

**THE EFFECTIVENESS OF COMMUNICATIVE APPROACHES AND  
TRADITIONAL METHODS ON READING AND WRITING ACHIEVEMENT  
IN ENGLISH IN GRADE EIGHT IN SELECTED ZAMBIAN BASIC  
SCHOOLS**

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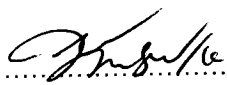
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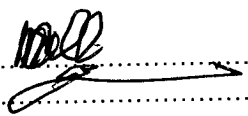
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## APPROVAL

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## ABSTRACT

This study gives empirical evidence on the effectiveness of traditional teaching and learning methods and communicative teaching and learning approaches on Grade Eight pupils' academic achievement in reading and writing in English in selected basic schools in Zambia.

The investigation was set in Lusaka urban (Lusaka district) and Lusaka rural (Chongwe district) schools involving two cohorts of learners: the 2001 cohort of 413 pupils and the 2004 cohort of 150 pupils, bringing the total number of pupils involved in the study to 563. The pupils were drawn from both the low socio-economic sector and the high socio-economic sector represented by Lusaka rural schools and Lusaka urban schools respectively.

The study was carried out because in the past two decades, in the field of English language teaching and learning and classroom management, linguists and language teachers have argued that there is a direct relationship between pupils' academic achievement in the skills of reading and writing and other skills such as listening and speaking and the types of teaching methods or approaches used. The assumed assertion that one method produced better results than the other was tested by null and alternative hypotheses by creating an intervention programme whereby one group of Grade Eight pupils was taught using traditional methods for one school term, and another group was taught using communicative approaches for the same period. A pre-test, a post-test and a post-post-test were administered and the average means achievement of the two cohort groups were compared and computed at 0.01 level of significance using the t-test.

Data was collected by the use of questionnaires, classroom observations and testing the pupils after going through the intervention programme. The data was analysed using the t-test and the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) computer package and cross-checked by hand.

The findings revealed that the communicative approaches were better than the traditional methods in many categories of pupils' mean marks achievement, ie urban compared to rural or rural compared to urban. However, pupils' academic achievement cannot be totally dependent on methods or approaches used alone. Other variables or factors identified such as teacher motivation and teacher effectiveness, pupils' home and school background, availability of adequate teaching aids and materials also play a part. It is in this vein that a holistic approach is needed to really understand the complexity of pupil academic achievement.

In conclusion, the researcher gives recommendations on how pupils' academic achievement in reading and writing in basic schools in Zambia can be improved.

## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this work to my late beloved friend and colleague Dr. Maurice M. Chishimba who passed away in April 2005. May his soul rest in peace.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Many people have given me support academically, socially morally and spiritually for me to complete this work. Naming them all individually would not be easy. Suffice to say that I acknowledge and thank them all.

The research study was first registered with the University of South-Africa (UNISA) in the year 2000 and later transferred to the University of Zambia in the year 2004.

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My sister Leah Msimuko Bota took charge of the children as I hardly found time since most of the time I was in and out of the country, given the nature of my study programme. I am also greatly indebted to my colleague John Simwinga for making valuable comments on this work as well as for proof-reading and formatting the final text of this document.

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# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

### 1.0 Introduction

This study is set in the Zambian context of the school curriculum system. It focusses on the component of English language teaching and learning in reading and writing with Grade Eight learners from selected Basic schools, in Lusaka and Chongwe Districts.

### 1.1 Background

For a long time now, English language teaching and learning has been going on in Zambian Primary and Secondary Schools. Different types of methods and approaches have been used. The methods which have been used for a long time and have been labelled traditional methods are: grammar translation method, the direct method, and the audio-lingual method. They are called traditional, because these are methods that have been in use for a long time in the Zambian class-rooms and have not changed their techniques in language teaching and learning in reading and writing. In reading comprehension for example, more testing of reading is done than the actual teaching of how to answer questions on comprehension passages focusing on language devices, form and function etcetera.

In traditional methods in language teaching and learning, emphasis is put on working out comprehension passages using the true and false, and the multiple choice questions and answers. The teaching of composition is based on narrative and descriptive topics, and in the teaching of summary, the tasks set are more of the shortening of passages which traditionally is known as *précis* instead of teaching learners on how to select main points from a given paragraph or passage, and later write out the passage in prose form in the required number of words. In addition to the traditional methods, the communicative approach, the situational approach, the cognitive-code approach and the text-based integrated approach are widely used in the teaching and

learning of reading and writing, along side with listening and speaking amongst early adolescents, including Grade Eight learners. It is not quite clear, what the impact of these diverse mentioned teaching and learning methods and approaches are, on pupil achievement in the skills of English reading and writing.

At this point however, a distinction needs to be made between a method and an approach in English Language teaching and learning as applicable to the Zambian class-room setting in particular, and other English speaking countries in general *that teach English as a subject*.

The first difference between an approach and a method lies in their definitions. According to Anthony (1963:63) an approach is, "a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of languages teaching and learning". Besides Anthony, Hubbard et al (1993:30) describe an approach as " ... much more general and has the implication that what ever method or techniques the teacher uses, he does not feel bound by these, but only by theory in which he believes. If he can find new and better methods or techniques which will fit in his approach, then she/he will adopt these. A technique on the other hand is implementational, it is that which takes place in a class-room situation it is a strategy or a style.

From the two descriptions cited above, we can easily tell that an approach is basically the level at which assumptions and beliefs about language and language learning are specified. In this case, an approach serves as the course of practices and principles which teachers use when teaching a target language.

According to Anthony (1963:63-67) a method is "an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material no part of which contradicts and all of which is based upon the selected approach". This definition clearly shows that a method is a level and not an assumption, at which a theory is put into practice. It includes procedures taken from an approach to show tasks and practice activities which the teacher employs in the class- room. In this case, the

grammar translation method, the direct method, and the audio-lingual are all methods because they outline procedures and activities which the teacher uses in the teaching of language.

In addition to the fore-going, methods state the skills to be taught, what content and the order in which they must be taught. Commenting on the New Zambia Primary Course which was audio-lingual oriented, Lungu (1988:17) writes "new language items of the unit are introduced in Lesson I and finished in Lesson III. In these lessons, pupils are given the chance to speak oral English through drills of repetition, substitution, completion and integration. Other lessons consist of supplementary reading, preparation for reading and controlled writing. What Lungu (1988) is describing in this context are the classroom activities of the audio-lingual method, providing a fact that a method reflects the actual work which the teacher performs in the classroom derived from an approach.

The second difference is seen in the type of activities done by pupils. At the level of a method like the audio-lingual method, interactive games are used to motivate learners and provide them with a change of pace from pattern-practice drills for example, to other activities like controlled writing or supplementary reading, but in situational language teaching approach, the teacher could use the same games to introduce language items meant for serious teaching.

The third difference is how learners are organized whilst being taught. The audio-lingual method which emphasizes on oral skills, requires learners to sit in groups which facilitate easy drilling by the teacher, but in communicative approach which requires pupils to interact would need them to face each other for easy pair work interaction.

Admittedly, going by the definitions of method and approach in the foregoing, it can be seen quite clearly that the two concepts do not mean exactly the same, though class-room teachers to a greater extent use the concepts of method and approach interchangeably. To shed more light on the distinction between a

method and an approach, a method has principles and theories in language acquisition and language teaching and learning. These underlying theories will explain how the mother tongue ( $L_1$ ) is acquired and learnt, and how a second language ( $L_2$ ) is learnt. An approach on the other hand may not necessarily have principles and theories on language acquisition and language learning but may focus on a particular technique or style of teaching a particular structural or vocabulary item, for example, using role-play or dramatization to teach the verbs drink, buy, steal etcetera.

An awareness of the type of teaching and learning methods and approaches that are effective on pupil achievement in the skills of reading and writing in English might be beneficial to the Government and Ministry of Education in general, and the class-room teachers of pupils in particular. It should be emphasized that to date that the Government and the Republic of Zambia attaches great importance to the teaching and learning of the English Language in Zambian Schools both at primary and Secondary schools levels.

The Ministry of Education *1977 Education Reform Document Proposals and Recommendations* has cited that in the Education Act of 1966, passed by Parliament, it was unanimously agreed and adopted that English Language be a medium of instruction in Primary, Secondary and tertiary institutions in Zambia. This was implemented in the same year. In another Ministry of Education Document "Educating Our Future" of May 1996, reference is made on the emphasis to the improvement of English language teaching and learning. It is therefore not surprising as stated in the same document that Government through the Ministry of Education, in the last three decades has initiated and implemented such programmes as: The New Zambia Primary Course (N.Z.P.C), the Zambia Integrated Basic Education Curriculum (ZIBEC) English component, the Action to improve English, Mathematics, and Science (AIEMS), the Basic Education Subsector Investment Programme (BESSIP), and the Primary Reading Programme (PRP), being the latest Government programme emphasizing the aspect of initial reading and writing for the beginners. The

initiation, and implementation of the programmes mentioned above, show government's total commitment to the quality of English language teaching and learning. Therefore, the correct aspect of teaching and learning methodologies and approaches cannot be over-emphasized.

When English language was introduced as the sole medium of instruction in 1966, in all Zambian Primary and Secondary Schools, and in teacher training Colleges, the running assumption had been that the training of Efficient English teachers would (a) improve instructional quality and ultimately higher proficiency levels in English among the pupils; (b) contribute significantly to higher performance in English; (c) enhance the growth of a more efficient English speaking community; (d) help create a more enlightened citizenry.

In Zambia, the use of English is reasonably wide spread. English is used in the field of Commerce, legislation, administration, in parliament, and as stated earlier, in primary and secondary schools and in all institutions of higher learning. Therefore, the foregoing spread of English usage under scores its importance especially in Primary and Secondary Schools and teacher training colleges the importance of effective methodologies and approaches that enable the learner to gain higher achievement is the teacher's concern. For better communication with the outside world, one needs to speak, read and write English well.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

Nunan (1991:178) has observed that work on learning strategies is part of a more general movement within educational theory and practice. Communicative approaches are based on the belief that learners will bring to the learning situation different beliefs and attitudes about the nature of language and language learning, and that these beliefs and attitudes need to be taken into consideration in the selection of content and learning experiences. Nunan (1999:9) has further observed that without doubt, the most pervasive changes to teaching practice over the last twenty years are those that can be described as Communicative language teaching approaches (CLT), as they are more pupil

centred and more effective, as opposed to the traditional methods of language teaching and learning of grammar translation method, direct method, and the audio-lingual method.

Knowledge of the effectiveness of the communicative approaches over the traditional methods in English Language teaching and learning on Grade Eight pupil's achievement in English reading and writing is the focus of the investigation.

### **1.3 The problem**

Is there a significant difference in average achievement in English reading and writing between a group of Grade Eight learners who used traditional teaching and learning methods and another group who used communicative teaching and learning approaches?

### **1.4 Hypotheses**

This study will be guided by the following null and alternative hypotheses:

*H<sub>0</sub>: There is no significant difference in average achievement in English reading and writing between a group of Grade Eight learners who used traditional teaching and learning methods and another group who used communicative teaching and learning approaches.*

*H<sub>1</sub>: There is a significant difference in average achievement in English reading and writing between a group of Grade Eight learners who used traditional teaching and learning methods and another group who used communicative teaching and learning approaches.*

If the calculated t-value will be greater than the table value, the null hypothesis will be rejected, meaning that there is a significant difference between the two means (in a particular cohort), in other words, the one method produces better results than the other.

If the calculated t-value will be less than the table value, the hypothesis will not be rejected, meaning there is no significant difference between the two means: The traditional methods used in English language teaching and learning in reading and writing achievement in English in Grade Eight learners, and the communicative approaches used in teaching and learning reading and writing in English achievement in Grade Eight learners give similar results. The table value of the t-test will be at 0.01 level of significance.

### **1.5 Rationale**

The present study was considered significant in that the findings would be useful in creating awareness amongst the stake holders in education such as learners of English, teachers of English, as well as curriculum and syllabus developers of English on the effectiveness of teaching and learning methods and approaches on Grade Eight English reading and writing achievement. The findings arising from the study would also enable education specialists, education planners, curriculum and syllabus developers and teachers of English to develop and implement teaching and learning methods and approaches that promote higher pupil achievement in English.

### **1.6 Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of the communicative approaches in teaching reading and writing skills on Grade Eight learners when teachers use traditional teaching and learning methods versus communicative teaching and learning approaches.

### **1.7 Objective**

The objective of the study was to compare the performance of two groups of Grade Eight pupils in reading and writing skills after being taught using the communicative approaches for one group and the traditional methods for another.

## **1.8 Definition of Concepts**

### **1.8.1 Approach**

An individual's way of implementing a method, a programme, an action without necessity for recourse for an imposed formula or theory; in other words, a philosophy of an individual which determines his predisposition. An approach is axiomatic. Examples-Communicative approach to second language teaching learning, cognitive-code approach, situational approach, and text-based integrated approach.

### **1.8.2 Method**

Precisely prescribed steps for implementing a programme of action or instilling training skills in a specified skill trade such as cookery, uniformed services, driving, etcetera. In other words, a method is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part which contradicts. Examples -The Army specialised Training programme (ASTP) Zambia Primary Course (Z.C.P) and the use of Audio -lingualism as a method.

### **1.8.3 Traditional**

According to the Oxford Illustrated Dictionary (1985) traditional means long established and generally accepted custom or practice.

### **1.8.4 Technique**

A practical way and means of implementing and presenting a teaching point in a class by an individual teacher.

### **1.8.5 Achievement**

According to the **Concise Oxford Dictionary** (1976) to achieve means to accomplish, carry out, reach success. In this study, to achieve means to attain the desired level of performance.

### **1.8.6 Basic School**

In Zambia, Basic Schools are those schools that have classes running from grades one to nine. They are called basic schools because they do not provide Senior Secondary education which have classes running from grades ten to twelve.

## **1.9 Theoretical Framework or Orientation of the Study**

### **1.9.1 The Communicative Approach**

According to Littlewood (1981:1) the Communicative approach, or Communicative language teaching and learning is defined as that type of an approach that pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language, combining these into a more fully communicative perspective. For example, using dramatization and role-play activities to teach structural items.

Larsen-Freeman (1986:123) defines communication as a process. Moreover, she argues that it is insufficient for students to simply have knowledge of the target language, forms, meanings and functions. Students must be able to apply this knowledge in negotiating meaning. It is through this interaction between speaker and listener, or reader and writer that meaning becomes clear.

For this study, communicative approaches will refer to the type of approaches that emphasize students' communication skills by designing teaching and learning materials by the teacher that will promote communicative skills of the students.

Communicative language teaching (CLT) has the following features and principles:

- (i) Communicative language teaching and learning believes that activities designed for teaching and learning should be authentic, for example role-play, simulation and language games;

- (ii) Communicative language teaching and learning believes in integration of skills, for example listening, speaking, reading and writing;
- (iii) Communicative teaching and learning believes in discourse analysis;
- (iv) Communicative language teaching and learning emphasizes oral communication, fluency and accuracy, guided conversations and formal debates;
- (v) Communicative language teaching and learning encourages pair and group work;
- (vi) In communicative language teaching and learning, emphasis on language teaching and learning is on acceptability, suitability of utterances and occurrence of appropriateness and accuracy in the social context;
- (vii) In communicative language teaching and learning, language teaching is based on naturalness of speech and kept as close to the learner's culture as possible (expressiveness instead of impressiveness); and
- (viii) In communicative language teaching and learning, the learner must learn to mean what he or she says, and his or her hearer to understand if, in other words, what one says must be communicable.

Teaching and learning approaches such as the cognitive-code approach, the situational approach, and the text-based integrated approach all fall under the communicative approaches to language teaching and learning.

### **1.9.2 The Cognitive - Code Approach**

Literature on the cognitive-code approach, the situational approach, and the text-based integrated approach is found in (Askes and Kritzinger 1986, Larsen - Freeman 1986, Richards and Rodgers 1986).

Larsen-Freeman (1986), and Richards and Rodgers (1986), all agree that the cognitive-code approach was essentially a collection of arguments, counter suggestions, and proposals for a less mechanistic, more realistic and mentalistic view of language learning and teaching. They stress that the cognitive-code approach was never a method but revisions of procedures, steps and points of view of the audio-lingual method. However, the key argument was that a child is not a *passive* but *active* participant in his or her own learning. The child's

mind is therefore not a *tabularasa* (an empty slate) but an *active* processor of learnable data.

In cognitive-code approach therefore, the learner is engaged in processing the learning material *actively*. His or her mind is an *active* processor of information as opposed to the *passive* method of learning in the audio-lingual method. Distinction here should be made between *language learning* and *language acquisition*.

In cognitive-code psychology, *acquisition* is by *maturation* and is *innate* in all humans at an early age. In behavioural psychology, from where the audio-lingual method originates, language is learned like any other psychomotor skill, like learning how to drive a car, and is therefore a form of behaviour.

