A REVIEW OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE SUPPORT COURSES TAUGHT AT THE UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO

by

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DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my mother, Mathapelo Maake, my father, Ngoako Maake, my daughter, Mathapelo and my siblings, Khutšo, Tebogo and Shibu.

DECLARATION

I declare that '**A REVIEW OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE SUPPORT COURSES TAUGHT AT THE UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO'** is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references and that this work has not been submitted before for any other degree at any other institution.

Bohlale Brilliant Maake   22 / 10 / 2019

Full names   **Date**

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Signature

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ABSTRACT

As a medium of instruction in the South African education system, English remains challenging even to tertiary students who are not fully exposed to it in their environments. Higher institutions of learning have responsively factored in English Language Support Courses (ELSC) which aim to help the students acquire essential language skills at the threshold of tertiary education. These support courses include English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP) strategically developed in line with the needs of cohorts of students the institutions admit. The purpose of this study was to review ELSCs which have been taught at the University of Limpopo (UL) for a number of years, and to provide suggestions on how to address the shortcomings identified. The study followed a qualitative research approach using lesson observations and staff interviews to collect data. Findings indicate that the situation in ELSCs is dire in that lecturers seem to need more training regarding teaching in that context.

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CNA	-	Critical Needs Analysis
CNP	-	Communicative Needs Processor
DA	-	Deficiency Analysis
EAP	-	English for Academic Purposes
EEP	-	English for Educational Purposes
EGAP	-	English for General Academic Purposes
ELSCs	-	English Language Support Courses
ELT	-	English Language Teaching
EMI	-	English Medium of Instruction
EOP	-	English for Occupational Purposes
ESAP	-	English for Specific Academic Purposes
ESL	-	English Second Language
ESP	-	English for Specific Purposes
GE	-	General English
L1	-	First Language
L2	-	Second Language
LiEP	-	Language-in-Education Policy
LP	-	Limpopo Province
LSA	-	Learning Situation Analysis
LSP	-	Language for Specific Purposes
MOI	-	Medium of Instruction
NA	-	Needs Analysis
PSA	-	Present Situation Analysis
SA	-	South Africa
TREC	-	Turfloop Research Ethics Committee

TSA	-	Target Situation Analysis
UK	-	United Kingdom
UL	-	University of Limpopo
USA	-	United States of America

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 THE PROBLEM DEFINED

Factoring in English Language Support Courses (ELSCs) into curricula appear vitally significant especially to second language (L2) speakers who study in English medium instruction universities.

A growing mass of research has reported that a number of universities that are offering English Specific Purposes (ESP) courses are on the rise to meet the ever-increasing specific needs of students who belong to different fields (Javid, 2015: 18). It would seem tertiary education in South Africa, without the English language, is unthinkable (cf. Ngoepe, 2010: 27).

ELSCs are taught in various universities in South Africa, including at the University of Limpopo (UL). At the University of Limpopo, these courses are taught to first year students in different fields of study.

In line with the above, Ngoepe (2017: 186) asserts that post-1994 a number of institutions of higher learning in South Africa (SA) have strategically attempted to redress the educational imbalances of the past manifested in the dearth of access, retention and success of previously disadvantaged students. These include teaching ELSCs such as English for Academic Purposes (EAP) to support underprepared cohorts of students they admit (see 2.3).

Furthermore, the UL is situated in Turfloop, a township in the Limpopo Province (LP). The university is bodied by a large population of disadvantaged students who mostly come from multilingual as well as poor educational backgrounds. For most learners, English is hardly ever spoken in their environments (cf. Zaaiman, 1998: 74).

Since there are a number of English language support courses taught at the UL, this study aims to explain how these courses are structured because most students at this university need English language support in order to succeed in their studies. For most students, English is hardly ever heard or spoken in their homes as well as the schools they went to. At most public schools in SA, educators are non-L1 speakers of English and as a result, their language proficiency level in English appears unsatisfactory. In

some of these schools English is taught through translanguaging, that is, through the

learners' mother tongue. Therefore, these learners' proficiency levels in English are relatively low.

According to the Language Policy for Higher Education (2002: 5), the English language has been and continues to be a barrier to access and success in higher education; both in the sense that African and other languages have not been developed as academic and scientific languages. Therefore, the majority of students entering universities are not fully proficient in English.

Some language lecturers do not have necessary training, expertise and confidence to teach subject-specific conventions. EAP is just too difficult for students with limited English proficiency and teaching subject-specific skills relegates EAP to a low-status service role which simply supports academic departments rather than develop its own independent subject knowledge and skills (Hyland, 2006: 10).

EAP students are not prepared for unpredictable assignments and encourages unimaginative and formulaic essays. EAP courses tend to focus on a common core which is a set of language forms or skills that are found in all varieties and which can be transferred across contexts.

EAP lecturers generally do not have the expertise nor the desire to teach disciplinary literacy. Content subject lecturers rarely have a clear understanding of the role that language plays in their discipline. The issue of generic skills raises the question of what is it that students actually learn (Hyland, 2006: 10).

Moreover, some UL students take much longer than anticipated to complete their studies and this impacts negatively on the university in a number of ways. Students who have shown potential to succeed in their studies can be rescued from this situation (cf. Ngoepe, 2007).

It is therefore imperative that lecturers of ELSCs meet the needs of these students by tackling relevant English language aspects which will benefit them during their studies and in future (cf. 2.4).

1.2 PURPOSE OF STUDY

1.2.1 The purpose of the study was to review ELSCs taught at UL.

1.2.2 Objectives of the study were the following:

• to review ELSCs taught at UL

• to explain how UL ELSCs are taught

• to offer suggestions regarding the UL ELSCs

1.3 METHOD OF RESEARCH

- Literature on university English Language Support Courses in general was surveyed.
- Observation of classes and interviews with English Language Support Courses' lecturers were used to determine and explain the structure of these courses in line with the explanatory research design.

1.4 PROGRAMME OF STUDY

- Chapter 2 discusses university English Language Support Courses.
- Chapter 3 focuses on method of research.
- Chapter 4 presents results of the study.
- Chapter 5 concludes the study and makes recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2

ENGLISH LANGUAGE SUPPORT COURSES

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Although English is a medium of instruction in South Africa at secondary level, students taught in English arguably need attention even at tertiary level. Thus, in response to this challenge, institutions of higher learning tailor and develop English Language Support Courses that aim to help the students acquire essential language learning skills.

This chapter discusses English language teaching and English language support courses in terms of English in South Africa, ELSCs at the UL, needs analysis, examples of English language support courses and role of theory in the study.

2.2 ENGLISH IN SOUTH AFRICA

The status of English as a dominant lingua franca globally has resulted in the language, written as well as spoken, being increasingly regarded as an essential competency in various fields, including business, diplomacy and academia. In order to progress with this movement, a growing number of non-English speaking countries are adopting English as a medium of instruction (MOI) at their institutions of higher learning (Coleman, 2006; Wächter & Maiworm, 2008).

Furthermore, the implementation of English-medium instruction (EMI) has emerged as one of the most significant developments in institutions of higher learning. It is viewed not only as a major instrument for innovation in terms of internationalization but also as a means of raising universities' competitiveness in an increasingly global higher education market (Jenkins, 2018: 1).

A growing mass of research has reported that a number of universities that are offering ESP courses are on the rise to meet the ever-increasing specific needs of students who belong to different fields (Javid, 2015: 18). Similarly, UL offers ELSCs to some of the first entering students.

Although ELSCs lecturers could have a variety of teaching materials at their disposal, they inadvertently shoulder the responsibility of choosing appropriate materials for

cohorts of students they teach. They need to be adept at selecting and using relevant materials effectively in their teaching (Ngoepe, 2017(b): 177; cf. 4.3.6).

Furthermore, SA is a very diverse country culturally, socially and linguistically. With regard to education in the country, this diversity poses a number of challenges in L2 acquisition. Apart from having 11 official languages in South Africa, learners are introduced to English as a medium of instruction from Grade 4 and education is only available through this medium. Therefore, a vast number of learners need to acquire English as an L2 through which they have to further their schooling (Steyn, 2017: 2).

According to Krashen (1978), proficiency and fluency in an L2 is usually attained by acquiring the target language and not by learning. In other words, fluency is acquired by informal social interaction where the focus is on communication in real-life situations and not on the structure of language learning per se; a commodity most learners in the rural areas do not have because there are no English L1 speakers with whom they can socialise or interact.

Since the UL is situated at Turfloop which is a township in the LP, the university admits many disadvantaged students who mostly come from unique educational backgrounds. For most of them, English is hardly ever spoken in their immediate environments (cf. Zaaiman, 1998: 74). This is the case with most South African students, including the UL ones.

2.3 ELSCs AT THE UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO

English Language Support Courses are taught in various universities in South Africa, including at the UL. The UL ELSCs are Business English (CBEB011), English for Health Sciences (HEHS011), Foundation English for Academic Purposes (HFEA000) and Health Life Competencies Education (SHEL011) in the Faculties of Management and Law, Health Sciences, Humanities and, Science and Agriculture, respectively.

Since these courses have been taught for several years to first entering students in different fields of study, the experience warrants some review. A review is a formal assessment with the intention of instituting change if necessary. It should not be exhaustive but more situated, partial and in a desirable perspective as it is gatekeeping, policing and productive rather than merely mirroring (Lather, 1973).

This study reviews ELSCs because most students at this university need English language learning support in order to succeed in their studies. For most students, English is hardly ever heard or spoken in their homes as well as at the schools they went to. At most public schools in South Africa (SA), educators are non-first language (L1) speakers of English and as a result, their language proficiency level in English tends to be lower. In some of these schools English is taught through translanguaging, that is, through the learner's mother tongue. Therefore, these learners' proficiency levels in English are relatively low.

Moreover, some UL students take much longer than anticipated to complete their studies and this impacts negatively on the university in a number of ways. Students who have shown potential to succeed in their studies can be rescued from this dire situation (cf. Ngoepe 2007). It is therefore imperative that lecturers of ELSCs students should meet the needs of these students by redressing relevant English language aspects which will benefit them during their studies and in future.

According Dubin and Olshtain (1986: 9), not all cases where English is the medium of instruction would be the same. In some countries, the medium of instruction is the native language only in the early years of schooling while English becomes the medium of instruction only at the university level. In order to review the true role of English in the education system, it is necessary to have a full picture of all subjects taught and available teaching materials. If lecturers are not native speakers it is important to review their knowledge of - and the ability to use English.

2.4 NEEDS ANALYSIS

The English language is used widely as a medium of instruction in the education sector. This presupposes challenges to students and lecturers alike. In a bid to tackle this challenge, institutions design support courses for non-native students. This, therefore, renders Needs Analysis (NA) essential in designing English language support courses.

Students need to know their purpose of wanting to learn and the kind of concepts they lack knowledge in. Lecturers as well as sponsors need such information from the students in order to deliver what will be expected of them. For example, throughout the history of ESP, practitioners have been preoccupied with identifying students'

needs and purposes. It is important to discover such information because without having such knowledge, lecturers may end up repeating lessons students are already familiar with. This may waste both the lecturers' and students' time. Thus, support courses may be rendered unproductive (Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1991: 299).

The usual assumption is that NA is carried out for the benefit of the lecturers. However, language audits are more likely to be carried out from the viewpoint of the students, sponsors, employees in English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) cases and institutions or even countries needing the services of trained personal with identifiable foreign language knowledge (van Hest & Oud-de Glas, 1990: 8). Lecturers also do benefit from the research they conduct for NA purposes as it helps them alter and direct the running of courses. A lecturer or course designer may identify relevant features of the situation and may see how the positive features can be used to advantage to accommodate what would conventionally be seen as constraints (Holliday & Cooke, 1982: 126). Therefore, NA is beneficial to all parties involved.

