SOf20, SOf19, SOm27, SOf21, SOm24SOm27, SOm23, SOf18, SOf29.	*"Hahahaha, I think I am creating a thief who can never be caught just like the Professor"* (SOf24). *"Mine will break from prison hahaaha"* (SOm21).	Students appeared to enjoy themselves a lot and they were even mocking one another about their individual characters.

Post observation			The atmosphere was a relaxed one, and there seemed to be a good relationship between the lecturer and the students. All students were free to express themselves in both English and Sesotho and the lecturer used both languages as well. Students appeared to enjoy the task and they were even comparing and sharing their stories.

The observer'snotes

Students mostly discussed in Sesotho and the lecturer seemed to careless because he was even answering some questions in Sesotho. After students' discussions, the lecturer then asked them what they discussed. They gave the descriptions of their different characters, showing how such could fit into their stories. They expressed themselves in English, though most of them struggled to maintain conversations. This is because most of the students would explain so many things in Sesotho, with the lecturer apparently content with their responses. Also notable was that the students appeared relaxed and receptive; the reason could be that they were allowed to express themselves in both English and Sesotho. The lecturer gave an impression that he was mostly interested in how students described their characters in the story, not necessarily the grammatical aspects of language.

Finally, lecturers in most of the classes observed seemed to be more comfortable with the lecturer method where there was no interaction between them and the students. Those who tried discussions appeared to do them without purpose; only a few of them tried their best to make the best out of them. In these instances, lecturers tried employing discussions, without a purpose, most probablyleading to the Hawthorne's effect on them. I also observed that most students were eager to interact even though they discussed in Sesotho, not in English. The discussion method appeared to be the only communicative strategy that most of the lecturers employed in their classrooms. Only LM1 employed role-play where one student acted as a lecturer, writing points on the board as well asking questions. LM5 was the only lecturer in all lecturers who used several communicative strategies which were well organised and exposed students to English. For instance, in impromptu speeches, students showed their versatility by picking topics, which were new to some of them. I believe such topics helped them to expand their lexicon with new jargon every time. While the task could be a bit of a torture for the students, they seemed to be enjoying and reading new subjects critically.

4.6 Summary

This chapter has provided an analysis of findings from three strategies used to collect the data. Focus group discussions with students and face to face interviews with the lecturers as well as classroom observations have been used three main strategies. The chapter has analyses the data thematically to answer the research questions of the study. These themes are expounded in the following chapter, thus linking them to the theoretical and empirical literature adopted for the study. The following chapter discusses the findings of the study.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the discussions of the findings of the study. The discussions are divided into three parts. The first section entails the discussion of themes from the first research question and the first method, the focus group discussions used to collect data from the target students. The second section discusses themes from the second research question as well as face-to-face interviews with lecturers. The last section interprets the themes considered fromtheclassroom observations. The themes are also linked to the literaturereviewed for this study.

5.1 Challenges that English as second language undergraduate students encounter in the development of communicative competence skills

The following themes lack exposure, language anxiety, lack of motivation and deficiency in grammar form the basis of the discussions under this first question.

5.1.1 Lack of exposure

The findings from interviews with students on challenges encountered in their development of communicative competence skills bring to surface their discontent with adequate exposure to language. Because of lack of exposure, students had no confidence to communicate in the target language with others. This lack of confidence is commensurate with Ekanjume-Ilongo's (2015:1162), Nikian *et al.* (2016:2) and Getie (2020:32) finding that students do not like to speak because of their poor command of language. Furthermore, AlHarbi (2018:121) also found that students are scared to speak for fear of negative evaluation from their classmates. This finding was corroborated by the lecturers who reported that most students in their classrooms do not like to communicate in English at all. The reason behind this fear as revealed by lecturers is that these students are from rural and public schools where they seldom used English to communicate. So lecturers further reported that this problem persists until the tertiary level where they face more challenges in communicating in English. Another problem observed by Heinemann (2004: 80) and Mashiane and Ngoepe (2021:172) is that students' traditional exposure to grammar in schools is often pedagogic in that grammar exercises are solely intended for the purposes of teaching. This therefore suggests that grammar classes are mostly limited to grammar textbooks and sentence constructions with no emphasis on communication.

Therefore, Kozhevnikova (2019:433) states that exposure plays an integral part in a successful language teaching and learning. This means that students should be sufficiently exposed to language use. For this to happen, Kozhevnikova (2019:433) advises that students can be exposed to interactive activities in which they can communicate with other students or classmates using the target language. They can also watch videos as in YouTube or watch television at home so as to maintain that culture of communicating in the target language. The use of such external sources generate an opportunity to develop at the students' own pace and within their own strength. They can make errors in private without fear of negative evaluation from their peers (Hurd, 2008:9; Al-Zoubi, 2018:152).

Findings further reveal students' background as the major barrier to the enhancement of their communicative competence skills. This was made evident by most students' revelations that they did not have anyone to help because they come from rural areas with mostly illiterate parents. In other words, students have no one who can help them to keep in touch with the target language outside school. It is also possible given their background that they do not have access to social support which may be from more capable members of their social milieu, including more competent peers and adults. Such social support from parents or guardians would be useful in their developing communicative competence in the target language. However, these students are therefore unable draw on the lexicon of the scaffolding and mediation practices that students with high cultural capital cultivate outside school (Bourdieu, 1986:17; Haneda, 2006:337; Rowsell & Pahl, 2015:1). Moreover, I believe that this lack of help is likely to affect their overall performance in their schoolwork. This finding further confirms Bourdieu's (1986:17) assertions that students whose cultural capital is low perform low at school compared to those with high cultural capital who have unlimited opportunities to do better.

Additionally, Courage (1993:495), Curry *et al.* (2016:70) and Sibanda and Kajee (2019:1) agree that students who are well drilled from home perform better than those who do not get help from home. My view about this finding is that students who do have the social support cannot create the cognitive foundation that will eventually allow them to solve more problems on their own. In addition, this finding suggests that students who are deprived of an opportunity of obtaining help from competent members of their social milieu face challenges which are beyond their capability regardless of how clear and detailed an instruction might be. This situation will undoubtedly lead them to fossilisation which Selinker, (1972: 215) and Finneran (2020:12) describe as the listlessness of L2 learning notwithstanding favourable classroom settings as well as sufficient exposure to and practice with the target language and sufficient motivation to develop.

Another finding revealed by the students concerns the overcrowding of the classrooms. As the result of this overcrowding, lecturers could not reach all the students. They are therefore forced to resort to teacher-centredness where they become authorities and students are just passive. Such situations make students become piggy banks in which lecturers deposit information and then withdraw it during examinations (Freire, 2014:73). The socio-cultural theory, however, discourages transmission of knowledge. Rather, it encourages interaction between lecturers and students where lecturers act as mediators. Furthermore, students would hardly acquire any language where there is no interaction. Their ZPD will also not grow because lack of interaction suggests that weak students will not learn from their competent peers in the classroom.Teaching in these over-crowded classes becomes unimodal because lecturers focus only on one hemisphere which is the left hemisphere because there is no social L2 learning that favours social interaction (Danesi, 2003:49; Li & Jeong, 2020:1). My perception about the teaching and learning of English which was based on Khati & Khati's (2009), Ekanjume-Ilongo's (2015) and Nkhi's (2018) findings, especially in the context of Lesotho, where they stated that the teaching and learning of English language was inclining towards the banking concept because students are taught to pass examination, but not to be communicatively competent has been made true by the above finding because lecturers teach while students are just passive.

It could thus be argued that the teaching and learning of English in these institutions does not enhance students' communicative competence skills because of many students. However, my assertion is based only on the finding about classes in which lecturers interacted with students and classes were not large. I also find the issue of overcrowding as no excuse because I believe that lecturers could make plans for teaching sizeable classes. For instance, one participant lecturer reported to have split their big classes into halves, and that helped them to reach every student in their classrooms. The lecturer revealed that the arrangement was imposed by Covid-19 as a way of observing social distancing and they have stuck to the plan ever since, and it seems to be working for them because they now teach sizeable classes. So, I believe that splitting large classes into halves can help students who have not been exposed to the language; it can also help lecturers to employ strategies, making students interact with and help one another, particularly targeting low-performing students so as to advance their ZPD as proposed by the socio-cultural theory.

5.1.2 Language anxiety

The findings from students reveal that one of the challenges that they encounter in developing their communicative skills is language anxiety. As explained in Chapter Two, language anxiety refers to the sense of disquiet and undesirable distress-related emotions related with learning or communicating with others in a language that is not ones' mother tongue or L1 (MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012:103). Most students admitted havingnot spoken, fearing to be laughed at by others. This feeling was expressed by students who were from either rural schools or public schools where they mostly communicated in Sesotho. This finding echoes what the lecturers reported regarding students' language anxiety. They revealed that some students are scared to speak in front of their peers, fearing to be laughed at for grammatical mistakes. Therefore, these students seem to suffer from what Horwitz *et al*. (1986:129) referred to as the "fear of negative evaluation".They also reported to have not felt comfortable communicating with other people out of school in English, and this type of anxiety is known as "communication apprehension" (Horwitz *et al.*, 1986:129).

Apparently, students do not feel comfortable communicating with other speakers of the language fearing to mispronounce some words and to be negatively evaluated by them. This observation resonates with Price's (1991) finding,cited in Karatas *et al.* (2016:383), Castañeda (2017:150) and Suchona and Shorna (2019:36)that students became anxious about making mistakes in pronunciation, especially infront of their peers, and that action alone is anxiety-provoking. Moreover, Price's(1991) in Karatas *et al.* (2016:384) affirmed that oral presentations, role-playing and defining words mostly produced anxiety in students. As such, lecturers couldlessen this practice by having noprior expectations; instead, they should inspire students before doing classroom activities and sensitise them to causes of anxiety and possibility of committing language errors or mistakes. Thisapproach might also be advantageous for lecturers to make students aware that committing mistakes is unavoidable in learning; hence, there is no need for such apprehension in social L2 learning.

Furthermore, Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986:131) state that lecturers have two choices or alternatives when faced with anxious students: (1) they can assist them to manage situations that may prompt anxiety; or (2) they can ensure a stress-free learning environment. Given the vast array of affective and cognitive variables that intercede in language learning and acquisition, it is therefore not easy to put forward a definite approach to addressing the sentimental and cognitive needs of many students (Krashen, 1982:32; Danesh & Shahnazari, 2020: 14; Alamer & Almulhim, 2021:10). This suggests that lecturers can aid students by decreasing their levels of anxiety as well as centering their attention on variables that maybe the sources or causes of the anxiety. On negative evaluation, as students reported, lecturers can strictly measure their classroom situations thus prohibiting students from making others uncomfortable, especially those who are not confident due to their background. Such measures would alley fears of the students with limited English proficiency so as to participate in classroom activities.

Moreover, Pérez Paredes (1999: xxii-xxiii) advises lecturers to employ communicative strategies which include activities that can help in improving the negative emotions brought about by anxiety. This is in line with Krashen's (1982:31; 2013:3) assertions that lecturers should employ strategies that can lower the affective filter so that input can be extended to the language acquisition device (LAD). Input can only be conveyed to the LAD if the emotive determinants suchas motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety which serve as restricting factors to second language acquisition are considered. Therefore, through communicative strategies, lecturers largely act as facilitators and interactive guides. Concurring, Ortega (2002:255) outlines the following guiding principles that can minimise the negative effects of anxiety. Such activities can help lecturers to curb anxiety as reported by students in this study. They can also help lecturers to minimise students' fear of negative evaluation and communication apprehension.

1. Lecturers can act as facilitators instead of commanding figures, but they should act more as language counsellors. That is, they should support students in cases where they encounter stress by helping them to overcome such stress. Furthermore, they can create an environment that is less academic, but an atmosphere that is stress-free in which all students, either communicatively competent or incompetent, can feel free to communicate and thus have a real social L2 learning.

2. Students also revealed that they are sometimes scared to speak especially during oral presentations because some lecturers interrupt their presentations by correcting their mistakes, so Ortega (2002:255) advises lecturers to stop correcting students' mistakes because that makes them nervous.

3. In order to curb the fear of negative peer evaluation, lecturers should encourage interaction amongst students in the form of group discussions so that students can get to know one other better. I am of the view that communicatively incompetent students can be grouped with the more competent others so that they can help one another through scaffolding wherein competent students can lessen cognitive burden in the learning and acquisition of L2 by less competent students (Vygotsky, 1978, cited in Turuk, 2008:251). It is in this way that Cash and Schumm (2006:264) believe that scaffolding provided to students aid in their language learning and acquisition, and such a help is contracted or stopped in order to make a student more autonomous.

4. Lecturers are also advised to conduct oral presentation activities more often for students so that they can get used to speaking which will in turn make them feel more comfortable.

5. Lecturers should not surprise students, but they can give students time to ready themselves and understand what they have to do in their own pace.

I have added another principle based on students' observations regarding the native speaker fallacy. Some students reported an element of communication apprehension deriving from their teachers at high school as well as lecturers who expected them to speak like native speakers. However, this finding surprised me because there are two dominant dialects of English at the students' disposal which are American and British English. Thus, one might wonder which accent teachers expect students to use. I would stress this point because students are often expectedto write in British, not American spellings. I therefore find this confusing to students and that is why most of them would be scared to communicate with other people.I concur with Ekanjume-Ilongo (2015:1162) and Kiczkowiak (2018:35) that students should be taught English in such way that they will be communicatively competent without necessarily focusing on native-like competence, since English is an international language. Besides, my sixth guiding principle, following Ortega's (2002:255)outlineis that lecturers should create an atmosphere in which students can express themselves freely without having to worry about accents. I do not believe that speaking with native-like accent denotes communicative competence because students can still be communicatively competent in English using their own accents. As Banditvilai and Cullen (2018:293) observed, Thai students were also expected to pronounce English words like native speakers. In their view, "each nationality has its own unique English accent and that the Thai accent should be seen in that context". Such propensity, could, in my view, be achieved by students in the context of Lesotho.