The cognitive-code approach developed in the U.S.A. as a result of teachers' dissatisfaction in audio-lingualism. The development in Cognitive and Gestalt psychology provided the much needed cognitive-code approach as an appropriate approach in teaching and learning a language.

The principles and techniques of the cognitive-approach are:

- (i) The human mind is born with a predisposition to acquire language and has an internalised set device (the L.A.D language acquisition device) to process it's acquisition. Language teaching should therefore proceed from teaching the rules, to the data of language and not vice-versa;
- (ii) Use meaningful, problem solving exercises, not drills;
- (iii) Children or learners must participate actively in the learning process not learn passively;
- (iv) The teacher should build on what the learners already know; and
- (v) Use both spoken and written language.

### **1.9.3 The Situational Approach**

Richards and Rodgers (1986:34) have argued that language should be taught in meaningful contexts and situations to enable the learners to use the language in contexts and situations that should facilitate efficient and effective

communication which should be the main objectives of a language teacher and a language learner or language user.

The situational approach has the following principles and techniques:

- (i) The child or learner learns a language in a social context and relates it to his or her immediate experience;
- (ii) Use of familiar, relevant and meaningful situations to teach structure, writing, reading listening and speaking, and familiarity of, and interest in a relevant situation, will promote talking;
- (iii) Language learning is not only internalisation of form and structures, but also ability to use it to describe, explain, and discuss in terms of dialect, idiolect, style, register and genre; and
- (iv) The child or learner uses language with intent to be intelligible to hearers and readers. Therefore, the language a person or learner uses has to be acceptable, suitable, and appropriate apart from the language form and function from being correct. Language must satisfy appropriateness of social function of the language. Hence the selection in language teaching of socially acceptable situations and settings are encouraged. For example in an English class, learners can be encouraged to write on an interesting soccer match scene than be asked to write descriptive compositions on robbery or death scenes.

#### **1.9.4 The Text-Based Integrated Approach**

A text-based integrated approach means that a series of lessons, probably one or two weeks' work, will comprise a unit, which centres around the written text. This will have been carefully chosen by the teacher for its suitability in terms of interest, level of difficulty, and appropriateness. The selected text should also cover a wide range of language uses and a variety of topics should be chosen from a variety of sources. Some will be based on other school subjects. The majority if not all, of the texts should be authentic and some should include tables, maps and diagrams.

The text studied by pupils under the guidance of the teacher should lead to a wide range of activities, including: word study and vocabulary extension; the

study of certain structures used in the text; the study of the ways in which sentences and paragraphs are linked (cohesion); the study of stylistic features, oral discussion (class, group and pair work, debates), other communicative activities (role-plays, dramatization, simulations), written comprehension, summaries, note-making and note-taking and composition.

A text-based integrated approach also means that a selected or one text can be used to teach the skills of listening and speaking, the same text can be used to teach the skill of reading and the skill of writing.

In this study, the traditional teaching and learning methods will refer to the teaching and learning methods that have been accepted and have been in practice in Zambian class-rooms for a long time before the new approaches, which are referred to in this study as communicative approaches were adopted.

The traditional methods being referred to in this study are: the grammar translation method, the direct method, and the audio-lingual method.

Discussing each of the above mentioned methods in detail would be helpful in distinguishing between the traditional teaching and learning methods and the communicative approaches to language teaching and learning.

### **1.9.5 The Grammar Translation Method**

The grammar translation method was the earliest method to be used in language teaching. It was widely used in translating passages from such languages as Latin to English, and English to Latin. In Zambia, the grammar translation method was used to teach translation from mother tongue ( $L_1$ ) or vernacular language to English or target language ( $L_2$ ), and from English to the recognised vernacular language i.e. Chinyanja or Chibemba into English or English into Chinyanja or Chibemba. This was practised at G.C.E. (General Certificate of Education) or School Certificate levels Askes and Kritzinegr (1986), and Richards and Rodgers (1986). identify the following features of the grammar translation method:

- (i) In the grammar translation method, there is extensive study of grammatical rules;
- (ii) In grammar translation method, there is concentration on defining parts of speech for example, defining verbs, adverbs, adjectives, nouns, etcetera; and
- (iii) In the grammar translation method, grammar is taught deductively by presentation of the rules followed by practice.

### **1.9.6 The Direct Method**

Following the dissatisfaction of linguists and language teachers presented by the weaknesses of the grammar translation method in second language teaching and learning cited above, the direct method emerged. The direct method has the following features:

- (i) The direct method introduces the learner directly to the language being learnt without recourse to resources in the learner's other language and culture;
- (ii) The direct method emphasizes imitation and memorization of the language;
- (iii) In the direct method, there is a purpose not to allow the other language or culture to interfere;
- (iv) The direct method emphasizes listening, speaking and advocates the use of audio-visual aids and use of language laboratory; and
- (v) In the direct method, grammar is taught inductively.

### **1.9.7 The Audio-Lingual Method**

Askes and Kritzinger (1986:11) associate the beginning of Audio-lingualism with the development in research in second language teaching and learning in structural linguistics and behavioural psychology in the 1940's with those who were dissatisfied with the way second language was taught and learnt in the earlier methods of grammar translation method and the direct method.

The audio-lingual method developed in the U.S.A, and is seen as a more rigorous and scientific method of teaching a foreign or second language, in that it recommends the use of laboratories and other scientific visual aids like mirrors.

For example, learners in an active speech work language lesson were asked to look in the mirror to check the position of the tongue in relation to the palate and teeth when making vowels, diphthongs, and triphthongs.

The audio-lingual method has the following features or characteristics:

- (i) The method emphasizes the teaching of the four skills of language, that is, listening, speaking, reading and writing;
- (ii) The audio-lingual method emphasizes teaching the language without allowing errors - principle: language is habit formation; errors will result in poor language habits or mistakes;
- (iii) Teacher is the correct model and must have near-native speech;
- (iv) The audio-lingual method emphasizes repetition and memorization of correct habits. The teacher provides immediate reinforcement of correct responses by prompt approbation and immediate reinforcement, similarly to provide immediate correction of wrong responses but disapproval of incorrect responses will create negative reinforcement and must be avoided;
- (v) The audio-lingual method also emphasizes the use of drills: chorus, ripple, completion, addition, and substitution;
- (vi) In the audio-lingual method, the teacher is encouraged to teach one item at a time and progress from:
  - (a) The known to the un known;
  - (b) The simple to the difficult; and
  - (c) The local to the distant.

The basic assumptions of the audio-lingual method in language teaching and learning are that:

- (i) The child (learner) is a *tabula rasa* (blank slate) on whose blank mind, language data must be imprinted;
- (ii) The child learns a language by imitation, memorization and repetition of sentence patterns heard, later by positive reinforcement from parents and correct rewards;
- (iii) Increased processing of language data results in correct generalization and learning the correct (and not negative) habits of language; and

- (iv) Language learning involves learning the four basic skills in their natural sequence (for example, listening, speaking reading, writing).

### **1.10 Division of Chapters**

This thesis comprises of seven chapters. The first Chapter presents an introduction, overview and rationale with its relevant components such as statement of the problem, the problem, purpose of the study, hypotheses and the objective of the study. The second chapter gives a historical background to the development and application of English teaching methods and approaches in Grades 1-9 in Zambia from 1964 to the present. Chapter three reviews the literature on the trends and the origin and development of traditional English language teaching and learning methods in general as well as literature on the communicative teaching and learning approaches and their impact in English Language teaching and learning as they are in fashion currently. Literature in the teaching and learning skills of reading and writing for Grade Eight learners in Zambian basic schools is also reviewed in chapter one. Chapter one also sets the study in the Zambian context. It deals with development of English language teaching and learning methods and approaches in Zambia, and their impact on achievement in English language teaching and learning.

These developments in English language teaching and learning are responsible for the introduction and implementation of programmes such as the Zambia Primary Course later known as the New Zambia Primary Course (ZPC, NZPC) English medium, Action to Improve English, Mathematics and Science (AIEMS), Concentrating on the English component), Zambia Education Basic Course (ZBEC); Basic Education Subsector investment programme (BESSIP) and Primary Reading Programme (PRP).

Chapter Four of the thesis deals with the methods or procedure of how the research design pertaining to population, population sample, sampling procedure, type and methods of data collection and analysis used. Information on stastical testing instrument on the hypotheses and formular of stastical instrument used, and why, is also explained in Chapter four. Chapter Five presents the findings of the investigation while Chapter Six discusses the

findings. Chapter Seven draws conclusion from the discussion and makes recommendations.

### **1.11 Summary**

In this chapter, the researcher introduced the research topic and presented an overview of the research, its rationale, objective and purpose of the study. The statement of the problem was stated, and the actual problem stated. Key concepts were identified. Hypotheses were also formulated. Finally, a summary of the division of chapters was presented. In the next chapter, the researcher reviews literature on the historical background on the development and application of English teaching methods and approaches in Grades 1-9 in Zambia from 1964 to the present.

## CHAPTER TWO

### HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: THE DEVELOPMENT AND APPLICATION OF ENGLISH TEACHING METHODS AND APPROACHES IN GRADES 1-9 IN ZAMBIA FROM 1964 TO THE PRESENT

#### 2.0 Introduction

In this Chapter, the researcher reviews the literature on the development and application of English teaching methods and approaches in Grades 1-9 in Zambia from 1964 to the present.

The teaching of English language in Zambia, and in the then Northern Rhodesia, had been going on ever since the country fell under British Colonial rule. Since 1964, when the country gained her independence from the British, English language teaching in primary, secondary schools and tertiary institutions had continued. However, a lot of transformation had taken place in the field of English Language teaching in Primary and Secondary Schools in terms of methodologies and approaches to suit the Zambian curriculum. This chapter focuses on what changes have taken place in the teaching of the English language in Grades 1-9 in Zambia from 1964 to the present. The discussion will be devoted to Grades 1-9 who belong to the Basic School sector in the Zambian educational system, though occasionally and in passing reference will be made to the senior secondary School sector and tertiary institutions.

#### 2.1 The Historical Background to the Choice of the English Language as an Official Language and as a Medium of Instruction

One of the most difficult problems faced by newly independent countries is that of educational policy, and Zambia was no exception. The problem of developing or choosing the language to use for instructing pupils in primary schools, later on in secondary schools and higher institutions of learning emerged.

Chishimba (1979:23) has observed that unlike in Tanzania, there is no *lingua franca* in Zambia. By *lingua franca*, he means a language that is commonly and widely used by all the people in a particular country. Instead, in Zambia, there are over seventy-three indigenous languages and dialects (see also Lungu

1988:6 Ohannesian and Kashoki, 1978). In fact, several of the native languages and dialects are similar as almost all of them belong to the family of Bantu languages.

Because of this close affinity of native languages, the British Colonial Government selected four of them as official languages for administrative, commercial, and educational purposes. These were Chinyanja, Chibemba, Chitonga and Silozi. Later, the Zambian Government added three indigenous languages (i.e. Kikaonde, Lunda and Luvale). These seven languages served as acceptable languages in addition to English, although the latter has been accorded a higher recognition by the government.

For purposes of education, media, administration and others, the question of mutual intelligibility of a language is an important one. In Zambia, for reasons of cost, time, human resources and other factors, and because of the many advantages the English language has, it was felt right and proper by the Zambian Government to choose the English language as the medium of instruction and official language in the country. English already had an advantage over many indigenous languages in terms of communication in international trade, in the field of technology and education.

Former Minister of Education in Zambia, J.M. Mwanakatwe, writing on the choice of English as an official language and also as a medium of instruction, had this to say:

*“all leaders now accept that the strength of national unity lies in the recognition of the legitimate hopes and fears, as well as the interests, of the diverse elements which constitute the Zambian nation - that is the several tribes scattered in all parts of the country. It is unity in diversity which is being forged without exacerbating inter-tribal conflicts and suspicions that have disruptive effects. Because of this fact, even the most ardent nationalists of our time have accepted the inevitable fact that English, ironically a foreign language, and also the language of our former colonial masters, has definitely a unifying role in Zambia”*

*(Mwanakatwe 1968:213).*

The emphasis on the choice of English language as Mwanakatwe has observed above, also originates from the colonial period. The colonial government used English in governing the country. This meant that many aspects of the life of the country had been conducted in English. In addition, a larger number of Zambians who had received some kind of formal education by the time of independence had learnt to communicate well. However, at independence, most of the skilled manpower was expatriate. Until such a time when Zambians would fill these positions, these expatriates occupied these positions, while at the same time gradually preparing the Zambians to take over through what would later be called Zambianization.

In all this process, the transfer of knowledge from one group to another had to be done in the medium of English. Needless to say, all the knowledge in technology and administration was available through English Language books, journals and brochures. In addition, those Zambians who learnt to speak English well and had recognized academic qualifications had opportunities to study in English speaking countries to further their education and improve their professional careers. All this was possible because of the many advantages the English language has.

An independent Zambia did not only comprise an indigenous African population, but also the population of other races who were born and lived in Northern Rhodesia (Zambia) and had either opted to be Zambians or chosen to stay and work in Zambia. The language census in Table 1A and Table 1 B below shows that, among other languages, English was already the most widely spoken language among other European languages.

**Table 1A: Use of European Languages by Nationality**

Language	Male	Female	Total
English	21,251	20,183	41,432
Italian	832	505	1,337
German	760	572	1,332
French	513	393	906
Portuguese	170	155	325
Others	1,877	1,138	3,015

Source: Kashoki, E.M. and Ohannessian, S (eds) 1978 **Language in Zambia**  
p. 25

**Table 1B: Non-European Languages**

Language	Male	Female	Total
Gujarati	3,808	3,464	7,276
Hindi (Hindustani)	560	552	1,112
Urdu	206	208	414
(Others)	1,148	986	2,134
Total	5,722	5,214	10,936

Source: Kashoki, E.M. and Ohannessian, S (eds) 1978. **Languages in Zambia** p.25.

It can be seen that the figures given in table1A, that the use of English is widespread in Zambia be it amongst the indigenous Zambians or Zambians of other races.

## 2.2 The Zambia Primary Course (Z.P.C.) English Component

A Zambian Ministry of Education report of May 1965 shows that the Minister of Education then, J.M. Mwanakatwe, brought the issue of English as a medium of instruction before the cabinet citing the report of the UNESCO planning mission and using the recommendations of the Hardman Report. He stated:

*I recommend to Cabinet that English be adopted in all.... Schools from Grade 1.... I would emphasize that the decision is one to make learning easier. There is no fear that the traditions, customs and culture of our people, which are learnt through the medium of language will be lost. ... The reason why I am recommending the introduction of English at such an early stage in our school system is to give our children the instruction with*

*which to grapple with the tremendous scientific and social developments of this age, and also to give our nation the type of manpower we require for our development.*

So in June 1965, the Zambian government decided to adopt English as a medium of instruction in all primary schools in Zambia. In 1966, the Zambia National Assembly adopted the provision for the use of English as the medium of instruction and had it written into the 1966 Education Act. Therefore, on the basis of this decision, the Ministry of Education at the end of 1966 instituted the English Medium Centre in Lusaka.

In 1970, the English Medium Centre became known as the Curriculum Development centre (CDC) based in Lusaka. Its function was to develop new language Curriculum materials for the primary schools. When the first English course materials were ready in 1967, the Ministry of Education withdrew the pre-independence text books, called the *Oxford English Readers for Africa*, and other Curriculum materials called the *Zambia Primary Course (ZPC)*, were gradually introduced into the schools, grade by grade.

The rationale for change in the school Curriculum was that Zambian society needed an educational system incorporating Zambian aspirations. These could best be achieved by the curricular that were oriented toward the Zambian situation and it was felt that designing such a curriculum would meet these aspirations.

### **2.3 The Training and Preparation of Teachers of Zambia Primary Course Materials**

The Ministry of Education has control over what kinds of personnel should be employed in the Zambian schools. As a way of main streaming this control, the colleges of education, have established a relationship with the University of Zambia in such a way that colleges of education, and the University train teachers.

Primary school teachers are trained in primary training colleges. At the time of writing, there were 10 such colleges in Zambia. These are Kitwe Teachers' Training College, Mufulira Teachers' Training College, Chipata Teachers' Training College, Kasama Teachers' Training College, Malcom Moffat Teachers' Training College, Charles Lwanga Teachers' Training College, Mongu Teachers' Training College, Mansa and Solwezi Teachers' Training Colleges. The course of the primary teacher training colleges is divided into parts classified as follows:

- (i) Background comprising content of the approved primary school syllabus, pupils' textbooks and the teachers' handbooks;
- (ii) Methods consisted of those presented in the handbooks; and
- (iii) Teaching practice. The time table further sub-divided the course into a number of subject areas which included Education (comprising psychology, sociology, philosophy and administration) and a full range of prescribed primary school subjects. Each subject was compartmentalized as a separate Curriculum exercise. The syllabus for each subject was designed independently of the others, so that there was a considerable amount of overlap and repetition.