Hyland (2006: 73) states that NA refers to the techniques for collecting and assessing information relevant to course design. It is a means of establishing the how and what of a course.

NA evolved in the 1970s to include Deficiency Analysis (DA) of the learning gap between target language use and current student proficiencies (West, 1997: 71). It is also a continuous process, since lecturers modify their teaching as they come to learn more about their students and in that way. It actually shades into evaluation, which is the means of establishing the effectiveness of a course. 'Needs' is actually an umbrella term that embraces many aspects which incorporate students' goals and backgrounds, their language proficiencies, reasons for taking the course, their teaching and learning preferences and the situations they will need to communicate in (Hyland, 2006: 73).

A NA profile basically checks what the students know, what they do not know and what they need to know or gain from an ESP or EAP course (Hyland, 2006: 73). Thus, it is important for the lecturer to get their NA profiles right to avoid disappointing students (Kennedy & Bolitho, 1984: 22).

Furthermore, many scholars have shown that the process of analysing the needs of students is vital for support courses. All students are enrolled in ESP programmes for particular reasons. Thus, it is the responsibility of the lecturer to discover those reasons (Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1991: 299).

ESP is complex and it is rendered in different fields. It could be for academic purposes, such as preparing for an examination or vocational purposes, or preparing for a specific job (Simion, 2015: 54). Hence, several ELSCs are taught at the UL.

Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) advance three important aspects of NA; it aims to know students as people, as language users and as language students. It aims to know how language learning and skills learning can be maximized for a given student group, and aims to know the target situations and learning environment so that data can appropriately be interpreted.

Any vocationally-orientated course must be based on the fundamental issue of what students need to do with the English language. NA is therefore at the core of support courses. The main focus of ESP is on the students and their needs; assessing their needs gives the ESP practitioners a lead to follow when designing and preparing learning materials. Thus, the main purpose of ESP is to fulfil the needs of the students as well as that of their sponsors (Dudley-Evans, 1997: 5). So, the first stage in ESP is NA which is done to identify the specific needs of the students as well as the sponsors of the programme (Rabiathul, Mahanum & Aliyatulmuna, 2014: 107).

In EAP, the process of NA may not be carried out as it is in ESP but it does play an important role. The importance of NA in EAP lies in that NA acknowledges existing forms, including power relations while searching for possible areas of change. It identifies problems and attempts to find solutions for them rather than force students to adapt to them. In this case, NA is identified as Critical Needs Analysis (CNA) as it uses critical research. Critical research often relies on descriptive or interpretive approaches. It is not merely descriptive; it aims to be transformative. Its main objective is to investigate situations, identify existing conditions and attempts to solve them (Pennycook, 1994: 691; Benesch, 1996: 732).

Simion (2015: 54) avers that with changes and improvements in the world, ESP has also had several developments over the years. The concept of NA has been different

along the decades. At the initial stages of ESP, NA assisted the communicative needs of the students and the techniques of achieving specific teaching objectives. Nowadays, the tasks of NA are much more complex as they aim at collecting information about the students, defining the target situation and environment of studying ESP.

2.4.1 Methods and approaches to Needs Analysis

There are many methods and approaches that are used in coming up with the best NA form, from Target Situation Analysis (TSA), Present Situation Analysis (PSA), Learning Situation Analysis (LSA) approaches, to necessities, lacks and wants, and off-line as well as on-line NA.

The function of TSA is to collect data about the students and not from the students'. On the other hand, PSA focuses more on the student-centred approach and it collects data from the students by using methods such as questionnaires and doing interviews on the participant (Rabiathul et al., 2014: 108). However, LSA deals with what students want to learn. Nunan (1988: 44) states that NA can be done in the absence of the student when using an analysis of the TSA.

The term TSA was first used by Chambers in his 1980 article, in which he tried to clarify some confusion of terminology (Songhori, 2008: 4). According to Chambers (1980: 29), TSA is communication in the target situation which may be posited as a complement to PSA. TSA tries to establish what the students are expected to be like at the end of the language course while PSA attempts to identify what they are like at the beginning of the course. If the destination point to which the students need to get is to be established, the starting point has to be defined first and this is provided by means of PSA (Songhori, 2008: 10). According to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 125) a PSA estimates strengths and weaknesses in language, skills and learning experiences.

Moreover, necessities are what students should know in order to be able to function well and communicate efficiently in the target situation. Lacks show the gap between what the students already know and which part they are lacking and needs more focussing. Wants are the most important input in the NA and cannot be ignored in any ESP course; wants are considered very important because they determine students'

determination and whether or not they participate effectively in class or throughout the learning process (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

The last pair is off-line and on-line NA. Off-line analysis involves analysis in advance of the course so that the course designer has sufficient time to prepare a syllabus and develop appropriate training materials. On-line analysis takes place when students arrive to start their course. With this method, the lecturer does not have enough time to prepare a detailed course outline. However, in this case the lecturer is able to obtain full, relevant and accurate information from the students (West, 1994: 5).

Although the information gathered or obtained in on-line analysis contains relevance, accuracy and fullness, it may be short-lived. In contrast, the off-line method builds up a picture of the target situation through questions addressed to sponsors or those currently working in the target situation who may have an accurate knowledge of students' language requirements. Alternative approaches to off-line analysis require students to complete questionnaires identifying their needs. Although, students' perceptions of their own needs may be inaccurate or incomplete, courses devised by this method have to be reviewed frequently as students' perceptions evolve (West, 1994: 5).

Other ways of collecting information for NA are through inductive and deductive methods. Trochim (2006: 1) defines both methods by differentiating between the two. Induction moves from the specific to the general while deduction begins with the general and ends with the specific. Arguments based on experience or observation are best expressed inductively while arguments based on rules or principles are best expressed deductively.

The deductive method operates from top-down while the inductive method operates from bottom-up using students' feedback to build broader themes (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007: 23). The inductive method uses instruments such as observations and case studies to collect information for analysis while the deductive method uses questionnaires, surveys and other data-gathering instruments which provide various forms of information as the basis of course design.

There are, however, a number of data-gathering instruments which both methods are comprised of. Both methods may use pre-course placement tests, entry tests on

arrival, self-placement tests, observation of classes, surveys based on questionnaires, structured interviews, learner diaries, case studies, feedback and previous research (Berwick, 1989: 56).

Pre-course placement tests are used to estimate the approximate language level of students while entry tests on arrival use more precise approaches of identifying students' language weaknesses and lacks (Jordan, 1997: 13). Self-placement tests are used by students to identify and assess their own level of language proficiency and areas of special priority. However, in terms of observation of classes, students' performances are prioritised (Yalden, 1987: 132).

Moreover, Jordan (1997: 13) explains that surveys based on questionnaires are used to assess students' priorities. Regarding structured interviews, a complete coverage of information is completed. Due to the physical presence, there is an opportunity to clarify certain information. With learner diaries, in-class - and out-of-class activities are included where students note down their experiences and challenges during lessons and after lessons. However, case studies are identified as in-depth investigations of the learning needs and difficulties while feedback indicates the soundness of the initial NA and can suggest ways in which future courses could be improved.

As far as previous research is concerned, Schutz and Derwing (1981: 37) suggest a number of items to focus on. NA focused on the general personal backgrounds of students, their occupational speciality or academic field, students' attitudinal and motivation factors, their relevance of language to target use, priorities of basic language skills, language backgrounds, functional registers and job tasks in target use, the course content and method of instruction as well as their reaction to the language course.

Richterich (1983: 9) points out that in each case the method or approach used must be unique and be comprised of all the variables of that particular student, sponsor, institution, bearing in mind the time and context of the programme. The methods and approaches aforementioned all play important roles.

2.4.2 The Communicative Needs Processor Model

According to Munby (1978: 5) the Communicative Needs Processor (CNP) model is helpful in identifying the target needs of the students. Hutchinson and Waters (1987:

54) state that with the development of the CNP, ESP seemed to have come of age. The machinery for identifying the needs of any group of students had been provided; all the course designers had to do was operate it. In the CNP, account is taken of the variables that affect communication needs by organizing them as parameters in a dynamic relationship to each other. The model works through investigating the target situation which focuses on both target needs and learning needs (Munby, 1978: 32).

Furthermore, target needs deal with the knowledge and abilities the students will require to perform to the required degree of competence in the target situation. Learning needs are linked with the route to the destination set by the target situation and aim at the personal concerns of the students. Like target needs, the needs affect the overall ESP programme ranging from syllabus designing to testing and evaluation (Tahir, 2011: 4).

The CNP model is made up of seven elements, namely, participants, CNP, profile of needs, meaning processor, the language skills selector, the linguistic encoder, and the communicative competence specification. In the CNP, account of the variables that affect communication needs by organizing them as parameters in a dynamic relationship to each other, is taken. With regards to participants, information about the identity and language of the student such as age, gender, nationality, present command of target language and any other languages the student has acquired, is identified and collected. The CNP investigates the particular communication needs according to socio-cultural and stylistic variables which interact to determine a profile of such needs (Munby, 1978: 32).

The profile of needs is established through the processing of data in the CNP. In the meaning processor, parts of the socio-culturally determined profile of the communication needs are converted into semantic sub-categories of a predominantly pragmatic kind and marked with attitudinal tone. Further, the language skills selector identifies the specific language skills that are required to realise the events or activities that have been identified in the CNP (Munby, 1978: 42). The linguistic encoder considers the dimension of contextual appropriation while the communication competence specification indicates the target communicative competence of the participant. This is the translated profile of needs (Munby, 1978: 49).

From the seven elements outlined above, eight parameters which further explain the elements in detail are specified. The eight parameters are purposive domain, setting, interaction, instrumentality, dialect, communicative event, communicative key and target level. The purposive domain establishes the type of ESP and the purpose which the target language will be used for, at end of the course, the setting looks at the place where English will be used and interaction identifies the student's interlocutors and predicts relationship between them. Instrumentality specifies the medium, for instance, whether the language to be used is written, spoken or both, whether the language to be used is in the form of monologue or dialogue and the channel which the language will use, whether it is face to face, on radio or any other channel. Pertaining to dialects, students will have to understand or produce language in terms of their spatial, temporal or social aspect. The communicative event states what the participants will have to do productively or receptively. A communicative key is the manner in which the participants will have to do the activities comprising an event. The target level is the level of linguistic proficiency at the end of an ESP course which might be different for different skills (Munby, 1978: 49).

White (1998: 91) argues how important the process of NA is. NA should not only be considered as a pre-stage for the design of language courses, it is an on-going process. As an evaluation, it can be used to design, improve and implement language courses.

2.4.3 Materials Development in ESP

Material selection in ESP teaching and learning is vital because materials play an important role pertaining to the outcomes of the course. Thus, the selection of materials should be done carefully bearing in mind what the needs of the students and sponsors are (see 4.3.5).

Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 107) argue that good materials should help the teaching-learning process, should provide a clear and coherent unit structure which will guide lecturers and students through various activities in such a way as to maximise the chances of learning. The materials must be clear and systematic but flexible enough to allow for creativity and variety. Good materials provide stimulus to learning and encourage students to learn. They should also contain interesting texts,

enjoyable activities, opportunities for students to use their existing knowledge as well as skills and content that is suitable for the teacher and the students.

