

Development of a Framework for Teaching L2 English as a Situated Practice in Malawi

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ABSTRACT

In response to the demands of 21st century teacher preparation practices, this developmental study was instigated by the need to employ appropriate strategies in the teaching of English as second language (L2) in Malawi. Using situated cognition theoretical construct as a basis, a framework for teaching L2 English as a situated practice was created. The development process was guided by views and practices of English methodology faculty members in Malawi's five secondary school teacher training institutions. The study was conducted in three phases, (i) analysis, where eight English methodology faculty members from Malawi's five institutions of higher learning were interviewed on the strategies they use to train pre-service secondary school teachers of English, (ii) development, where the framework was created based on results from the analysis phase, and (iii) evaluation and revision where the framework was reviewed and validated by a situated cognition expert and three of the faculty members interviewed in Malawi before it was revised.

Dedication

This work is dedicated to the memory of my parents, George William Sanga and Diana Ziba-Sanga. Their words of inspiration have kept me going through time, making me grow with faith, diligence and resilience. They taught me while young:

The Lord said to Abraham, to Paul and to Isaac, do not be afraid. Moses said to the people and so did Joshua, do not be afraid. Boaz said to Ruth and Jonathan to David, do not be afraid. The angel of the Lord said to Joseph, to Mary, to the shepherds and to the women at the tomb, do not be afraid.

And Jesus said, do not be afraid, just have faith!

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Chapter 1: Introduction and Need for the Study

How it all Started

In the year 2006, I and two other colleagues from Mzuzu University in Malawi travelled to Karonga where we were going to supervise our teachers-in-training at several schools in the District. We were in the last week of the exercise and after supervising our teachers-in-training for the previous couple of months or so; our group specifically came to Karonga to moderate final grades of our practicing teachers. Normally, the three of us would go into a classroom where one of our teachers-in-training would be teaching and each one of us would independently assess their performance using a standardized criterion. Unlike with normal supervision, during moderation we would not meet the student at the end of a class for feedback. Instead, we the three faculty members would come together to discuss what we had observed and come up with an average final grade to award to the student.

So, on this bright Tuesday afternoon, we came into the class of one of our teachers in training named Ernestina. She was going to teach an English grammar class to Form One (Grade Nine) students and normally she would have 45 minutes to deliver her lesson. Ernestina came into the class smartly dressed and full of confidence and the energy of a teacher. She seemed oblivious of the fact that we were there and immediately went ahead to greet the class before introducing the topic of the day. One could see from the onset that Ernestina was really well prepared. She was going to teach “categories” and so she took a piece of chalk and listed the eight categories of English as prescribed by traditional grammar. The categories were indeed accurately listed on the blackboard: The noun, the verb, the pronoun, the adjective, the adverb, the preposition, the conjunction and the interjection. She then wrote on the blackboard the definition of each of the categories against it. For example, a noun is a naming word, a verb is an

action word and so on. She then asked the class to say each of the categories and their definitions for several times until the students could say every one of them at the level of automaticity. This took her close to half of the allocated time and as a supervisor; I could see the satisfaction written on her face probably emanating from the positive manner in which the students had responded to the exercise. In the next half of the class period, she brought another list on the blackboard, a table with three columns and nine rows. In the top left column she wrote “word”, in the middle column came “category” and in the last column there was the word “meaning”. And so the eight rows were filled with eight words of different category and meaning. She then went through the list explaining to the class the category to which each word belonged, beginning with noun, and the dictionary meaning of each example word. She did that for each of the eight words and categories from noun all way through interjection. She then made the students speak after her, from word, category and meaning of the word all way down to interjection. Again, the students learned the words, their categories and their dictionary meanings with acute accuracy and automaticity. Satisfied that she had taught her topic, Ernestina recapped and asked them to take notes which the students did.