Teaching practice consists of two six week blocks of actual teaching experience in primary schools. These periods are spread over the two-year course. Lessons taught by student teachers are supervised by college instructors or tutors and the co-operating teachers. They are expected to advise the student teachers and assess their performance. The student teachers are assessed for the purpose of certification on the basis of results on final examination and teaching practice. The final examinations have in the past been prepared by each teacher training college and then approved by the Ministry of Education. Currently the examinations are prepared by the Examinations Council of Zambia (ECZ). The examinations cover almost all the subjects offered by the colleges; and these subjects are further divided into content and teaching methods. The examinations are formal and the student-teachers are required to adhere to set answers.

The introduction of the Zambia Primary Course materials into primary schools in 1967 necessitated the training and preparation of teachers at both the pre-service and in-service levels. Teachers and student-teachers had to be trained in the content and teaching strategies of the new course materials in order for the course to succeed. Teachers received two-week courses conducted at workshops in selected school centres at the beginning of the year at which the early lessons were gone over in some detail.

Higgs (1979:82) has observed that the Zambia Primary Course was designed primarily to teach English as a second language, through its use as a medium of instruction. Higgs (1979:82), further observed that the Zambia Primary course can only be equated to the New Peak Series in Kenya and similar courses which were introduced in Gambia and Sierra Leone which were courses meant for second English language teaching in Africa.

The Zambia Primary Course is distinctive in several ways. There is a heavy emphasis on audio-visual aids in the first two years of the course. The amount of graded reading material is also extensive for a single course. In addition, there are large numbers of class-room activities built into it. Guidance for teachers in the use of the course materials is ordinatorily detailed because it was assumed correctly, that many primary teachers using the course would be untrained.

#### **2.4 English lessons in the lower primary (grades 1-4)**

The course may be divided into two sections. Lower primary and upper primary. Lower primary covers grades 1-4 and upper primary grades 5-7. The lessons in the lower primary cover language and reading. The lessons in the upper primary, grades 5-7 cover language and reading too. The lessons in the lower primary are graded in great detail in the teachers' handbooks. The lessons are graded in terms of teaching units varying according to structured and lexical difficulty levels. The pattern of

presenting drills and how the pupils ought to respond are systematically prescribed in the Teachers' handbook. In the lower primary, the general pattern of language lessons is this: Speech work, Revision, Presentation and Practice.

In speech work, most of the work that is taught takes the form of pronunciation and discriminating between minimal pairs of words or sentence patterns. Pattern practice drills of new work consists of repetition, substitution, imitation, conversion, question and answer, ripple and action chains. English lessons in the lower primary sector last thirty minutes a period only. This time is for both oral language lessons and reading lessons.

By the end of the school year in each grade, pupils will have practised new work and revised work previously taught through various drills mentioned above.

However, in language terms, pupils' vocabulary would still be minimal because a lot of language items are taught at a time in a single period of thirty minutes. Nevertheless, many pupils can hardly remember much of the language items taught in that short period, especially considering their ages, and their memory span. In the lower primary lessons, the Teacher's Hand book for reading contains modern teaching methods. By their use of group work in the early stages, they ensure that each child reads at their own level and pace.

Materials used for pre-reading and reading activities include templates, jigsaws, name cards, picture matching sets, colour cards, labels, card for matching to words and pictures, picture lotto, word cards for the first seven readers, sentence cards, word to word matching cards, sentence building sets, and the sets of command cards. In addition, there are three workbooks (one for Grade 1 and two for Grade 2), a number of sets of work cards, and thirty-five in all charts. Apply-book cassette phone and two pre-recorded cassettes which contain sound discrimination exercises

and dialogues.

## 2.5 English Lessons in the Upper Primary (Grades 5-7)

The upper primary section covers Grades 5-7. Teaching again proceeds from one unit to another. There are three teaching terms in Zambia divided according to the teaching calendar year. For both the lower and upper primary levels, there are three teachers' handbooks for the whole year of each grade (i.e. one for each of term 1, 2 and 3). Each unit runs from Monday to Friday, and the lessons go from day one to day five. Day one refers to that day when the first lesson is taught in a particular unit. In the upper primary section, for all grades, lessons are summarized in Table 2 below:

**Table 2:A Weekly Teaching Unit for English in the Upper Primary School**

Lesson	Content
1	a) Speech work b) Oral Language c) Language Activities
2	Supplementary Reading
3	a) Speech work b) Oral Language c) Language Activities
4	Preparation for Reading
5	a) Speech work b) Oral Language
6	READING c) Picture Discussion d) Reading e) Writing Activities
7	a) Speech work b) Reading c) Writing Activities
8	Controlled Writing
9	a) Speech Work b) Controlled Writing c) Writing Activities
10	a) Supplementary Reading

Adapted from *New Zambia Primary Course Teachers' Handbook Grade 7 Term 1 Unit I*

Table 2 represents the work of one unit. Each unit has 10 lessons. New language items of the unit are introduced in lesson 1 and finished in lesson 3. In these lessons, pupils are given the chance to speak English through drills of repetition, substitution, completion and integration. Other lessons consist of supplementary reading, reading, preparation for reading, and controlled writing.

In the past two decades, stocks of the supplementary readers and class library readers have dwindled in schools. In many schools the readers have disappeared completely such that during such periods, pupils are either left to sing or learn a different subject other than that in stock. The readers are graded according to the level of difficulty. The weaker students with the help of the teacher will read simpler readers while stronger pupils will read more challenging readers.

Lesson 8 is controlled writing. Pupils at this stage are not exposed to creative writing in a foreign language. They are controlled in their writing in terms of:

- (i) Vocabulary;
- (ii) Simplicity of morphological structure of words;
- (iii) Sentence type, length and pattern;
- (iv) Simple register and logicity of prose; and
- (v) Grammatical structure.

In a controlled writing lesson, and on a chosen topic, the teacher together with the pupils through questions and answers, a paragraph is built up on the board which can be either a descriptive or a narrative text. The teacher erases a few words in some parts of the story, and pupils reproduce the story by filling in the erased words.

## **2.6 Zambia Primary Course Readers and Reading**

The reading section of the lower primary Curriculum is designed in such a way that an average of 2.7 hours per week are devoted to reading. Distribution of the instructional time allocation is shown in Table 3 below:

**Table 3: Weekly Time Allocation Lower Primary Reading**

	Hours per week	Percent of total instruction time
First 5 weeks, year one	2	11
Remainder, Grade one	3.5	21
Grade Two	3	18
Grade Three	2.25	13
Grade Four	2.25	13

Source: Higgs, Peter L. (1979) **Culture and Value Changes in Zambian School Literature**. Unpublished Ph.D dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles p. 87.

The instructions for reading and language are conveyed to the teacher in two handbooks for each at the lower primary grades. One for handwriting, and the other for language. The reading handbook instructs the teacher to divide the class into two groups for reading. The reading portion of the course begins with pre-reading activities in Grade 1. These are planned so that children are given practice at distinguishing colours and sizes, differentiating shapes and at left-to-right eye movements. Various teaching aids are supplied to schools with the course from the foundation of this early work: Jig-saws, a colour chart, picture books, and picture-matching cards, for each child.

During the second week, name cards for every pupil in class are issued. In the fifth week, file cards bearing the names of familiar objects in the class-room are attached to the appropriate pieces of furniture. Later, pupils match duplicate word Cards to those posted around the room. Word cards are matched to the colour chart by week 8 and word cards and picture cards in the following week.

Reading pictures come into use in the tenth week of the year. These pictures are of Jelita and Mulenga, the main characters which appear in the first eight readers.

Early reading activities include a game similar to that of picture Lotto, like Bingo. This game is started in Term 2. The teacher forms small groups of pupils with one child appointed leader. Each group member receives a card with different pictures on it. The leader shows group members smaller pictures one at a time. The child who holds a Master

card with a picture identical to that of the leader claims it. The pupil who covers all the pictures on this card first is the winner.

After picture-to-picture matching, words are matched with words on cards in the fourth week of the second term. In week Five, a 34 word test is given on the basis of which pupils are divided into three groups, where they remain until the end of Grade 2. Very good pupils (the top 10 of the best) and the poorest (the bottom 10 to 12) constitute two of these groups while the rest of the class forms the third and largest group. The remainder of the second term's work is occupied by working through a Work Book, sentence building cards and the first reader.

Three more readers are used in the third term, although, because of the grouping arrangement, not at the same time. Those in the least able group begin the fourth reader until they begin the second year. At the end of the first year and during the second year, Work Cards of different exercises in reading are used. During the second year, children read *Readers 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9*. Nevertheless, because of the groups, not all pupils finish them. A series of five more Work Cards are also used.

In Grade 3, all pupils begin using Reader 10. In the third year, *Readers 10, 11 and 12* are supposed to be mastered. No new work is taught in the first term of the fourth year in reading. The reading handbook for teachers specifies that *Reader 12A* should be used for Term One. This reader utilizes only those lexical items and structures already presented. *Readers 13 and 14* are used in terms two and three respectively. In term Three, reading groups are re-established after they had been abandoned in Grade Three. The two bottom groups have reading around activities while the top group deals with two sets of supplementary readers. Grouping in Grade four is for the purpose of reinforcing the skills of the slower pupils and to provide a basis for the renewed use of groups in the upper primary school.

In the upper primary school, there is only one handbook for teachers each term. This combines both language and reading activities. More latitude for teachers to make their own lesson plans is allowed in Grade Five through seven.

In upper primary school, reading is nearly all silent. Poor readers are the only ones permitted to read aloud. The upper primary school course is primarily intended to train pupils to read for precise meaning and to understand instruction. Faster reading is also emphasized.

Each reader used in Grade Five, Six and Seven, has a number of questions about the story, which the pupil has just read. These questions are designed to measure the pupils' grasp of the meaning of various passages. Teachers are encouraged to add their own questions if they are not satisfied that the meanings of the stories have not been adequately mastered. Therefore, whatever it is that pupils learn from such stories, whether it be values, content, or skills, every effort is made to ensure that it is, indeed, learned and learnt well. The readers also contain detailed instructions for the making of simple models to accompany the stories (i.e. directions on how to make a paper air plane, follow a story about places and an airport, etcetera). The skill of finding information is developed by the teachers, who place a question about a given story on the chalk board and pupils must search for the answer in the text.

Reading lessons are arranged in groups of ten in the upper course. Every fourth lesson of each series of ten, attempts to prepare pupils for new material which they have not encountered before, such as new words, new concepts, and new structures and patterns. The Zambia Primary Course uses a four-step method to introduce new words: first, the word is taught orally, second it is written on the chalkboard and read aloud by the teacher several times. Then, the entire class reads the word a number of times, and finally individual pupils read the word.

New words are never introduced at a faster rate. In every fifty new words, only one is introduced, the meaning is explained by the teacher and the pupils learn the meaning of the word. This method was intended to provide as much context from which pupils could deduce meaning as possible. Consistency was also an aim. Small pictures are often used to exemplify many nouns. New words are repeated frequently after each introduction.

As in the lower primary school, English Language lessons in the upper part of the Zambia Primary Course stress comprehension. After each second lesson in every unit of two lessons, there are comprehension questions. The time allowed for responding to these questions is classified in the syllabus as "Writing activities".

Quite apart from the reading material associated with specific lessons, the Zambia Primary Course contains a number of supplementary readers. The last of these readers were written in 1973. The ostensible reasons for the readers were to motivate interest in reading, increase reading speed, re-enforce lexis and structure, increase passive vocabulary, and broaden perspective.

The supplementary readers were produced for the upper school level. One group of these, termed "*Plateau readers*", had no new words or sentence patterns. They were to provide easy reading. The second group called "*progressive readers*". Had new vocabulary, frequently linked with subjects of a scientific nature. All in all, there are ten sets of supplementary readers and six special readers for Grade Seven.

The Zambia Primary Course materials, both in the lower and upper school, are accompanied by Teachers' Handbooks. In the upper school, handbooks accompanying the Z.P.C. for reading indicate that there are ten objectives for reading. They are to:

- (i) Provide a source of easy reading material;
- (ii) Familiarize pupils with words needed for special subjects (i.e.

country.

The Grade 4 English Teachers' Guide Part A (1994:11) states that the new English component of the Zambia Basic Education Course follows a very different approach from that used previously in Zambia. It is a communicative approach, which stresses the importance of language as a means of communication, rather than a system of grammatical structures and rules. It is worth mentioning that all teaching in a second language is based on the theory of how people learn languages and how it is thought best to teach them.

The former Zambia Primary Course, English component was written at a time when it was believed that learning a new language was just like learning any other skill such as riding a bicycle and was merely a matter of learning a new set of habits.

It was thought that learning a language was very mechanical process and that the best way to help children was to make them constantly repeat and practice the patterns of language until they could produce them automatically and without mistakes. This practice was of a very controlled and mechanical nature, which required very little conscious effort on the part of the learner. Little attention was paid to the meaning of what was being drilled, or why other learners might need to use a particular structure in communicating with other people.

For a substantial part of the 20<sup>th</sup> century Pavlovian and Skinnerian influence in behavioural experimental psychology and verbal behaviour led researchers to believe that children learnt their mother tongue by repeating what they heard others say, having their correct utterances approved, and their faulty ones corrected, until they reached acceptable adult level. So it was thought necessary to reproduce in a class room learning, conditions as close as possible to those under which children learnt their mother tongue. This method of teaching and learning a language was called the "Audio-Lingual Method", and was based on the

- Science and Social Studies);
- (iii) Enable pupils to read for precise meaning;
  - (iv) Provide practice at following instruction;
  - (v) Train for faster reading;
  - (vi) Introduce new words, structures and patterns;
  - (vii) Offer re-enforcement for prospective school leavers;
  - (viii) Develop pre-reading skills;
  - (ix) Motivate readers; and
  - (x) Broaden pupils' perspectives.

## **2.7 The Origin of Basic Schools in Zambia**

The 1977 Educational Reforms document enshrined the policy that the ultimate goal should be to provide nine years of universal basic education, whereby a child entering Grade 1 at the age of 7 will remain at school for at least 9 years until the end of Grade 9, at the age of sixteen. The 1977 Educational Reforms have since been implemented and as such, the Junior Secondary School now covers Grade 1 to Grade 9 as basic schools and the senior sector from Grade 10 to Grade 12.

### **2.7.1 The Zambia Basic Education Course (ZBEC) English Component**

The Zambia Basic Education Course (English Component) was developed by the English Curriculum Committee at the Curriculum Development Centre (C.D.C) in Lusaka after national discussions with teachers of English, Inspectors and Education Officers. The discussions were the result of the criticisms of the old Zambia Primary Course, among which was the claim that it was very prescriptive and too heavily based on rote-learning. It was agreed that a new course was needed that was substantially different in approach. The new course adopts a communicative approach to the teaching and learning of the English language as opposed to the old-which emphasised audio-lingualism. By 1994, Teachers Handbooks and teaching materials in English were developed at the Curriculum Development Centre, in Lusaka and the following year, in 1995, the course was widely used in schools in the

behavioural School of Psychology. It was the method used in the former course that was written and introduced in the 1960s when this theory was largely considered the most effective one.

More recently, experts in Linguistics and Psychology have realised that there is much more than the above said to learning a language, whether it is the first language we learn as very young children or a second language, which we learn at school. It is now realised that people do not learn just by repeating and practising model sentences. As they learn, they make up their own rules and theories about the nature of the language they are learning and test them out. As a result of this new approach, it is hoped that the children will become more independent language users who think about what they have to say, say what they think, and who can respond to a wider variety of language than was allowed under the strict control of the former course.

### **2.7.2 Criticism of the old Zambia Primary Course and Changes that have been Effected in the New Zambia Basic Education Course (English Component)**

A lot of criticism has been levelled against the old English component of the Zambia Primary Course, which was developed in the 1960s and heavily used in the Zambia Primary School Sector as from 1965. The course was based on the Audio-Lingual Method, Grammar translation method and Direct method in language teaching and learning. The criticisms and improvements to the course can be summed up as follows:

- (i) The course was too prescriptive in that teachers had no room to use their own initiative. Consequently, it was the Handbook that taught rather than the teacher;
- (ii) There were too many drills. The pupils merely learnt to repeat like parrots. They did not have to think or use the language they were learning in very real life-like situation;
- (iii) Writing, especially free writing, was not properly taught; and
- (iv) There were too many Handbooks. Teachers feel that it would be better to have only one or two hand books per year.