In line with the qualities or principles mentioned above, Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 108) present a model for designing materials. The model is made up of four elements which are input, content focus, language focus and task. Input can be in the form of text, dialogue, video-recording, diagram or any piece of communication data. It also provides stimulus materials for activities, new language items, correct models of language use, topics for communication, opportunities for students to use their information processing skills and opportunities for students to use their existing knowledge of the language and the subject matter. Content focus implies that language is a means of conveying information and feelings about something. Therefore, it generates meaningful communication in the classroom. Language focus gives the students a chance to take the language into pieces, study how it works and practise putting it back together again. Materials should thus be designed to lead towards a communicative task in which students use the content and language knowledge they have built up through the unit.

Moreover, Belaid and Murray (2015: 28) differentiate between authentic and non-authentic materials. Authentic materials qualify language students for the real use of language outside of the classroom setting while non-authentic materials prepare students for learning grammar, spelling and even pronunciation. For example, authentic materials may contain incomplete sentences, pauses and false starts whereas non-authentic materials are accurately and false-free prepared. Further, a unique and distinguishing feature of authentic materials is that they are produced for real communication purposes whereas non-authentic ones are specially prepared for educational purposes. However, the main difference between the two is that the former is naturally presented as it happened from their original sources while the latter is purposefully prepared for pedagogical aims.

Bite (2015: 443) argues that authenticity also refers to creating or exposing the students to authentic situations while taking into consideration different factors such as students' perceptions, teachers' interference, the context of teaching and the uses of teaching materials. In support of this, Kilickaya (2004: 1) defines authentic materials as exposure to the real usage of the everyday life language and how native speakers

use it in their daily lives, purpose or exposure to real language as well as its use, in its own community. Jordan (1997: 113) argues that authentic materials are not written for language teaching purposes. Therefore, Nuttall (1996: 170) asserts that sustainability, exploitability and readability are the main criteria to be considered. For example, texts as classroom materials can be viewed as exhibiting in varying degrees of authenticity. Some are authentic materials found in the target discourse, some are semi-authentic materials produced by ESP practitioners and some are in-authentic textbooks, mass-produced by publishers (Belcher, 2006: 138).

Furthermore, McKay (2000: 9) identifies three types of authentic materials, which are referred to as cultural materials. The three types of cultural materials are target cultural materials, student's own culture materials and international target language materials. Target cultural materials expose students to ways in which the target language is used by its native speakers. Using students' cultural materials means providing students with authentic materials which are written in the target language about a world they are familiar with. For example, in an ESP programme in China, the facilitator can provide a newspaper article written in English about Chinese foods and restaurants; international target language materials refer to different kinds of texts from all over the world. Such texts could be interesting and exciting, although, they could be too complex for ESP students.

Authentic materials enable students to interact with the real language and content rather than the form. Students also feel that they are learning a target language as it is used outside the classroom (Kilickaya, 2004). However, Nocon and Robinson-Stuart (1996: 432) caution that learning about the lived culture of actual target language speakers as well as about one's own culture requires tools that assist language students in negotiating meaning and understanding the communicative - and cultural texts in which linguistic codes are used.

Blagojevic (2013: 113) asserts that if the materials are to be used effectively, they have to be carefully chosen in order to be relevant to the students' actual and anticipated needs as well as interests. They also have to be accompanied by authentic classroom activities in order to raise students' motivation. The complexity of these materials causes a burden for the teachers (Richards, 2001: 253).

If lecturers opt to use authentic materials, they should consider all the qualities and criteria mentioned. If authentic materials lack situational reference, students will be demotivated and will be unable to use them in their context. Students need to be exposed to the materials they can relate to, which they have information about and which is part of their reality. The use of authentic materials can be very helpful as students get exposed to real life stories and understand the use of words and sentences in their correct context (Bite, 2015: 443). Authenticity does not reside in texts but in the interaction between texts and intended contexts of ESP programmes (Widdowson, 1978: 80).

2.5 EXAMPLES OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE SUPPORT COURSES

English has developed and grown massively over the past years. Its growth and development led to several divisions, such as English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) support courses. These two courses are in high demand in higher institutions of learning among students, employees and employers alike, in work places.

2.5.1 English for Specific Purposes

Richards (2001: 28) defines English for Specific Purposes (ESP) as a field of language study that focuses on the purposes for which students need the language. It is a subdivision of a wider field, Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) which is an area of inquiry and practice in the development of language programmes for people who need a language to satisfy a predictable range of communicative needs (Swales, 1992: 300).

Furthermore, ESP first arose and continued to develop in response to the need of non-native speakers of the language to use it for some clearly defined practical purpose. Thus, as purposes change, so must ESP (Robinson, 1989: 426). It is a broad field that includes research in a wide variety of disciplines (Belcher, Johns & Paltridge, 2012: 474). The ESP field has grown over the years due to market forces and awareness amongst the academic and business communities (Brunton, 2009: 2).

Although ESP concentrates more on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structures, it is still an important field in English language teaching. As an important and distinctive branch of English Language Teaching (ELT), ESP focuses

on practical aspects derived from needs analysis, genre analysis and effective communication (Simion, 2015: 222).

2.5.1.1 Origins of ESP

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 6), ESP emerged due to the development of the world's economy, which entailed the progress of technology, the economic power of oil-rich countries and the increasing amount of overseas students in English-speaking countries.

The first boost of ESP came from the register and analysis of scientific and technological writing. In this way, the movement gave special importance to semi- or sub-technical vocabulary of a given field or profession (Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1991).

The Second World War II and the oil crisis in the 1970s also contributed to the development of ESP. The contribution was in a sense that, the end of World War II declared an era of expansion in science, technical and economic activity world-wide. The role of the oil crisis resulted in Western money and knowledge flowing into oil-rich countries and the language of this knowledge became English. Therefore, three main reasons for the emergence of ESP can be identified; the demands of a Brave New World, a revolution in linguistics and a focus on the student. English became accepted as an international language of technology and commerce. It created a new generation of students who knew specifically why they were learning the language, businessmen and women who needed to sell their products, mechanics to read instruction manuals, doctors who found it essential to keep up with developments in their field and a whole range of students whose course of study included textbooks and journals only available in the English language (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987: 6).

As the demand for the English language grew over the years, the language itself had new developments. The main aim of English had been to describe the grammatical rules, but due to the developments that have occurred, the focus shifted from formal features of English to focussing on how the English language could be used in real life situations (Widdowson, 1978). Distinctive features from one language to another could be used as foundation in the course (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987: 7).

ESP is made up of two categories of characteristics, variable characteristics and absolute characteristics. The variable characteristics of ESP may be related to or

designed for specific disciplines, ESP may use a different methodology from that of general English (GE) in specific teaching situations, ESP is likely to be designed for adult students either at tertiary level institutions or in a professional work situation, and ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students. Most ESP courses assume basic knowledge of the language system but it can be used with beginners (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998: 4).

Moreover, Strevens (1988) states that ESP consists of English language teaching which is designed to meet specified needs of the student, related in content to particular disciplines, occupations and activities, centred on the language appropriate to those activities in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics and analysis of discourse. This is in contrast to GE.

2.5.1.2 ESP Approaches

In early days while the English language was establishing itself as a separate and valid activity within the general context of English teaching, the main controversy centered around the validity of the approach was that ESP is likely to be more successful than general English at preparing students for studies through the English medium and in their work-places, if the language of communication is English. ESP requires careful research to deliver lessons in approaches that are suitable for specific groups within specific learning contexts. There are also certain approaches which can be used to evaluate programmes (Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1991: 303).

In the wide-angle approach, language and skills are taught through topics that are drawn from a variety of subjects rather than from the students' own discipline or profession (Williams, 1978: 30). This approach has been noted effective. Students should be grouped for ESP classes across broad subject areas with materials drawing from topics that give access to a number of different specialist areas. By so doing, students will be aware of the specificity of their needs (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987: 166). This approach needs to be supplemented by some attempt to define students' needs and the actual language difficulties they encounter (Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1991: 304).

Furthermore, the ESP approach to language teaching began as a response to a number of practical concerns. The concerns are, the need to prepare growing

numbers of non-English background students for study at American and British Universities from the 1950s, the need to prepare materials to teach students who had already mastered general English but needed English for use in employment, the need for materials for people studying English for business purposes and the need to teach immigrants the language needed to deal with job situations (Richards, 2001: 28). In the South African context, there is a vital need to have facilitators who are able to adapt what they teach and the means they use to meet the needs of the students in particular circumstances (Ridge, 1994: 6).

It is implicit that ESP came into being and gradually developed into a multi-layered language approach primarily based on students' specific needs required by their professions or occupations. The domain labelled ESP was proven to have a universal dimension through the concept of language for specific purposes and a language-specific perspective through the insights explored into various European languages (Mohammad, 2014: 4). Therefore, ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions, such as content and method are based on the students' reason for learning (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987: 19).

There are two types of evaluations: formative and summative. Formative evaluation is concerned mainly with gathering data over time with a view to raising awareness through decisions made by lecturers. The programmes are regarded as fluid and seek ways to better them (Gronbach, 1982: 12). Formative evaluation is an on-going process which seeks to inform, improve and direct the innovation rather than simply evaluate the outcomes (Williams & Burden, 1994: 22). Thus, formative evaluation is illuminative since it occurs on a day-to-day basis of the programme. Whatever issues are encountered, they are fixed in time (Parlett, 1981: 42).

On the contrary, summative evaluation focuses on the effects of a programme at significant terminal points and involves, among others, selecting students or lecturers who fill in evaluative questionnaires in order to measure teaching and learning performances for the benefit of decision makers. This type of evaluation creates problems of not only controlling the variables but also of drawing realistic conclusions in terms of whether or not the programme has proved successful (Parlett, 1981: 42).

Furthermore, Brown (1989: 148) asserts that evaluations of this nature are intended to evaluate the overall process of learning and teaching but often fail to provide

information about why a programme has not been successful, what can be done to better it or what alternative ideas can be tried out. Yunian and Ness (1999: 16) argue that language teaching is recognised as a highly complex process which needs to be constantly evaluated in order to improve the quality of learning. Through evaluation, both students and lecturers can reflect on their work and performances over instructional period.

2.5.1.3 The Role of an ESP practitioner

ESP teaching is generally understood to be largely concerned with external goals. The student is regarded as a language student engaged in either academic, professional or occupational pursuits. He or she also uses English as a means to carry out those pursuits (Mohammad, 2014: 5). There is a difference between external and internal goals for language teaching. External goals can be related to the uses of language outside the classroom by being able to get things done in the real world. Internal gaols relate to the educational aims of the classroom such as improving attitudes to speakers of other languages, promoting thinking skills pertaining to analysis, memorizing and social goals (Cook, 2002).

There are five major roles that could be played by ESP practitioners; an ESP practitioner can be a teacher, course designer and materials provider, collaborator, researcher and evaluator. As a teacher, the ESP practitioner has a different role from that of a general English teacher because the methodology changes as the teaching becomes more specific. The teacher is no longer the primary knower while the students themselves are frequently the primary knowers of the carrier content of the material. The teacher's main role is to generate real, authentic communication in the classroom on the grounds of students' knowledge (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998: 13).

Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 13) argue that the lack of materials for ESP courses could be compounded by more specialized courses and the greater rarity of the teaching materials. One of the teacher's roles is planning the course and providing materials for it. Provision does not only mean choosing materials and making a suitable number of copies for the class. The teacher's tasks include adapting materials when published materials are unsuitable or even writing their own materials.

Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 14) regard the ESP practitioner as a collaborator. Collaborating implies co-operating with subject specialists. This could be a simple co-operation in which the ESP practitioner gains information about the subject syllabus or tasks the students have to carry out in their professional environment or collaboration when there is an integration between specialist studies or activities and the language. An ESP practitioner should also be a researcher to fulfil the students' needs, they should research the aims of what they want to achieve, for example. Research is necessary for designing a course, writing teaching materials and finding out what the ESP students' particular interests are. Lastly, the role of the ESP practitioner is that of an evaluator. Evaluation is vital in every study as it helps monitor the progress of both the lecturer and students. It can assist ESP practitioners in amending their teaching materials and giving them a perspective of what to research more on. All teachers should be involved in various types of evaluation. One of the most popular forms of evaluation is testing students to evaluate their progress and teaching effectiveness. However, in the ESP classes, an additional kind of testing should take place which is the evaluation of course and teaching materials.

ESP practitioners are distinguished from other lecturers because their role is not only transferring the knowledge they have acquired to students. ESP practitioners are mainly guided by what students and sponsors want to gain from their study programme. Thus, their work may change from time to time as they cater for different students and sponsors. With some guidance from needs analysis of both students and sponsors, practitioners should always produce materials with relevant content.

It is worth noting that Basturkmen (2010: 9) asserts that ESP teaching makes additional demands on lecturers and course developers in terms of investigating needs and designing courses that may only run for a relatively short time.

2.5.1.4 Factors influencing teaching and learning ESP

There are numerous factors influencing ESP programmes. Kennedy and Bolitho (1984: 11) identified the following four factors: the role of English, resources and administrative constraints, the learner and linguistic aspects.

The English language plays different roles in different settings. However, there are two settings where English plays major roles, that is, in communities and in institutions. In

some communities, English is used as a medium of communication for business purposes, educational purposes and also governmental purposes. It is also the language of access to services and education. In institutions such as universities, English is a medium of instruction in most of the programmes. It is a lingua franca for both students and lecturers (Kennedy & Bolitho, 1984: 11).

Regarding resources and administrative constraints, ESP facilitators should ensure that the teaching and learning space is appropriate, that teaching materials are relevant, motivating, updated and adequate. In cases where the ESP programme is financially supported, learning facilities should include audio-visual aids and other tools which will make learning easier and accessible for students (Kennedy & Bolitho, 1984: 12).

Furthermore, Kennedy and Bolitho (1984: 13) deem the student's age, level, motivation and attitudes to learning significant to ESP. Most ESP programmes are made up of adult students who know why they need to learn English. In such cases, the needs of the students are apparent and this makes it easier for the lecturer to produce a syllabus and materials for learning. When the purpose of a need to learn has been identified, the student and the lecturer are likely to have a progressive ESP programme. However, the lecturers may find it challenging to offer English that is specific and appropriate to the students' field of work or study if they are not familiar with that particular field therefore such cases require lecturers to read extensively in that particular field (Kennedy & Bolitho, 1984: 14).

Moreover, students get motivated if their lecturers show confidence in their teaching. The chances for successful teaching and learning in ESP programmes are increased when the lecturer aligns the content of the learning materials with the students' motivation for taking the course. If the ESP course is designed to meet the proposed needs of the students, motivation for learning increases. Therefore, the goal of the course is likely to be achieved. For example, some students are integratively motivated and others, instrumentally motivated. Integrative motivation refers to a situation where a student requires language for social and cultural purposes whereas instrumental motivation refers to a situation where language learning is seen as a means of achieving professional purposes (Kennedy & Bolitho, 1984: 14).

Linguistic aspects focus on the students' needs, what their purpose is and how specific their purpose is. Regarding language, the lecturer should carry out an analysis to discover what areas the student needs to refine. A pertinent question could be, for instance, does the student need to learn a particular vocabulary or particular forms of language? As far as activities are concerned, there are cases where students require an ESP course to be taught in order to perform a particular task. For instance, a student from a non-English speaking country might want to expand their business network by working with other business people in English speaking countries. Therefore, the student might not require every aspect taught in English for Business courses but just particular aspects thereof (Kennedy & Bolitho, 1984: 18).

2.5.2 English for Academic Purposes

EAP is taught to university students who require English in their studies. University students have already acquired certain language skills but there is sometimes a need to develop their academic language skills (Bracaj, 2014: 43).

Furthermore, with its advancement at university level, EAP requires all students both native-English speakers and non-native English speakers to adapt to new ways of managing information (Hyland, 2006: 2).

According to Hyland (2006: 8) this advancement in higher educational institutions has transformed EAP to a more sophisticated area. Thus, EAP has come to highlight some key features of modern academic life as follows:

- Students have to take on new roles and to engage with knowledge in new ways when they enter higher education.
- Communication practices are not uniform across academic disciplines but reflect different ways of constructing knowledge and engaging in teaching and learning.
- These practices are underpinned with power and authority which work to advantage or marginalise different groups to complicate teaching and learning.
- The growth of English as a world language of academic communication has resulted in the loss of scholarly writing in many national cultures.

2.5.2.1 The emergence of EAP

EAP is a precursor of the Second World War and the substantial social, economic and technological transformations the world has experienced over the years; these transformations fostered the rise of EAP. It emerged as a result of the realisation of the American capitalism, anchored in both oral and communicative methods and the need of teaching English systematically. This period saw an increasingly complex world which required more well-thought and well-planned English learning and teaching programmes (Leopoldo & Warnken, 2011: 8).

The applied nature of EAP and its emergence from ESP originally produced an agenda concerned with curriculum and instruction rather than with theory and analysis (Hyland, 2006: 8).

EAP is about related practices that students will need in order to prepare for tertiary level study. It is directly related to instruction that focuses on the communicative needs and practices that a certain group is expected to accomplish in a given academic context. For instance, if the EAP course is for the health sciences students, its curriculum and teaching materials will be related to health. The main purpose of EAP is to assist students in learning the linguistic, cultural and institutional practices involved in studying through the English language medium (Peacock & Flowerdew, 2001: 7).

The main goal of EAP is also to help international students overcome some of the linguistic and cultural difficulties involved in studying through the medium of English (Gillet 1996: 1). The goal has expanded as it entails training students usually in higher education setting to use language appropriately for study, research and publication. It includes developing skills rigorously, rhetorically and grammatically correct modes demanded by the now globalised academy (Caspary, Wickstrom & Boothe, 2014: 6).

According to Peacock and Flowerdew (2001: 7) typical EAP settings require students to have a certain proficiency in the four language skill areas. Throughout most students' academic careers, listening skills will be vital. For instance, note-taking skills and comprehension during lectures will be necessary as students must engage in critical reading, evaluate texts, and understand concepts and terminology that are specific to their area of study. EAP is taught in an education domain to enable the

students to pursue their course studies effectively and efficiently. It is also taught on the basis of the needs of the students or their reasons for learning English (Sharndama, Samaila & Tsojon, 2014: 15).

EAP is carried out in four main geographical domains, each of which exhibits particular characteristics and purposes. It is carried out in major English-speaking countries such as the United States of America, the United Kingdom, Australia, Canada and New Zealand. Secondly, it is conducted in the former colonial territories of Britain where English is a second language and is used as the medium of instruction at university level. Thirdly, it is conducted in countries which have no historic links with English but which need to access the research literature in that language. This refers to countries such as Japan, Latin America, Francophone Africa and others (Peacock & Flowerdew, 2001: 8).

Robinson (1991: 2) outlines features of EAP similar to those of ESP. The features are as follows:

- ESP is goal directed - the students are not learning the English language for the sake of it, but because they need to use English. EAP students are usually current higher education students or they are hoping to go on to higher education after their EAP course. They need to learn English in order to succeed in their academic careers.
- ESP courses are based on a needs analysis which aims to specify as closely as possible exactly what is it that students have to do through the medium of English. One important feature of EAP courses is the close attention that is paid to students' aims and what they plan to study. The first stage in any EAP - and ESP course is to find out exactly why the students are learning English and therefore what language and skills they will need.
- Often there is a very clearly specified period for the course. Most EAP students are doing fixed term courses in preparation for an academic course.
- ESP learners tend to be adults rather than children. Most EAP students are over 18 and they will have made a difficult decision to study in an English medium university.
- Students may need specialist language but this is not necessarily so. It is the activities that the students will want to engage in that define the course. As with

all ESP, an EAP lecturer would not take a text and say, "What can I do with this?" The starting point is always, "What will my students need to do with this text and how can I help them to do it?"

- In some cases, a very high level of proficiency is not required, as long as the students can succeed in their aims. Students need to be able to get good marks for assignments. It is the job of EAP lecturers to find ways to enable students to succeed.

In EAP, especially English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP), most activities and materials include the four essential language learning skills. Seven language learning areas that EAP programmes focus on. The areas are as follows: academic reading, academic writing, vocabulary development, lectures and note-taking, speaking for academic purposes, reference and research skills and examination skills (Jordan, 2004: 141).

2.5.2.2 EAP divisions

There are four types of EAP situations as outlined by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 34). The situations are, an English speaking country such as the UK or USA, an English Second Language (ESL) situation such as in former British colonies in Africa or in South East Asia, a situation where certain subjects are taught in English and the remaining in the national language and a situation in which all subjects are taught in the national language and English plays an ancillary role.

In the past, EAP was known as English for Educational Purposes (EEP). The growth of EAP is derived from the awareness of ESP practitioners that all the tertiary level students possess different learning needs and this cannot be fulfilled by teaching them the same type of English. Even in the same level of study and age group, students have different educational backgrounds. Some attended English medium schools while some were taught English through translanguaging. The concept of EAP is also interpreted and implemented differently based on the needs and situation of respective country's educational policy (Shing & Sim, 2011: 2). In the South African context, the Language-in-Education Policy (LiEP) of 1997 advocates a policy of additive bilingualism, where pupils are taught in their mother tongue but at the same time acquire second language skills (Posel & Casale, 2010: 450).

EAP can be divided into two branches, English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) and English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP). ESAP refers to the teaching of the features that distinguish one discipline from others whereas EGAP refers to the teaching of the skills and language that are common to all disciplines (Blue, 1988). ESAP integrates the skills work of EGAP with some help for students in their actual subject tasks. It adopts a developmental role by showing how students can transfer the skills they have learnt in the EGAP classes to their actual lectures or reading texts (Turner, 1996).

Furthermore, the EGAP approach encourages activities such as questioning, note-taking, summary writing and giving prepared presentations (Hyland, 2006: 9). Other activities included in the EGAP approach are listening to lectures, participating in supervisions, seminars and tutorials, reading textbooks, articles and other materials, as well as writing essays, examination answers, dissertations and reports (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998: 41).

Moreover, a large proportion of the common core element is usually known as study skills plus other elements of a general academic English register, incorporating a formal, academic style, with proficiency in the language use. The study skills include areas such as effective lecture listening, comprehension and note-taking, writing in the appropriate academic register, reading effectively for study purposes, participation in discussion and library research (Jordan, 1997: 5).

As already indicated, Hyland (2006: 10) highlights some of the main reasons for EGAP and ESAP. Regarding EGAP the reasons are as follows:

- Language lecturers lack the training, expertise and confidence to teach subject-specific conventions.
- EAP is just too hard for students with limited English proficiency.
- Teaching subject-specific skills relegates EAP to a low-status service role by simply supporting academic departments rather than developing its own independent subject knowledge and skills.
- By basing course content on the communicative demands of particular courses and disciplines, EAP does not prepare students for unpredictable assignments and encourages unimaginative and formulaic essays.

- There are generic skills which differ very little across the disciplines.
- EAP courses should focus on a common core – a set of language forms or skills that are found in all varieties and which can be transferred across contexts.