Given the findings of this study on students' language anxiety, it is vital for lecturers to create a relaxed ambience for students to express themselves freely fearing no negative peer evaluation or communication apprehension in their classrooms (Westin, 2019:25). Lecturers should also ensure nurturing students' intellectual development through instructions that will push them towards the edge of new knowledge thus widening their ZPD. They should also expose them to scaffolding activities to help them to mediate their surroundings as suggested by Lantolf (2000: 198). As such, the more they use the language with the help of their peers and their lecturers, the lesser anxious they would become.

5.1.3 Lack of motivation

Another finding revealed by the study is that students lack motivation to learn English language. Most students reported their purpose of learning ESL as purely utilitarian. That is, they do not intend to be communicatively competent in English, but they just want to obtain a degree and look for jobs. This finding is congruent with Al-Ta'ani's (2018:101), Rozmatovna's (2020:944) and Westin's (2019:29) views that students who learn English as a second language seem to be instrumentally motivated because they want to meet the university's language requirement as well as findingwell-paying jobs overseas.Such students are oriented towards external regulation (Alamer, 2016:5; Ryan & Deci, 2000:61; Hardin, 2021:1). Apparently, majority of the students whose motivation was instrumental were not communicatively competent in English, nor did they have any interest in communicative competence. They could mingle and interact with native speakers or other speakers of English. Surprisingly, some of these students wanted to learn only English so as to obtain a degree and work oversees. Therefore, one wonders how they will cope in an environment that requires them to communicate in English all the time. One would wonder how they could communicate if given a job in the non-English speaking country, where English would be used as a lingua franca. As a result, I agree with Westin (2019:29) that lecturers should know students' instrumental objectives before teaching them to foster their integrative motivation thus rendering students communicatively competent.

Moreover, students whose motivation was instrumental reported that their teachers discouraged them by not giving them enough attention. This is because most of them focused on students who had a good background of the language. This finding made me realise that most students were from either rural areas or public schools they reportedly hardly communicated in English. In addition, they revealed that they came to tertiary with their poor background of the language and things became worse especially in large classes where lecturers have limited time for attending individual students. This is why Gardner (2006:7), Lai (2013:91) Almashy (2018:144), Chan (2021:159)assert that motivation is often utmost in the classroom context when students relish what is being taught. As such, stimulating instructional practices and co-operation amongst students as in working teams, pairs or small groups to accomplish a collective goal, can promote students' motivation (Dörnyei, 2005:112; Almashy, 2022:155).

However, in as much as students whose motivation is instrumental do not have a desire to acquire and learn English, Lukmani (1972) and Svanes (1987), cited Aliakbari and Toni (2008:16), found instrumental motivation to be crucial for no-Westernised students, as well as for African, Asian and

Middle Eastern students. Similarly, Aliakbari and Toni (2008:16) found that Iranian students were instrumentally motivated because they were not "provided with a direct opportunity to use the target language". Adegbile and Alabi (2005:33), Hanadi and Majid (2003:199) and Chen (2018:104) also found that ESL students from their respective countries are limited users of language because their motivation is mainly extrinsic.Nevertheless, Ellis (1997:76)substantiates that integrative motivation has been deemed to be more important than instrumental motivation in a formal learning environment.

Other researchers such as Aliakbari and Toni (2008:16), Ryan & Deci (2000:55) and William (2011) in Westin (2019:29) are of the view that both instrumental and integrative motivations are equally important in language learning and acquisition. But I beg to disagree with the afore-mentioned authors because students in this study who reported their motivation as instrumental seemed to struggle in English. Such students lacked integrative motivation for English as opposed to those seemed to learn English with a longing or keenness to recognise with target language community or the other language community, and they have propensity to assess positively any situation related to learning the language. I therefore suggest that students should be encouraged to learn the language integratively. Although it is inevitable for some students' motivation to learn English with an instrumental motivation given their background, they can do better than their current situation, if motivated by lecturers.

Furthermore, it is important therefore that lecturers apply five steps outlined by Dörnyei (2005:113) in Section (2.5.2.6) in Chapter Two. The five steps are commitment control strategies, meta-cognitive control strategies, satiation control strategies, emotion control strategies and environmental control strategies. They play a pivotal role in encouraging students to acquire and learn English. I also believe given the above findings that these strategies can help to gravitate students' motivation towards integrativeness. For instance, a satiation control strategy by Dörnyei (2005:113) is aimed at reducing boredom in the classroom, thus arousing more interest in the task. This can be done by adding a twist to the task in order to make it more interesting. In my view, the more interesting the task maybe, the more motivated students would become to learn the language. As motivation arises, the filter will be lowered, with the input extended to LAD. This therefore suggests that acquisition and learning would take place (Krashen, 1982:31; Gardner, 1985; Noels *et al*., 2003:111; Lightbrown & Spada, 2013; Almashy, 2018:145; Danesh & Shahnazari, 2020:14).

5.1.4 Deficiency in grammar

The findings from both students further show the students' inability to construct grammatically correct sentences as in both written and spoken discourses. Also worth noting is that students from the schools with ample exposure to English seemed to be mostly affected by this phenomenon. Their reasons were that they hardly engaged in grammatical activities. One could thus realise that teachers heavily employed CLT in their classrooms, though seemingly with their activities only based on fluency, not accuracy. As stipulated by Richards (2006:14), lecturers ought to balance both fluency and accuracy activities for a balanced competence, such that both their grammatical and interactional competence are equally enhanced. However, this focus on fluency opens a gap of weakness in CLT because it encourages teachers to pay closer attention to fluency activities. If it were not the case, such students would not struggle grammatically. My argument draws on Richards and Rodgers's(2001: 172) four values of CLT in Section (2.5.2, Chapter Two), which emphasise fluency in language teaching. While these students' grammatical competence is poor, their interactional competence Celce-Murcia (2007:48) entails the knowledge of performing common speech acts in the target language. These include information exchanges, interpersonal exchanges, expression of opinions and feelings. Nonetheless, grammar is critical in the acquisition of communicative competence, and it should be prioritised.

Another finding reveals that students are not able to construct correct sentences. Asked about the cause of this problem, students revealed that they were only exposed to activities that were aimed at enhancing their spoken discourse. As a result, writing coherent sentences becomes a real challenge for them. This suggests that students' writing does not indicate strong evidence of cohesion, and it does not exhibit the use of grammatical and lexical devices as well (Bahaziq, 2016:112). Saavedra and Barredo (2020:1094) advise lecturers to intensify writing skills for students to apply to their written discourses. In addition, Banditvilai and Cullen (2018:293) agree that students should be trained on further developing their grammatical competence.

Furthermore, lecturers reported having complained about students' poor English, but they have since improved in that regard. Their improvement in English paved way for grammatical competence. As one lecturer revealed:

> *"Students from private schools will excel when you talk to them, but when it comes to writing, they would write as though they were speaking…eehh… you'd see a litany of information or sentences, but it will just be information on a sheet with no commas,*

no punctuations and no full stops as though they are speaking. It shows that to them emphasis has been on speaking and less on writing" (LM3).

This quotation substantiates my view that students from private schools have enhanced interaction competence, but they are grammatically incompetent. This finding further contrasts with Remache's (2016:187) revelation that students who learn English as a foreign language (EFL) claim that "instead of acquiring ways of using the language in meaningful situations to produce meaningful acts of communication, they have mastered the formation rules of the language". On this basis, lecturers' emphasis in Remache's (2016:187) finding, is mainly grammatical. The finding reveals two contrasting contexts, one in which teachers' emphasis is on grammar, and the other where focus is on teaching students to express their feelings, emotions, what they do not like, their likes as well as agreements and disagreements in an English social context (Remache, 2016:187). My take onthis is that both contexts should be blended so that students can acquire both competencies concurrently.

Lecturers are also concerned that because of the electronic social media to which learners are amply exposed, their grammatical competence suffers because the kind of English used therein is ungrammatical. This finding is consistent with Fatimayin (2018:3) that the improper language that is normally used in the social media has become common in many students' formal writing exercises. Most tertiary students have developed the habit of applying the informal language of social media in their various academic writing activities, such as essays, examinations, or assignments. This is an indication that the excessive use of social media has negatively affected the writing skills of students. Obi, Bulus, Adamu and Sala (2012), cited in Wilson (2018:265), explain that most students who regularly text on social media have developed and adopted strange writing habits that are unacceptable in formal writing such as abbreviating words. Omoera, Aiwuyo, Edemode and Anyanwu (2018:1) emphasise that expressions such as 'u' for 'you' 'gr8' for 'great', 'urs' for 'yours' are among other odd patterns of writing that students who often text on social media use when writing for academic purposes. As a result of texting on social media on a regular basis, students have become accustomed to making a lot of grammatical errors such as writing words in short form, and not including punctuation marks where necessary as well as failing to start sentences with capital letters. This finding has become a reality in the context of this study because students seemed have negatively been affected by the ample exposure to social media.

For instance, when stressing the difficulties that students face in using grammar accurately, (LF2) showed that "…*they are so ignorant of the rule restrictions that they write words such as, fishes, sheeps and mouses…they also overgeneralise the rule in the past tense by producing words like,* *goed, speaked and weared."* Asked what interventive strategies employed to address these grammar deficiencies, some lecturers reported that they tell students to write sentences or paragraphs and then see if such sentences are correct. They also give them fill in exercises on the board. This is also surprising because lecturers still use traditional teaching methods as interventive strategies to remedy a challenge that students encounter grammatically. Such approaches indicate that some lecturers have challenges for employing communicative teaching strategies towards enhancing students' communicative competence.

Students also agreed that social media weaken their writing skills. This is because they use contracted forms as well as informal language used when chatting amongst themselves. For instance, one lecturer reported that

> *"Some of them use short forms unnecessarily, and they are not even aware how dangerously it affects them. I use the adverb 'dangerously' on purpose because of one student who wrote fiend instead of friend and cunt instead of can't. I asked her to look for meaning of those nouns and she was so disappointed after realising that their carelessness will land them in trouble one day. This is the kind of words they use in social media" (LM3).*

Noting the above, lecturers should encourage students to use formal language whenever they communicate amongst themselves to avoid making unnecessary mistakes. Another lecturer complained that students from private schools do not like to read compared to their counterparts from rural schools. As a result, they do not acquire any grammatical acumen. However, their counterparts from rural schools are good readers and that is why they are able to construct grammatically sound sentences. I therefore believe that grammar plays an important part in enhancing students' communicative competence skills. It is important for lecturers to design activities for improving both accuracy and fluency. I would further advise lecturers based on these findings that they emphasise accuracy activities, especially for the sake of students who are grammatically incompetent.

Lecturers can also employ the presentation, practice and production (PPP) strategies to enhance students' grammatical competence. According to Li (2020:247), PPP is a good strategy especially in instances where lecturers' objectives should improve students' grammatical patterns, vocabulary and dialogues. PPP emphasises students' practice to become grammatically competent. Evans (1998:2) sees the purpose of the presentation stage as aiding students' new linguistic understanding or re-organisation of knowledge that has been wrongly represented. In this view, students' interlanguage would instantaneously improve as new the language is illuminated to them (Ellis, 1988:21). This means that in the following lessons, new language will manifest on top of what was taught before. For Skehan (1996:17), students can learn grammatical patterns in the order in which they are being taught.

Furthermore, Mashiane and Ngoepe (2021:173) recommend the use of the Process Approach (PA) which involves teaching the structures of grammar just in the last phase of the instruction process. "The learners would, for example, in a class on writing, first learn the format, types of essays and the conventions of writing the essay, including the planning, drafting and revising stages prior to directing their attention to learning grammar structures. Grammar structures are learned during the editing stage of the writing process" (Mashiane & Ngoepe, 2021:173). Therefore, in lieu of only learning grammatical items such as verbs and articles, the students can gain knowledge of these structures as part of the editing phase of the writing process (Watkin-Goffman& Berkowitz, 1991: 21; Mashiane & Ngoepe, 2021:173). Moreover, the employment of teaching strategies such as the PA highlights the significance of knowing and properly applying the rules of grammar, since every written text that has too many grammatical mistakesis considered not easy to comprehend and off-putting (Watkin-Goffman& Berkowitz, 1991: 21; Watson, 2015: 3; Mashiane & Ngoepe, 2021:173).

5.2 Communicative competence-related strategies employed by ESL lecturers in their classroom

Discussions in this section are based on the following themes.

- Translanguaging
- Communicative and interactive approaches
- Traditional approaches

5.2.1 Translanguaging

The findings reveal that translanguaging is one of the strategies employed by lecturers in their classrooms. Translanguaging has been employed by most lecturers speaking two languages whereas the expatriate lecturers who could not speak Sesotho did not employ it in their classrooms. Lecturers reported that they were supposed to teach students in English since it was the medium of instruction. However, they found it befitting to explain most of the concepts in Sesotho where students did not understand. This was made evident by (LM10) who expressed the following:

"I teach bilingual students, so it is of utmost importance that I use both languages in class because I have realised that they understand better when you explain most of the concepts in Sesotho. It also enhances their translation skills because they can think in their own language and then translate their answers to English" (LM11).

Another lecturer (LM11) further substantiated the above expression by saying that:

"If you come to class and start speaking English throughout, you'd see students who are not happy at all given the background of most of them. By the time you ask them questions, they will ask you to repeat what you were saying in Sesotho because they would genuinely have not understood. So, using both English and Sesotho encourages my students to participate fully" (LM10).