The New Zambia Basic Education Course (ZBEC) English Component, addresses the criticisms listed above in the following ways:

- (i) The teachers' Handbooks are now called Guides and not Handbooks, because they are intended to guide teachers rather than to tell them what to do at every point of each lesson;
- (ii) Teachers are expected to prepare their own schemes of work, using the content specified for each unit;
- (iii) There are far fewer drills in the new course. Right from the beginning, the pupils are encouraged to use English in a less automatic way;
- (iv) There is more emphasis on writing, including personal writing, and creative writing, especially in the later grades;
- (v) Spelling is taught systematically. Formal grammatical exercises are also introduced from Grade 2, as well as some exposure to grammatical terms such as singular, plural etcetera; and
- (vi) There are no longer separate Handbooks for language and for Reading and Writing. This is an integrated Course. For instance, the reading and sometimes the writing often develops from the same text and reinforces the work in listening and speaking.

The different skills are no longer seen as different activities, but as one integral whole. Teachers are asked to draw up integrated schemes of work which reflect this interdependence. For each grade, there are only two *Teachers Guides* and two or three *Pupils Books*.

*Teachers Guide Part A*, substituted the *Resource books*, and contains the methodology for the course. *Teachers Guide Part B*, is called *The years' Work* and contains detailed notes on the content of the course.

The new pupils' books contain a whole variety of exercises and activities for both oral work and Reading and Writing.

### **2.7.3 The Teaching of the Grade 8 and 9 English Component of the Zambia Integrated Basic Education Course (ZIBEC)**

The teaching and learning of the English Language in Grades 8 and 9 follows the pattern of the New Zambia Primary Course (English Component) with greater emphasis on the need for the learner to be able to communicate effectively in the target language in the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. The approach used in this course, and the texts and tasks that the pupils are faced with, are communicative in character. The course is mainly integrated in approach, meaning that a comprehension exercise for instance can also be used to teach listening, speaking and writing as long as the teacher is able to adapt to suit the teaching of the individual skills being targeted.

This course has been written in order to satisfy the need for a comprehensive and locally produced set of teaching materials based on the examinations Council of Zambia's Junior Secondary School English Language syllabus (Grades 8 and 9).

The course was produced at the Curriculum development Centre in Lusaka by a team of experienced teachers of English and Curriculum specialists. The detailed lessons follow the Junior English syllabus, which is given 9 periods a week of 40 minutes each. These periods are located thus:

- (i) Composition 2 x 40 minutes per week;
- (ii) Summary 2 x 40 minutes per week;
- (iii) Structure 2 x 40 minutes per week;
- (iv) Reading 2 x 40 minutes per week; and
- (v) Listening and Speaking 1 x 40 minutes per week.

### **2.7.4 Action to Improve English, Mathematics and Science (AIEMS): English Component**

Continuing with the improvement of English language teaching and learning in the Junior English Language teaching and learning in the Junior English language section (grades 8 and 9), the handbook on

certificate in In-Service training, English Component, states that it was decided, after extensive consultations, that the best form of In-service for the teachers of English was that which would empower them to be independent professionals capable of providing their own development.

The concept of an autonomous teacher was adopted. This is an ideal teacher, who has reached the perfect state of independence through a process of self improvement in various aspects of the profession. The autonomous teacher will be resourceful, reflective, linguistically aware, skilful and informed. The AIEMS project is a joint project between the Government of the Republic of Zambia and the United Kingdom through the Department for International Development (DFID).

A national AIEMS workshop on English was called and designed a total of 10 units. These units are divided into two modules comprising five units each. The units each represent three hours of work in a workshop session, plus a minimum of nine hours follow-up activities or tasks at the Resource Centre, i.e. a total of twelve hours.

The units in Modules 1 and 2 are an effort to begin to build on these five qualities. They could be expressed in terms of the type of teacher that would demonstrate ability in the following:

- (i) Using authentic texts in the English class-room;
- (ii) Creating teaching and learning materials from authentic sources;
- (iii) Using other subject materials in the English class-room;
- (iv) Using Resource Centres to create materials; and
- (v) Using the Write A-Book in basic schools.

### **2.7.5 Rationale for Deciding to Develop Course Books and Materials for Grades 8 and 9**

Certificate In-Service Training Module 3 (English) Hand Book states that the plan to produce educational materials written by Zambians for Grade 8 and 9 was financed in 1984. It is said in the Hand Book that since independence, the Zambian Government had worked consistently to

indigenise the syllabus and other educational materials to do with curricular used by the country's schools.

The departments of English, Mathematics, Science, Social Studies and Zambian Languages were merged in 1969, to form the Curriculum Development Centre (CDC) based in Lusaka. This development helped the complete indigenisation of both content and materials (texts, Teachers' Guides and auxiliary aids) of the seven years primary and partial of the three year Junior Secondary Course at that time. Also starting in the late 70's was the localisation of the Senior Secondary School Leaving Examinations and these were long term plans to indigenise the educational materials for this level too. The main reasons for deciding to produce materials for Grades 8 and 9 can be summed up as follows:

- (i) Firstly, it was acknowledged at this time (in the 70's and early 80's) that relating the Curriculum concretely to local conditions, environment, circumstances and events was sound pedagogy. It was further agreed that such an objective was not facilitated by materials designed for other conditions or merely general conditions, nor was it wholly satisfied by superficial adaptation;
- (ii) Secondly, it was felt that the reliance of the Junior Secondary Curricular or imported materials diluted the efforts that were being made in the primary school sector; and
- (iii) Thirdly, there were the questions of accessibility, ready supply. Foreign materials cost a lot of foreign exchange compared to locally produced materials which, with proper management, be preferable to imports on all three counts. It is clear from all the above that pedagogical, cultural, practical and even philosophical grounds justified the more thorough Zambianization of the School Curricular.

### **2.7.6 The Zambia Teacher Education Course (ZATEC) English Component**

In May 1996, the Government of the Republic of Zambia issued a comprehensive national policy on education known as “Educating Our Future”. One of the aims of this policy is to improve the quality of education and to increase the number of teachers at primary and basic education levels.

The Ministry of Education intends to achieve these aims through the Zambia Teacher Education Course (ZATEC), which represents a radical shift in teacher education. It is based on:

- (i) the principal of integration of the traditional subjects rather than their differentiation; and
- (ii) A curriculum that is relevant and responsive to teacher needs. It stresses the active participation of students in and reflection on the learning process. It also encourages the development and appropriate use of a wide range of resources. Assessment procedures are flexible and innovative and stress the formative rather than the summative role of evaluation.

ZATEC has been planned at a time of rapid change in education in Zambia and aims at producing teachers of highest quality whose performance is based upon a thorough knowledge of the syllabus content and good professional practice, underpinned by an understanding of appropriate educational theories. It is believed that the course will support student teachers, mentors and the tutors.

ZATEC is of two year duration and professionally oriented, assuming that the student teachers have sufficient subject knowledge to be able to teach at least at the lower and middle basic school levels. The first year is college-based, during which the student teachers practise teaching and continue studies. During the college based year, the student teachers are taught by tutors, while during the school based year, mentors will support.

In as far as the English language teaching and learning in the ZATEC designed course, the learner is active as opposed to the passive in the traditional Zambia Primary course already alluded to in this chapter. In ZATEC, the learners are assessed on ongoing basis, with critical thinking, reasoning, reflection and understanding while in the other courses such as the Zambia Primary Course (ZPC) and ZBEC (Zambia Basic Education Course), the emphasis on teaching and learning seemed to be examination driven to a large extent. In ZBEC, and ZPC, a content-based syllabus, broken into subjects was followed while in ZATEC, there is more integration of knowledge, learning is relevant and connected to real-life situations. The teacher in English language teaching in ZATEC is a facilitator. Teacher uses group work and team work to consolidate what is being taught, and also allows the teacher to be innovative and creative in designing teacher programmes. At the same time, learners take responsibility for their learning. Motivation comes through constant feedback and also emphasis is on what the learner becomes, understands and can do.

## **2.8 The Primary Reading Programme (PRP)**

Over the years, many educators in English language teaching and learning in the lower primary school sector have expressed fears that the reading levels are low especially in grades 1 to 4 because pupils are first introduced to reading in a foreign language rather than in their mother tongue. Because of the concerns of the foregoing, and supporting the views expressed above, Kelly (2000:3) in his executive summary in the DFID (Department for International Development) document working in conjunction with the Ministry of Education, states that in April 1995, the Ministry of Education in Cooperation with the Department for International Development of the United Kingdom (DFID) launched a major literacy initiative, the Primary Reading Programme (PRP). This is a seven-year programme which aims at improving the reading and writing levels of pupils in Zambia's lower and middle basic schools.

In the primary Reading programme, pupils are taught initial reading in their first language or mother tongue in the first four years of their schooling (Grades 1-4), there after, reading can be taught in English Language. It has been argued that the linguistic complexity of the Zambian situation, does not necessarily mean that it is essential to teach children to read for the first time in English. It is argued that children will find it easier to learn to read in a second Zambian language than in English.

Evidence has been cited to show that young Zambian children switch from one Zambian language to another with ease and clearly find each others' Zambian languages more effective means of communication than English. The recommendations of participants (reported in the AIEMS Project English Teachers' Workshop- Common Wealth Youth Centre 21<sup>st</sup> - 25<sup>th</sup> August, 1995) was that initial reading skills should be developed through the official Zambian language of each area instead of English. Participants supported the above assertion and argued for the following:

- (i) That the process of learning to read is easier if the materials reflect the language of the child and are therefore meaningful to her/him. Materials written in a foreign language are not meaningful to the child in any real way, and therefore his/her task is made more difficult;
- (ii) That reading is developed on non-visual as on visual information. The child learning to read in a foreign language has little non-visual information to help him/her because of his/her lack of experience of the foreign linguistic system, and therefore has to rely too heavily on visual information. This can lead to the over loading of the brain resulting in temporary functional word blindness or tunnel vision, which makes reading very difficult and learning to read almost impossible;
- (iii) That guessing and predicting are essential features in learning to read, and that the child learning to read for the first time in a language he/she does not speak well or understand cannot make properly structured, linguistically logical guesses; and
- (iv) That many of the cues that make guessing and predicting possible

and that are available to the native speaker, are not available to the non-native speaker.

## **2.9 Summary**

This chapter has attempted to give an account of the developments of school curricular in Zambia with special emphasis on the teaching and learning of English language from a historical point view. Arguments for the choice of English as a national language and medium of instruction have also been spelt out. It has discussed in detail the emergence and development of the English component of the Zambia Primary Course. There has been a focus on the status of English in particular and the teaching and learning of English in general in both primary and secondary schools and tertiary institutions, from independence to the present.

Sometime has been devoted to the origins of the Basic Schools in Zambia and the reasons for the shift from the old Zambia Primary Course to the new Zambia Primary Course which relies heavily on the communicative approach. In addition, the teaching and learning of the English language in Grades 8 and 9 in line with the Zambia Basic Education Course (ZBEC) has also been presented in this chapter.

The contribution to the teaching and learning of English which has been made under the project of AIEMS (Action to improve English, mathematics and Science) English component, has also been highlighted.

The chapter has also discussed the rationale of the decision to develop course books and materials in the Zambian Basic Education Course, later on Zambia Integrated Basic Education Course locally have been spelt out.

The Zambia Teacher Education Course (ZATEC) English component has also been discussed in relation to teacher training and teacher education, and also on quality English Language lesson preparation and delivery relating to the teaching and learning of English Language in the lower Primary and middle basic primary school sector.

Arguments for introduction of initial reading in mother tongue from grades 1-4 have also been advanced culminating into the introduction and implementation of the Primary Reading Programme (PRP) in Zambia to date.

It is important to note that programmes such as AIEMS (Action to improve English, Mathematics and Science) English component, and ZATEC (Zambia Teacher Education Course) have been phased out at the time of writing as they have achieved their intended objectives. However, it is important to reflect that at the time they were operational, they contributed heavily and positively to the strengthening of the teaching and learning of English in the primary and Junior Secondary School sector (now Basic School sector) in the Zambian Educational System. The Primary Reading Programme (PRP) is in use currently, and has been evaluated and has scored successes especially in Northern Province. Nevertheless, although the actual practice of training teachers under the ZATEC programme has been discontinued, the methodological aspect of the English component put in place under ZATEC is still being used in schools by serving teachers in basic schools. In the next chapter, the researcher reviews literature on the trends in the development and application of English Language teaching methodology.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **TRENDS IN THE DEVELOPMENT AND APPLICATION OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODOLOGIES AND APPROACHES**

##### **3.0 Introduction**

This chapter reviews literature on the trends in the development and application of English language teaching methodologies and approaches in general. In this chapter, further distinction is made between method and approach as defined by various scholars.

##### **3.1 Teaching Methodologies and Approaches for Language Teaching**

In English language teaching and learning, methodology is considered pivotal in the effectiveness of teaching and learning. Methodology is equally important in any other instructional system in education. There have been questions about the meaning and implications of the concept of method. We have already noted Edward Anthony's (1963:63-7) definition of method. To that we can add that of Halliday, Strevens and McIntosh (1964), Mackey (1965). In making a distinction between method and approach, Halliday, Strevens and McIntosh (1964) still refer to an approach as the theory of language and language learning underlying a method, while procedure is concerned with techniques and instructional practices in a method. Halliday, Strevens and McIntosh further recognize that the second language learning/teaching process is a highly complex set of events in which many elements co-exist and interact. These have no counter part in psycholinguistic models of first language acquisition. Current psycholinguistic theory applies only to a small area of the total field of foreign language learning/teaching.

Strevens (1987:18) insists that a distinction should be made between language learning and language teaching and that this should be considered in its own terms as opposed to first language acquisition. This

is because, according to Strevens (1987:18) to see language teaching as simply applied psycholinguistics is to fail to understand the relationship between a predominantly mental activity and a predominantly mechanical one, which should not ignore the immense and subtle complexity of education, methodology and teaching. The researcher agrees with the fore-going sentiments as language teaching needs an intellectual basis, and not just a theory imparted from a quite different area from language teaching.

It can therefore be rightly concluded that, in light of what Strevens says in the fore-going with regard to language learning and teaching, superior language teaching in which learners achieve high levels of command of target language skills, is a direct response to well-planned schemes of learning and teaching. It is therefore imperative to relate pupil achievement in reading and writing to methodologies and approaches.

Different methods and approaches to English language teaching and learning have been used in Zambia at different times. However, it is not quite clear, which ones of them have been most efficacious in improving pupils' proficiency.

The primary goal of foreign language teaching and learning is the pupils' mastery of communicative ability in that language. Many scholars on this subject such as Littlewood (1981:76), Newble and Cannon (1995:2) see this goal as being achievable if a "functional" or "notional" syllabus is followed.

Newble and Cannon (1995:2) have claimed that effective language teaching and learning goes with good selection of methodology, good course organisation, good instruction and assessment procedures as well as valid evaluation of teaching. The ultimate goal of language teaching and learning is to master communication both in writing and speaking. Stern (1983:47) observed that the shift of language teaching methodologies and approaches at that time came about in three ways:

- (v) Partly they were responses to changing demands on language education resulting from social, economic, political and educational circumstances;
- (vi) The methods and approaches were influenced by revision in language theories and supporting research psycholinguistic and *language pedagogy*; and
- (vii) Use of methods and approaches reflected the experiences, institutions and opinions of practising teachers.

Byrne (1975:1031) in a study of educational achievement and regional inequality in Durban, found that resources in the school affected both standards and teaching methods. Over-crowding, because of limited space, led to “inattention of pupils resulting into poor discipline” Byrne 1975;1031).

As stated at the beginning of this chapter, methodology and approaches amongst other related variables in teaching and learning, play a pivotal role in promoting pupil achievement in a given skill, in a particular subject. In the case of English Language the skills of reading and writing, for Grade VIII pupils is the focus of the study. The central role of the teacher is to promote growth and achievement in pupil’s language use , that is, learning which is an internal process. This being the case, teachers do not teach students to learn, they disseminate information, demonstrate desired behaviours, model appropriate behaviours and facilitate student achievement (Jacobson, Eggen, and Kauchak 1993:2). Facilitating pupil achievement will entail including critical organisational skills such as building meaningful and interesting curricular, providing appropriate learning experiences and materials, and allocating sufficient time to enhance student opportunities for success. These skills promote increased student involvement, which often leads to higher levels of achievement. The more achievement or success the students experience, the more likely they are to evaluate their expectations and become increasingly motivated to stick to the task.

Bardwell (1993) (cited in Jacobson, E, Eggen and Kauchack (1993:4) identifies three stages in a teaching model. These are:

- (i) The planning phase;
- (ii) The implementation phase; and
- (iii) The Evaluation phase

### **3.2 Stages of Teaching**

It is perceived in this study that the three phases of teaching cited above are psychologically sequenced and logically interrelated. In other words, a teacher in developing any learning experiences, first plans, then implements the plans, and finally evaluates the success of the activity. Below is a detailed discussion of each of these phases:

#### **3.2.1 The planning phase**

All teaching begins with some kind of planning. When planning, the teacher asks himself/herself what he/she wants the students to *know*, *understand*, *appreciate* and what they *can do*. The answer to these questions will be the teacher's goal. Therefore, the first step of the planning phase is the establishment of some kind of a goal. A second step in the planning phase is selecting a strategy and gathering the supporting materials.