The reasons for ESAP are the following:

- EAP lecturers cannot rely on subject specialists to teach disciplinary literacy skills as they generally have neither the expertise nor the desire to do to so. They rarely have a clear understanding of the role that language plays in their discipline or the time to develop this understanding in their studies.
- It is argued that weak students need to control core forms before getting on to specific and presumably more difficult features of language.
- The issue of generic skills also raises the question of what is it that students are actually learning.
- The view that teaching specialist discourses relegates EAP to the bottom of the academic ladder can be disputed. EAP professionals are concerned not simply with teaching isolated words, structures, lexical phrases and so on, but with exploring the uses of language that carry clear disciplinary values.
- EAP classes do not just focus on forms but teach a range of subject-specific communicative skills as well.
- A major weakness is that EAP focuses on a formal system and ignores the fact that any form has many possible meanings depending on its context of use.

2.5.2.3 The EAP Syllabus

A syllabus is a plan of what is to be achieved through the programme, what the programme will focus on and what the end goal of the programme is. A syllabus can also be used to monitor and evaluate the progress of students (Hyland, 2006). It is a specification of what is to be included in a language course and it involves materials selection and development, learning tasks and their presentation in a particular setting. At the end of it, there is assessment and evaluation (Jordan, 1997: 56).

There is a number of definitions for 'syllabus'. White (1988: 3) summarises the commonalities occurring in most definitions as follows:

- it specifies the work of a department and the subsections of work done by specific groups
- the sequencing of content is either intrinsic to the theory of language learning or the structure of specified material is relatable to language acquisition but restraints may also influence sequencing
- it is linked to time
- it is a document that directs administration
- it is negotiable because it is only partly justified on theoretical grounds
- it is a public document that expresses accountability, and
- it can only state what is taught but cannot organise what is learnt

Jordan (1997: 58) states that when designing an EAP syllabus there are several factors to be considered; needs, aims, means and constraints. Needs, aims and means include facilitators, materials, equipment, facilities, time and finance. Constraints refer to the limitations of means becoming constraints to the EAP programme.

The most important goal in EAP courses is to prepare non-native speakers for the language expectations and cross-cultural challenges of undergraduate course-work in English-medium universities (Gilbert, 2013: 27). In the past, the command of English by university students and those engaged in business was not treated as important as it is now. Then, English language teaching mainly focused on form; correct-grammatical construction and appropriate pronunciation. Presently, EAP has increased the significance underlined in the content of the language being taught (Leopoldo & Warnken, 2011: 5).

Another important factor to consider in order for EAP courses to be successful is the lecturers' level of dedication. The main goal of the ESP course is to meet the needs of all students registered. Therefore, lecturers should work hard to meet those goals and such could happen through co-operation, collaboration and team-teaching. These three levels are of great importance (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998: 43). The language lecturers together with the subject content lecturers should be facilitators and consultants in EAP learning situations (Ngoepe, 2017(a): 187).

According to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 42) co-operation is the first stage which involves the language lecturer making the first attempt to research about the students' content course, how English is related to that course, the students' priority needs and the department's expectations. By conducting such research, the language lecturer will benefit greatly as it is their role to design, set up and administer the course by having to select the language items which need to be taught (Ngoepe, 2010: 28).

Collaboration is the direct involvement of both the language lecturer and the content lecturer in preparing students for their course. Collaboration between these two parties normally takes place outside the teaching context. There are three options for collaborative work: the planning of a series of classes where the language lecturer prepares the students for a subsequent content class taught in English, the running of a class on skills related to a specific task where the content department has a specific input to the materials or the North American "adjunct" model in which the adjunct acts as a back-up class to the content, helping students with difficulties with that class (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998:44).

Team-teaching involves the actual working together in the classroom of the content - and language lecturers. There are four stages of team-teaching; in the first stage, the language lecturer records the content lecturer. The second stage involves the language lecturer listening to the recording and preparing a handout with comprehension questions on key points of the lecture and checking on understanding of the language used. In the third stage the language lecturer checks the questions with the subject lecturer. The fourth or last stage refers to the teaching session where actual teaching takes place (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998: 46).

2.6 ROLE OF THEORY IN THE STUDY

This study will be premised on qualitative ethnographic theory in English L2 learning.

The conceptual heart of linguistic ethnography is its assumption of a reflexive relationship between language and the social world in which the two aspects influence and shape each other (Richards, Ross & Seedhouse, 2012: 257).

The ethnographer is interested in social practices, in how people go about their business and this can be understood by noting patterns of behaviour, identifying routines, recognising rules or procedures that are taken for granted. Thus, the data

collected will be based on extended exposure to life in a particular setting out of deep engagement with the full range of data collected (Richards et al., 2012: 219).

'Qualitative' in this context is not an accidental term because what the researcher is interested in is the quality of social life; quality as understood in the sense of 'nature' or 'important characteristics'. These are the sort of questions that would interest the ethnographer (Richards et al., 2012: 31). The thrust of this review lies in the quality of teaching in ELSCs at UL.

Qualitative methods which are ethnographic usually use processes such as participant observation and open–ended interviews to collect data (Mackey & Gass, 2005: 165). Therefore, the researcher will be a participant in the observations and also collect data employing open-ended interviews.

The most fundamental fact about ethnographic research is that the researcher is the primary research instrument; the researcher is implicated in the collection, construction and representation of the data. Thus, the researchers should immerse themselves in the relevant social world in order to develop a rich, situated understanding of it and how it is constituted (Richards et al., 2012: 33). Thus, the researcher is the primary research instrument in forms of collecting, constructing and presenting data.

Ethnography is above all an empirical activity, depending for its success on extensive and detailed recordings of what happens in a given setting (Richards et.al., 2012:33).The researcher will record observation sessions and interviews to collect what happens in settings under review.

2.7 CONCLUSION

Students at the threshold of tertiary education manifest unique language needs depending on their background. Institutions have a responsibility to fathom, identify and satisfy the needs of students in order to enhance the throughput rates of the students learning and studying in English which is a non-native language to them.

The next chapter discusses research methodology.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

A qualitative research approach was used. The term qualitative research is related to a variety of methods, perspectives and approaches. It is referred to studies that are based on descriptive data that does not make use of statistical procedures (Mackey & Gass, 2005: 162).

Detailed definitions of qualitative research usually include natural and holistic representation as qualitative studies aim on studying events and individuals in their natural settings (Tetnowski & Damico, 2001; Mackey & Gass, 2005: 163). UL ELSCs' lecturers were first observed in class and later interviewed on what and how they taught these courses.

The research design was explanatory. An explanation is a concatenated description as it does its work not by invoking something beyond what might be described, but by putting one fact into relation with others. The emphasis is on the evaluation of the relationships between the variables involved (Cohen & Manion, 1980: 20). Similarly, UL ELSCs were explained in relation to the materials, environment, and so on (see Appendices A and B).

The most distinctive attribute of explanations especially in the context of human behaviour and one which they share with laws and theories is openness. Explanations would be partial as only some of the factors determining the phenomena being explained are taken into account (Cohen & Manion, 1980: 20).

The focus of explanations was emanated from data collected through observations and interviews (see Appendices A and B); the explanatory design began with observations and was then followed by language lecturers' interviews. Hence, Cohen and Manion (1980: 20) assert that an explanation does not only tell what happens but why.

In two complementary phases, this design explains how ELSCs are taught in the UL's four faculties (cf. Richards, et al., 2012: 308). Specific aspects in ELSCs were first

observed in class and the lecturers' responses to interview questions were then explained (see Appendices A and B).

3.2 SAMPLING

According to Creswell (1998: 110), sampling is the process of finding people or places to gain access to study and to establish a rapport so that participants provide relevant data. This study will employ purposeful sampling which is significant as it selects rich cases for in-depth study (McMillan & Schumacher 1993: 379). In a purposive sample, researchers knowingly select individuals based on their knowledge of the population in order to elicit data in which they are interested (Mackey & Gass, 2005: 122). A total of four ELSC lecturers from all the four UL faculties were purposefully selected. The selected lecturers were first observed teaching in class and were then interviewed individually.

3.3 DATA COLLECTION

Data was collected through observations and structured interviews.

ELSCs lecturers and students were observed in class using an observation scheme. Then, the lecturers were interviewed to fathom how they teach ELSCs.

3.3.1 Observation

An observation is a representation of events and behaviours within a chosen social setting for a study. After observing, the researcher should be able to present, describe and depict existing situations under study (Marshall & Rossman, 1989: 79). As an overt observer, the researcher may be a participant observer or simply an observer (Richards, et al., 2012: 73). The researcher was a participant observer using an observation scheme to observe teaching in class (see Appendix A).

3.3 2 Interview

An interview is a conversation between the researcher and the respondent with the purpose of gathering descriptions of the respondent followed by interpretations of the meanings of the described phenomena (Kvale, 1996: 174). The study used structured interviews whose key feature is that such an interview is mostly organized around a set of predetermined direct questions that require immediate responses (Berg, 2007).

With structured interviews, the researcher compiles questions prior the interview and the respondents are asked the same series of questions. In addition, when conducting structured interviews, consistent data can be produced from all the respondents and later be compared (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006). Structured interviews were used to interview four UL lecturers who teach ELSCs in the four faculties.

An audio recorder was also used to document the interview process in a more rigorous manner during interviews with the lecturers (see Appendix B).

3.4 DATA ANALYSIS

The data collected through observations was analysed thematically as well as numerically (see Appendix A). The method of analysis was used to identify common themes and patterns in the target group. Conclusions were then drawn using key findings.

Lecturers' responses were transcribed and then analysed using thematic analysis method as per interview questions.

3.5 QUALITY CRITERIA

The study adhered to qualitative quality criteria which were credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability.

3.5.1 Credibility

In terms of credibility, this study portrays data collected from the participants without any alterations. The study portrayed and produced believable and credible data. The data that produced by this study followed other related studies conducted before it. In order to ensure that data is recorded accurately, the study employed suitable data collection methods, ensured that participants contributed genuine information and established background research to assess previous findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

3.5.2 Transferability

Data collected and produced by the study is transferable and applicable to other similar situations. Thus, if conducted again by a different researcher, the results will share similarities. The study provides sufficient contextual information to enable other researchers and readers to make transfers. In order to assess the extent to which

findings may be true in other settings if similar projects were conducted employing the same methods in different environments, similar data should be produced (Shenton, 2004: 70).

3.5.3 Dependability

The study adhered to dependability. The researcher ensured that data is valid and dependable enough to be used as reference in other related studies. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), in order to address the dependability issue more directly, the processes within the study should be reported in detail, thereby enabling a future researcher to repeat the work, if not necessarily to gain the same results. Therefore, the study was devoted to reporting the study in detail.

3.5.4 Confirmability

The researcher also ensured that personal judgement did not influence the interpretation of the collected data. Miles and Huberman (1994) state that a key criterion for confirmability is the extent to which the researcher admits his or her own predispositions. Thus, the researcher re-checked all the sources, recordings and transcripts to ensure data is not misinterpreted.

3.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study is important in that it has revealed the strengths and weaknesses of ELSCs at UL. Innovative ways of developing and improving the courses were also looked into. It is thus of great importance that such studies be conducted at the UL as this university is mainly patronised by students who need English in their studies but have a limited English language background. The study would contribute towards understanding of how English language courses could be integrated in disciplines taught in UL faculties and most importantly, to ELSCs such as ESP and EAP.

3.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical considerations consist of Turfloop Research Ethics Committee (TREC), permission to conduct the study, privacy and confidentiality, and respect and dignity.