This finding was corroborated by most of students who reported to have not felt comfortable with lecturers who taught only in English. They further indicated to have participated actively in classroom activities where they understood better. That is, they understood easily in instances where lecturers taught in both English and Sesotho. This finding is supported by Estyn (2002:1) who asserts that translanguaging makes it easier for students to alternate between languages. Additionally, this finding resonates with Baker's (2011:289) view that translanguaging enhances students' academic language competencies in both languages (L1 and L2).Moreover, literature advocates the use of mother tongue in language education and education in general as a move of undoing the past and current wrongs that ostracised and discriminated against the use of L1 from authors such as Garcia and Wei(2014:124), Makalela (2015:200), Mgijima and Makalela (2016:87), Hurst and Mona (2017:129), Al Balushi (2020:69), Zhou *et al.* (2020:234) and Sefotho (2022:3) seemingly obtain support from both lecturers and students in the use of Sesotho and English in the classroom. However, I am still not convinced that translanguaging helps to enhance students' communicative competence skills. This is because both lecturers and students have a better understanding when concepts are explained in both Sesotho and English. Furthermore, one lecturer contradicted this notion by stating that:

"In most cases in their group discussions, they will be communicating in Sesotho and when they see me approaching, they would switch to English. So, it's a bit challenging because ideas that you generate in your mother tongue become a challenge when you try to translate them into English because in most cases they do not come out as you had intended. So, it will always be ideal for them to discuss in English which I do not want to lie is impossible" (LM5).

What the lecturer is basically saying is that the idea of students trying to think first in their L1 and then try to translate it into L2 is not working because it distorts the intended meaning in L2. It could work when students who were trying it were the ones with a good command of English. However, those with good command reported that they did not like the idea of translanguaging because they were taught only in English from high school. So, the idea of translanguaging made them lose interest in learning English.Understanding concepts especially on the part of students with poor English background does not mean that students' communicative competence skills are being enhanced. Thus,the same participation in English is not realised because students do not want to communicate in English. Maybe, translanguaging is helpful in other disciplines because it fosters an interactive participation from students, albeit doubtfully developing students' communicative competence.Similarly, Aung (2021:155) found that students got high marks because of translanguaging, the observation which does not translate into an improvement in students' communicative competence in English. Furthermore, Aung (2021:156) also found that students made spelling mistakes, especially in English, Afrikaans and other home languages. Aung's (2021:156) revelation is consistent with Krause and Prinsloo's (2016:353), finding that students made many spelling mistakes during examinations because of translanguaging. Akbar and Taqi (2020:60) found that translanguaging did not improve students' L2 as earlier claimed by Baker (2011); however, it showed only a difference of 0.3 (6%). Taqi and Shuqair (2014), cited in Akbar and Taqi (2020:60) have also revealed that students who were taught by the same lecturers for four years in one department did not show any improvement in their competence in English due to translanguaging. My synthesis is therefore that translanguaging can be a good strategy in other disciplines because it enhances participation amongst others, however, I do not believe that it ameliorates students' communicative competence in English given Akbar and Taqi (2020:60), Aung(2021:156), and Krause and Prinsloo's 2016 (353) findings. Furthermore, Renandya & Chan (2022:2) concede that despite its effectiveness in the classroom, they are not sure if translanguaging enhances students' communicative competence in English, but they implore lectures to draw more on the theories of second language acquisition to support their teaching.

5.3 Communicative and interactive approaches

Further, the findings show the interactive approaches employed by lecturers in their classrooms. Most lecturers mainly employed discussions in their classroom as an approach that fosters interaction. Asked how they employ discussions in their classrooms, some lecturers reported that they just tell students to sit in groups and then discuss the topic at hand. It seemed that these lecturers did not plan how to go about discussions and the objectives to achieve. However, Willis and Willis

(2009:7) argue that activities that are not well designed do not expose students to language and opportunities for using language. The purpose should therefore be to expose students them to discerning the correct language use, thus improving their communicative competence in English.

Also concerning about the unplanned pair or group work is whether students are monitored.A possible reason is Wu's (2011:1465) finding that some students tend to be passive during discussions while others use their L1 to communicate with group members. I do not think that passive students will gain anything from such discussions; nor would using their L1 to communicate enhance their competence. Moreover, Courtney (2020:17) advises thatlecturers ought to engage students in activities to make them communicate in L2 to successfully complete a collective task. In this view, activities should be pre-planned in such a way as to compel students to communicate in a target language. Additionally, Courtney (2020:17) outlines four activities that lecturers can employ to enhance their activities including a pair or a group work. They include fun activities, meaningful activities, interactive activities and routine or frequent activities (Courtney (2020:17). These activities can help to reduce anxiety and strengthen students' motivation which I perceive to be an important variable in language acquisition and learning.

Another lecturer reported that he prefers pair work to group work. He revealed that pair work urges every student to communicate unlike in group discussions where some students hide behind others. This finding coheres with Hmeidan (2018:22), Carrasco and Irribarra (2018:87) and Rosadi *et al.* (2020:144) that small group discussions enhance students' communicative competence skills as well as egalitarian principles. Furthermore, Witherspoon *et al.* (2016:15), Abdulbaki *et al.* (2018:119) and Arini (2019:4) assert that classroom discussions are important for developing students' critical thinking, allowing them to learn how to present and arrange their ideas logically. Nystrand (2006) cited in Abdulbaki *et al*. (2018:119) state that discussion serves as an important strategy that expedites learning in the course of lecturers. This is because it can afford lecturers a chance to verify students' comprehension of the material as well as understanding concepts methodically by way of articulating their own perspectives and questions. Moreover, Sybing (2015:165) states that discussions give students a platform to take part in their learning. Additionally, when students are enthusiastically engaged in using the appropriate material, learning would be more thought-provoking, thereby further motivating them (Sybing, 2016:228).

The findings further reveal other interactive strategies employed by some lecturers in their classrooms. One lecturer employed a strategy that compelled students to improve their discourse and interactional competence. The lecturer revealed that he uses infomercials where each student has a role to play by writing their own script and then presenting it before the class. This technique does not only enhance the above-mentioned competencies, but it develops both socio-linguistic and grammatical competencies. As such, when students craft their own scripts, they will use correct grammar because their script is going to be presented before other students and their lecturers. Thus, students would be obliged to readbefore writing their scripts and improving their grammar. This finding is consistent with Di Pietro's(1987: vii) and Almazova *et al.'s* (2021:5) views that students should only be exposed to scenarios based on actual life events that necessitate their practising second language decisively and craftily in dealing with others without necessarily focusing on grammar. This approach is likely to improve both students' left and right hemisphere unlike other strategies that focus only on the left side of the brain. This statement is further substantiated by Nunan (2004:8) who asserts that "students learn to communicate by communicating". In this way, for students to be able to communicate, they should do tasks that will help them to use language in real communicative contexts. For East (2021:35), lectures should pay attention to both fluency and accuracy tasks. Similarly, lecturers should also reflect on their way of correcting learners' mistakes. Asked about what they do in cases where students make mistakes during negotiation of meaning, lecturers who employed interactive activities in their classrooms stipulated that they do not correct students' mistakes until after they have finished speaking. Krashen and Terrell (1988:59), Spada (1997) and Mangubhai (2006:4) agree that lecturers should not interrupt students' acquisition by correcting their mistakes; rather they should allow the natural order to take its course.

The findings further brought to surfaces the challenges facing lecturers when trying to implement communicative and interactive strategies. Some lecturers complained about large classes that restricted them from employing communicative approaches. Even if they did, they were ineffective because some students were just passive in group discussions while others communicated in their L1; so the lecturers had difficulty monitoring students during these discussions because of large numbers. The use of L1 during group discussions is consistent with Carless' (2004:642) and Lee's (2005:201) findings that students become dependent on their mother tongue during group discussions. One lecturer expressed the following:

> *"In most cases, in their group discussions, they will be communicating in Sesotho and when they see me approaching, they would switch to English. So, it's a bit challenging because ideas that you generate with your mother tongue become a challenge when you try to translate them to English because in most cases they do not come out as you had intended them to. So, it is always ideal for them to discuss in English which I cannot find possible" (LM5).*

However, I still believe that lecturers, as the classroom managers, can prohibit students from discussing in Sesotho in this case, ensuring that they divide their larger classes into halves so that they become manageable. For smaller classes, lecturers can make students sit in such a way as to see all groups simultaneously. Another finding from Li (2003:690) reveals that students avoid L2 during discussions because of their poor command of the target language. The seating arrangement that I think best suits discussions is the half-moon type because lecturers can have a full view of the whole class as well as interacting with them easily. It becomes difficult for lecturers to have a full view of students if they are seated in a traditional row arrangement because they do not have a full view of the whole classroom, which usually leads to students avoiding the target language or to some deciding to be passive during discussions.

5.4 Traditional approaches

Findings also reveal that lecturers employ traditional teaching methods in their classrooms. This was made evident by some lecturers who reported that large classes did not leave them with any choice but to lecture students. Two approaches were reported to be dominant by lecturers which are direct and grammar translation. Lecturers attributed their traditional approaches to students who avoided communicating in the target language during discussions, some of whom hiding behind others. This finding echoes Li's (2003:690) study that some teachers decided to use the methods or strategies that they were comfortable with to teach their students. They are obviously familiar with the banking concept or approach in which they become authoritarian figures in the classrooms. That is, their approach is teacher-centred, coupled with passive students in their learning.

Further revealed by the findings the lecturers using traditional teaching methods was the issue of large classes. The classrooms cramped with students restricted the lecturers from moving about in to reach students, the finding which corroborates Ekanjume-Ilongo's (2015:1160) observation that large classes prohibit lecturers from engaging actively with and knowing the needs of students. A language classroom should serve as an oasis for the development of students' communicative competence skills because students spend more time in the classroom than any other place. However, large classes constrain cultivation of an ambience, with students taking part in their learning. Therefore, Hornberger and Vaish (2008:308) argue that students will not be communicatively competent in the target language in an environment where there are no opportunities for total involvement with the language. This finding brings back my argument that lecturers should split their classes in halves so as to have sizeable classes. I think that it is the only solution that can allow interaction in the classroom. I agree with Hornberger and Vaish (2008:308) and Ekanjume-Ilongo

(2015:1162) that students who are not immersed in a language cannot be communicatively competent in English. Furthermore, students who are not adequately exposed to language will likely end up lacking necessary motivation to learn the language and thus develop anxiety. I also believe that students would shy away from speaking, fearing to make mistakes in the target language.

5.5 Communicative competence-related strategies that undergraduate students use in learning ESL

Discussions in this section are based on the following themes:

- Reading and writing extensively
- Communicating in the target language
- Seeking help from their lecturers.

5.5.1 Reading and writing extensively

The findings from students' interviews reveal that students read and write extensively to develop their communicative competence skills. Reading is one of the strategies that according to Khansir *et al.* (2021:740) can be a good strategy towards developing students' grammatical competence. This is because it enlarges their repertoire and writing skills. They can see how sentences are constructed and varied in different sources at their disposal. Furthermore, this learning strategy is supported by Nunan (2001:55) who views it as helping students to improve their intellectual capacity and the communicative process which is vital in learning a second language. This finding is however inconsistent with what one lecturer observed from his students. The lecturer revealed the following.

> *"…But if you give a student from a public school a book to read, they will read it cover-to-cover because they do not have televisions or computers, so they scrap of any detail from the book and that is why it is easier for them to construct correct sentences in English than their private school counterparts. So, my observation is that private school students are very poor grammatically because they are always busy with technology where they listen to stuff from their tablets and their written English is horrible as a result" (LM5).*

This observation implies that students who reportedly read extensively came from public and rural schools, which is why their grammar has been lauded as being much better than that of students from private schools. Students from private schools who have been amply exposed to spoken language should therefore immerse themselves in reading and writing to improve their writing skills. There is no use to speak the target language fluently butwrite poorly. What will happen to those journalism students who are going to write news article every day if their grammar is poor or those who will be writing press releases for their respective companies? The answer is that they will not make it in those fields if they are poor grammatically. The same question can be asked to those aspiring teachers. How will they teach their students to write if they are poor themselves grammatically? The answer is the same as above; they will be very bad teachers whose students will complain about them when they reach tertiary level like they are doing now. In order to improve their grammatical competence, Raja and Selvi (2011:44) and Khansir *et al.*(2021:740) offer that English language newspapers, magazines and books can help students to improve their competence in the target language. With the use of smart phones, nowadays students could access much resourceful information, which they would, otherwise, source from the institutional libraries.

Asked what they do to help students to improve their communicative competence in English, lecturers reported that they compel students to read extensively. Others further revealed taking their students to the library on some days to help them to improve their writing skills and motivation. One lecturer reported to have forced his students to read, thus revealing that:

> *"Most of my students are very lazy, let me rephrase, almost all of these students are lazy and other lecturers complain about their laziness when it comes to reading, and their writing is very poor as a result. So, what I normally do is that I give them a list of words and then I tell them to write an essay using those words. For instance, most students did not know necessary information about how Covid-19 came about. So, I gave them words such as quarantine, social distancing, Wuhan, shortness of breath and others. They had to go and do research on the pandemic and thereafter they were even able to bring things that I did not anticipate. This is the kind of help I provide them so that they can constantly write and perfect their writing skills" (LM11).*

This finding suggests that students should be urged to do their work. Also indispensable are parents by encouraging their students to read. However, I believe that lecturers, as quoted above, should help both students with no cultural capital and those with high cultural capital, the feature which would improve students' ZPD. Forcing them to read also scaffolds their learning because lecturers act as their mentors. This approach is therefore consistent with SCT that parents, erudite peers and mentors play a vital role in students' ZPD and mediation.