#### **3.2.2 The implementation phase**

Having determined the goal and selected an appropriate means to teach the goal, the teacher must then consider implementing that strategy. The teaching activity in the implementation is the actual use of the strategy the teacher selects. The questions the teacher asks in anticipating the implementation of activities is how the teacher will get the student to reach the goal that needs to be achieved. The answer to the question will be the teaching procedure, strategy or technique that is used. Deciding the most appropriate method or approach to use depends on the goal, the student's characteristics, the teacher's style and other factors. In addition to considering and implementing a teaching strategy to reach a predetermined goal, teachers must organise and manage their class

rooms so that the learning process can proceed smoothly.

### **3.2.3 The evaluation phase**

The third stage in the teaching act is evaluation. In this stage the teacher should attempt to gather information that can be used to determine if his/her teaching has been successful. This can be done in a number of ways, including administering tests or quizzes or noting students' reactions to questions or comments. Each of these techniques can be used by the teacher in making decisions concerning whether or not the goal established in the planning stage was reached. The effect of goals on implementation strategies and evaluation procedures is important in that the goal being target, influences how the lesson is taught, and how the effectiveness of the lesson is measured.

The central objective of this study is to compare which of the teaching/learning methods and approaches - traditional methods or communicative approaches have a measurable impact on Grade Eight pupils' achievement in the skills of reading and writing.

### **3.3 Reading**

Reading is closely related to every field of study and to knowledge in general. Readers read for various purposes and for various aims. Readers are also able to read in different degrees of speed and with different styles and strategies.

*Reading is a process of reasoning out what the author's intended message is, his attitude to it, and the point that lies behind the message and from the ques presented in the actual orthography (Mc Donough, 1981;51).*

According to the definition of reading cited above, reading can be seen as a communication process involving the sender (or encoder) of a given message and the receiver (or decoder) of the same. The process begins with the enconder who has a message in her/his mind which may either

be an idea, a fact, or an argument that she/he wants some body else to share. In order for her/him to share that idea with somebody else, she/he must first of all encode it. Once it is encoded, in either spoken or written form, it is available outside her/his mind as a text (cf Halliday 1978; Wilkins 1976; Couthard 1977). The text used here in the sense of Haliday refers to any utterance carrying discoursal meaning and interpretation and is accessible to the mind of another person who hears or reads it. In other words, that someone else is a receiver, a reader, or a decoder. Once it is decoded, the message enters the mind of the decodees and communication is achieved.

Literature on reading shows that there are several reasons why pupils should be taught how to read efficiently and effectively. Grellet (1981:4) identifies two main reasons for reading. One reason is that of reading for pleasure, and another is that of reading for information in order to find out something or in order to do something with the information you get. Harmer (1983) and Nuttal (1982) extend the purposes of reading to three by including "academic reading", and Greenwood (1981:92) confirms a similar point. Greenwood further stresses that efficient reading depends first of all on having a purpose for reading, knowing why you are reading a text. Academic texts will require different tasks to be performed by the reader, as they may test different skills, and the purpose for reading will usually define the appropriate style and the appropriate text. The following types of reading can be identified:

### **3.3.1 Skimming**

Skimming is a reading type which is performed when the reader quickly runs his/her eyes over a text to get the gist of the text or the main idea or ideas.

### **3.3.2 Scanning**

We refer to scanning when the reader is on the look out for a particular item or items she/he believes is/are in the text.

### **3.3.3 Intensive reading**

This is sometimes referred to as *study reading* - for example reading for the purpose of intellectual understanding, knowledge, evaluation and interpretation. Intensive reading is an interdisciplinary skill necessary in decoding academic or any serious encoded reading material. In intensive reading, the rate of comprehension is comparatively low in relation to other types of reading. For this reason, the speed of reading is also low. In summary, the amount of decoding in intensive reading is of a higher intellectual and emotional level.

### **3.3.4 Extensive reading**

Extensive reading can be said to be the reading of larger, extended texts. These texts are usually, but not only, for the reader's pleasure. It has been noted that extensive reading is an exercise in reading fluently. It enables the reader to have the so called "global meaning" and hence enables the reader to have a "global understanding" of the total meaning.

In Zambia, Grade 8 students in basic Secondary Schools are assumed to have already mastered or overcome the relationship between word and letter identification in the reading process. In other words, traditional areas of pupil weakness such as (a) un conventional orthography, (b) phone/phonemie (c) subvocalization, (d) lip-movement etcetera are assumed to have already been dealt with in grades 1-7 in the reading lessons. In Grade 8, the majority of the pupils should be at efficient readers level.

Reading should be centred on developing efficient reading strategies which, as Harmer (1983:144) calls efficient reading skills. According to him, these can psychologically be broken down into the following:

- (i) Prediction Skills;
- (ii) Scanning;
- (iii) Skimming;
- (iv) Inferring opinion and attitude;
- (v) Deducing meaning from context; and

- (vi) Recognizing function and discourse patterns and markers.

The skills of skimming and scanning have already been discussed under 3.3.1 and 3.3.2. It is therefore imperative to discuss prediction skills, inferring opinion and attitude skills deducing meaning from context skills and recognizing meaning from context skills.

### **3.3.5 Prediction skills**

In prediction skills, the efficient listener or reader has the ability to predict what she/he is going to hear or read and the process of understanding the text is the process of seeing how the content of the text matches up to these predictions. Her/his prediction will be the result of the reading knowledge one already has. For example, if a letter is missing between **a** and **d** we know from the knowledge we already have that it should be either *i* as in *aid* or *n* as in *and*. It cannot be *e* because the word *aed* does not give us the required meaning. We can therefore use prediction to compensate for textual difficulties.

### **3.3.6 Inferring opinion and attitude**

Since the Writer's or speaker's opinions and attitudes are not always directly stated, the reader or listener often has to be able to work out what the writer or speaker's attitudes are. The experienced reader or listener will know from various clues she/he receives while reading and listening whether the writer or speaker approved the topic she/he is discussing or whether her/his opinion of the personality she/he is describing is favourable or not. The ability to infer opinion and attitude is largely based on the recognition of linguistic style and its use to achieve appropriate purposes.

### **3.3.7 Deducing meaning from context**

Even efficient readers often come across words in written and spoken texts that they do not understand. Nevertheless, the fact that the word is unknown to them does not cause any particular problem. Based on the context in which the word occurs (the sentences, information and

grammar that surround it), the reader guesses its meaning and in most cases the guess will be right. The beginner does not have the ability to do so; she/he is unable to work out the meaning and gives up. The point is that the deducing of meaning is important for a language user who will often meet unknown words. Students should be trained to guess the meaning of unknown words by practising adequate tasks using adequate teaching materials.

### 3.3.8 Recognising function and discourse patterns and markers

It is important to be able to recognise devices for cohesion and understand how a text is organised coherently. The main discourse markers in a language are:

- (i) Inflections, for example, s for the plural form, ed for the past tense, er for comparative and est for superlative;
- (ii) preceding words, for instance a, the, few etcetera;
- (iii) word order - the order in which the words come in a sentence also helps to clarify the meaning of a sentence. This can be illustrated by the two sentences below:
  1. The burglar killed the old lady.
  2. The old lady killed the burglar.

In the first sentence, the actor is the burglar and the victim is the old lady, but in the second, the actor is the old lady and the victim is the burglar. Recognition of word order helps the reader to arrive at meaning without much difficulty.

Adverbials are equally very important as cohesion devices. They too modify or change the meaning of other words. Adverbials should be used in a special way if they have to add meaning to the sentence as the word order of adverbs is limited. An adverb can be placed in the middle of a clause or at the beginning or end of the clause. For example, an adverb should not be put between the main verb and a direct object as shown in sentence (3) below:

- 3 Diana found often the Pendletons helpful (incorrect).

4. Diana often found the Pendletons helpful (correct).

In sentence 3 above, there is a poor cohesion as the adverb often has been wrongly placed while in sentence 4, there is good cohesion as the adverb often has been properly placed.

### 3.4 Writing

Immediately correlated with the skills of reading is that of writing. Afolayan and Newman (1983:60), have argued that writing skills are central to the conceptual structure of an English language course. In this view, the influence of writing skills for students is seen in the fact that most language demands which have a bearing in their qualification and certification are in writing. Admittedly, the two skills have been treated traditionally as converses of each other in their psychological similarity.

Many language teaching educationists have often argued and shown that reading and writing as English skills are converses of each other as skills of language. Mastery of one is an assurance of knowledge of the other. (cf Rivers 1965, Strevens and Mc Intosh 1964). However, Rass (2001:30-33) points out that writing is a difficult skill for native speakers of English and non-native alike, because writers must balance multiple issues such as content, organization, purpose, audience, vocabulary, punctuation, spelling and mechanics such as capitalisation. He further argues that writing is even more difficult for non- native speakers because they are expected to create written products that demonstrate mastery of all the elements of a new language mentioned above. In support of the foregoing, Cross (1992:268) has observed that there have been radical changes of methods and approaches towards the role of writing in language teaching programmes in schools. He further observes that a hundred years ago, modern languages were taught in the same way as the classics, through the written translation of texts. Then came the direct method of the 1930's where writing was virtually out-lawed. In the methods and approaches that followed, for example the communicative approaches to language teaching, there has been some emphasis on the written language. Nevertheless, what ever the teaching preferences, it is

assumed that many students can and do internalise vocabulary and structure through writing. What ever the issues are at play as regards the writing skill, the need or necessity for the proper teaching and mastery of writing skills by pupils cannot be over emphasized.

Written work needs careful preparation to minimize errors. To write and internalise incorrect forms are to the disadvantage of learners. So errors should be brought to the notice of pupils promptly. The teaching of writing should not be equated with testing. Where possible, self-correction or peer-correction should be implemented. In correcting their own mistakes, learners again value feedback and insights.

Nunan (1991:90) has pointed out that there are differences between skilled and unskilled writers. Zamel (1999;90) sites studies which show that less skilled writers tend to focus on the mechanics of writing and are inhibited by their concern for formal correctness. They are also less able to anticipate the likely problems of the readers. Skilled writers are more aware of writing as a recursive activity involving versions of successive drafts of one's texts, during which the writer's ideas might change, necessitating the rewriting of whole chunks of text. Unskilled writers, on the other hand, tend to limit themselves to teacher-generated rules and modification of diction. At the pre-writing stage, skilled writers spend more time planning the task, while unskilled writers spend little time planning and consequently, they are confused when they begin. At the drafting stage skilled writers write quickly and fluently, spend time reviewing what they write, and do most of their reviewing at the sentence and paragraph levels. Unskilled writers spend little time reviewing what they have written. They review only short segments of text, and are concerned principally with vocabulary and sentence formation. Finally at the revision stage, skilled writers revise at all levels and use revision in clarifying meaning. The unskilled writer on the other hand, does not make major revision in the direction of focus of text; they make revision only during the first draft, and focus primarily on the mechanics of grammar, spelling, punctuation and vocabulary.

The teachers' goal in teaching the skill of writing should be to move the writer from the unskilled to the skilled level of mastery by designing necessary and adequate teaching and learning tasks which will significantly improve achievement in the skill.

### **3.5 Trends in the Development of Traditional Methods and Communicative Approaches in English Language Teaching and Learning**

In this section of the chapter, the researcher discusses the origins and trends of traditional methods and Communicative approaches in English language teaching and learning and their impact on pupils' achievement in reading and writing as applicable to different methodologies and approaches at different times in different situations.

#### **3.5.1 The Grammar-translation method**

Mackey (1965) has advanced that English language methodology in Europe first crystallized around the teaching of Latin and Greek. Rivers (1981:25) agrees with Mackey but further acknowledges that the teaching of Latin and Greek in schools and Colleges and other Institutions of learning in the last half of the 19<sup>th</sup> Century, saw the emergence and adoption of the grammar translation in the teaching of European languages in Europe, such as Latin, English, German, French etcetera. Richards and Rodgers (1986:1) claimed that changes in language teaching methods through out history, reflected a recognition of changes in the kind of proficiency learners needed, such as a more tilt towards oral proficiency rather than reading comprehension as the goal of language study. The nature and theories of language teaching and learning that prevailed at the time also influenced changes in further developments. Richards and Rodgers were supported by Kelly (1969) and Howart (1984) who demonstrated that many current issues in language teaching and learning are not particularly new; in fact today's controversies reflect contemporary responses to questions that have been asked and often thrush out the history of language teaching and learning. Linguists such as Marcel (1793-1896), Predergast (1806-1886) and Gouin (1831-

1896) to name but a few, were perhaps the best known of the mid-19<sup>th</sup> century reformers that spoke and wrote against the continued use of the grammar translation method in language teaching and learning. In grammar translation method, the learner was introduced directly to the language through translation of passages and imitation. Stern (1983:173-187) has advanced that amongst other teaching and learning factors that were associated with the grammar translation method, the following were mostly prominently criticized:

### **3.5.1.1 Weaknesses of the Grammar-translation method**

- (i) It was not a successful method with the less intelligent students who muddle through, making many mistakes over and over again, thus building up cumulative bad habits or inaccuracies that are difficult to eradicate when the learner is at an advanced stage;
- (ii) There was little emphasis on accurate pronunciation and intonation. The method produced learners who could write the language but could not speak it well because communication skills were neglected;
- (iii) The less gifted students found language study very tedious and usually dropped out of school as soon as they could;
- (iv) There was a lot of emphasis on learning rules of formation and exceptions, but little training in the active use of the language and expression of user's own meaning, even in writing;
- (v) In the effort to practice the application of rules and the use of exceptions, the student was often trained in artificial forms of language, some of which were rare, others old-fashioned, and many others of little practical use;
- (vi) The language learned was usually of a literary type, and the vocabulary was detailed and sometimes esoteric;
- (vii) The role of a student/learner in the class-room was for the greater part of the time a passive one—they absorbed and then reconstituted what they had absorbed to satisfy the teacher; and
- (viii) The method was not based on any theory on language learning.

Although criticisms against the grammar translation method appear to have been numerous, the method had a few notable merits and some positive impact on target language learning. This assertion is captured in the literature documented by (Lado 1957: Kelly 1969), Finnochiaro 1974, Rivers 1981, Stern 1983). Among these were the following:

### **3.5.1.2 Strengths of the grammar-translation method**

- (i) The grammar-translation method set limited objectives, and its techniques did achieve its objectives where the students in class were highly intelligent and interested in abstract reasoning;
- (ii) When students understood the logic of grammar as it was presented, they learnt the rules and exceptions and memorized the paradigms and vocabulary tests. They became reasonably adapted at taking dictation and translating foreign language texts into the native language; and
- (iii) The best students knew many words in the new or target language and had an intellectual grasp of structures which became active if they had the opportunity to live for a period of time in the area where the language is spoken.

All the same, the criticism levelled against the grammar-translation method in language teaching and learning still appear to outweigh the positive remarks about the method. This gave rise to the *direct method* by the end of the 18<sup>th</sup> Century.

## **3.5.2 The direct method**

### **3.5.2.1 Advantages of the direct method**

According to Rivers (1981:33) the *direct method* had an advantage over the grammar-translation method in that:

- (i) Students learn to understand a language by listening to a great deal of it and they learn to speak it by speaking it and associating speech with appropriate action. This has been observed by many language theorists, that, that was the way children learn their native language, and this was the way children who had been transferred

- to a different linguistic environment acquired a second language;
- (ii) Speech preceded reading, but even in reading, students were encouraged to forge a direct bond between the printed word and their understanding of it, without passing through an intermediate stage of translation into the native language. The ultimate aim was to develop the ability to think in the language whether or not one was conversing, reading or writing; and
  - (iii) Grammar should not be taught explicitly and deductively as in a grammar-translation class, but should be learnt largely through practice. Students are encouraged to form their own generalizations about grammatical structures by an inductive process through reflecting on what they have been learning. In this way, the study of grammar is kept at a functional level, being confined to those areas which are continually being used in speech.

### **3.5.2.2 Disadvantages of the direct method**

The greatest disadvantage of the direct method was that since students were required at all times to make a direct association between a foreign phrase and a situation, it was the highly intelligent student with well developed powers of induction who profited most from this method. The direct method, therefore can become discouraging for the less talented. As a result, the members of an average class soon diverged considerably from each other in degree of language mastery.

### **3.5.3 The audio-lingual method**

Emanating from the weaknesses of the direct method was the Audio-lingual method during world War II in the 1940's. The Audio-Lingual method received its most wide spread use in the 1960's and was used both in the United States of America and other countries where English, French, Spanish or other European languages were taught as a foreign language.