3.7.1 Turfloop Research Ethics Committee (TREC)

The Turfloop Research Ethics Committee (TREC) aims to guide researchers in treating their participants with respect and integrity. It also encourages researchers to be explicit and clear to the participants by explaining their rights and responsibilities as participants. This study has abided by the standards and procedures provided by TREC.

3.7.2 Permission to conduct the study

Permission to conduct research was first sought from the Turfloop Research Ethics Committee (TREC). Permission was also sought from the UL Registrar (see Appendix 10.3), Deans in the four faculties (see Appendices 10.4, 10.5, 10.6 & 10.7) as well as from prospective participant lecturers in these four UL faculties (see Appendix 10.8).

3.7.3 Privacy and confidentiality

The researcher explained to the participants what the study entails and then reassured them that anonymity and confidentiality would be maintained; no names would be used in the study instead codes would be used.

3.7.4 Respect and dignity

The study ensured that participants were treated with respect and that their dignity was maintained throughout.

The next chapter presents findings of the study.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the findings of the study emanating from observations of lectures and interviews with support courses lecturers.

4.2 OBSERVATIONS

The arrangement of the observation scheme is as follows: teaching structure of lecture, goals, language problems addressed, course content, teaching approach, teaching/learning materials, featuring learning styles, assessment and evaluation.

4.2.1 Structure of lecture

The 1st lecturer focused on: 'Informal and Formal Group Interaction' under the theme 'Factors contributing to Group Success'. There were 175 students and the lesson lasted for 90 minutes.

The 2nd lecturer covered the topic: 'Cohesion' under the theme 'Elements of Writing'. The lesson lasted for 1 hour 12 minutes and there were 113 students.

The 3rd lecturer dealt with 'Introduction to the Writing Process' under the theme 'The Writing Process' and the session lasted for 47 minutes. The total number of students for the module was 345 but the students were divided into two groups. Therefore, 172 students attended that lesson.

In the last lecture, the topic covered was 'Group Dynamics' under the theme 'The Benefit of Group Work'. There were 450 students and the lesson lasted for 60 minutes.

4.2.2 Goals

The goals of the 1st lecture that was observed were clearly stated. Proficiency-, cognitive- and transfer goals were met while affective goals were considerably stated.

Goals in the 2nd lesson were clearly stated. Proficiency -, cognitive - and affective goals were achieved while transfer goals were achieved excellently.

During the 3rd lecture, transfer- and cognitive goals were marginally attained while affective goals were considerably addressed.

In the 4th lecture, goals were attained. However, proficiency -, cognitive -, affective - and transfer goals were not at all achieved.

4.2.3 Language problems addressed

The lecturer tackled concepts and skills excellently. Grammar, spelling and pronunciation problems were not addressed at all during the 1st lecture. However, misconceptions were marginally addressed.

During the 2nd lecture, concepts and skills were excellently dealt with. Misconceptions and spelling errors were marginally addressed whereas grammar and pronunciation errors were tackled.

The 3rd lecturer did not address misconceptions, grammar, spelling and pronunciation. However, concept- and skill learning were marginally addressed.

With regard to language problems, concept learning was good during the 4th lecture. Misconceptions and skills learning were considerably dealt with while grammar, spelling and pronunciations were not addressed at all.

4.2.4 Content

Notional-functional, topic-based and skills-based content were covered excellently. The learning situation content was also addressed effectively. Vocabulary as content was dealt with considerably while grammar content did not feature in the 1st lecture.

With regards to course content, vocabulary, grammar, notional-functional, situations and task-based aspects were taught satisfactorily. However, topic-based and skills-based content were presented excellently in the 2nd lecture.

Vocabulary, grammar, notional-functional and situations were not addressed during the 3ʳᵈ lecture. However, skills-based - and task-based content were marginally addressed and the lesson was mainly topic-based.

During the 4ᵗʰ lecture vocabulary, grammar, notional-functional and situations as content were not considered. However, topic-based -, skills-based - and task-based aspects of content were partially dealt with.

4.2.5 Teaching approach

The lecturer facilitated the 1ˢᵗ lesson excellently. The lesson started where student were. There were no comprehension checks done, the use of audio visual aids or team teaching in place during the lesson.

In terms of the approach, team teaching, use of audio visual aids and comprehension checks did not feature during the 2ⁿᵈ lesson. The lesson started where students were. The approach was in keeping with students' needs, they participated while the lecturer facilitated excellently.

The 3ʳᵈ lesson started where students were. Comprehension checks were not done and there was no use of audio visual aids as well as team teaching during the lesson. Student participation was minimal while the approach which was in keeping with students' needs, was used negligibly. The lesson was facilitated by the lecturer.

During the 4ᵗʰ lesson, the approach used was in keeping with the students' needs. The lesson was mainly lecturer facilitated while students participated partially.

4.2.6 Teaching learning materials

During the 1ˢᵗ lesson the teaching and learning materials used were not authentic and they were not produced in-house but were commercial. The materials were appropriate, easy to use and potentially effective.

Appropriacy, ease of use and potential effectiveness of the excellent materials characterized the 2nd lesson. These teaching and learning materials were not produced in-house instead they were commercial and non-authentic.

The materials used during the 3rd lesson were not authentic and were not produced in-house. Despite this, the materials had potential effectiveness and were also appropriate. Further, the materials were easy to use, commercial and non-authentic.

The materials used during the 4th lesson were non-authentic and were not produced in-house. The materials nonetheless had potential effectiveness and they were easy to use. Thus, the materials were appropriate and commercial.

4.2.7 Featuring learning styles

The 1st lecturer to be observed used auditory, visual and tactile learning styles in an interactive lecture.

Learning styles used during the 2nd lesson were mostly visual and tactile. The lecturer also utilized auditory and interactive learning styles frequently.

The lecturer used the visual learning style well but the auditory learning style, marginally. The learning styles featured during the 3rd lecture were interactive and not tactile.

Visual and auditory learning styles were mainly observed; an interactive learning approach featured in the last lecture.

4.2.8 Assessment

Classwork, homework, peer-assessment, self-assessment, group assessment and class tests were not given during the 1st lecture.

There were no group assessments and class tests given during the 2nd lecture. However, peer- and self-assessments were done marginally during the lesson. The lecturer also assessed students through tasks given as classwork and homework.

Assessment in the form of classwork, homework, peer-assessment, self-assessment, group assessment or class test were not given during the 3rd lecture.

In terms of assessment, during the 4th lecture the students participated in group assessmentbut classwork, homework, peer-assessment, self-assessment and class tests did not feature.

4.2.9 Evaluation

The lecturer/student ratio was 1:175. Therefore, it was not conducive. The teaching environment was spacious enough to accommodate all the students, there was a working projector and the theatre-like seating arrangement enabled all the students to read the slides presented through the projector. Time was managed excellently and so were the objectives set for the lesson.

In the 2nd lecture, the lecturer/student ratio was 1:113; it was not conducive. The lecture hall where the lesson took place accommodated all the students and the traditional seating arrangement enabled all students to read notes written on the whiteboard. The tables and chairs were fixed and restricted movement. Time was well managed and set objectives were achieved.

The lecturer/student ratio for the 3rd lecture was 1:172. This was not conducive. The lecture hall had working lights, a functioning projector which enabled the lecturer to display notes and the hall accommodated all the students. Therefore, it was conducive. Time was well managed and the objectives set were partially achieved.

The 4th lecture had a lecturer/student ratio of 1:450; the ratio was not conducive. The seating arrangement was boardroom-like where students were facing each other. That type of setting caused disruptions during the lesson as it encouraged students to interact out of turn. The tables were fixed but the chairs enabled students'

movement. In addition, the positioning of the whiteboard which displayed notes through a projector caused reading difficulty for some students. Therefore, the teaching environment was not conducive. However, set objectives were met and time was well managed.

On the whole, the number of students per lecturer ranged from 113 to 450. This is an extremely high number for support courses which compounds the situation for the lecturers regarding the implementation of the envisaged student-centred approach.

In terms of proficiency-, transfer-, affective- and cognitive goals, the lecturers addressed different language problems during their lessons. It was also found that the lecturers had different teaching approaches as well as strengths and weaknesses. For example, some dwelled more on notional-functional and skills-based content while some focussed on grammar and pronunciation.

Furthermore, lecturers used commercial materials which were non-authentic, easy to use and not produced in-house.

Some lecturers used visual and tactile learning styles while others used auditory and interactive learning styles.

The lecturers had the option of choosing from the following assessments methods: classwork, homework, class test, peer-, self- and group assessments.

Although the lecturer/student ratio was not conducive, lecturers seemed to be trying their best under these circumstance. They had challenges pertaining to venues, seating arrangements and having access to non-authentic materials.

4.3 INTERVIEWS WITH ELSC LECTURERS

Responses of lecturers comprises personal information, needs analysis, modules, environment, materials, teaching materials used in the module, approach, collaboration with content subject specialists, assessment, evaluation, general comments and planning for improvement.

4.3.1 Personal information

Support course lecturers interviewed teach Business English (CBEB011), English for Health Sciences (HEHS011), Foundation English for Academic Purposes (HFEA000) and Health Life Competencies Education (SHEL011), respectively. The modules they teach are accommodated in the Schools of Accounting, Languages and Communication Studies, Languages and Communication Studies and Molecular and Life Sciences. These modules are taught to students from Schools of Accounting, Health Care Sciences, Languages and Communication Studies, Law, and Molecular and Life Sciences. Three (3) of the lecturers started teaching in 2014 and one in 2016. Three (3) lecturers indicated that there are 2 support course lecturers in each unit while 1 indicated that there are 5.

Two (2) lecturers' Home Language (HL) is Sepedi while the other 2 speak IsiZulu and English, respectively. None of the lecturers had any formal teaching qualifications. Two (2) of the lecturers hold BA Honours degrees in English Studies while the other 2 hold Master of Art degrees in English Studies and Performing Arts, respectively. Three (3) lecturers did not have any relevant background on the modules their students major in but 1 lecturer did.

4.3.2 Needs Analysis

One (1) lecturer indicated that NA was not done for the module they teach while the other 3 lecturers did not know whether it was done or not. For example, one (1) of the lecturers indicated that students' needs were determined by using the A to F form which is a form that explains the requirements or skills that students must get from each module in the School. Another lecturer stated that information was received from the Dean's office while the other 2 did not know how students' needs were established.

Two (2) lecturers could not indicate what students' necessities were while another 2 mentioned the following necessities: language –, writing – and communication skills.

Two (2) of the lecturers could not identify any lacks while the other 2 indicated that students lack writing –, grammar – and language skills.

Three (3) of the lecturers did not give responses to this question while 1 lecturer stated that NA was not done off-line. Additionally, 1 lecturer indicated that NA was done on-line and the other 3 did not give responses.

Three (3) of the lecturers could not give responses while 1 stated that NA was inductive. However, 1 lecturer indicated that NA was not deductive while the other 3 could not give responses. All the 4 lecturers interviewed stated that students' proficiency level in English was identified as that of beginners; students struggle to express themselves using the language. In 1 of the modules, tests were used as instruments to collect students' needs while there were no responses from the other 3 lecturers.

4.3.3 Modules

Two (2) of the modules were introduced in 2011 and 2013 respectively, and the other 2 lecturers could not provide the relevant information.

The 1st lecturer stated that the module was introduced because it was revealed that most students struggle to use the English language after getting their qualifications. With the 2nd lecturer, the reason was that the support course was introduced to equip Health Science students with academic writing skills so that they will be able to write reports and conduct research. The 3rd lecturer responded that the reason why it was introduced was that, English happens to be the medium of instruction for the UL and students are instructed in English, communicate in English and write examinations and assignments in English. It is therefore evidently important for students to be instructed in English. The 4th lecturer indicated that the support course was introduced because the Faculty of Management deemed it fit to introduce this type of module. All four lecturers stated that the modules they teach are compulsory.