Lecturers can adopt Day and Bamford's (2002:137–141) ten reading principles. For lecturers with large classes, their students could frequent the library for reading (Day & Bamford, 2002:137; Day, 2015:296). Furthermore, Day (2015:297) outlines three strategies that can be used by students while reading extensively. The strategies are supervised, independent and blended extensive and intensive reading. Supervised reading, as suggested by Day (2015:297), does not necessarily happen at school or university, but it can happen at home. This suggestion is supported by Rio (2013:218) that students can do well under a mentor who can answer questions in instances where students might not understand. The suggestion resonates with SCT which states that mentors can help students to improve their ZPD through scaffolding. However, this strategy is applicable to students with no cultural capital because they might not have anyone to help them outside school. I believe that only students with proper cultural capital can benefit from this strategy because they have mentors, especially their parents, outside school.

The second strategy that students can use is independent extensive reading. Based on the finding revealed by students pertaining their reading, Day (2015:297) further propose that students can independently read extensively. This can be beneficial to both students with low and proper cultural capital. From what lecturers reported, students from rural areas seemed to be reading because they were not exposed to internet. Their extensive reading could be realised by their improved grammatical competence, thus enhancing students' grammatical competence. I therefore suggest that lecturers should encourage their students, especially those from private schools to read independently and extensively for grammatical competence as attested by the target lecturers.

The last direction is blended extensive and intensive reading. Under this strategy, Day (2015:297) suggests that internet is crucial for students' quest for extensive reading (ER). The internet, Day (ibid), can help students to read out of class. Even the students who cannot obtain help from home can access free internet from school and read alone before going home. However, the caveat is that ample exposure to the electronic social mediacanpollute students' writing skills because of increasing use of informal language, which has apparently made inroads into the formal written language.

Having discussed the directions that students can follow for their ER, I have decided to include the ten principles proposed by Day and Bamford's (2002:137–141). In my opinion, these principles can help students to read extensively so that they can develop their communicative competence skills. The ten principles are as follows.

1. The reading material is easy.
2. A variety of reading material on a wide range of topics is available.
3. Students choose what they want to read.
4. Students read as much as possible.
5. The purpose of reading is usually related to pleasure, informationand general understanding.
6. Reading is its own reward.
7. Reading speed is usually faster rather than slower.
8. Reading is individual and silent.
9. Lecturers orient and guide their students.
10. The lecturer is a role model of a reader.

These principles are further grouped and clarified by Macalister (2015:122) in Table 5.1 below as follows.

Table 5.1 Reading Principles

The reading dispositions	**Lecturers' activities**
- The purpose is usually related to pleasure, information, and general comprehension. - Reading is its own reward. - Reading speed is usually faster rather than slower. - Reading is individual and silent.	- Lecturers position and monitor their students. - The lecturer is a role model for the student reader.
The disposition of the material to be read	**Students' activities**
- The material to be read is easy. - A range of reading material on a wide collection of topics needs to be made available.	- Students select what they want to read. - Students read as much as they can.

5.5.2 Communicating in the target language

The findings highlight another strategy that students use towards developing communicative skills through communicating in the target language amongst themselves. Asked whether they communicate out of campus or in classes, most students reported to have tried to communicate during the classroom instructions because it is hard to communicate out of the classroom. It is highly likely that these students who strive to communicate in English during classroom instructions do not have any one to talk to at home because their parents might be illiterate. The only option for such students is to watch television or listen to English language programmes on the radio (Khansir *et al.*, 2021:740). However, one might wonder if there might be televisions or radios at home for them to watch or listen given their impoverished backgrounds. This further implies that these students should seek help from those with proper cultural capital so as to improve their English at school even if they cannot obtain help at home.

Those with high cultural capital, however, revealed that they communicate with their parents and their siblings at home because their home environments were mostly English. This finding confirms Bourdieu's (1986:17) view, as purported by Courage (1993:494), that students who are exposed to language out of school or 'home literacy', will experience no problems even if they are not monitored. Such students would thus be helped by their parents or siblings at home. Moreover, Courage (1993:495), Curry *et al*. (2016:70) and Sibanda & Kajee (2019:1) agree that students who are well drilled from home by their guardians or parents perform better than those who do not get help from home.

Nevertheless, the above finding is contrasted by lecturers who reported most students as unwilling to communicate in English during classroom activities. As one lecturer stated, *"in most cases in their group discussions, they will be communicating in Sesotho and when they see me approaching, they would switch to English…"* Other lecturers reported that students who are mostly not communicating in English seem to be afraid of speaking lest they could commit grammatical mistakes in the target language. Asked what they do to help students who seem to have a challenge communicating in the target language, some lecturers reported to have created an atmosphere in their classrooms, allowing students to freely speak and make mistakes without being laughed at by others. The finding concurs with Ekanjume-Ilongo's (2015:1162) assertion that lecturers ought to create a comfortable setting in their classrooms for all students to feel free to speak. The author further advises lecturers to prudently correct students' errors when they arise so that they do not scare them away.

5.5.3 Seeking help from their lecturers

Another strategy revealed by the findings is that students mostly sought help from their lecturers as a way of enhancing their communicative competence in English. Students also reportedlyconsulted their lecturers in order to understand language aspects. As Ortega (2002: 255) and Ekanjume-Ilongo (2015:1162) asserted, students who have good relations with their lecturers will be free to talk to them any time they need clarification. As such, lecturers acting as mentors will help students to improve their ZPD, especially those who do not have mentors outside school.

Moreover, I believe that lecturers should be available for students most of the time. I know that they will not always be available given their different commitments, but they should devise ways through which communication channels can be opened. I raise this point, especially on behalf of those students who do not have anyone to help from home because of their poor backgrounds. Some of them reported to be shy to seek help from their counterparts who probably learned from certain people outside school. So they seem to have put all their faith in their lecturers who do not judge them for their lack of knowledge. It is therefore vital for lecturers to help and motivate these students. Literature has shown variables such motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety as pivotal for language acquisition and learning with Brown (2006:153), suggesting that students' motivation improves if they feel loved by their lecturers thus lowering their anxiety. As mentioned by Krashen (1982:32), when motivation is high, the affective filter will be lowered, and the input easily conveyed to the LAD for smooth learning of the target language.

5.6 Discussions from classroom observations

This section discusses findings from classroom observations. Discussion of findings are based on the following themes.

- Traditional methodologies
- Mixture of communicative approaches

5.6.1 Traditional teaching methodologies

The findings from most of the classes that I observed reveal that lecturers employ traditional approaches in their classrooms. This finding corroborates both lecturers and students' revelations that traditional methodologies are employed in the language classroom. This finding contrasts with communicative theorists and interactionists such as Richards and Rodgers (2001:67), Ellis(2003:133), Nunan (2004:8), Richards (2006:30), Brown (2007:378), Willis and Willis

(2009:4), Ellis *et al.* (2019:365) and East (2021:35) who view language as the product of interaction. In this view, students should be taught in such a way as to enhance their communicative competence skills. However, this observation was due to several factors which seemed to make restrict lecturers from employing any other strategy than teacher-centred approaches. Also observed were large numbers of students in one classroom, thus constraining a lecturer from giving students any activities.

Big classes forced lecturers to lecture to the students. In one of the classes observed, the lecturer came to class and taught for 50 minutes and then went out. Students were just passive, some of whom were busy with their mobile phones thus paying no attention. The lecturers' focus such classes was mainly on grammatical aspects of language. This finding was corroborated by students who complained that their language was deteriorating because there was nothing done by their lecturers to help them to improve their language. This challenge of teaching large classes coheres with Ekanjume-Ilongo's (2015:1160) finding that lecturers are forced to resort to lecturing students because of many students. One lecturer revealed that,

> "*My classes are too big- not less than 200 in any given year. With this kind of class, how do you expect me to teach effectively to the satisfaction of students? I find it difficult to monitor them, or even assist them since I do not even know their needs. Most often, I do the talking because there is no way I can get all of them to talk. I don't even know most of them excerpt for the few that ones who are always at the front of the class and respond to questions from time to time. I have tried to use several techniques to see how I can solve this problem of class size, but my efforts have not been fruitful. If my class is divided into smaller groups of about 50, I will be able to interact with the students and even identify their specific needs. I can then be in a better position to address their individual needs".*

The above quote is congruent with what I observed in most of the classes with many students. However, I doubt that having a class of 50 students would have made the quoted lecturer's work easier because some lecturers could not reach each student in class that I observed with 45 students at most. Only a few students who sat at the front were usually the ones who received more attention from lecturers because they were mostly participating by answering questions. One lecturer tried to make students discuss, without any success because students discussed irrelevant things; thus the lecturer resorted to lecturing. This observation is consistent with Li's (2003:690), Carless (2004:642) and Lee's (2005:201) findings that most teachers used the lecture method because some students were scared to communicate in the target language while others were just passive and even communicated in L1. From these findings based on the literature, at first, one wondered whether those teachers monitored students during discussions. I have therefore observed that it was not easy for some lecturers to monitor discussions by moving around, especially in crowded classes. As a result, many of them discussed in Sesotho while others just discussed issues not pertinent to the task.

However, the issue of large classes according to Hornsby (2013:2) does not really imply that students will be deprived an opportunity to learn or do away with ensuring quality language acquisition and learning. This is because students reported having their own strategies for enhancing communicative competence skills. Hornsby's (ibid) view is therefore that students should apply those strategies that lecturers do not use in the classroom towards developing their communicativeskills because of large classes outside school and seek mediation from mentors or their peers in their learning. In my view, the challenge is that students who have no access to mentors outsideof school would have their learning opportunities eviscerated by large classes.

The findings further reveal that lecturers' use of traditional approaches even in classes with manageable number of students. I observed this phenomenon in some classes where lecturers mostly used a lecture method to explain some concepts, with having the whole lesson without engaging students. Some lecturers used a grammar translation method to teach English. This observation is consistent with what lecturers revealed in face-to-face interviews where they reported that they used Sesotho to clarify some language issues. However, this finding seemed to rub students the wrong way because they complained that their language was deteriorating because of the strategies used by their lecturers. The following comment by one student reports their attitudes towards traditional approaches.

> *"I am from an English language medium school where everything was done in English. Even ladies who were sweeping the school yard communicated with us in English. Our teachers never spoke Sesotho in class as they were mostly foreigners. We were greatly exposed; however, I feel like my English is declining because here we are taught in Sesotho and English. Furthermore, lecturers come to class, teach and then go out or they sometimes read for us and then leave" (SF50).*

I suspect that these are the students who were always on their mobile phones showing hardly any interest in the lecturer's presentation because of boredom with lacking interaction. Lecturers did not help the students at all so that they could pay attention to what was being said. I presume that this kind of attitude will not help students at all because I could see that some lecturers were teaching for exam, so if the students do not pay attention, it means that they might fail because some concepts that were being presented needed their attention. This observation prompted me to look into different types of lecturing that they could perhaps use to teach as well as interacting with students at the same time. Therefore, Lowman (1987) in Kaur (2011:9) outlines the main types of lectures that lecturers can adopt in their classrooms.

- Formal oral essay
- Expository lecture
- Provocative lecture
- Lecture discussion
- lecture recitation
- lecture laboratory
- lecture cycle

A formal oral essay entails a detailed presentation by the lecturer supported by information from a bulky body of knowledge which can come in the form of research studies, books as well as arguments that might support his suppositions. In this type of lecture, the lecturer can also write the content and then read it to students who will listen and then take notes. This method of lecture is similar to what I observed from some classes even though lecturers were not reading. However, I want to assume that students will still not pay attention in this kind of classes with minimal to no interaction at all. In an expository lecture, the lecturer still does most of the talking but still entertains questions from students. This type of lecture is not as formally prepared as in formal oral essays. I noticed that this was the kind of lecture that most lecturers employed in their classrooms. The findings from the observations that I conducted are heavily based on this type of lecture because this is where I saw most of the students busy with their mobile phones during classroom instruction.

Even though it is not that highly prepared for, the lecturers still came prepared. For instance, I observed one class where the lecturer was teaching ‘text cohesion’ from Halliday and Hasan’s (1976) theory of cohesion. The focus was on lexical cohesion which entails collocation and reiteration. What I realised is that students struggled a lot under this topic, and I believe that they could have understood better if the lecturer had provided them with more texts prior to class on lexical collocation for them to analyse alone before coming to class and then have a discussion with them in the next class (UKEssays, 2018). I also noticed that students could have understood better if the lecturer did not use the lecturer method. I am raising this point because the lecturer did not continue with the lesson because he had to answer countless questions from students who did not understand, but if another approach were used like I suggested above, I believe they could have understood.

A provocative lecture necessitates the provocation of students' thoughts regarding the topic under discussion. In this method, the lecturer challenges students' pre-existing knowledge on the subject matter and then helps them to customise a more intricate and assimilated viewpoint. One lecturer (LM 6) in one of the classes that I observed was teaching his students how to develop a paragraph and the definition of a sentence. So, he asked them what a sentence was, and students provided different answers all of which were wrong. He then constructed the following sentence: *soccer play boys during their spare time*. He asked the students if the answer was correct or wrong. I could only hear the roaring and murmuring because they wanted to answer but the problem was to express themselves in English. I observed that the lecturer gave them that sentence because he was soliciting answers. They kept murmuring amongst themselves and not providing a straight answer. I use the verb 'murmuring' because I could see their eagerness to answer but they were impeded by the language. They knew that the sentence was wrong, and they kept repeating that it was wrong, but they could not tell why it was wrong until the lecturer clarified it. What the lecturer was doing here was to test students' pre-existing knowledge of sentence definition because they were fresh from high school, and the lecturer's expectation was that they knew what a sentence was before forming a more intricate perception of a sentence in a paragraph. My view on this matter is that lecturers can have creative students if they keep helping them to think by intentionally provoking their thoughts. Such provocation could trigger the right hemisphere which is responsible for the synthetic, creative and spatial thinking, instinctive, divergent, rounded, parallel and appositional (Krashen, 1981:75; Danesi, 2003:28; Hammers & Blanc, 2004:136).