At the conclusion of the class, the three of us shook the practicing teacher’s hand, congratulating her for a class well executed and went into our grade moderation meeting. The meeting itself was not going to take long; each of my two colleagues was smiling in contentment to the precision with which Ernestina had handled the class. Together, we went through the grading criteria and at the end of the day, it was clear that while my colleagues had awarded Ernestina distinction grades, I had actually awarded her a fail. Of course she ended up passing minimally when the averages were computed to the disappointment of my two colleagues who thought she was an “A” student. I was procedurally asked to explain why my grades had been

conspicuously low and my explanation was concise: While Ernestina had taught the topic on categories to a level where the students achieved utmost proficiency, she had delivered the lesson completely out of context. I argued that it was going to be very difficult for the students to put the knowledge they had acquired into real world practice after leaving the classroom because she had simply given them a vocabulary list with dictionary meanings and made the students memorize that. It all began to make sense to my two colleagues and I could see disappointment clearly written on their faces.

And so after moderating Ernestina's class on categories, I began to think deeply in the following days and months. I ended up asking myself a couple of questions: Could there be a way in which topics in English language and grammar could be taught in a style that would enable learners to easily apply their knowledge to situations outside of the classroom? Could there be pedagogy of some sort that could help learners close the gap between knowledge acquired in an English language class and use of that knowledge in the real world? I then realized that much as Ernestina had failed to obtain a pass grade from me, she had definitely succeeded in making my mind race for a possible solution to the problem I had encountered in her class.

Situated Cognition: An Overview

Situated cognition is an important theory concerning the nature of learning. The theory consists of important implications for the design and development of classroom instruction, including the design of technology or computer based instruction. It is also a learning theory that emphasizes and promotes real and authentic learning. In a situated learning environment, learning of skills and knowledge occur in contexts that reflect how that knowledge is gained and applied in everyday situations (Altalib, 2002; Collins, 1988; Lave & Wenger, 1991).

As Resnick (1987) observed, the separation between knowing and doing traditionally has been the hallmark of school and university learning. Herrington and Oliver (2000) extended this view by contending that the emphasis in school and university has been on extracting essential principles, concepts, and facts and teaching them in a decontextualized form.

While some scholars and theorists still argue that context in which learning takes place is secondary to the actual learning process, Brown, Collins, and Duguid (1989) revealed through their research on learning that what is being learned cannot be separated from the context in which it is learned or applied; rather, it is an integral part of what is learned. The situated cognition theoretical construct proceeds on the latter body of knowledge and its proponents contend that human actions are dependent on the context in which they occur. So in short, situated cognition theory emphasizes the importance of contextualizing learning in authentic learning environments where sound activities related to the concepts being taught are provided to the learner and where collaborative construction is supported, reflection is promoted and scaffolding complements the process of making teaching and learning more meaningful (Brown et al., 1989; Cognition & Technology Group at Vanderbilt [CTGV], 1990; Collins, 1988; Collins, Brown & Newman, 1989).

Numerous studies have been conducted on situated cognition addressing authentic learning in various contexts. Such studies have demonstrated that learners show elaborate skills in practical contexts while sometimes obtaining poor scores in formal tests. They have also questioned the possibility of transferring the manifestation and assessment of competencies from one context to the other and of regarding them in a decontextualized way. Other studies conducted in second language acquisition contexts have found that there is need to go far beyond merely postulating activity as a contextual phenomenon but to also recognize that

cognitive processes in general and language acquisition in particular are publicly deployed, socio-interactionally configured, and contextually contingent (Brown, et al., 1989; Cole, 1995; Lave 1988; Mondada & Doehler 2004).

While some studies have examined the philosophy in situated cognition as applied in second language learning, the literature shows that no such type of studies have been conducted in an African context and that includes Malawi. Also, in certain contexts, such studies have been conducted in countries where the second language being learned is not the official language. To that end, the researcher felt there was need to study this pedagogy in the context of teaching and learning of second languages in Africa. It is a practical thing to point out that much as languages such as English are mostly learned as L1 (first language) in the United States and United Kingdom, they are not only learned from an L2 (second language) perspective in Africa but also as foreign, imported languages. This leaves a gap in the literature for the conduct of studies in situated cognition and second language learning in African countries like Malawi where a second language can also be the official language.