The 1st lecturer stated that they try by all means to explain to students that English forms an important part of their future in the business field during the introduction of

the module. However, they are uncertain whether students understand or not. The 2nd lecturer was uncertain whether students know or not why they learn English, the 3rd one indicated that students are informed during the preliminary introduction of the module thus it is possible that students do know why they are learning English and the last 1 mentioned that students do not really know why they are taught the module, but the lecturer explains that to them.

Objectives of teaching the modules are to equip students with all the communication skills that they need particularly using the English language in the business environment, for students to be able to write in an academic manner, for them to be able to make good communication in their assignments and with that they will be able to attend to other needs of other modules and to equip the students' writing with good communication skills. All the 4 lecturers indicated that set objectives are met.

With regard to language aspects, the 1st lecturer stated that firstly they start with parts of speech, then dictionary use, then from there they go to the syntax part, from syntax they move on to paragraph writing, then from paragraph writing they then move on to the content for example, if students are to write a letter, they write the letter having the appropriate structure in mind. Which means all the information that they got from all aspects taught in class are put together in order to write all the business documents that students need.

Furthermore, the 2nd lecturer indicated that in their support course, reading and writing aspects are dealt with, the 3rd one teaches figures of speech, parts of speech, academic writing, letter writing, referencing, and comprehension and scientific writing is the main focus in the last module.

4.3.4 Environment

The teaching and learning environment was not conducive for all 4 modules. The average numbers of students were 175, 113, 172 and 450, and the student/lecturer ratios were 1:175, 1:113, 1:172 and 1:450.

The 1st and 2nd lecturers indicated that they used projectors while the 3rd lecturer stated that they do not have relevant equipment to teach the module. However, the last lecturer identified the projector and the computer as the equipment used.

All the lecturers stated that lecture halls were within reach and that students do walk reasonable distance to reach lecture halls.

4.3.5 Materials

One (1) lecturer stated that they used both authentic and non-authentic materials while the other 3 lecturers indicated that the materials they used were non-authentic. However, 2 lecturers indicated that the materials were adequate while the other 2 thought that it was inadequate. Lecturers concur that teaching materials for all four modules were readily available.

In the 1st module the following textbooks were used: English Handbook and Study Guide by Beryl Lutrin and Marcelle Pincus and Communicating at Work by Terri Grant and Rea Borcherds.

The 2nd module used Inside Track: Successful Academic Writing by Andy Gillet, Angela Hammond and Mary Martala, Academic Writing: A Handbook for International Students by Stephen Bailey textbooks and a Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English.

In the 3rd module, only internet sources were used as teaching materials.

Teaching materials used in the 4th module are the following: Academic Writing by Stephen Bailey, Academic Literacy by Albert Weiderman and Insight Track by Andy Gillett, Angela Hammond and Mary Martala.

The materials used in all four modules were linked to the objectives set. Additionally, all lecturers indicated that the materials maximize the chances of learning and also allow for flexibility.

Three (3) of the lecturers indicated that the materials they used allowed for creativity while 1 lecturer stated that they do not. Further, 1 lecturer stated that the materials used in their module do not allow for variety while the other three indicated that they do.

4.3.6 Approach

Three (3) lecturers stated that they employ the student-centred teaching approach while 1 lecturer indicated that he employs a life application method and engagement with students.

The 1st module content is composed of 2 parts; the language part and the communication content part which focuses on the documents that students have to produce.

The 2nd one consists of aspects of academic writing such as how to write an introduction, a paragraph and conclusion, working with other people's ideas using the Harvard Referencing method, carrying out the research and genre and discipline-specific writing.

The 3rd module content consists of letter writing, story writing, comprehension, basic use of English and grammar while the 4th lecturer identified their module content as elements of writing.

4.3.7 Collaboration with content subject specialists

Two (2) lecturers mentioned that collaboration with content subject specialists does take place while the rest indicated that it does not.

Since 2 lecturers indicated that they do not collaborate with content subject specialists, they could not provide any information on collaboration. In 1 module the lecturer indicated that they collaborate with colleagues from the Faculty of Management and Law while in the other module it is with Physiology and Environmental Health Department.

4.3.8 Assessment

Formative assessment in 2 of the modules takes place twice per semester while it is done once a month and 5 times per year in the other 2 modules, respectively. However, summative assessment takes place in all four modules. Students in all 4 modules do not get assessed externally.

The year mark/examination mark in all the 4 modules is 60:40 and students are allowed to supplement their examination.

4.3.9 Evaluation

Lecturers stated that all modules were evaluated. In 3 of the modules evaluation is done internally while in the 3rd one is done externally.

The 1st lecturer stated that during the evaluation process, participants are students registered for that module, the Center for Academic Excellence (CAE) participates in the evaluation process in the 2nd module, in the 3rd, the process is done by both lecturers teaching the course and the University of KwaZulu-Natal, and the University of Pretoria is an evaluator in the 4th module.

In the 1st module the main aspects focused on during evaluation are teaching and assessments, the 2nd one focuses on the content of teaching, 3rd normally evaluates the use, the practice and comprehension of English, and everything, that is, lecturers, lecture halls, teaching materials and support services, is evaluated in the last module.

4.3.10 General comments

Positive aspects mentioned were that the module introduces students to the language use, it prepares the students for research and academic writing, the support course offered exposes students to the English language especially at tertiary institution. Through the exposure, the lecturer gets to see students' potential as they improve in their writing. It is exciting to see them grasp many concepts from earlier.

Although 2 lecturers did not give any negative aspects, the rest gave the following input: the attitude of students towards learning is very worrisome; students are not here to study, they are just here to while away time. Another problem is there are no collaborations between the lecturers and the students to help the efforts of the

lecturers. Students sometimes submit assignments three weeks after the due date and for no reason; so it could be worrisome. Some of the students' attitudes towards their majors is not the same to the one given to English.

Moreover, there are too many students in one session so it becomes strenuous to shout and also make sure that all students understand. Often times, lecturers resort to teaching general English and using examples that are suited for their age group just that they have their attention.

4.3.11 Planning for improvement

Lecturers indicated that through collaboration with other lecturers there could be improvement. The improvement could be achieved through working with content lecturers in order to establish what students actually need and what skills they need improvement in. Since there is a huge number of students, chances of attaining improvement are limited. With regards to improving the structure of the module, benchmarking with other universities that have a similar module would really assist in achieving that.

In a nutshell, ELSCs lecturers did not have any formal teaching qualifications, most of them were not sure of what NA entailed, they did not have some historical background of the courses they taught and their teaching approach lead to GE.

Some lecturers collaborated with subject-content specialists while some did not. The lecturers assessed students at different times during the course of the year. All the modules they taught were nonetheless evaluated.

Amongst others, they often resorted to teaching GE and used examples suitable for the age group. The lecturers also indicated that through collaboration with other lecturers, there could be improvement.

4.4 CONCLUSION

The UL ELSCs' situation is dire. Students who patronise these courses should be taught in smaller groups in line with the student-centred approach. Content subject lecturers and support course lecturers need to collaborate to tackle course structure, content, materials, teaching approach and assessment challenges. This could

increase the attrition rate of the underpreparedness of students who are admitted into the 4 UL faculties.

The next chapter concludes the study and makes recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter concludes the study and makes recommendations for future research.

5.2 CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY

ELSCs are taught across 4 faculties at UL. During observations, the lecturers covered the following topics: informal and formal group interaction, cohesion, introduction to the writing process, and group dynamics.

The goals lecturers were aiming for were transfer, proficiency, affective and cognitive goals. In 2 lectures proficiency -, cognitive -, affective - and transfer goals were excellently stated while in the 3rd lecture they were considerably addressed. In the last lecture goals were not addressed at all.

Regarding language problems, most lecturers did not tackle grammar, spelling and pronunciation. However, in the main, skills and concept learning were excellently addressed.

In terms of content, the aspects observed were vocabulary, grammar, notional-functional, situations, topic -, skills -, and task-based aspects. All the lecturers covered skills - and task-based content while notional-functional, vocabulary and learning situation content were covered by half the number of the lecturers.

In almost all the lectures, the lessons started where students were and the lessons were lecturer facilitated. These lessons featured comprehension checks while the use of audio - visual aids as well as team teaching did not feature in any of the lessons.

Two of the lecturers used all the learning styles stipulated while another 2 used the visual, auditory and interactive learning styles. In another 2 of the lectures, assessment in the form of classwork, homework, peer -, self -, group assessment and tests were not given while in 2 lectures group -, peer - and self-assessment took place.

 All the lecturers interviewed stated that students' proficiency level in English was at beginners' level as students struggle to express themselves using the language. In 1

of the modules, tests were used as instruments to collect students' needs while there were no responses from the other 3 lecturers.

English happens to be the medium of instruction at the UL and students are instructed in English. It also forms an important part of their future in their fields of specialization. However, the majority of students struggle to use the English language after getting their qualifications.

Parts of speech, dictionary use, syntax, paragraph writing, letter writing, academic writing, referencing and comprehension were taught. The teaching and learning environment was however not conducive for all modules. The seats and desks in 3 of the lecture halls were fixed, thus restricting movement in cases of group activities.

Some lecturers used equipment such as computers and projectors while others did not utilise equipment at all. One (1) of the halls did not have a projector thus restricting the lecturer in terms employing advanced technological teaching methods such as producing notes through slides.

The average number of students per lecture was 175, 113, 172 and 450, and the student/lecturer ratios were 1:175, 1:113, 1:172 and 1:450. Therefore, this was not conducive in a teaching support course environment.

Three (3) lecturers used textbooks and the 4th, only internet sources. The materials used in all the modules were linked to the objectives set. Additionally, all lecturers indicated that the materials maximized the chances of learning, allowed for flexibility and the bulk of the materials allowed for creativity. In all the 4 lectures the teaching and learning materials were non-authentic, commercial and easy to use.

Three (3) lecturers argued that employed the student-centred teaching approach while 1 lecturer indicated that a life application method as well as engagement with students were employed.

The 1st lecture's content was composed of 2 parts; the language and the communication content components which focused on the type of writing genres students are going to produce. The 2nd one consisted of aspects of academic writing such as how to write an introduction, a paragraph and conclusion, working with other people's ideas using the Harvard referencing method, carrying out the research, as

well as genre and discipline-specific writing. The 3rd module content consisted of letter writing, story writing, comprehension, basic use of English and grammar while the 4th lecturer's module content was elements of writing. Further, there was some collaboration with content subject specialists.

Formative assessment in 2 of the lecturers takes place twice per semester while it was done once a month and 5 times per year in the rest of the modules. However, summative assessment takes place in all four modules. Students do not get assessed externally in all the modules. The year mark/examination mark in all the 4 modules is 60:40 and students are allowed to supplement their examination.

All modules are evaluated internally and the 3rd one is done is evaluated externally as well. The main focus during evaluation is teaching and assessments, the content of teaching, the practice and comprehension of English, and everything, that is, lecturers, lecture halls, teaching materials and support services, are evaluated

The support course offered exposes students to the English language used especially at tertiary level. Through the exposure, the lecturer gets to see students' potential unfold as they improve their writing. It is exciting to see them grasp many concepts from the outset.

There are too many students in one session. So, it becomes strenuous to shout and also make sure that all students understand. Lecturers resort to teaching GE and using examples that are suitable for their age group in order to get their attention.