The stated objectives of the audio-lingual method were the development of near-native mastery, at various levels of competence, in all the basic four psychological skills of language, beginning with listening, then speaking then reading and writing, in that order. Mastery of the first two skills was required first in order to form the basis for learning reading and writing. Paralleling this linguistic aim was the endeavour to develop understanding of the culture of the people who speak the language being learnt. The underlying basic assumption was that culture and language were a reflection of the people who spoke that language (Lado 1957, 1959, Finochiaro 1974).

An outstanding notable impact on mastery of the target language learning was that the audio-lingual method did achieve success in developing comprehension and fluency in speaking the target language, within a limited body of language material, very early in the student's learning experience. From the beginning, students learn segments of language which could be of immediate use for communication. Students were also trained to understand and produce utterances in the new language with recognizable and acceptable sound patterns and at a normal speed of delivery.

Richard and Rodgers (1986:59) have stated that those language scholars that criticised the audio-lingual method to be unsuitable in English language teaching and learning did so from two fronts. On the one hand, the theoretical foundations of the audio-lingual method were attacked as being inadequate and not valid in its claims both in terms of language theory and learning theory. On the other hand, practitioners found that the practical results of utilizing the principles and techniques of this method fell short of expectations. Students were often found to be unable to transfer skills acquired through audio-lingual method to real communication outside the class-room. They found the experience of an audio-lingual class boring and unsatisfying due to the language pattern drills that the students imitated, repeated and chorused.

The theoretical attack on audio-lingual language teaching and learning beliefs resulted from revisions in American linguistic and psychological theories in the sixties. The linguist Noam Chomsky rejected the structural approach to language description as well as the behavioural theory of language learning. He wrote:

*Language is not a habit structure; ordinary linguistic behaviour characteristically involves innovation, formulation of new sentences and patterns in accordance with values of great abstractness and intricacy (Chomsky 1965)*

While criticism of the audio-lingual method proceeded in the 1960's and 1970's, there came a relief in the form of a theory derived in part from Chomsky's ideas on language and mind. This was known as the cognitive code learning theory.

#### **3.5.4 The cognitive-code approach**

Cognitive-code learning approach referred to a view of learning that allowed for a conscious focus on grammar and acknowledged the role of abstract mental processes in learning rather than habit-formation. Jacobins (1970) and supported by Lugton (1971) was that there were no clear cut methodological principles or guidelines that emerged, or was there particular method incorporated or inherent in this view of learning. The term cognitive-code is still sometimes involved to refer to any conscious grammatical syllabus that allows for meaningful practice and use of language.

#### **3.5.5 The Situational approach**

As a result of the discontentment with the cognitive-code approach, in its theory and practice in language teaching and learning, and also due to developments in language teaching theory in the United Kingdom and Europe, the situational approach to language teaching and learning emerged. This approach originated in the efforts and works of British linguists such as Palmer, Hornby and Firth in the 1920's and 1930's (Stern 1983:53-115). Hornby and Palmer attempted to develop a more scientific formulation for an oral approach to teaching English than was evidenced in the direct method. They developed a systematic study of the principles and procedures that could be applied to the selection and organization of the content of a language course.

The principles of a new language were introduced and practised situationally; these became a key feature of the approach in the sixties, and it was then that the term “situational” was increasingly used in referring to the oral approach. The key feature of this approach is that pupils/students are introduced to the language according to a particular situation. For example, a “market situation” will require the language of buying and selling to be learnt by the pupils. The teacher will therefore select language very carefully that will be used to describe the Market, buy and sell commodities in the market, etcetera. In this way, it is assumed that learners will be equipped with structures of the language that would be used in a meaningful situation which is applicable to their daily lives, i.e language for communication which is cardinal for the language user. The situational approach to language teaching put strong emphasis on oral practices, grammar and sentence patterns which conform to the intuitions of many practically oriented class-room teachers and that is why it continues to be widely used even today.

### **3.5.6 The Communicative Language Teaching Approach**

#### **3.5.6.1 Origins of the Communicative approach to language teaching**

The origins of the Communicative language teaching (CLT) are associated with the changes in the British language teaching tradition dating from the late 1960's. Just as the linguistic theory underlying audio-lingualism was abandoned in the United States in the mid 1960's, British applied linguists began to call into question the theoretical assumptions underlying situational language teaching which was popular at the time Howatt (1984) observed thus:

*By the end of the sixties it was clear that the situational approach had run its course. There was no future in continuing to pursue the Chimera of predicting language on the basis of situational events. What was required was closer study of the language itself and a return to the traditional concept that utterances carried in themselves and expressed the meanings and intentions of the speakers and writers who created them (Howatt 1984:280)*

In light of the above citation, the British applied linguists emphasized another fundamental dimension of language that was inadequately addressed in contemporary approaches to language teaching in the functional and

communicative potentials of language. They saw the need to focus in language teaching on communicative proficiency rather than of mere mastery of structures.

Scholars who advocated this view of language teaching and language learning were Candlin (1973) and Widdowson (1978). These drew upon the works of British functional linguists such as Firth (1986) Haliday (1970a), (1970b), (1973), Gumperz and Hymes (1971), Labov (1971). These also relied on works in philosophy of language by such scholars as Austin and Searle (1969). The need to articulate was considered a high priority. In this regard, the work of the Council of Europe, the writings of Van Elk, Wilkins, Widdowson, (1978) Candlin, Brumfit, (1979) Johnson (1977) and other applied linguists found the theoretical basis for a communicative or functional syllabus and approach to language teaching. The rapid application of these ideas by text book writers and the equally quick response of these new principles by British language teaching specialists, curriculum development centres and even governments gave prominence nationally and internationally to what came to be known as the *communicative approach to language teaching (CLT)*.

The rise of the communicative approach to language teaching and learning can be seen as a response of the language teaching for their new situation and their recognition of the inadequacy of traditional grammar-translation methods and also of the structural methods of the 1950's. (These stressed speaking and listening but relied heavily on meaningless pattern drills and repetition).

Wilkins (1983:34) states that the aim of communicative language teaching was to produce in individuals the ability to create and construct utterances (spoken and written) which have the desired social value or purpose. That is to say, the individual, in response to some external stimulus or in the process of initiating communication, conceives a message, the exact nature of which neither he/she could accurately predict, and is able to construct and utter the linguistic form which conveys that message. (In reception the individual is able to comprehend equally unpredictable utterances produced by others). The possession of this ability is a matter of degree. In other words, the efficiency of this ability in each

individual speaker/hearer is relative. The individual may be able to communicate in some ways but not in others. The objective of language teaching will be to maximize the extent to which this is possible.

Communication therefore, may be seen to lie in the priority of conversational interaction over other modes of language behaviour; in a syllabus of “notions and functions” as opposed to that of “structures”; basing learning on individual and group needs rather than on generalized language content; in the use of “authentic” as opposed to “non authentic” materials; in an emphasis on “process” rather than “product”; or in the desire to base learning on genuine communication rather than on participation in pedagogically motivated and structured activities.

### **3.5.6.2 Conditions for communicative language teaching**

Writing in a similar vein Richards (1983:111-119) emphasizes that communication is meaning - based, conventional, appropriate, interactional and structured. Xiaoju (1984:3) supports Richards’s view on communication and goes further to state that one of the major principles in language teaching is to have the students learn the language through using it. In a class-room context, he argues, there are three conditions that must be met before any activity can be called “communicative”. These are:

- (i) Real situations, real roles;
- (ii) Need, purpose, and Substances for Communication; and
- (iii) Freedom and unpredictability.

#### **3.5.6.2.1 Real situations, real roles**

Firstly, the situation must be real, and the role must be real. For example, as a Chinese foreign language graduate in a course of English Language will act as an interpreter at meetings, in negotiations, and others will read and summarize or translate news prints or technical literature. These are situations and roles that are real for a Chinese English language learner. Communicative competence does not mean the ability just to utter words or sentences. It involves the ability to read mentally as well as verbally in communication situations.

### **3.5.6.2.2 Need, Purpose and Substances for Communication**

When people ask questions, it is because they do not know the answer; when they speak or write, it is because they have something to say; and when they listen or read, they do it to get information or ideas. In other words, there is a need and a purpose for communication and something to be communicated. This need, purpose and substance are what give rise to communication in real life.

### **3.5.6.2.3 Freedom and unpredictability**

In real life, when you ask people a question, they always have the freedom to answer as they choose. So there is also an element of unpredictability. Language learners need to learn to handle the freedom in language learning and learn to tackle the unpredictable. The communicative approach, therefore, presupposes that students take the central role in learning. This idea of student-centred instruction is first of all embodied in the design of the syllabuses. The students should be given a chance to do the learning themselves, instead of having everything done for them by the teacher.

The teacher's role in a communicative class is neither to give lectures nor to supply correct answers. To learn the language, the students themselves must go through the process of learning. The teacher's job is only to provide the conditions for this process, set it going, observe it, try to understand it, give guidance, help it along, analyze and evaluate it. It is the teacher's job to help the students' unconscious, irrational, unpatterned processes to the conscious, individual ways for the students.

That is what make the commutative teacher's task so demanding. On the other hand, it is also a most rewarding job - a job full of interest, life, creativity versatility, and possibilities, because the students are released from a passive role and are now interested, alive and creative.

### **3.5.6.4 Results of Communicative language teaching**

The communicative approach has had a great impact on language teaching and learning on the learner as is supported by the literature above. In addition,

Richards and Rodgers (1986:40) acknowledge that the influence of the communicative approach in language teaching and learning has been enormous. It has led to increasing confidence on the part of class teachers so that they can provide positive, worthwhile and attainable objectives for the learners and make the learning process varied and enjoyable. Some of the positive results that have come out of the communicative approach in the class room are:

- (i) The creation of class-room activities that maximize opportunities for learners to use the target language for meaningful purposes, with their intention on the messages they are creating and the task they are completing rather than a correctness of language form and language structure;
- (ii) Learners try their best to use the target language creatively;
- (iii) Extensive use and experience of target language helps every learner;
- (iv) The communicative approach emphasizes that effective language learning is responsive to the needs and interests of the individual learner;
- (v) The communicative approach emphasizes that effective language learning is an active process in which the learner takes increasing responsibility for his or her progress; and
- (vi) The communicative approach views the effective teacher as a facilitator and not a controller in the language learning process.

#### **3.5.6.5 Some criticisms of the communicative approach**

Although the communicative approach has had a great impact on the teaching and learning of the English language since its inception as noted above, James (1983:109) identifies this main problems facing C.L.T. The first problem is the teaching of structure, which he describes as failure of functional teaching. The second is "recognition of the contribution brought to the learning task by the learner". According to James (1983:101) two reasons for such problems lie in the fact that CLT has extrapolated "too readily from mother tongue teaching to foreign language teaching".

One result has been the widespread conclusion that one may learn a language by talking it. James challenges this point by pointing out that "one cannot learn a language by talking, because if you can talk in a language, then you know it

already so do not need to learn it". James (1983:101) further observes that over eager extrapolation from mother tongue teaching is a failure to recognise the extent to which the nature of the contribution the learner is able to bring to the learning task. Using James's own words he says that CLT is a "*fait accompli*", in that it has failed to elaborate a convincing and consistent paradigm and is forced to rely and base itself on a "bag of tricks" - including such devices of games, role-plays and simulation - which qualify by not offending the ethos of the movement. James (1983:101-3) further observes that CLT is entering the doldrums where it will remain until or unless some major concessions are made for it's readjustment with pedagogical realities. Supporting the claims of James's observation on CLT, Hughes (1983:1) has observed that a perennial criticism of CLT is that it produces "fluent" but "inaccurate" learners, in the same way that natural language learning may lead to fossilization in pidgin languages. Hughes (1983:1) considers this problem and observes that a teaching method which generated the pidgin - like the language of the early stages of natural language learning did not need to be disallowed on the grounds that errors would become established and prove impossible to eradicate. The researcher opposes the fore-going in that the researcher sees the success in CLT in learning the language means something like having developed the ability to perform adequately communicative tasks such as productive or receptive, in speech and writing -for which the language is needed.

Added to those disagreeing with perfectness of the communicative approach is Mitchell (1994:33) who has noted that the communicative approach of language teaching and learning is now more than thirty years old. Yet, he points out, it is not a tightly structured method of teaching but a broad assembly of ideas from a wide range of sources (some linguistic, others broadly educational). These have together come to be accepted as "good practice" by many contemporary teachers. Mitchell (1994:33), further argues that the most obvious problem of the communicative approach is the issue of grammar. It is clear Mitchell says that in some contexts, versions of the communicative approach are producing learners who can still do little more than produce analysed global phrases, and have not yet internalised a creative language system (for example a grammar) which will allow them to produce original utterances correctly in situations of

open and unpredictable target language use.

The second problem that Mitchell (1994:33) identifies in the communicative approach concerns the relationship between *doing* on the one hand and *reflecting* on the other. The communicative approach has advocated high levels of learner activity and involvement in target language use for real communicative purposes. The problem is seen in how to develop learner autonomy as it is difficult to see how extended discussion in some situations could take place without the use of the mother tongue. The communicative approach has been interpreted to date, at least in British schools, as very largely an oral approach. The skills of reading and writing have been marginalized, rather than rethought, as components of the overall approach. The on-going debate on how best to teach the four skills of the English language i.e. listening and speaking, reading and writing has given rise to the *text-based integrated approach (TBIA)*.

The text-based integrated approach, which Nunan (1999:24-25) called task-based approach has its origin in the communicative approach, and is seen as one of the recent developments in English language teaching methodologies including that of eclecticism advocated by Larsen-Freeman (1986). The added advantage of using a text-based integrated approach is that the teacher is able to use a particular text to teach or test various skills in English language. For example, the same text can be used to teach or test the skills of reading, listening and speaking, for appropriate level of learners. Following the text-based integrated approach to language teaching and learning is eclecticism. Stern (1983:174) describes an eclectic teacher as one who is knowledgeable of the different methods and approaches to language teaching and learning and is able to make use of these methods and approaches as the lesson demands. For example in a certain language lesson, he may start with the audio-lingual pattern drills of repetition and substitution and move on to the communicative approach, and conclude the lesson by dramatising the situation. In this way, an eclectic teacher is able to adequately fuse elements from different methods and approaches and make use of them in a single particular lesson. Eclecticism on

the other hand, would entail drawing experiences from different methods and approaches to facilitate effective delivery in a language lesson that is learner centred.

### **3.6 Summary**

The literature review in chapter three has covered the major aspects of the origins and developments of the traditional methodologies and communicative approaches in language teaching and learning. Further, a distinction has been made between method and approach. Criticisms and successes of various methods and approaches and their impact on the pupil's achievement in language learning in reading and writing have also been discussed in detail in this chapter. The teacher's role in lesson planning, implementing and evaluation have also been clearly spelt out in relation to pupil achievement in language learning in relation to reading and writing.

The concept of reading has been defined, and the types of reading that readers engage in have also been explained, together with the types of readers such as skilled and unskilled readers have been discussed. An attempt has been made to discuss in detail the types of reading skills such as scanning, skimming, inferencing.

Writing in this chapter has been defined and the difficulties associated with it have also been spelt out and discussed in detail in relation to both skilled and unskilled writers. In chapter four, the researcher presents the methodology of the study.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### METHODOLOGY

#### 4.0 Introduction

This section explains how the study was conducted. It includes information on how the research hypotheses will be accepted or rejected, how the research questions will be answered or how the research objectives will be achieved.

Other details that are included in this section are:

- (i) The research design;
- (ii) Population sample and sampling procedures;
- (iii) Instrumentation and procedures for data collection;
- (iv) Testing of hypotheses;
- (v) Data processing and analysis; and
- (vi) Methodological assumptions and limitations.

In this section, details of how to deal with confounding variables of the research are discussed and eliminated or accounted for through the randomisation process in sampling.

McMillan and Schumacher (1997:335) supported by Cohen and Manion (1990:193) have observed that true experimental designs provide the strongest, most convincing arguments of the casual effect of the independent variable because they control for most sources of Internal validity. However, Mc Millan and Schumacher (1997):335) note that there are many circumstances in educational research for which while casual inference is desired, it is not feasible to design true experiments, in which the need for strong external validity is greater. Nevertheless, Mc Millan and Schumacher (1997:335) also agree that quasi-experimental designs have now become popular in educational research, as they also provide reasonable control over most sources of validity. In this vein, the study was designed as quasi-experimental study because subjects could not be subjected to complete scientific experimental conditions.