Need for the Study

Apart from Chichewa which is the national language and 13 other local languages, Malawi has English as the principal official language. All the three arms of government machinery (the executive, the legislature and the judicial) use it as the official medium of their transactions. This augurs well with the fact that English is the world lingua franca. It is a constitutional requirement for example, that members of parliament should demonstrate reasonable fluency in written and spoken English since the language is the sole medium of parliamentary proceedings. For this reason, prior to parliamentary elections, candidates have to possess the Malawi School Certificate of Examinations (M.S.C.E) with a pass in English which

is already a requirement for attainment. In education, English is the dominant language, it is taught as a subject all the way from grade one at the elementary school through university. It is also a medium of instruction from grade four onwards. No school certificate is awarded in Malawi if a candidate fails to get a pass in English and the entrance examination for university has an English language competence test component. Despite this trend, in Malawi, standards of English and of education in general have in the last decade or so made headlines in the media because of the claims that they are going down (Bwanali, 2002; Kamwendo, 2003; Kayambazinthu, 1998a; Matiki, 1998, 2001a; Mazrui, 1998; United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], 1953). Problems in the deterioration in standards of the English Language have been noted at various levels and forums. It has generally been noted for example, that despite passing the subject well in secondary school, when students come to university or go into their various work places, they fail to express themselves clearly in the language which is the world's lingua franca (Bwanali, 2002; Kamwendo, 2003; Matiki, 2003). This demonstrates that despite performing well in learning contexts, learners of the language apparently fail to transfer that knowledge in performance contexts.

A study by the Ministry of Education on the performance of students in formal examinations indicated that over the last fifteen years or so, the pass rate of the English language in secondary schools has significantly gone down resulting in many students failing to acquire certification (Ministry of Education [MOE], 2008). From the author's experience in teaching English courses at university level where he has also supervised undergraduate teachers in training in secondary schools across the country, it was noted that there is need to improve the pedagogical approach that is currently in practice in schools so that it promotes authentic learning. For example, it was noted that teaching of English as a second language is mostly done

using strategies that do not make learners active participants in what they learn. Mostly, students are involved in rote learning and are given minimal opportunity to practice speaking and writing in the language in the most authentic, creative and meaningful manner. Instead, students go through a series of examinations that mostly test for proficiency in the language rather than involve them in activities that would practically engage them fully in the use of the language in meaningful contexts. So, there appears to be a need to employ appropriate strategies in the teaching of English as an L2 so that the process results in students learning concepts in a way that they would easily be able to use them in the real world. To that end, the present study responds to the need to improve pedagogical practices in the English as an L2 classroom in Malawi. As indicated earlier, situated cognition strategies do have the potential to improve learning by enabling various skills to be learned in their appropriate contexts (Brown et al., 1989; Collins, 1988; Collins, Brown & Newman, 1989; CTGV, 1990). Based on this background, the author held the belief that use of situated cognition strategies in the English as an L2 classroom in Malawi would have a positive impact on the teaching and learning of various skills in the language.

Organization of the Proposed Study

Chapter One provides background information to the study. It introduces the theory on which the study is built, the problem at hand, the need for the study and definition of key terms. Chapter Two provides a rich account of the literature espoused in relation to this study. The chapter specifically begins with a discussion of the origins of situated cognition theory, its main features, research that has been conducted in relation to this construct and how the research informs the present study. It goes on to examine second language pedagogy beginning with theories that guide it and also an in depth account of how various second language teaching