Collaboration with content lecturers can help establish students' needs and what skills they need improvement. Benchmarking with universities that have similar modules would really assist in achieving better results.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

- Needs Analysis (NA) for each of the four ELSCs UL modules could be conducted.
- A study investigating whether or not UL ELSCs are learner-centred could be carried out.
- Some Present Situation Analysis (PSA) of ELSCs could be conducted.
- Means Analysis (MA) for ELSCs could be carried out.

- Needs of ELSCs lecturers could be determined.

- Some Target Situation Analysis (TSA) of UL ELSCs could be conducted.

- ELSCs teaching materials could be evaluated to determine whether they serve the purpose for which they have been devised.

- A study determining whether or not UL ELSCs content is discipline specific could be conducted.

- UL ELSCs could be evaluated to determine whether they are fit for purpose.

- Collaboration between ELSC lecturers and main stream modules' lecturers could be determined.

5.4 CONCLUSION

Since ULSCs are taught across four faculties at UL, lecturers aim for different goals; in main, skills and concept learning were addressed. The lessons were lecturer-facilitated and different learning styles were promoted and various assessment methods were used.

The ELSCs learning environment does not appear conducive given the large numbers of students (see 4.2.1). The lecturers seem to need formal training regarding teaching ELSCs. This could foster collaboration with subject content lecturers and the use of authentic materials for the modules they teach.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Observation Scheme

Topic/Unit	:	_____
Theme	:	_____
Module	:	_____
Module Code	:	_____
No. of students	:	_____
Duration of lesson	:	_____
Venue	:	_____

Instructions: Use the key provided on the next page to choose and encircle a number that best describes what you observe in class

1. Goal(s)

Clearly stated	0	1	2	3	4
Proficiency goals	0	1	2	3	4
Cognitive goals	0	1	2	3	4
Affective goals	0	1	2	3	4
Transfer goals	0	1	2	3	4

2. Language Problems Addressed

Concept learning	0	1	2	3	4
Skill learning	0	1	2	3	4
Misconceptions	0	1	2	3	4
Grammar	0	1	2	3	4
Spelling	0	1	2	3	4
Pronunciation	0	1	2	3	4

3. Content

Vocabulary	0	1	2	3	4
Grammar	0	1	2	3	4
Notional-functional	0	1	2	3	4
Situations	0	1	2	3	4

Topic-based	0	1	2	3	4
Skills-based	0	1	2	3	4
Task-based	0	1	2	3	4

4. Teaching Approach

Lesson starts where student is	0	1	2	3	4
Approach in keeping with student's needs	0	1	2	3	4
Comprehension checks done	0	1	2	3	4
Use of audio visual aids	0	1	2	3	4
Lecturer facilitation	0	1	2	3	4
Student participation	0	1	2	3	4
Team teaching	0	1	2	3	4

5. Teaching/Learning Materials

Appropriacy	0	1	2	3	4
Authentic	0	1	2	3	4
Non-authentic	0	1	2	3	4
Produced in-house	0	1	2	3	4
Commercial	0	1	2	3	4
Ease of use	0	1	2	3	4
Potential effectiveness	0	1	2	3	4

6. Featuring Learning Styles

Auditory	0	1	2	3	4
Visual	0	1	2	3	4
Tactile	0	1	2	3	4
Interactive	0	1	2	3	4

7. Assessment

Class work	0	1	2	3	4
Homework	0	1	2	3	4
Peer-assessment	0	1	2	3	4
Self-assessment	0	1	2	3	4

Group assessment	0	1	2	3	4
Class test	0	1	2	3	4

8. Evaluation

Time management	0	1	2	3	4
Set object met	0	1	2	3	4
Teaching environment conducive	0	1	2	3	4
Lecturer/student ratio	0	1	2	3	4

Key

0 – none

1 – marginal

2 – considerable

3 – good

4 – excellent

Adapted from Ngoepe (2007)

Appendix B: Interviews with English language support courses lecturers

1.   Personal Information

1.1   Name the module/course you teach.

1.2   In which School is the module/course accommodated?

1.3   Which UL Schools feed the module/course you teach with students?

1.4   When did you start teaching this module/course?

1.5   What is the total number of lecturers in your unit?

1.6   What is your home language?

1.7   Do you have any teaching qualification(s)?

1.8   What is your highest academic qualification?

1.9   Do you have some science/health/commerce background?

2.   Needs Analysis

2.1   Was needs analysis (NA) done for this course?

2.2   How were the needs of students determined?

2.3   What are students' necessities?

2.4   What are students' lacks?

2.5   Was NA done off-line?

2.6   Was NA done on-line?

2.7   Was NA inductive?

2.8   Was NA deductive?

2.9   What is the proficiency level of your newly registered students?

2.10   What type of instruments did you use to collect students' needs?

3.   Course

3.1   When was the module/course introduced?

3.2   Why was the module/course introduced?

3.3   Is the module/course compulsory?

3.4   Do students know specifically why they learn English? Please explain.

3.5   What are the objectives of teaching this module/course?

3.6   Are the objectives met?

3.7   What language aspects do you teach?

4.   Environment

4.1   Is the teaching and learning space conducive?

4.2   What is the average number of students in a class?

4.3   What is the student/lecturer ratio?

4.4   Do you have relevant equipment to teach this module/course? Give examples.

4.5   Are lecture halls within reach?

4.6   Do students have to walk reasonable distance to reach lecture halls?

5.   Materials

5.1   Are the materials you use authentic or non-authentic?

5.2   Are they adequate?

5.3   Are teaching materials readily available?

5.4   Mention teaching materials used in the course.

5.5   Are the materials used linked to course objectives?

5.6   Do they maximize the chances of learning?

5.7   Do they allow for flexibility?

5.8   Do they allow for creativity?

5.9   Do they allow for variety?

6.   Approach

6.1   Describe your teaching approach.

6.2   Describe your course content.

6.3   Do you collaborate with content subject specialists?

6.4   Give examples of colleagues you collaborate with (mention department or faculty in your answer)

7.   Assessment

7.1   How often are students assessed formatively?

7.1.1   Are they also assessed summatively?

7.1.2   Do you have external examiners for your final examination?

7.1.3   Who provides this service above?

7.2   What is the year mark/examination mark ratio?

7.3   Are students allowed to supplement the examination?

8.   Evaluation

8.1   Do you ever evaluate the course you teach?

8.2   If so, how do you evaluate it? (internal or external evaluation)

8.3   Who participates in the evaluation process?

8.4   What do you normally evaluate?

9.   General Comments

9.1   What are the positive aspects of the module/course?

9.2   What are the negative aspects of the module/course?

9.3   How do you plan to improve the structure of the course you teach?

Thank you for participating

Appendix C: Request for permission from the Registrar

<div align="right">

P.O. BOX 867

Modjadjiskloof

0835

Date:…………

</div>

The Registrar

University of Limpopo

Private Bag X1106

Sovenga

0727

Dear Dr Mabelebele

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA

I am writing to request for permission to collect data from some of the lecturers of English support courses within the university's four faculties. I am a registered Master's student in the School of Languages and Communication Studies and my study is entitled 'A review of English language support courses taught at the University of Limpopo'. Data will mainly be collected through observations and interviews.

Your assistance in this regard will be greatly appreciated. Should you have any queries, you may contact my supervisor Dr L. J. Ngoepe lucia.ngoepe@ul.ac.za/015 268 3056.

Yours sincerely

……………………..

Maake, B. B.

Appendix D: Request for permission from Dean of Humanities

P.O. BOX 867

Modjadjiskloof

0835

Date:…………

Executive Dean: Faculty of Humanities

University of Limpopo

Private Bag X1106

Sovenga

0727

Dear Prof. Maoto

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA

I am writing to request for permission to collect data from one of the English Language Skills for the Professions lecturers in the Faculty. I am a registered Master's student in the School of Languages and Communication Studies and my study is entitled 'A review of English language support courses taught at the University of Limpopo'. Data will mainly be collected through observations and interviews.

Your assistance in this regard will be greatly appreciated. Should you have any queries, you may contact my supervisor Dr L. J. Ngoepe lucia.ngoepe@ul.ac.za/015 268 3056.

Yours sincerely

…………………..

Maake, B. B.

Appendix E: Request for permission from Dean of Management and Law

P.O. BOX 867

Modjadjiskloof

0835

Date:…………

Executive Dean: Faculty of Management and Law

University of Limpopo

Private Bag X1106

Sovenga

0727

Dear Prof. Tsheola

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA

I am writing to request for permission to collect data from one of the Business English lecturers in the Faculty. I am a registered Master's student in the School of Languages and Communication Studies and my study is entitled 'A review of English language support courses taught at the University of Limpopo'. Data will mainly be collected through observations and interviews.

Your assistance in this regard will be greatly appreciated. Should you have any queries, you may contact my supervisor Dr L. J. Ngoepe lucia.ngoepe@ul.ac.za/015 268 3056.

Yours sincerely

……………………..

Maake, B. B.

Appendix F: Request for permission from Dean of Health Sciences

P.O. BOX 867

Modjadjiskloof

0835

Date:…………

Executive Dean: Faculty of Health Sciences

University of Limpopo

Private Bag X1106

Sovenga

0727

Dear Prof. Mbambo-Kekana

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA

I am writing to request for permission to collect data from one of the English for Health Sciences lecturers in the Faculty. I am a registered Master's student in the School of Languages and Communication Studies and my study is entitled 'A review of English language support courses taught at the University of Limpopo'. Data will mainly be collected through observations and interviews.

Your assistance in this regard will be greatly appreciated. Should you have any queries, you may contact my supervisor Dr L. J. Ngoepe lucia.ngoepe@ul.ac.za/015 268 3056.

Yours sincerely

……………………..

Maake, B. B.

Appendix G: Request for permission from Dean of Science and Agriculture

P.O. BOX 867

Modjadjiskloof

0835

Date:…………

Executive Dean: Faculty of Science and Agriculture

University of Limpopo

Private Bag X1106

Sovenga

0727

Dear Prof. Siweya

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA

I am writing to request for permission to collect data from one of the English for Health Education and Life Competencies lecturers in the Faculty. I am a registered Master's student in the School of Languages and Communication Studies and my study is entitled 'A review of English language support courses taught at the University of Limpopo'. Data will mainly be collected through observations and interviews.

Your assistance in this regard will be greatly appreciated. Should you have any queries, you may contact my supervisor Dr L. J. Ngoepe lucia.ngoepe@ul.ac.za/015 268 3056.

Yours sincerely

…………………..

Maake, B. B.

Appendix H: Request for permission from the participant lecturers

School of Languages and Communication Studies

University of Limpopo

Private Bag X1106

Sovenga

0727

Date:……………..

Dear Participant

I Maake Bohlale Brilliant, a Master's student in the School of Languages and Communication Studies, Faculty of Humanities am requesting you to participate in my study. My study focuses on English language support courses offered at the University of Limpopo within all the four faculties. The main objective of my study is to review how the courses are taught.

Confidentiality and anonymity will be maintained. Data collected will be solely used for purposes of this study.

Anticipating your kind cooperation and positive response.

Yours sincerely

………………….   …………………..

Maake, B.B.   Date

Appendix I: Participant Consent Form

I_____hereby agree to participate in a Master's study entitled: A review of English language support courses taught at the University of Limpopo.

The aim of the study was explained to me fully and I understand that my participation in this study is completely voluntary and that I am not forced to participate. I also understand that the information gathered during this study will only be used for the study's purpose. I have been assured that anonymity and confidentiality will be maintained. Should I decide to withdraw from the study there will not be any consequences.

_____   _____

Signature   Date