Another lecture method is lecture discussion approach. Under this approach, the lecturer introduces a concept for a few minutes and then demands students to ask questions. Questions from students stimulate discussion between the lecturer and students. However, discussions here are not in groups but they are led by the lecturer who is still the authority in the classroom. Nevertheless, students do most of the talking while the lecturer provides clarification. For instance, in one of the classes that I observed, the lecturer was teaching vocabulary and she had given students work alone before coming to class, so she was leading the discussion. In this instance, both the lecturer and students were asking each other questions, but students were the ones asking more while the lecturer provided clarification. I have therefore realised that even though this method is one type of lecture, it fosters discussions and students become lively. It also eviscerates the issue of students who hide behind others during group discussions. One thing that I realised was that the same class was taught by the same lecturer who taught them discourse analysis. This is the same class where students did not understand textual cohesion, but the approach that this other lecturer adopted stimulated their interaction. If the discourse analysis lecturer had employed the same lecture discussion method instead of the expository approach, students could have understood better.

Lecture recitation approach demands that lecturers ask students to read aloud what they have prepared before coming to class. This means that lecturers would have asked students to prepare something or a material that they can read, so that the lecturer can thereafter ask them questions. This is commensurate with Day and Bamford's (2002:137–141) suggestion that lecturers should guide students with their reading. So when students are told to prepare something to read in class, it enhances their individual reading skills because it is one of the strategies that they reported to have used to develop their communicative competence skills.Under a lecture laboratory method, students can watch or follow their own lectures as well as making observation. Kaur (2011:9) states that this approach is used in science or in studio art and writing classes. This is not a popular method, but I observed one lecturer in his advertising class where students were doing infomercials. Students were asked in the previous class to watch short lectures on infomercials that he had sent to them via Google classroom. The students were supposed to write their own infomercials and then add some creativity in them. The infomercials were purely done in English. By writing down their own infomercials, students can develop their writing skills because they cannot read an infomercial that is poorly written. Another point is that these infomercials compel students to read and produce their own text laced with creativity, resulting in their grammatical and discourse competencies in English language.

Lecture method, especially in the context of language teaching and in the context of this study seemed to create mixed feelings. This is because students who have been exposed to the target language throughout their high school years seemed to struggle with this method because they are used to interacting with their classmates as well as their teaching in the negotiation of meaning. So, when there is no interaction, they decide to interact with their phones because lecturers do not give them what they want. The problem, however, is that students are taught English to be communicatively competent. They should be assessed to see if they understood some concepts. For instance, I realised that most students encountered serious challenges in one discourse analysis class under collocation and reiteration topic, so how will students who decide to interact with their phones fare in an examination if others who were listening were that challenged? I do not think they will pass if they do not listen. Another question that one might ask is if what they were doing was their fault or their lecturer's fault for not engaging them? The answer here given my observations and students' as well as lecturers' interviews is two-fold. This is because some classes were too large for any kind of interactions or activities. As a result, lecturers had to resort to lecturing. Other students could not cope with group discussions amongst themselves; rather they hid behind others during discussions as well as discussing in Sesotho or irrelevant things.

The issues prompted lecturers to use a lecture method because there were other topics to cover so that they could finish the syllabus. However, some lecturers were just interested in teaching students for examination, overlooking development of abilities. Other lecturers, despite having manageable classes, still used a lecture method for teaching. Given the above types, it is worth adopting a discussion-related method for students' involvement in their learning. The case in point is a provocative lecture or a lecture discussion to interact with students.

5.7 Mixture of communicative approaches

5.7.1 Role plays and classroom discussions

Lecturers employed many communicative and interactive approaches for developing students' communicative competence skills. Some lecturers as in (LM2) employed interactive strategies decided to let students to choose one of their classmates to lead them in their discussion on the topic titled '*the use of technology in relation to connectivism theory in the English language classroom in the context of Lesotho high schools (Grade 11) can help learners to learn better'*. Before assigning this task, the lecturer had introduced the teaching theories first to his student teachers at third year. This finding echoes Endarto's (2017:2) suggestion that lecturers can assign a context in daily lives to students after completing the theory of instruction. This suggestion is substantiated by Sakui (2004:160) whose finding reveals that "most teachers thought they needed to teach grammar before giving learners opportunities to use and apply the target linguistic forms in communicative tasks". They can therefore pair students and then assign them tasks with what they have learned to engage them in dialogues in the classroom. By practising using the target language in a given context, theycanrealise acquired knowledge. Furthermore, lecturers should design classroom activities in the context of the real world as much as possible so that students can be exposed to real-life conversations (Suemith, 2011:7; Ansah & Debrah, 2022:36). Zúñiga (2016:15) thus argues that classroom activities should be real so that students' four skills can be enhanced.

In this instance, one student played the role of a lecturer who asked questions to fellow classmates. The class was therefore engaged in a dialogue in which students were exposed to real-life conversations. This suggests that students were free to commit mistakes knowing that no one would correct them because the lecturer was out of the picture; students were in charge of their own learning. This kind of interaction is also supported Richards (2007:18) who asserts that information gap arises due to "the fact that in real communication people normally communicate in order to get information they do not possess". According to Larsen-Freeman (2000:68), Michell and Sharpe (2005:48), Lestari and Sridatun (2020:115) and Ismailli and Bajrami (2016:613), an information gap appears to be favourable for those attempting to interact in their classrooms.

It is a kind of action which necessitates students to utilise the language to interchange some information as well as getting their meaning across. Students' focus is taken away in these information gap activities from the grammatical form to meaning (Michell & Sharpe, 2005:48). That is, it requires students to complete a task through the use of the target language while paying attention to meaning instead of the structure of language, and so students in this case learn mostly by doing. This suggests that students must be given activities that are slightly higher than their current level in order to practice what they have acquired for authentic communication to happen. However, tasks should be carefully selected for students not to be cognitively overloaded (de Jong, 2010:105; Nawal, 2018:387). This brings up the element of ZPD wherein students are given individualised support by lecturers and their capable peers through scaffolding activities in order for them to perform tasks (Raymond, 2000:176; Nguyen, 2022:17).As the SCT theory stipulates, students should be directed and supported through learning activities that function as interactive conduits leading them to the next level (Van Der Stuyf, 2002:7).

During the students' discussions, I observed their interaction using Ur's (1996:120) principles of a speaking activity. The principles are as follows:

- students talk a lot
- participation is even
- motivation is high
- Language is of an acceptable level.

The above principles suggest that lecturers can help students to achieve communicative competence in English language. This is because when students communicate a lot amongst themselves in the target language, both their discourse and strategic competencies can be enhanced (Lamotey &

Debrah-Amofah, 2021:14). This was the case with this class because students actively talked discussing the topic at hand, hence developing confidence. Furthermore, their participation was even because they were not forced to speak, but they spoke voluntarily on the matter that affected their future as teachers. I believe that students' participation is important because the lecturer can identify students' weaknesses and help them to improve their linguistic capability. With the motivation probably increasing because of unconscious learning Krashen(1982:16), even unprepared students could catch-up because of the discussions, and seemed motivated because the topic being discussed was preparing them for teaching practice in the next academic year. On this basis, they could apply technology better in their classroom, discussing spontaneously and using target language appropriate for their level as aspiring English language teachers.

5.7.2 Oral presentations

During classroom presentations, I observed students' articulations basing myself on seven Halliday's (1978:33)language functionssteps which are instrumental, regulatory, interactional, personal, heuristic, imaginative and representational functions. Instrumental function entails the speaker's use of language to get what they need while regulatory function means that speakers use language to control how others behave. Regarding both instrumental and regulatory functions of language, it was observed during classroom oral presentations that students used the language that attracted both their lecturers and classmates to listen to their presentations attentively. This was made evident by students who relied on their slides, drew the audience attention and subconsciously controlled them. For instance, one group used language and graphics to present their case and were applauded by the audience and their lecturer. While their content might be wanting, they appeared to have mesmerised their audience by attracting their attention and controlling behaviour. This finding confirms Nguyen's (2019:5) views that the scaffolding strategies from lecturers can help students to acquaint themselves with text and discourse structures in educational genres and other quotidian life fields. Furthermore, Reingold *et al.* (2008:141), Nguyen (2019:6) and Nurhajati (2020:93) opine that using different scaffolding techniques in the classroom improves students' critical thinking and their technical skills. For instance, I believe that the use of projected slides to teach students will develop their technical and creative skills. The use of slides by students during presentations demonstrated their enhanced technical acumen and creativity through graphics and text, hence enthralling and sustaining the audience attention, with both hemispheres balanced in language teaching and learning.

As mentioned earlier, interactional function sees language as fostering interaction with othersand personal function referring to the free expression of feelings and views (Ahamad *et al*., 2019:60). Under both interactional and personal functions, some students were observed to create rapport with their audience, as well as their lecturers by engaging them during presentations. For instance, one student who seemed confident kept using the false starts such as *"you know what I mean, you get me right*?"throughout her presentation and seemed to create and interaction between her group and the audience. This creation of interaction is commensurate with Nurhajati (2020:93) that students whose critical thinking is enhanced can easily question, reason, describe as well as explore perspectives using language. The false starts in the above example demonstrate the student's ability to convince the audience of seeing things exactly as she saw them.

Additionally, heuristic functions means that language can be used to explore and to discover things surrounding the speakers. Under the heuristic function, students seemed to use language to present things that they have discovered on their own during their research on the topic that they presented. This point seems to substantiate Haneda (2006:337) and Rowsell and Pahl (2015:1) that it is imperative that students draw on their lexicon of the scaffolding and mediation activities cultivated outside of the classroom. As such, students are helped by their mentors or capable peers outside school to explore and discover things around them. I was of the view that students with low cultural capital might struggle in this regard, but it was observed that students with high cultural capital seemed to have helped those without cultural capital in their groups since presentations were done in groups. The imaginative function entails the expression of the speaker's inventive thoughts (Thwaite, 2019:45). Lastly, representational function refers to one's use of language to communicate what they know or to inform others on a particular issue on a particular issue (Nikian *et al*., 2016:4). Under an imaginative function, only students who used slides were more inventive using graphics to amplify text to communicate their thoughts.

Finally, most students used representational function to inform their audiences about what their topic. For instance, script writing students seemed draw on this function because they were supposed to develop a character in their stories. They had to inform their lecturer about character development in the story and the problems encountered by such a character and ways of resolving such challenges. However, most students in this class seemed focused more on the function of language than form. That is, they seemed eager to achieve their communicative goals which was to pass the message more than correct language (Fontaine, 2013:102; Endarto, 2017:3). The lecturer appeared not bothered by the grammatical mistakes but interested in the message. He did not correct students at all, but he would just nod allowing students to express themselves freely. This focus on meaning is consistent with Halliday's (1975) systemic functional linguistics which stipulates that language should be viewed as a social semiotic system. This notion emphasises meaning rather than form (Almurashi, 2016:75; Alaei1 & Ahangari, 2016:205). Furthermore, Krashen and Terrell (1998:20) argue that errors which do not interfere with communication should be corrected, but they will be dealt with later during the delivery of comprehensive input.

5.8 Summary

The findings from face-to-face interviews and focus groups discussions with students have been discussed in this chapter. The chapter has also presented the themes according to each research question of the study. Further, such themes have been linked to the theory and the reviewed literature underlying of the study. The following chapter presents the conclusions and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.0 Introduction

This chapter is divided into five sections. The first section provides the conclusions of the study. These are based on the findings that have been presented in the previous chapter. The second section presents the recommendations of the study. The third section describes the contribution of the study while the fourth explains the limitations of the study and the fifth section outlines issues for further research. The chapter ends with a summary.The following research questions were therefore answered by the study:

- What challenges do English as second language undergraduate students encounter in the development of communicative competence skills?
- What communicative competence-related strategies do undergraduate students use in learning ESL?
- What communicative competence-related strategies do ESL lecturers employ in their classroom?

6.1 Conclusions

The conclusions of this study are derived from the main findings of the study, as outlined blow.These include challenges facing English-second language students in developing communicative competence skills; the communicative competence-related strategies used by undergraduate students in learning ESL; and communicative competence-related strategies employed by ESL lecturers in their classrooms.

6.1.1 Conclusions from the main findings on the challenges that English as a second language students encounter in the development of their communicative competence skills

As outlined in Chapter Five, the findings of the study regarding the first objective on students'lack of exposure towards developing their communicative competence skills, students havereportedlyfearedto communicate with others in the target language due to lack of confidence. Alsonotable has been the lecturers' choice of communicative teaching strategies aimed at enhancing students' communicative competence. One of the challenges for large classes has been the lecturers' constrained use of communicative strategies, coupled with a lecture method which apparently restricted students ‘exposure to language. As Al-Zoubi’s (2018:160) stated, comprehensive exposure to the language can ameliorate students’ communicative competence in English. Further noted is that many students communicated in Sesotho during group discussions, some of whom just passive, necessitating thelecturers’resort to traditional teaching strategies. Therefore, such traditional teaching methods, lacking in communicative strategies such as lecturing and question and answer, appeared to aggravate students’ challenges in developing their communicative competence skills. My conclusion therefore is that a lecturer induced approach has been a challenge facing students. Added is the observation that, despite being exposed to speaking practices, some students have had difficulty communicating in the target language.

With many students having limited English-speaking environments as in home, motivation and encouragement, their English communicative incompetence has been found to surface, also due to anxiety. Moreover, such limited or lack of intervention, has reportedly affected their overall performance at school. Bourdieu’s (1986:17) assertion could be evoked whereby students with lower cultural capital have been noted for low scores than those with higher cultural capital. In this view, students from poor backgrounds hardly obtain necessary help, thus facing language challenges.