methods have evolved. Chapter Two ends with a discussion of the history of second languages in Malawi, highlighting historical and modern forces influencing second language policy and also the status of second languages in the southern African country. Chapter Three provides an in depth account of the methodological approach that was employed to address the set research question to guide the present study. It discusses the research design, researcher stance, sample and sampling procedures, sight selection, data analysis techniques and the study procedure. Chapter Four analyzes the data collected in Malawi where eight English methodology faculty members were engaged in interviews on the strategies they use to train pre-service secondary school teachers. From the analysis, issues that guided the framework development process are brought out and discussed in the lens of situated cognition theory. Chapter Five presents an in-depth account of the framework itself where seven situated cognition tasks are operationalized in the context of teaching English as an L2 in Malawi. Finally, Chapter Six presents a summary of the study where final implications are made including a discussion of contributions of the study, limitations and directions for future investigations.

Definition of Terms

Definition of key terms used throughout this document is presented in this section so that potential ambiguities do not obscure the readers' understanding of issues raised in this study.

Situated Cognition: A learning theory that emphasizes and promotes real and authentic learning. In a situated learning environment, acquisition of knowledge occurs in contexts that reflect how that knowledge is gained and applied in everyday situations (Altalib, 2002; Lave & Wenger, 1991).

English as an L2: English as a second language, where the language is learned after early childhood and after a native language which is learned as a first language or L1 (Gass & Selinker, 2008; Larsen-Freeman, & Long 1991).

Developmental Research: Research studies that involve the production of knowledge with the ultimate aim of improving the process of instructional design, development, and evaluation. Such research is based on either situation-specific problem solving or generalized inquiry procedures (Richey & Klein, 2007; Richey, Klein & Nelson, 2004; Seels & Richey, 1994).

Framework: A real or conceptual structure intended to serve as support or guide for building of something that expands the structure into something useful. It ties together a bunch of discrete objects/components into something more useful (Clifton, 2003).

Malawi: A developing nation that lies at the southern end of the Great Rift Valley. Malawi came under British colonial leadership in 1891 and attained independence in 1964. From a language perspective, more than 14 local languages are spoken in Malawi and in addition, five other foreign languages are taught and spoken in different proportions in the southern African country (Kamwendo 1997a, 1997b; Kayambazinthu 1998a, 1998b Matiki 2001; National Statistics Office [NSO], 1966; Nave, 1999; Stubbs 1972).

Chapter 2: Review of Literature

Introduction

This chapter provides a review of the literature related to the present study. It begins with a discussion of the main features of situated cognition theory. It specifically begins with a discussion of the origins of the theory and what it is. It goes on to highlight the following main features of the construct: Authentic learning environments, legitimate peripheral participation in communities of practice, assessment in situated cognition and marriage between instructional design and situated cognition. The section continues with a focus on research that has been conducted in relation to this construct and how the research informs the present study. It concludes with criticism of the theory. The next section focuses on L2 acquisition/learning and pedagogy. Specifically, it traces theoretical roots to second language acquisition/learning from 1965 when Noam Chomsky proposed the first theory of language acquisition/learning and goes on to analyze theories that have followed this inception to the present. The section continues with a discussion of second language pedagogy where established methods of language teaching are discussed basing on various theoretical roots evolving from as early as the 17th century all way through the 21st century. The last section of the literature review chapter traces the history of second languages in Malawi from as early as 1891 when Malawi became a British colony to the present. It identifies the historical and modern forces that have influenced second language policy and practice in the southern African country. It ends with a focus on the current status of second languages in Malawi with English emerging as the biggest second language in the country.

Situated Cognition Theory

The instructional technology community is in the midst of a philosophical shift from a behaviorist to a constructivist framework, a move that may begin to address the growing rift between formal school learning and real life learning. One theory of learning that has the capacity to promote authentic learning is that of situated learning. (Herrington & Oliver, 2000, p. 23)