## **4.1 The Research design**

### **4.1.0 Introduction**

The study used the quasi-experimental research design, taking the format of the pre-test post test comparison group design in the baseline study of 2001 and a pretest – post-post-test in the actual study of 2004. Two groups were compared in their average means in achievement in reading and writing in English at Grade 8 level, in 2001 and 2004. The intent of the experiment was to compare the effect of one condition on one group with the effect of a different condition on another group, in this case the effect of traditional teaching methods on reading and writing in English in Grade 8 to that of communicative approaches in reading and writing in English in Grade 8. This was for a period of one school term (3 months), February to April 2001 and the experiment was repeated with a different group of Grade 8 pupils in 2004. In addition to the pre-test and post-test that the 2004 group received which was administered to the baseline study group of 2001, a modified post-post-test but capturing the same skills of reading and writing in English in Grade 8 was administered to check pupils' general competence to enhance validity of findings.

The study was based on the quasi-experimental design involving two groups of pupils. Both groups were pre-tested and their scores recorded. Thereafter, one of the groups was exposed to the communicative methods of teaching while the other was exposed to the traditional methods of teaching. The two groups were then post-tested to determine differences (if any) in levels of performance and to establish whether or not such differences were significant and whether or not they could be attributed to the teaching method used.

#### **4.1.1 Population Sample and Sampling procedures (2001 group)**

A total of 480 Grade 8 pupils were targeted to be involved in the base-line study of 2001, assuming that each school had a class of 40 pupils. A list of schools was made available from the Ministry of Education Headquarters in Lusaka (see Appendix XXV) that provided both Lusaka Urban and Lusaka Rural Basic Schools. A total of 12 government schools were chosen for the study. The

names of these schools are listed below:

#### **4.1.1.1 Lusaka Urban**

- (1) Woodlands Basic school;
- (2) Mumuni Basic School;
- (3) Kamulanga Basic School;
- (4) Lilanda Basic School;
- (5) Chelstone Basic School; and
- (6) Chakunkula Basic School.

#### **4.1.1.2 Lusaka Rural**

- (1) Silverrest Basic School;
- (2) Chongwe Basic School;
- (3) Chalimbana Basic school;
- (4) Kampekete Basic School;
- (5) Nyangwena Basic School; and
- (6) Chinyunyu Basic School.

The two groups of traditional methods and communicative approaches were formed thus:

#### **Group A. Traditional methods**

- (1) Mumuni Basic (47 pupils);
- (2) Kamulanga Basic School (52 pupils);
- (3) Chakunkula Basic School (35 pupils);
- (4) Silverrest Basic School (23 pupils);
- (5) Kampekete Basic School (23 pupils); and
- (6) Chinyunyu Basic School (35 pupils).

#### **Group B. Communicative approaches**

- (1) Woodlands Basic School (34 pupils);
- (2) Chelstone Basic School (40 pupils);

- (3) Nyangwena Basic School (37 pupils);
- (4) Chalimbana Basic School (21 pupils);
- (5) Chongwe Basic School (25 pupils; and
- (6) Lilanda Basic School (35 pupils).

Out of the targeted 480 pupils that were supposed to be involved in the study, a total of 413 successfully participated throughout the study. This represented 86% of the targeted population, making issues of generalization and validity significant as this is above 50% of the targeted population.

The means or averages of the two groups in achievement in English reading and writing skills in Grade 8 were compared after post-test, by using a t-test. The t-test was used because it easily compares the means of two groups non-related. The outcome of the results will be presented and discussed in chapter five. The t-test was tested at 0.01 level of significance.

Out of the 12 schools, which were chosen using a simple random method, 6 were in Lusaka Urban, and 6 were in Lusaka rural, Chongwe District. To control the variables of the effects of the pupils coming from high socio-economic sector and low socio-economic sector, and other variables at play, three of the schools from Lusaka urban representing high socio-economic sector and three schools from Lusaka rural representing low socio-economic sector formed one group A, and used the traditional methods and the remainder six, three from Lusaka Urban and three from Chongwe District which is Lusaka rural used the communicative teaching approaches and formed group B. In the 2004 study, Mumuni (Urban) Woodlands, A (Urban) and Chongwe (rural) used communicative approaches while Chelstone (urban), Silver rest (rural) Kampekete (rural) used traditional methods. Only six schools were involved in the 2004 study.

Issues of geographical location, that is North, South, East and West and concentration of schools in a particular geographical area were also considered

before sampling procedures were implemented.

A simple random lottery sampling technique was used to obtain the required schools in the research study. Names of schools were written on pieces of paper and put in a container. Names of schools were obtained from the Ministry of Education Headquarters in Lusaka. The container was shuffled several times and pieces of papers were picked from the container one at a time in a pick-a-lot draw until the required number of schools were picked. This technique was used in the baseline study of 2001 and also in the actual study of 2004.

The 12 teachers that were involved in the baseline study and later trimmed down to 6 in the actual study had to undergo a week's training to acquaint them with what traditional methods are, and what communicative approaches are.

In the actual study of 2004 a total number of targeted pupils out of 6 schools assuming that each normal class in size is 40 pupils was 240- ( $6 \times 40 = 240$ ). The total number of pupils that participated throughout the research using the testing instrument used in 2001 was 150 pupils. This number is 62% of the total targeted sample in this study which is above 50% of the targeted population. This representative percentage answers well to questions of validity and generalizability of the research and research findings.

In the post-post-test using the communicative competence testing instrument for grade 8 a total of 240 pupils were targeted, ( $6 \times 40 = 240$ ). The actual number of pupils that sat for the communicative competence test for Grade 8 were 216 pupils. This figure is 90% of the targeted population which is above 50% making the research and research findings valid and generalizable to other types of researches answering similar research questions.

#### **4.1.2 Instrumentation and procedures for data collection**

Two testing instruments on reading and writing for Grade 8 were designed. In the actual study of 2004, a pre-test and a post-test were used as in the baseline

study of 2001. In addition, a modified post-post test instrument testing the achievement of the same skills of reading and writing at Grade 8 level was further administered as the results of the 2001 baseline study did not show clear-cut differences in the means. Therefore, to explore the issues of validity and generalizability in conclusion a further post-post test was administered and taken by all pupils that were present in class on that particular school day. This did not matter whether the pupils were involved in the study from the beginning or not. This test was called Grade 8 communicative competence and showed a rise in the number of pupils that participated in some schools. The composite test of reading and writing skills for Grade 8 learners was used in both the baseline study of 2001 and the actual study of 2004. The other was used in the actual study of 2004 in the post-post test which was a modification of the first instrument (see Appendix I and Appendix IX).

The instruments tested reading comprehension and structure and for writing the instruments tested composition writing and summary. A total of 100 marks were awarded in each test, testing reading and writing. In the comprehension section, both free response and objective multiple choice questions were tested. The test items relied heavily on what was normally supposed to be covered in Term 1 of grade 8 syllabus for the reading and writing section.

Teachers' questionnaires eliciting information on traditional methods and communicative approaches were designed and administered to all the teachers that took part in both the base-line study of 2001 and the actual study of 2004. Administered to teachers also was a questionnaire eliciting information on the grade 8 syllabus and teaching materials (See Appendix III, V and VII for the types of teachers questionnaires designed). Information on the assessment of teacher effectiveness in teaching was obtained by class-room observations by the researcher. Every teacher was visited at least 2 times, in a teaching session just to make sure that the teachers were in line with what the research study demanded in order to achieve the desired goals and objectives. Unrecorded verbal interviews were also conducted amongst the teachers that took part in the

study. The questions asked during the interviews were mainly attitudinal regarding the teaching and learning of English in Grade 8.

#### **4.1.3 Testing of Hypotheses**

The study was guided by the following main null and alternative hypotheses (H0 H1):

*H0 There is no significant difference in average achievement in English reading and writing between a group of Grade Eight learners with whom traditional teaching methods were used and another group with whom communicative teaching approaches were used.*

*H1 There is a significant difference in average achievement in English reading and writing between a group of Grade Eight learners with whom traditional teaching methods were used and another group with whom communicative teaching approaches were used.*

The t-test for independent (non-related) statistical instrument was used and tested at 0.01 level of significance. The t-test was used because it favourably compares the differences between means of two different groups.

#### **4.1.4 Data processing and analysis**

Data was analysed and processed through the Computer by the use of SPSS statistical package and checked by hand. The SPSS was chosen because it provides for the t-test statistical instrument while the t-test testing instrument was used because it is able to test the differences of the means of the two large groups involved in the investigation: the two sets of the base-line study of 2001 and that of the actual study of 2004.

#### **4.1.5 Methodological assumptions and limitations**

It was assumed that all the 480 pupils plus 12 teachers in the base-line research study would be involved both during the pre test – and post times, and that in the actual study of 2004, all 240 pupils would be involved in the research study.

This was not so because of various factors such as sickness, absenteeism and transfers of pupils from one school to another or from Lusaka province to other provinces during the research study period. This meant that some pupils were available for pre-test only and some were available for post-test only due to circumstances highlighted above. This explains why in the final analysis in the base-line study only a total of 413 out of 480 and in the actual study only 150 out of 240 were available as earlier alluded to. Pupils that took part only in one test, either pre-test only or post-test only were not included in the total sample as subjects. However, in the General Grade 8 communicative test, of post-post-test the variable of absenteeism in one test that is pre-test or post-test was overlooked. This was because the issue was not with the number of pupils that participated but the level of performance achieved, under the communicative approaches.

## **4.2 Summary**

This chapter has presented in great detail how the study was conducted in the two groups of 2001 and 2004. Issues of population, sample size, sampling procedures and techniques, methods of data collection and instruments used have also been discussed in great detail. The choice of using a t-test to test the differences in the average means achievement have been explained. The level of significance at which the t-test was tested was established. Methodological assumptions and limitations and methods of data processing and analysis have also been explained in great detail in this chapter. In Chapter Five, the researcher presents the research findings of the study.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **PRESENTATION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS**

#### **5.0 Introduction**

In this Chapter, research findings are presented. Issues of objectivity and bias are strictly adhered to or observed throughout the presentation. This is followed by discussion of the findings as per presentation in Chapter Six, and later conclusion and recommendations are made.

#### **5.1 The Base-Line Study 2001**

The base-line study was conducted in 2001. A total of twelve Schools were involved. Details of schools grouping and selection that used the communicative approaches and those that used the traditional methods were presented in Chapter four.

##### **5.1.1 Woodlands A basic school**

A composite testing instrument testing the skills of reading and writing was used as pre-test and post-test. (See instrument in Appendix I).

A total of 34 Grade Eight pupils successfully completed the research requirement exercise. Pupils at Woodlands A Basic School used the communicative approaches in their studies for one school term (February to April, 2001). Before they used the communicative approaches in teaching them the skills of reading and writing as per their Curriculum, they were subjected to a pretest. The pre test-instrument covered what they are expected to know in the skills of reading and writing in term one. In reading, emphasis was put on reading comprehension and structure and in writing emphasis was put on composition and summary.

In the pretest, a total of 1141 marks were scored by the 34 pupils having a mean ( $\bar{X}$ ) of 33. In the post-test, using the same testing instrument, and after being taught for one school term (February – April 2001) the 34 pupils scored a total of

1510 marks having a mean ( $\bar{X}$ ) of 44. A table of individual candidates mark scores of the pretest and post test are presented in Appendix XI.

### **5.1.2 Chelstone Basic School**

A total of 40 Grade Eight pupils successfully completed the research requirement exercise. Pupils at Chelstone Basic School used the communicative approaches in their studies for one school term (February–April, 2001). Before they used the communicative approaches in teaching them the skills of reading and writing as per their curriculum, they were pre-tested. The pre-test instrument covered what they are expected to know in the skills of reading and writing by the end of term one. In reading, emphasis was put on reading comprehension and structure and in writing emphasis was put on a composition and summary (See Appendix I for composite testing instrument).

In the pretest, a total of 1245 marks were scored by the 40 pupils having a mean ( $\bar{X}$ ) of 31. In the post –test, using the same testing instrument, and after being taught for one school term (February – April 2001) the 40 pupils scored a total of 1554 marks having a mean of ( $\bar{X}$ ) 38. A table of individual candidates mark scores of the pretest and post test are presented in Appendix XII.

### **5.1.3 Chalimbana Basic School**

A total of 21 Grade Eight pupils successfully completed the research requirement exercise. Pupils at Chalimbana Basic School used the Communicative approaches in their studies for one school term (February–April 2001). Before they used the communicative approaches in teaching them the skills of reading and writing as per their curriculum, they were pre-tested. (See Appendix I for the composite pre-test and post-test instrument). The pretest – instrument covered what they are expected to know in the skills of reading and writing by the end of term one. In reading, emphasis was placed on reading comprehension and structure and in writing, emphasis was put on composition and summary (See appendix I for the composite testing instrument).

In the pre-test, a total of 505 marks were scored by the 21 pupils having a ( $\bar{X}$ ) mean of 24. In the post-test, using the same testing instrument, but after being taught for one school term (February – April 2001) the 21 pupils scored 546 marks having a mean of ( $\bar{X}$ ) 26. A table of individual candidates mark scores of the pretest and post-test are presented in Appendix XIII.

#### **5.1.4 Chongwe Basic School**

A total of 25 Grade Eight pupils successfully completed the research exercise. Pupils at Chongwe Basic School used the Communicative approaches in their studies for one school term (February – April 2001). Before they were taught using the communicative approaches, they were pretested. The pre-test and later post test instrument tested the skills of reading and writing that they were expected to cover in the first term of the school calendar. In reading, emphasis was put on reading comprehension and structure and in writing emphasis was put on composition and summary, (Refer to Appendix I).

In the pre-test, a total of 525 marks were scored by the 21 pupils having a ( $\bar{X}$ ) mean of 21. In the post test, using the same testing instrument, and after being taught for one school term (February – April 2001) the pupils scored a total of 675 marks having a mean ( $\bar{X}$ ) of 27. A table of the individual candidates mark scores are presented in Appendix XIV.

#### **5.1.5 Nyangwena Basic School**

A total of 37 Grade Eight pupils successfully completed the research exercise. Pupils at Nyagwena Basic School used the communicative approaches in their studies for one school term (February – April 2001). Before they were taught using the communicative approaches in the skills of reading and writing, they were pre-tested. The pretest and later post-test instrument (see Appendix I) tested the skills of reading and writing that they were expected to cover in the first term of the school calendar. In reading, emphasis was put on reading

comprehension and structures and in writing emphasis was put on composition and summary.

In the pretest, a total of 351 marks were scored by the 37 pupils having a ( $\bar{X}$ ) mean of 13. In the post-test, using the same testing instrument, and after being taught for one school term (February-April 2001) the pupils scored a total of 513 marks having a mean ( $\bar{X}$ ) of 19. A table of individual mark scores are presented in Appendix XV.

**5.1.6 Lilanda Basic School**

A total of 35 Grade Eight pupils completed the research exercise. Pupils at Lilanda Basic School used the communicative approaches in their studies for one school term (February-April 2001). They were pre-tested, and later post-tested using a testing instrument (copy in appendix) that tested the skills of reading and writing that they were expected to cover in the first term of their school calendar. In reading, emphasis was put on reading comprehension and structure, and in writing, emphasis was put on composition and summary.

In the pre-test, a total of 700 marks were scored by the 35 pupils having a ( $\bar{X}$ ) of 20. In the post test, using the same testing instrument, and after being taught for one school term (February-April 2001) the pupils scored a total of 805 marks having a mean ( $\bar{X}$ ) of 23 (Refer to Appendix XVI for individual mark scores).

**5.1.7 Mumuni Basic School**

A total of 47 Grade Eight pupils completed the research exercise. Pupils at Mumuni Basic School used the traditional methods in their studies for one school term (February – April 2001). They were pre-tested, and later post-tested using the same testing instrument (refer to Appendix I), that tested the skills of reading and writing that they were expected to cover in the first term of their school calendar. In reading, emphasis was put on reading comprehension and structure, and in writing emphasis was put on composition and summary.

In the pre-test, a total of 1457 marks were scored by the 47 pupils having a ( $\bar{X}$ ) mean of 31. In the post test, using the same testing instrument, and after being taught for one school term (February – April 2001) the pupils scored a total of 1692 marks having a ( $\bar{X}$ ) mean of 36. A table of individual mark scores are presented in Appendix XVII.

#### **5.1.8 Kamulanga Basic School**

A total of 52 Grade Eight pupils took part and completed the research exercise. Pupils at Kamulanga Basic School used the traditional methods in their studies for one school term (February-April 2001). They were pre-tested at the beginning of the term and later post-tested at the end of the term using the same testing instrument (see Appendix I). The testing instrument tested the skills of reading and writing that they were expected to cover or know in the first term of their school calendar. In reading, emphasis was put on reading comprehension and structure, and in writing, emphasis was put on composition and summary.

In the pre-test, a total of 1092 marks were scored by the 52 pupils having a ( $\bar{X}$ ) mean of 21. In the post-test, a total of 1560 marks were scored after being taught for one term. The scored marks represented a mean of 30. (Details of individual marks for the candidates for pre-test and post test are presented in the Appendix XVIII).