Another finding is students’ deficiencies in grammar as the other challenge that they encounter in acquiring communicative competence. This challenge is associated with electronic social media to which students are amply exposed. Even asked about the kind of intervention strategies they employ to address these grammar deficiencies, some lecturers seemed sceptical. Surprisingly, lecturers still used traditional teaching methods as interventional strategies to enhance students’grammatical competence, implying that lecturers had challenges for employing communicative teaching strategies towards students’ communicative competence skills. The conclusion is that students’ exposure to social media, coupled with some lecturers’ inability to implement appropriate communicative strategies when teaching for enhancing students’ communicative competence, is a barrier.

6.1.2 Conclusions from the main findings on the communicative competence-related strategies that undergraduate students use in learning ESL

Findings regarding the second objective revealed that students read and write extensively to develop their communicative competence skills. Reading is one of the strategies that according to Khansir *et al.* (2021:740) can be a good strategy towards the development of students’ grammatical competence. Students apparently consider reading extensively to be enhancing their grammatical competence anddeveloping their discourse and socio-linguistic competencies. For the students, communicating in the target language is a good strategy that ameliorates their communicative competence. However, the students from rural areas appeared to be struggling to communicate in the target language due to their lack of exposure to the language, low cultural capital and limited support outside school, as observed above. Therefore, it could be concluded that extensive reading can help students, including those with low cultural capital and those without any off-school support, to develop their communicative competence.

6.1.3 Conclusions from the main findings on the communicative competence-related strategies employed by ESL lecturers in their classrooms

The findings in this objective revealed that lecturers mostly employed traditional teaching strategies. Interaction in these methods such as lecturing through translanguaging or direct method appeared to be minimal. It was also observed that lecturers who employed this method were mostly talking to passive students. Therefore, most students appeared uninterested in those classrooms. This gave the impression that students' communicative competence skills may not be enhanced. Furthermore, translanguaging seemed to be a contentious practice for two reasons. Firstly, students from private schools appeared to express their dislike of the approach, considering the methodisrestricting their competence in English, and new linguistic structures mostly defined in Sesotho. However, students from rural areas seemed to enjoy the strategy because concepts were explained in their own language, thus boosting their understanding in the classroom. Translanguaging has been found to help weaker students to understand in class, albeit compromising their communicative competence in English. My conclusion is that translanguaging does not enhance students' communicative competence; rather it aids understanding of the concepts. Therefore, understanding does not translate into students' increased competence in the target language.

The lecturers further appeared to employ communicative strategies such role plays, discussions and oral presentations in their classrooms. However, it was observed that lecturers who employed communicative strategies seemed comfortable with the discussion method. The method appeared to encourage interactions amongst students, further boosting their morale. Even sporadic role plays seemed to foster interaction between students, suggesting that students enjoyed themselves. Also observed are some lecturers who appeared unfamiliar with a discussion method in their classrooms, the feature which apparently encouraged most students to discuss in Sesotho. It could thus be concluded that communicative strategies enhance students' communicative competence skills; used more often in the classroom such strategies expose students to the target language, that is, student-centredness and interaction amongst themselves.

6.2 Recommendations

The recommendations below are made in relation to the findings of the study and other studies done on the learning and acquisition of communicative competence.

With some lecturers apparently struggling with the implementation of communicative strategies such as a discussion method, it is recommended that lecturers, especially those who are not teachers by profession, should be trained on pedagogical methods so as to better employ such strategies for enhancing students' development of communicative competence skills. Furthermore, lecturers should be helped with workshops on how to facilitate students' own learning rather than adopting lecturer-centred classrooms where information is deposited into students' mind and then withdrawn through examination as stipulated by Freire(2014:73). The study has suggested a number of teaching strategies that lecturers can employ, so that students can be engaged in their own learning. Even those who use a lecture method under the circumstances beyond their control, the study has provided ways of employing a lecture method in Chapter Five Section 5.5.5. Lecturers could also motivate and encourage students to learn, since motivation has reportedly been lacking in them. I believe that they can spare some minutes to understand students' feelings regarding their learning.

Moreover, it is recommended that high school teachers be equipped with communicative language teaching skills mentioned in chapter two, so that students can be adequately exposed to language for ease of progression to tertiary level. This is because most lecturers complained that the kind of students that they receive from high school are communicatively incompetent in English. Students further corroborated what their lecturers revealed by agreeing that they were not exposed to English because they were taught for final examinations. As noted earlier, this finding resonates with Ekanjume-Ilongo (2015:1162)that students are taught for examinations and not to be communicatively competent in English. Given the above findings, the study also recommends that the English language curriculum developers should design the syllabus in such way as to arouse creative thinking and more interactive activities among students. In this way, the focus would be on teaching students towards competency rather than on passing examinations.

Departments within the institutions should strive towards limiting a number of students per class. This is because most lecturers who had a potential to engage students through activities could not because of the swelling classes. Lecturers therefore cannot use scaffolding activities to enhance students' communicative competence skills. I believe that big classes can be divided into two so that lecturers can have a manageable class to teach. It is important to also review the admission criteria, especially for students who major or in English. This can help student teachers to be good English language teachers who can develop learners' communicative competence skills for transition from high school to tertiary in future.

Moreover, it is recommended that students, with inadequate exposure to English from high schools and those from poor backgrounds should constantly consult their lecturers and more capable classmates for help. Furthermore, reading extensively has been shown to be an effective strategy towards the enhancement of communicative competence in the target language, so the study has provided ways through which students can follow when reading in Chapter Five Section 5.4.1. They can also communicate in English amongst themselves and refrain from discussing in Sesotho as observed in many classes. All the institutions should have a centre for applied English studies dealing with the students' linguistic and communicative competence, so that students can be helped with their English assignments or in instances where they encounter challenges with regard to the development of communicative competence.Writing centres can also be important interventive strategies especially for students who are amply exposed to social media because the study found that they are grammatically incompetent. Finally, students with low cultural capital can download videos from school for free because it was observed that there was a free Wi-Fi connection in all the institutions that participated in the study. Watching and practising such videos, even if away from school or at home where there is no one to help them, such students could improve.

6.3 Contributions of the study

The aim of this study was to find out the kind of challenges that students encountered towards the development of their communicative competence skills, and to provide practical insights into how these challenges can be surmounted. Therefore, the study provided several ways through which lecturers can develop students' communicative competence. It was observed that lecturers relied heavily on the lecture method to teach students, and this strategy appeared to deprive students' exposure to the language and interaction amongst themselves. I have therefore provided types of lecture methods which encourage interaction that lecturers can employ in their classrooms. The study has also provided lecturers as well as teachers with the type of activities that they can use which trigger both the left and the right hemispheres. Literature seems to suggest that teachers unwittingly tend to focus on the left hemisphere, which is believed to be the language centre, but it has been found that the right hemisphere actually serves as an important starting point for innovative tasks because of its anatomical edifice (Danesi, 2003:45). Consequently, activities that engage both the hemispheres have been outlined. The Ministry of Education and Training could benefit from this study when training English language teachers, especially on how best to employ communicative strategies such the communicative language teaching, task-based language teaching and scenario-based approaches in the classroom.

6.4 Limitations of the study

Research studies have their own limitations and this one was not an exception. As an interpretivist researcher conducting qualitative research, I could not generalise the findings of this study because only three institutions participated in it, so it might have inadvertently been biased and influenced the findings. I tried as much as possible to ensure quality and observe ethics during data collection and interpretation of findings, but it is still highly likely that because of the subjective nature of constructivism, my idiosyncratic perspective have been prejudiced

Furthermore, I was unable to observe some classes twice because students were not physically coming to classes due to the Covid-19 pandemic, so some lecturers allowed me to observe their students in their classroom environments.Financial constraints also proved to be a challenge for my planned return to one of the target institutions. As such, some interviews were cancelled. I had to arrange for meetings with other lecturers, but some of them who were mostly experienced decided to pull out of the study, and I therefore hadtoobserve some lecturers who seemed less experienced, and I might have missed on important issues especially from the experienced lecturers who pulled out.

6.5 Suggestions for further research

While there is vast international literature on the teaching and learning as well as on acquisition of communicative competence in English, there seems to be lack of or limited research on this area in Lesotho. Therefore, there is an apparent need for further research, thus taking over from this one on the impact of communicative language teaching and language exposure on high school students. It is believed that any such research could help to find out any trajectories involved in students' transition from high school to tertiary. In my view, the notion of communicative language teaching has been under-researched in Lesotho. Such dearth has surfaced despite potential significance of the approach to developing students' communicative competence in English from high school to university or college. Moreover, translanguaging, a strategy that can be used to enhance students' communicative competence skills, should be explored. Noting a controversy in studies reviewed on the phenomenon, further research could help to unravel whether and the extent to which students' understanding of concepts could improve their proficiency. It can be helpful if this topic is investigated in the context of Lesotho because of being part of the Lesotho' language ecology. In particular, I believe that further research, as in action research, could shed more light on the impact of both communicating language teaching and translanguaging in the development of students' communicative competence skills from high school to tertiary.

6.6 Summary

Chapter Six has presented the conclusions and recommendations of this study. The conclusions have been drawn on the main findings of the study. Similarly, the recommendations of the study have drawn on the conclusions. Finally, the study has suggested some areas for future research, particularly on communicative language teaching and its impact on students' communicative competence in English.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A:Lecturers' questions

1. Are you content about the teaching approaches in the language classroom at the university level in the context of Lesotho? Elaborate why?
2. What kind of teaching approach do you favour in your classroom? Elaborate why?
3. How would you describe the students' reactions and how they feel towards that teaching approach adopted? Elaborate why?
4. How energetic are they(students) in the classroom?
5. Are students free to express themselves during interactions or they are not free to speak? Elaborate why?
6. What kind of teaching approaches buoy up students to interact in the target language in your opinion?
7. Do you employ communicative language teaching approach (CLT) in your classroom?
8. How often do you use English language your classroom? Elaborate why?
9. Do you allow your students to communicate in their mother tongue? Elaborate why?
10. What kind of challenges or impediments do you usually encounter with your students when you only use the TL? Elaborate why?
11. Are you familiar with the term translanguaging? If yes, how often do you employ translanguaging and why?
12. What type of errors do your students often make when they reply to you in the target language?
13. What causes such errors in your opinion?
14. When do you correct such errors? Elaborate why?

15. What strategy do you use to help your students express themselves in class? Elaborate why?

16. How is their reaction to that strategy?

17. Is there anything that you can add that might not have been addressed in the interview regarding language English language teaching?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME

APPENDIX B: Students' questions.

1. How do you perceive the importance English Language in Lesotho?
2. Are you satisfied with how English is taught at both secondary and tertiary level? Elaborate why?
3. How motivated are you to learn English? Please explain why?
4. Is your motivation to learn English intrinsic or extrinsic? Elaborate why?
5. Does your background have any impact on your competence in English? Elaborate why?
6. How competent are you in English? Provide reasons.
7. How active are you in group discussions or role plays in the classroom?
8. How often do you discuss in English amongst yourselves?
9. Is there a difference between a local lecturer and a foreign English language lecturer? Why?
10. What kind of challenges to you encounter in learning English language?
11. What strategies do you employ to develop your English?
12. Do you prefer to be taught the target language in your language? Explain why?
13. Do you get any assistance from your lecturers with regard to your learning?
14. Do your lecturers give you activities to do in an English language classroom?
15. How often are you given such activities?
16. Do you enjoy them? Explain why?
17. Do those activities improve your English
18. How often do you become anxious when speaking English? Explain why?
19. Do you ever feel 'anxious' especial during presentations in class?

20. Do you have someone at home to help you with your work in cases where you are given assignments?
21 Do you ever get any help from your classmates?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME

APPENDIX C: Classroom observation sheet

Date:……………………………….. Module: …………………………

Start time: ……………………………Year: ……………………………

End time: ………………………………….Topic: …………………………..

Description of the lesson/class: …………

BEHAVIOUR	PARTICIPANTS	DIRECT QUOTES	OBSERVER'S INTERPRETATION
Interaction with lecturer			
Interaction with other students			
Lecturer's role	LAF1		
Students' reaction			
Post observation			

APPENDIX D: An exemplar of one of the observed classrooms' students' profiles (n=20)

The labels of students, SOf and SOm stand for students observed for both females and males respectively.

Respondents' Labels	Gender	Age Range (in years)	Home Language
SOf	F	17-25	Sesotho
SOf	F	20-25	Sesotho
SOf	F	>25	Sesotho
SOf	F	18-25	Sesotho
SOf	F	20-25	Sesotho
SOf	F	18-25	Sesotho
SOm	M	>25	Sesotho
SOm	M	17-25	Sesotho
SOm	M	22-25	Sesotho
SOm	M	20-25	Sesotho

SOf	F	19-25	Sesotho
SOf	F	>25	Sesotho
SOf	F	18-27	Sesotho
SOf	F	20-25	Sesotho
SOf	F	22-25	Sesotho
SOf	F	>25	Sesotho
SOf	F	22-25	Sesotho
SOf	F	19-25	Sesotho
SOf	F	17-25	Sesotho
SOf	F	<25	Sesotho

APPENDIX E:Participants' information sheet

Title: **EXPLORING THE CHALLENGES ENCOUNTERED BY ENGLISH AS SECOND LANGUAGE (ESL) UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE SKILLS: A CASE OF THREE TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS IN LESOTHO.**

Dear ProspectiveParticipant

My name is Elliot Sekoai Nkhi and I am doing research with Dr. Thembeka Shange, a senior lecturer in the Department of English Studies towards a PhD at the University of South Africa. We are inviting you to participate in a study entitled **EXPLORING THE CHALLENGES ENCOUNTERED BY ENGLISH AS SECOND LANGUAGE (ESL) UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE SKILLS: A CASE OF THREE TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS IN LESOTHO.**

WHAT IS THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY?