Situated cognition or situated learning is an important theory concerning the nature of learning. The theory consists of important implications for the design and development of classroom instruction, including the design of technology or computer based instruction. It is also a learning theory that emphasizes and promotes real and authentic learning. In a situated learning environment, learning of skills and knowledge occur in contexts that reflect how that knowledge is gained and applied in everyday situations (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Collins (1988) defined situated learning as “the notion of learning knowledge and skills in contexts that reflect the way the knowledge will be useful in real life” (p. 2). Against this background nonetheless, some scholars and theorists still argue that context in which learning takes place is secondary to the actual learning process. On the other hand however, Brown, et al. (1989) revealed through their studies and research on learning, that what is being learned cannot be separated from the context in which it is learned or applied, rather, it is an integral part of what is learned. The situated cognition theory proceeds on the latter body of knowledge and its proponents claim that human actions are dependent on the context in which they occur. A situated learning environment promotes reflection to enable abstractions to be formed (Brown, Collins & Duguid, 1989; Collins, 1988; Collins, Brown & Newman, 1989; CTGV, 1990; Resnick, 1987). In the final analysis, Young (1993) held that “the most extreme position on situated learning contends

that not only learning but thinking itself is situated and hence must be viewed from an ecological psychological perspective” (p. 44). A discussion of important features of situated cognition and studies related to the theory follows.

Situated Cognition: Origins and What it is

Origins of Situated Cognition

Situated cognition theory was first expounded by Brown Collins and Duguid in their article: “Situated cognition and the culture of learning” which appeared in the *Educational Researcher* in 1989. However, the theoretical origins of situated cognition are evident in Gibson’s theory of affordances (properties of the environment that present possibilities for action by an individual) and Vygotsky’s socio-cultural and social learning theory (Gibson, n.d.; Vygotsky, 1978). Gibson (n.d.) proposed that the environment in which one interacts consists of various affordances which provide the cues that are necessary for perception and where perception becomes the direct consequence of the properties of the environment. Vygotsky further proposed that social interaction plays a major role in the development of cognition. Argued Vygotsky (1978), “every function in the child’s development appears twice: first on the socio level, and later on the individual level; first, between people (interpsychological) and then inside the child (intrapsychological)” (p. 57). These arguments seemed to emphasize the importance of the environment or context in which an individual grows as being paramount to the knowledge that person gains. The arguments also implied that knowledge is not only acquired from an individual perspective, but also through collaboration with others. These scholars seemed to further underplay the role of the person individually and the interaction that the learner engages with others in his/her environment. In fact, Choi and Hannafin (1995) elaborated that in situated cognition, learning cannot be separated from the context in which it

occurs. They emphasized the importance of learning in real-life contexts, whereby knowledge is acquired by embedding the subject matter in the experiences of the learner and by creating the opportunity for the learner to interact in the context of real life situations. Winn (1993) complemented this argument by contending that transfer of learning then, occurs when a natural learning environment that is created engages the learner in solving authentic, complex non-routine problems. Finally, Driscoll (2005) observed that proponents of situated learning believe that knowledge is inert and unused if taught in contexts that separate knowing from doing. From all these arguments, it becomes apparent that situated learning is essentially concerned with closing the gap between learning and use.

What Situated Cognition is

Herrington and Oliver (2000) provided a nine element framework which effectively details the principles of situated cognition and provides some guidelines for implementation: (1) provide authentic content that reflects the way knowledge will be used in the real life – non linear design, no attempt to simplify, (2) provide authentic activities – activities that have real world relevance, (3) provide access to expert performances and the modeling of process-access to social periphery, access to expert thinking, (4) provide multiple roles and perspectives –the opportunity to express different points of view, (5) support collaborative construction of knowledge – classroom organization into small groups, (6) promote reflection: opportunity for learners to compare with experts, (7) promote articulation – publicly present argument to enable defense of learning, (8) provide coaching and scaffolding – complex open-ended learning environment and (9) provide for authentic assessment – multiple indicators of learning.