#### **5.1.9 Chakunkula Basic School**

A total of 35 Grade Eight pupils took part in the research exercise. Pupils at Chakunkula Basic School used the traditional methods in their studies for one school term (February-April 2001). They were pre-tested at the beginning of the term, and later post-tested at the end of the term using the same testing instrument (see Appendix I). The testing instrument tested the skills of reading and writing that they were expected to cover and know in the first term of their school calendar. In reading, emphasis was put on testing reading

comprehension and structure, and in writing emphasis was put in composition and summary.

In the pretest, a total of 490 marks were scored by the 35 pupils having a ( $\bar{X}$ ) mean of 14. In the post-test, a total of 630 marks were scored by the 35 pupils after being taught for one term using the traditional methods giving a ( $\bar{X}$ ) mean of 18. A table of individual mark scores for the pre-test and post-test are presented in Appendix XIX.

#### **5.1.10 Silverrest Basic School**

A total of 23 Grade Eight pupils successfully took part in the research exercise. Pupils at Silverest Basic School used the traditional methods in their studies for one school term (February – April 2001). They were pre-tested at the beginning of the term and later post-tested at the end of the term after being taught using the traditional methods. The testing instrument (see Appendix I) tested the skills of reading and writing that they were expected to cover and know in the first term of their school calendar. In reading, emphasis was put on testing reading comprehension and structure and in writing emphasis was put on composition and summary.

In the pre test, a total of 345 marks were scored by the 23 pupils having ( $\bar{X}$ ) mean of 15. In the post-test, a total of 506 marks were scored by the 23 pupils after being taught for one school term using the traditional methods. This represented a mean ( $\bar{X}$ ) of 22. (Find in Appendix xx a detailed table of individual scores for pretest and post-test).

#### **5.1.11 Kampekete Basic School**

A total of 29 Grade Eight pupils successfully took part in the research exercise. Pupils at Kampekete Basic School used the traditional methods in their studies for one school term (February –April 2001). They were pre-tested at the beginning of the term, and later post-tested at the end of the term using the

same testing instrument (copy in appendix). The testing instrument tested the skills of reading and writing that they were expected to cover or know in the first term of their school calendar according to their syllabus. In reading, emphasis was placed on testing comprehension and structure, and in writing emphasis was put in composition and summary.

In the pretest, a total of 435 marks were scored by the 29 pupils having a ( $\bar{X}$ ) mean of 15. In the post-test, a total of 522 marks were scored by the 29 pupils after being taught for one term using the traditional methods and this represented a ( $\bar{X}$ ) mean of 18. (Find details of individual candidates marks for pre-test and post-test as Appendix XXI).

#### **5.1.12 Chinyunyu Basic School**

A total of 35 Grade Eight pupils successfully completed the research exercise. Pupils at Chinyunyu basic school used the traditional methods in their studies for one school term (February-April 2001). They were pretested at the beginning of the term, and later post-tested at the end of the term using the same testing instrument (copy as Appendix I). The testing instrument tested the skills of reading and writing that they were expected to cover and know in the first term of their school calendar, and according to their syllabus. In reading, emphasis was put in testing reading comprehension and structure, and in writing emphasis was put on composition and summary.

In the pretest, a total of 490 marks were scored by the 35 pupils having a ( $\bar{X}$ ) mean 14. In the post test, a total of 665 were scored by the 35 pupils after being taught for one school term using the traditional methods. The marks represented a ( $\bar{X}$ ) mean of 19. Details of individual candidates mark scores in the pretest and post-test are presented in the table in Appendix XXII.

## **5.2 The Actual Study 2004**

### **5.2.0 Introduction**

As a result of the 2001 base-line study findings which are discussed in great detail in chapter Six, the researcher decided to replicate the study with a different group of grade 8 pupils of 2004, to take care of validity and reliability issues of the study. Due to financial constraints and logistical problems and availability of time, the schools were scaled down from 12 schools to 6 schools. Three of these schools, 2 in Lusaka (urban), and 1 in Chongwe (rural), used the communicative approaches and three of the schools, 1 in Lusaka (urban) and 2 in Chongwe (rural), used the traditional methods.

#### **5.2.1 Mumuni Basic School**

A total of 30 Grade Eight pupils successfully completed the research exercise. The pupils at Mumuni Basic School used the communicative approaches in their studies for one school term (February- April 2004). The pupils were pre-tested and later at the end of the term post-tested after being taught for one school term. The testing instrument was the same as used for the 2001 group which tested the skills of reading and writing (see Appendix I). In the skills of reading, the instrument tested comprehension and structure, and in the skills of writing the instrument tested the skills of composition and summary.

In the pretest, the 30 pupils scored a total of 690 marks, having a ( $\bar{X}$ ) mean of 23. In the post-test, after the pupils had gone through one term's work and using the communicative approaches, covering what they were expected to cover and know as the curriculum for term one demanded, they scored a total of 1110 marks. These marks represented a mean ( $\bar{X}$ ) of 37. Details of the marks scored by individual candidates in the pre-test and post-test are presented in Appendix XXIII.

#### **5.2.2 Woodlands 'A' Basic School**

A total of 24 Grade Eight pupils successfully completed the research exercise. Pupils at woodlands 'A' Basic School used the communicative approaches for

one school term (February-April 2004). The 24 pupils were pre-tested and later at the end of term post-tested after being taught for one school term. The testing instrument was the same as used for the 2001 group which tested the skills for reading and writing (see Appendix I). In the skills of reading, the instrument tested comprehension and structure, and in the skills of writing, the instrument tested the skills of composition and summary.

In the pretest, the 24 grade eight pupils at Woodlands 'A' Basic School scored a total of 744 marks having a ( $\bar{X}$ ) mean of 31. In the post-test after the pupils had gone through one term's work and being taught using the communicative approaches, covering what they were expected to cover and know as the curriculum for term one demanded, they scored 912 marks. These marks represented a mean ( $\bar{X}$ ) of 38. Details of the individual candidates marks scored in the pretest and post test are presented in Appendix XXIV.

### **5.2.3 Chongwe Basic School**

A total of 27 Grade Eight pupils successfully completed the research exercise. Pupils at Chongwe Basic School used the communicative approaches in their studies for one school term (February-April 2004). The 27 pupils were pre-tested and later at the end of term post-tested after being taught for one school term. The testing instrument was the same as that which was used for the 2001 Grade Eight group which tested the skills of reading and writing (see Appendix I). In the skills of reading, the instrument tested comprehension and structure, and in the skills of writing, the instrument tested the skills of composition and summary.

In the pre test, the 27 grade eight pupils scored a total of 432 marks having a ( $\bar{X}$ ) mean of 16. In the post-test, after the pupils had gone through one term's work and being taught using the communicative approaches, covering what they were expected to cover and know as the curriculum for term one demanded, they scored 567 marks. These marks represent a mean ( $\bar{X}$ ) of 21. (refer to

Appendix XXV for details of individual marks scored in the pre-test and post-test).

#### **5.2.4 Chelstone Basic School**

A total of 28 Grade 8 pupils successfully participated in the research exercise. Pupils at Chelstone Basic School used the traditional methods in their studies for one school term (February – April 2004). The 28 pupils were pretested and later post-tested at the end of the term after being taught for one school term using the traditional methods. (refer to Appendix I for testing instrument). The testing instrument was the same one used on the 2001 grade eight pupils. In the skills of reading, the instrument tested comprehension and structure, and in the skills of writing, the instrument tested the skills of composition and summary.

In the pretest, the 28 Grade 8 pupils scored a total of 784 marks, having a ( $\bar{X}$ ) mean of 28. In the post test, after the pupils had gone through one terms work and being taught using the traditional methods, covering what they were expected to cover and know as the curriculum for term one demanded, they scored a total of 1092 marks. These marks represent a ( $\bar{X}$ ) mean of 39. Details of individual marks scored by pupils in the pre-test and post-test are presented in Appendix XXVI.

#### **5.2.5 Silverrest Basic School**

A total of 20 Grade Eight pupils successfully participated in the research exercise. Pupils at Silverrest Basic School used the traditional methods in their studies for one school term (February- April 2004). The 20 pupils were pre-tested and later at the end of term post-tested after being taught for one school term. The testing instrument was the same as that one used for the 2001 Grade Eight group which tested the skills of reading and writing (See Appendix I). In the skills of reading, the instrument tested comprehension and structure, and in the skills of writing, the instrument tested the skills of composition and summary. In the pretest, the 20 pupils scored a total of 380 marks having a mean ( $\bar{X}$ ) of 19.

In the post-test after the pupils had gone through one term's work and being taught using the traditional methods, the pupils scored a total of 440 marks having a mean ( $\bar{X}$ ) of 22. (Refer to Appendix XXVII for details of individual mark scores for pretest and post test for this school).

### **5.2.6 Kampekete Basic School**

A total of 21 Grade Eight pupils participated in the research exercise. Pupils at Kampekete Basic School used the traditional methods in their studies for one school term (February – April 2004). The 21 pupils were pre-tested and later post-tested at the end of the term, after being taught by using the traditional methods. The testing instrument was the same as that one used for the 2001 Grade Eight group which tested the skills of reading and writing (refer to Appendix I). In the skills of reading and writing, the instrument tested comprehension and structure, and in the skills of writing, the instrument tested the skills of composition and summary. In the pretest, the 21 pupils scored a total of 252 marks having a mean ( $\bar{X}$ ) of 12. In the post-test, after the pupils had gone through one terms work, and being taught using the traditional methods, covering what they were expected to cover and know as the curriculum for term one demanded, they scored a total of 252 marks. These marks represent a mean ( $\bar{X}$ ) of 12. Refer to Appendix XXVIII for details of individual marks scored in the pretest and post test).

## **5.3 The post-post test Grade Eight Communicative Competence 2004**

### **5.3.0 Introduction**

The researcher decided to subject the 2004 Grade Eight group to a further post-post Grade Eight communicative competence test using a modified instrument but testing the same reading and writing skills.

### **5.3.1 Woodlands 'A' Basic School**

A total of 58 Grade Eight pupils at woodlands A basic school took part in this exercise. This group of pupils was not a homogenous group as pupils took this

test whether they were available or not at the beginning of term. Pupils at Woodlands 'A' Basic School scored a total of 1201 marks having a mean ( $\bar{X}$ ) of 21. These pupils also had earlier used the communicative approaches (refer to Appendix XXIX for pupils' marks and Appendix IX for the modified testing instrument).

### **5.3.2 Mumuni Basic School**

A total of 35 Grade Eight pupils at Mumuni Basic School took part in this research exercise. They were not a homogenous group. Pupils took this test whether they were available at the beginning of the term or not. Pupils at Mumuni Basic School scored a total of 666 marks having a ( $\bar{X}$ ) mean of 19. These pupils were taught using the communicative approaches earlier in the term. (refer to Appendix XXX for individual marks and also Appendix IX for testing instrument modified).

### **5.3.3 Chongwe Basic School**

A total of 30 Grade Eight pupils at Chongwe Basic School took part in this research exercise. These were not a homogenous group. Pupils took this test whether they were available at the beginning of term or not. These pupils at Chongwe Basic School used communicative approaches earlier in their study. They scored a total of 570 marks having a mean ( $\bar{X}$ ) of 23. (refer to Appendix XXXI for individual marks and also Appendix IX for testing instrument).

### **5.3.4 Chelstone Basic School**

A total of 40 Grade Eight at Chelstone Basic School took part in this research exercise. These were not a homogenous group. Pupils took this test whether they were available at the beginning of the term or not. The pupils at Chelstone Basic School scored a total of 949 marks having a ( $\bar{X}$ ) mean of 23. (refer to Appendix XXXII for individual marks and Appendix IX for testing instrument). These pupils used the traditional methods.

### **5.3.5 Silverrest Basic School**

A total of 28 Grade Eight pupils took part in this research exercise. These pupils were not a homogenous group. Pupils took this test whether they were available at the beginning of the term or not. The pupils at Silverrest Basic School used the traditional methods. They scored a total of 518 marks having a ( $\bar{X}$ ) mean of 19. (refer to Appendix XXXIII for individual marks and Appendix IX for testing instrument).

### **5.3.6 Kampekete Basic School**

A total of 25 Grade Eight pupils took part in this research exercise. These pupils were not a homogenous group. Pupils took this test whether or not they were available at the beginning of the term. These pupils at Kampekete used the traditional methods. They scored a total of 182 marks having a ( $\bar{X}$ ) mean of 7. (refer to individual mark details in Appendix XXXIV and Appendix IX for modified testing instrument).

## CHAPTER SIX

### DISCUSSION AS PER RESEARCH FINDINGS

#### 6.0 Introduction

In Chapter five, research findings were presented to answer the question of the study formulated in Chapter one. The question was formulated as:

***Is there a significant difference in average achievement in English reading and writing skills between a group of Grade Eight learners who used traditional teaching methods and another group who used communicative approaches?***

To answer this question and going by the hypotheses formulated in the study, group marks converted into group means have been compared, and not individual candidates marks or scores. The t-test was used and tested at 0.01 level of significance. The t-test was chosen because it adequately compares the differences in the means of large groups or subjects which are non-related as per our study. In this Chapter the researcher presents the discussion as per findings.

#### 6.1 Discussion as per Research Findings

##### 6.1.1 The Base-line Research Study 2001

A total of 12 schools in the base-line research study were presented in chapter five. Details of how these schools were selected, and what methods and they were assigned to use, and the type of testing instruments used were presented in Chapter four under methodology, and Chapter Five in the presentation of findings.

##### 6.1.2 Communicative approaches

This study has revealed that communicative approaches were more effective than traditional methods in achievement means in reading and writing skills in grade Eight learners. These findings are supported by Gwarinda (1993;40) and Nunan (1999:9) who stress that in communicative approaches, the teacher is

more concerned with communication. How the teacher communicates, plans and delivers a lesson is of paramount importance. Teachers using communicative approaches have been cited to use relevant teaching materials that depict real-life situations and involve the learner in the learning process, in other words learning is learner – centred as opposed to teacher centred in traditional methods. The foregoing assertion is emphasized by Nunan (1999:10) and Kyriacou (1998:6-7). The assertions advanced above are supported by the evidence presented below where the schools that used communicative approaches scored more marks and had high means than those that used traditional methods:

Six school were chosen to use the communicative approaches. The schools are listed below showing group marks and means. Details of how the teaching and testing was done has already been presented in chapter five.

		<b>MARKS</b>	<b>MEANS</b>
1. Woodlands 'A' Basic School	(34)	2,651	77
2. Chelstone Basic School	(40)	2,799	69
3. Chalimbana Basic School	(21)	1,061	50
4. Chongwe Basic School	(25)	1,224	48
5. Nyangwena Basic School	(37)	1,213	42
6. Lilanda Basic School	(35)	1,541	44
<b>Total of pupils</b>	<b>192</b>	<b>10,489</b>	<b>54</b>

The mean for this group of pupils that used communicative approaches was 54.

### **6.1.3 Traditional Methods**

Six school were chosen to use the traditional methods. The schools are listed below showing group marks and means of pupils' performance. Details of how the teaching and testing were done has already been presented in chapter five.

		<b>MARKS</b>	<b>MEANS</b>
7. Mumuni Basic School	(47)	3,264	68
8. Kamulanga Basic School	(52)	2,665	51
9. Chakunkula Basic School	(35)	1,189	33
10. Silverrest Basic School	(23)	877	38
11. Chinyunyu Basic School	(35)	1,186	33
12. Kampekete Basic School	(29)	973	33
<b>Total number of pupils</b>	<b>221</b>	<b>10,094</b>	<b>45</b>

The mean for this group of pupils that used traditional methods was 45.

The significance in the differences in the means achievement between the two groups, that is those schools that used the communicative approaches grouped in A, and those that used the traditional methods grouped in B is paramount because it proves a point that the teachers in communicative approaches had more organized learning, lessons were well planned by the teachers and pupils used a variety of teaching materials and resources that exposed them to tasks of real life situations as emphasized by Strevens (1987:18) who insists that superior language teaching in which learners achieve high levels of command of target language skills, is a direct response to well –planned schemes of learning and teaching. What Strevens is saying is that it is imperative to relate pupils achievement in reading and writing to methodologies and approaches. Littlewood (1981:76), Newble and Cannon (1995:2) see the success in the above achievement of pupils marks and means if the syllabus followed is that of a “functional” or “notional” syllabus. Newble and Cannon (1995:2) have further claimed that effective language teaching and learning goes with good selection of methodology like the communicative approaches, good course organisation, good instruction and assessment procedures as well as valid evaluation of teaching as the ultimate goal of language teaching and learning is to master communication both in writing and speaking as the emphasis is, in communicative approaches. The views of Newble and Cannon (1995.2) on effective language teaching which communicative approaches to language teaching advocate are supported by Richards and Rodgers (1986:40) who