I am conducting this research in order to explore the challenges that undergraduate university students encounter in the development of their communicative competence skills. Its aim will also be to find out the cause of such challenges, and how they can be surmounted in order for students to be communicatively competent in the target language.

WHY AM I BEING INVITED TO PARTICIPATE?

I chose you to participate in this study because you are relevant. This means that you can help me with the data that the study intends to find because you are the students of English language, and you have been taught by different lecturers since first year. I got your contact details from your lecturer because she believed that you were the right people to help me with the questions that the study intends to answer. This is because you have done different English modules for a number of years. If you accept my proposal, you will be participating in a group of ten students that I have selected from your institution.

WHAT IS THE NATURE OF MY PARTICIPATION IN THIS STUDY?

Your role will be to answer questions that you will be comfortable with regarding the above-mentioned tittle of the study. The study will involve the use of audio recording that will allow the researcher to listen properly for information that they might have missed during the focus group discussions. I will ask open ended questions which will allow you to elaborate your answers however you wish to do. This will be very helpful to the researcher because your experiences and opinions will greatly help the researcher when interpreting and analysing the data. The duration of the discussion will be 60 minutes maximum.

CAN I WITHDRAW FROM THIS STUDY EVEN AFTER HAVING AGREED TO PARTICIPATE?

Participating 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 an 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.

WHAT ARE THE POTENTIAL BENEFITS OF TAKING PART IN THIS STUDY?

This study hopes to encourage English teachers and lecturers, ESL students and curriculum planners in Lesotho to reflect on the present teaching methods used in the English language classroom with a view to fuse communicative approaches that may enhance students' communication skills. The findings of this research may also offer the Ministry of Education and Training (MoET) and the policy makers in Lesotho an exhaustive understanding of English language learning and teaching at tertiary level.

ARE THERE ANY NEGATIVE CONSEQUENCES FOR ME IF I PARTICIPATE IN THE RESEARCH PROJECT?

There will be no risk or harm to you as the participant during the course of this study. As it has been stated above, you will be free to pull out should there be any case of discomfort or inconvenience.

WILL THE INFORMATION THAT I CONVEY TO THE RESEARCHER AND MY IDENTITY BE KEPT CONFIDENTIAL?

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 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 Review 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 also be used for other purposes, such as a research report, journal articles and/or conference proceedings. In a case where the report of this study is submitted for publication, you will not be identifiable in such a report.

HOW WILL THE RESEARCHER(S) PROTECT THE SECURITY OF DATA?

Hard copies of your answers will be stored by the researcher for a period of five years in a locked cupboard/filing cabinet in his place of residence 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.

WILL I RECEIVE PAYMENT OR ANY INCENTIVES FOR PARTICIPATING IN THIS STUDY?

There will be no reward for your participation in this study because the researcher is self sponsored. You will not incur any costs because I will be coming to your institutions.

HAS THE STUDY RECEIVED ETHICS APPROVAL

This study has received a written approval from the College Research Ethics Review Committee of the Unisa. A copy of the approval letter can be obtained once the study is approved by the CREC.

HOW WILL I BE INFORMED OF THE FINDINGS/RESULTS OF THE RESEARCH?

If you would like to be informed of the final research findings, please contact the principal investigator Mr. Elliot Sekoai Nkhi on telephone number +266 59086314, or email address 10260307@mylife.unisa.ac.za.The findings are accessible after completion of the study for five years. Should you require any further information or want to contact the researcher about any aspect of this study, please contact: Mr. Elliot Nkhi on +266 59086314, or email address :10260307@mylife.unisa.ac.za.

Should you have concerns about the way in which the research has been conducted, you may contact the main supervisor Dr TC Shange: office number 0124296954 email address ezengetc@unisa.ac.za. Alternatively, contact the research ethics chairperson of the College Research Ethics Committee, Professor Khan, e-mail address: khankb@unisa.ac.za.

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet and for participating in this study.

Thank you.

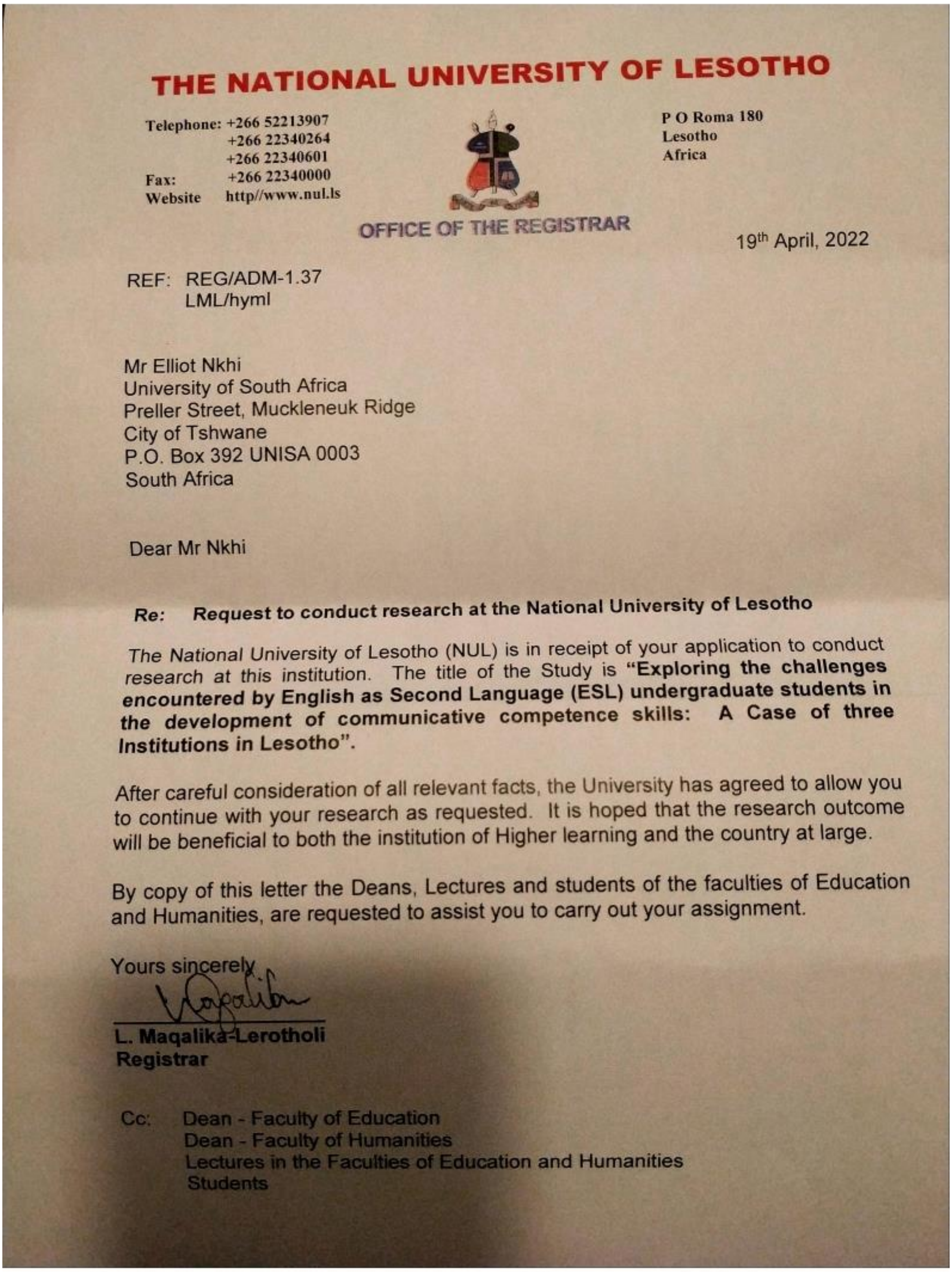
Kind regards

ElliotSekoaiNkhi

Researcher

APPENDIX F: Picture analysed by students in classroom observation 12

APPENDIX G: Exemplar of institution's consent letter



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Website http//www.nul.ls

P O Roma 180
Lesotho
Africa

OFFICE OF THE REGISTRAR

19th April, 2022

REF: REG/ADM-1.37
LML/hyml

Mr Elliot Nkhi
University of South Africa
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge
City of Tshwane
P.O. Box 392 UNISA 0003
South Africa

Dear Mr Nkhi

***Re:* Request to conduct research at the National University of Lesotho**

The National University of Lesotho (NUL) is in receipt of your application to conduct research at this institution. The title of the Study is **"Exploring the challenges encountered by English as Second Language (ESL) undergraduate students in the development of communicative competence skills: A Case of three Institutions in Lesotho".**

After careful consideration of all relevant facts, the University has agreed to allow you to continue with your research as requested. It is hoped that the research outcome will be beneficial to both the institution of Higher learning and the country at large.

By copy of this letter the Deans, Lectures and students of the faculties of Education and Humanities, are requested to assist you to carry out your assignment.

Yours sincerely

L. Maqalika-Lerotholi
Registrar

Cc: Dean - Faculty of Education
Dean - Faculty of Humanities
Lectures in the Faculties of Education and Humanities
Students

APPENDIX H: Exemplar of rubricused in classroom observation 14

Name: ____ Date: 2021
Score: ____/60

TRAIT	**3**	**2**	**1**	**0**
Non-verbal skills				
Eye contact	Holds attention of the audience with use of direct contact, seldom looking at notes	Consistent use of direct eye contact, refers to notes	Displayed minimal eye contact with audience, while reading mostly from the notes	No eye contact, dependent on notes
Body language	Movements fluid and help the audience visualise	Made movements or gestures that enhance articulation	Very little movements or descriptive gestures	No movements or gestures
Poise	Student displays relaxed, self-confident nature about self, with no mistakes	Makes minor mistakes and recovers quickly and displays confidence	Displays mild tension; has trouble recovering from mistakes	Tension and nervousness is obvious; has trouble recovering from mistakes

Comments

Verbal Skills	3	2	1	0
Enthusiasm	Demonstrate strong, positive feeling about the topic	Occasionally shows positive feelings about the topic	Shows negative feeling about the topic	Shows absolutely no interest in the topic
Elocution	Student uses clear voice and correct, precise pronunciation of terms so that the audience can	Student’s voice is clear. Pronounces most words correctly. Most audience	Low voice. Poor pronunciation most of the time, audience has	Low voice. Student mumbles, poor pronunciation of terms.

	hear good English	members can hear.	difficulty hearing the presentation	

Comments

Content Delivery	10	6	4	0
Subject knowledge	Students demonstrate full knowledge by answering all questions with clear explanations and elaboration	Student is at ease with expected answers to all questions, without elaboration	Student is uncomfortable with information and is able to answer only rudimentary questions	Student does not have grasp of information; student cannot answer questions about the subject
Organisation	Present the information in a logical and coherent manner, interesting sequence which the audience can follow	Student presents information in logical sequence for the audience to follow with minimal mistakes	Audience has difficulty following presentation because, seems confused and unsure of much information	Audience cannot understand the presentation because of poor sequence or arrangements of information
Mechanics	Presentation has no misspellings or grammatical errors	Presentation has minimal misspellings or grammatical errors	Presentation has a lot of grammatical errors	Poor grammar and use of words
Reference	Well researched, clear examples provided	Good research demonstrated with minimal mistakes	Not well referenced and no clear reference provided to the audience	No research shown, no reference provided

Content Delivery	5	3	2	0

Visual aid	Excellent slide design. Relevant pictures, video, audio	Good slide design and arrangement. Relevant pictures. Less mistakes	Poor slide design with a lot of mistakes, pictures, audio, video used not clear	Poor slide design, poor arrangement of slides, points not clear

Comments

Debate grading rubric

This house believes that the electoral system in Lesotho must be changed

Criteria	**10-7**	**6-5**	**4-3**	**2-0**	**Grade:**
1. Organization & Clarity: Main arguments and responses are outlined in a clear and orderly way.	Completely clear and orderly presentation	Mostly clear and orderly in all parts	Clear in some parts but not overall	Unclear and disorganized throughout	
2. Use of Argument: Reasons are given to support the resolution	Very strong and persuasive arguments given throughout	Many good arguments given, with only minor problems	Some decent arguments, but some significant problems	Few or no real arguments given, or all arguments given had significant problems	
3. Use of cross-examination and rebuttal: Identification of weakness in Negative team's arguments and ability to defend itself against attack.	Excellent cross-exam and defense against Negative team's objections	Good cross-exam and rebuttals, with only minor slip-ups	Decent cross-exam and/or rebuttals, but with some significant problems	Poor cross-exam or rebuttals, failure to point out problems in Negative team's position or failure to defend itself against attack.	

4. Presentation Style: Tone of voice, clarity of expression, precision of arguments all contribute to keeping audience's attention and persuading them of the team's case.	All style features were used convincingly	Most style features were used convincingly	Few style features were used convincingly	Very few style features were used, none of them convincingly	
5. Support with Facts	Uses many facts that support a topic	Uses some facts that support a topic	Uses few facts that support a topic	Does not use facts that support a topic	
6. Persuasiveness	Arguments clear and convincing	Arguments are sometimes clear and convincing	Arguments are rarely clear and convincing	Arguments are never clear and convincing	
7. Teamwork	Used team member effectively Equal timing	One member does the talking 75% of the time	One member does the talking 100% of the time	No one talks	
TOTAL					/70

APPENDIX I: Exemplar of lecturers' transcribed face-to-face interviews

Researcher: Good morning, Dr

Lm 1: Good morning to you

Researcher: Ok Doc may we start the interview

Lm 1: Ok you can ask your questions

Researcher: The first question I would like to ask Doc… the students, the students that you are teaching I just want to know the kind of approaches that you use in your classroom to teach students.

Lm1: I have a diverse group of students and I have differently abled students, I have about one student who is visually impaired, so with that one, I sometimes use audios so that she can listen to or I out-source, there is a colleague here who has specialised in visually impaired students who are in mainstream classes, so I give him material that I want and he translates them into either audios or braille that he can attend to, so that's outsource and resource…that is one of approaches which accommodate that student who is visually impaired. And then I am more of a progressive lecturer, who is more into the socio-cultural theory, and I am implementing the post-modernist approach where I believe that for the students to learn better, they have to think on their own, so my other approach is the project method whereby I give them tasks to do. They come back to the class for presentations. Besides such presentations, I give them cases whereby, for example, in language I give them different situations involving written work where they identify errors. As teachers of English, they plan on how to teach and fix such errors; in the process, there are discussions in groups, that's my moderns of operating the discussions they are very critical as they will be doing their work ,and at times when I realise that they are totally clueless of things I resort to what I call direct instruction which is called lecturing approach but rarely do I use that because I want them to own whatever I am teaching and then besides that I also imply the one that is implied in the high school corporative learning where I put in groups of three and then they do whatever they have to do and even at times again I give them …I talked about cases I give them papers to read and then they write, summarize or we discuss as a collective focus groups discussions ,I am in one group we discuss I go to anther I make sure that everyone participates there and I am not more into traditional teaching that's one thing that I am and I also technology wise I bring audios in class and then I play them they listen then we discuss and then again I bring power point presentations in class I show them my power point presentations and voice overs so sometimes they just let them move and they listen to my voice and then after that we discuss in line with what has been presented so that's another one and then sometimes we use WhatsApp and we talk via WhatsApp and the dominate approach because of this pandemic I use Google meet classes I find them much user friendly because I am able to interact with them, I can split them into groups they can work it's like we are in a face to face class they can ask me questions ,and then lastly one on one in my office they can come we discuss ,for assessment and advocate of mostly formative assessment my assessment is progressive I do not subscribe to what we call summative so basically those are the kind of approaches that I use.

Researcher: okay sir , you did mention that you're a proponent of interaction by the mere fact of believing on social cultural theory that encourages interaction among students and lecturers and you also highlighted that you do give some students tasks and activities because from the view point of competent communicative language teaching there is a thin line between activities and tasks that lecturers can give students in class, so as you give them activities in groups as you mentioned do the students use the target language in this case English language or ?

Lm1: yah ,in my class I do not speak Sesotho I am from Zim I speak most of my classes I conduct them in English and fortunately the groups that I have the fourth years, third years and masters groups that I teach they are conscious to that at times I observe they us English specifically in extrude cases where they want to explain issues to their colleagues that is when they will switch code switch so that they have proper communication but in the dominates of my classes there is a lot of English and I think it builds back how they were enrolled on that particular course or degree program because for you to qualify to be here at NUL you must have a 'B' or an 'A' in English so I think with them they see it as an added advantage we are the unique individuals so we must not compromise how we conduct ourselves in class ,and in most of the cases whatever they discuss whatever they present is specifically in English even as they will be interacting as a class they communicate in English I do not know what happens when they are outside when they are doing this tasks on their own but from I have witnessed as a lecture they love to present what they teach in reality they want to be authentic they do not want to pretend because I think the other guiding principle which keeps them are drive to what they have to do is I told them is the moment you compromise your English speaking skills here your actually going to compromise your teaching into class because as you teach your student are going to copy form you how do you speak English your student will copy from you so you have to be role model so basically that's how it is .

Researcher: okay sir, so another question is how active are they in this classroom are there students who might at least or perhaps be afraid or scared? Because there are cases where you might find students are scared to speak especially in case where you might give them presentations to do I just want to know how active in terms of classroom participation?

Lm1: I know you might not believe this but that is something beyond me if you do not believe it ,I am one person who has this charisma I got seven approaches I use to my students to make sure that they are teachers who will be on their teaching practice in there lecture theatres so I have the way of motivating them to talk ,I don't expect them to give me the correct answers or to present things the way I think I want them to present things the way they see them fit as a result that greats a lot of freedom from the class and again I told you I am the proponent of socio-cultural theory and a post modernist where the character of the student is of value so that is one thing I think it has helped in my classes they are free classes where democracy prevails at times I am not the one teaching I call them to teach while I guide and then that process alone will give them library to discuss among themselves to challenge each other to correct each other so mostly yes there are those with reserved character but they are reserved in there corners but in the class they are part of the team hence being part of the team they talk not to please me but they talk to contribute on their academic project at that particular moment.

Researcher: okay sir, in as much as they participate in classes and methods that you use and charisma that you apply are you satisfied with their current level of English language which is normally the language that they use?

Lm1: I always expect them to be as good as first language speakers because when they are at home they speak their mother tongue so for communication purposes or dialogue purposes and for them to be able to operate efficiently in the classes that they are going to be in I am so happy they way they are and the way they developed and because I am with them for two years once I realise that there are caps among stain students I give them an active that will upgrade their level of proficiency, so for me having to on those classes and knowing how the students are and the level at which they are I am very much happy with the level of their dialogue, their level of language mastering their level of competences, level proficiency and I look at how they write and um convinced that they are they right teachers how can go out there to make different students who are in need of their services in the various secondary schools that they are in.

Researcher: okay sir, you did mention that you are not expecting them to be proficient as first speaker of the language and which means that they are prone to commit mistakes or errors as product utterances in the classroom, do you correct them as the commit such errors or you perhaps wait for them to finish in the cases where you might be having presentation do you correct them there and there or you wait for them perhaps to finish and correct them after?

Lm1: like I said I am progressive and socio-cultural theorist proponent democratic Lecture, there is a danger in correcting students while is speaking you correct then you embarrass him then he stops that is demotivating it's Like a death sentence because you have embarrassed him from his colleagues and before any presentation takes place we have a pep talk with the student that if they verify the errors take notes of the errors and we look at the errors at the end but if presenter is at stuck to a point to a stand that they cannot move at the stage because of something the student on their own help each other I just give them a lead to say can you help and the discussion continues but if the grammatical errors ,pronunciation errors those are the things that we talk about usually after the presentation ,yes there different schools that would say correct a mistake there and there I have a different approach through because this are young adults who are sensitive the moment you correct them in class you actually demoralizing morally sort of suppressing their self-esteem so I give them opportunity to finish then we discuss those errors that they presented and then we correct them with them participating not with them silent that's what we do because correcting on the sport I do not think at this level may work but if you to do it make sure you inform them before the presentation if ever they are errors that needs to be corrected we shall be asking you to pause and we correct those errors so that if the student is comfortable you will accept but if not we have to respect the wishes of the student because the main agenda for this is for the student to gain and to learn and to be competent and proficient.

Researcher: One of the challenges that some student did raise as well as in literature that I come across is that students who turn to overly rely on their mother tongue the turn to resort to their mother tongue as long they encounter problems in their speech so others did mention as well that they become a bit tired if lecturer goes in speaks English throughout and then go out, so we did mention code switching earlier or some may be in preparer to use grammar translation method for those students who use Sesotho in this case , but in your case like you did mention that your from Zim you do not speak Sesotho you only speak English I just want to know if there is that fatigue from student that they would at least want to hear something being explained for them in Sesotho or something?

Lm1:Yah you know there is a principle or concept that is dominantly this days that is decolonising the curriculum ,yes I am from Zim its true but I am very sensitive to demands of the students that I teach they are Basotho they speak Sotho, so in some instances when I have explained the concept but still the concept is not clear I pick up amongst themselves to say is anyone who can explain this in Sesotho that's what I do and then one will explain the way he understand in Sesotho and other one will add on until that concept is clear so basically it's not casting stone but it has to be English purely if things gets to a stage where there is need for diluting the language they code switch and since I cannot speak Sesotho I ask then to help each other and its goes on and I have very good example which I can give to students who are shaping Sesotho and they realize that there is a challenge they will come to my rescue they explain to their fellow classmates in Sesotho and then life goes on.

Researcher: okay sir, you also did mention that due to covid 19 pandemic you use some of the technologies such as Google meet to teach where you may segment students into groups and then you discuss, I just want to know the effects of that to student in terms of grammar because one lecturer was lamenting that such teaching somehow turn to make student to commit mistake when they write because the language that they use on social media and WhatsApp everything they do turn to be transferable to their formal writing setting.

Lm1: it's unfortunate that I do not want so say something about other lectures this is the problem that is all over concerning language of this social media and academic language but I as a teacher English or as a lecturer of English I know where to draw the boundaries, when it comes to academic languages I am a bit strict they know when they are presenting my work they have to use scandalized English and that is exactly what I do when I am in class if I have to write on white board I write scandalized English and at time I emprises that when we are communicating academicals via WhatsApp lets use standard English because some of the shorten that you use I many not understand because of the different society dynamics and age groups that we are in ,so it's a matter of you as a lecturer what is it that you emphasis as you are having conversation with your student and do you just accept what is written without even reminding or you just ignore so basically is one's own way of teaching if your teaching you're the last of settling things and say this is the anything and this …this ,but as for me as a teacher of English I emphasis whatever form of communication that we are having let it be standard English and I lead by example whenever I communicate with them via WhatsApp and even on Google meet when I am commenting its standard English that's it.

Researcher: you also did mention that your Liberian democracy is prevails in your classroom students are free to express themselves, I want to believe that is an assumption that I might have in as much as the might express themselves you also did mention that you're not expecting that they must be fluent they are not the first speakers of English language but are they some aspects that they might lack a little bit because I do not know if their writing is the same as spoken eeh this course ?

Lm1: you know there is e very big difference between spoken and written in this course both in written course we got what we call the course markers, in spoken we got what we call gap fillers and gestures stuff ,so sometimes in spoken gestures fill in some gaps of language or stain words that are missing and then I can pick that in communication goes on but when it comes to writing ,writing has to be well connected well gelled so that there is the presentation of the message there is communication and there is also academic approval .when I talk of academic approval if I mark a concept or I mark a script and I give you to moderate you must be able approve or disapprove of what is been written so my emphasis now when it comes to it would be spoken this because I am not at farer when it comes to the issue of cementing because there are a lot of things that occur there while somebody is speaking while still thinking and the grammar at that time might be suet but with written you have got all the time ,you have got resources to consult and even as your colleagues to read your work for you and then it is corrected so there is a cap between those two but there is a lot of improvement when a student write compare to when the students speaks.

Researcher: okay sir, the last question I might have, I just want to know if you are familiar with the concept communicative language teaching and you did mention earlier that you give students some activities and tasks and there are aspects of activities ,we have activities that might focus on influence those that might focus on accuracy so the kind if activities that we devise in the class homo designee, do you just designee activities as ………for students of you designee activities basing yourself on your believes? That I might believe that I want students to be fluent or accurate in target language, the kind of activities you devise do you just gave them out or give the activities targeting influence or accuracy or any other form you might have?

Lm1: Yah, at this level now looking at what I do as a lecturer who is preferring teachers to go and teach English looking at four skills in all the activities the task that I give I make sure that the got all the four skills reading ,writing and even the issue of accuracy that you were talking about at times we do some reading activities at class just to check reading speed and sometimes we do reading activities just to check how punctuation mark is respected at times I give them cases in class to see if the spelling issue is affected the correct way ,at times I give them activities to correct the written processes ,at times I give them activities to look at errors that the students have committed ,so every time I give them task I plan far rely because there are two things that I am looking at ,I am looking at them as the teachers who are going to be teaching a diverse group of students I am looking at them as the students as well ,so when I look at them as students I am looking at perfecting most important skills that are needed for them to function for example when I play audios I am training them listening skills and as I try them listening skills I am also training the pronunciation how do they pronouns the stain words I am also training them the art of speech how do they speak to a diverse group and I am also training them to be conscious on what they are doing so every time I take an activity I have so many processes that I would love to see happening in their place of work or in their work stations and this are processes are the ounces that are going to encounter in the classroom, like I said I teach using variety of methods that’s the same thing that I encourage them to say when you go from here to the class this is what you need to do but first of all understand the dynamics of the students in your class, what are there different learning styles use differentiated learning or differentiate teaching in order to accommodate all your student so this s what I do .

Researcher: So before or since they are teachers or students’ teachers and they do go to teaching practice I do not know if it’s still in January but before then do you give them real life situations as a task where perhaps they can go in same

Lm1: We do peer teaching in English so I give them certain tasks to say this is child who is in class she cannot read she has eyesight issues, they have disciplinary problems, she has come to class with stresses, their house at home is burning, the parents are fighting all that stuff how are you going to teach this child and how are you going to notice that the child you are teaching is not in good space and how will you help him/her to make sure that whatever concept that you are teaching in English is going to be absorbed by the child? How are you going to teach that? So I have different cases that we present that is why I said I use cases to teach them, so I may create cases among their peer groups where I can see you are going to be this child who is coming from home like this, and I want to address the problem that this child has and they do them, and if I realise that they are having challenges I come in after the presentations to say when you’re having such cases there are strategies that you can use so that at the end of the day get the objective because you got a lesson from that I got lesson objectives that you have set so you want to make sure that every child that is in the class gets what you want them want them master.

Researcher: Thank you so much sir, I just want to know if there is something that you might like to add in the meantime.

Lm1: No, I have added a lot of things and you rejected them, so I am not going to add anything, I only want to see you when you are stuck…

Researcher: No I did not reject, I was not rejecting what you're saying I did not come as defensive, but I just thought like maybe there is this angle that I was looking at and then as an expert or having vast experience I am still a novice there are so many things that I might overlook so I just wanted to present my case so that you understand everything that I do for more angles because nna I can just see two angles I was not coming as defensive or hesitant from what you're saying.

Lm1: Okay its fine we will meet when you are struggling to write the final draft and that's when I will come in to say let's close that gap, lets open that one let's get rid of that one, because right now you still have a lot to do you haven't done much there are obviously areas that might need to be dealt with.

Researcher: Okay Sir thank you.