It is interesting to note that the philosophy in situated cognition contradicts the emphasis in school and university which has been about extracting essential principles, concepts, and facts,

and teaching them in an abstract and decontextualized form where information is stored as facts rather than as tools (Bransford, Sherwood, Hasselbring, Kinzer, & Williams, 1990; Brown et al., 1989; Cole, 1990). Herrington and Oliver (2000) actually reiterated that much of the abstract knowledge taught in schools and universities is not retrievable in real-life problem-solving contexts, because this approach ignores the interdependence of situation and cognition. So, emerging from anthropology, sociology, and cognitive science, situated cognition theory represents a major shift in learning theory from traditional psychological views of learning as mechanistic and individualistic and moves toward perspectives of learning as emergent and social (Greeno, 1998; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Salomon, 1996). It becomes evident then, that situated cognition may have been developed to allay such a trend in schooling as previously described.

A good example of the need to close gap between learning and use comes from the work of Miller and Gilder (1987) who worked on vocabulary teaching. Their work described how children are taught words from dictionary definitions and a few exemplary sentences. They compared this method with the way vocabulary is normally learned outside school. They concluded that people generally learn words faster and successfully in the context of ordinary communication. Brown et al. (1989) complemented this work by contending that learning from dictionaries, like any method that tries to teach abstract concepts independently of authentic situations, overlooks the way understanding is developed through continued, situated use. Brown et al. (1989) went on to elucidate the notion of learning and enculturation. They argued that from a very early age and throughout lives, people consciously or unconsciously adopt the behavior and belief systems of new social groups. Given the chance to observe and practice in situ, the behavior of members of a culture, imitate behavior and gradually start to act in accordance with

its norms. But then they observed that so too often, the practices of contemporary schooling deny students the chance to engage the relevant domain culture because that culture is not in evidence. For example, students may pass examinations but still not be able to use a domain's conceptual tools in authentic practice.

Lave (1988) revealed how different, schooling is from the activities and culture that give meaning and purpose to what students learn elsewhere. He brought up the idea of just plain folks (JPFs) who he argued, have two options to learning; either, they can enter conventional schooling or acculturate through apprenticeship where they can engage in authentic activities which is different from the way they would learn as students in school. However, Brown et al. (1989) observed that even though students are expected to behave differently, they inevitably do behave like the JPFs, solving most of their problems in their own way.

Real World Examples

Lave (1988) provided various examples of learning as a situated phenomenon. A good example involved members of a weight watchers program problem-solving to determine appropriate food servings. Dieters were asked to prepare their lunch to meet observer specifications. They were to fix a serving of cottage cheese, supposing that the amount allotted for the meal was three-quarters of the two-thirds cup the program allowed. Interestingly, the problem solvers did it by filling a measuring cup two-thirds full of cottage cheese, dumping it out on a cutting board, patting it into a circle, marking a cross on it, scooping away one quadrant, and serving the rest. Instead of using a paper and pencil algorithm, problem, setting, and enactment were the means by which checking took place. As Brill (2001) observed, this example illustrates how individuals frequently use cues and tools from the environment to create artifacts

in order to solve puzzles encountered in daily living much more often than by directly calling on formally-learned knowledge and skills.

Carraher, Carraher, and Schliemann (1985) observed Brazilian children solving simple mathematical problems as they sold produce on the street. These same children failed to solve the same problems when they were presented out of context in conventional mathematical form. For example, one nine-year-old child answered a customer's question regarding the price of three coconuts by counting aloud, "40, 80, 120." But then the same child arrived at a result of 70 when asked to multiply three by 40 on a formal test. From this episode, context seemed to help the child's ability to solve a mathematical problem. So, Collins (1988) identified four benefits of situated cognition as a learning theory. He argued that students learn about the conditions for applying knowledge. Also, students are more likely to engage in invention and problem-solving when they learn in novel and diverse situations and settings. Third, it enables students to see the implications of knowledge. Fourth and finally, students are supported in structuring knowledge in ways that are appropriate to later use by, importantly, gaining and working with that knowledge in context.

Authentic Learning Environments

A situated learning environment provides authentic activities which are ill-defined and students find as well as solve the problems. It is an environment where tasks can be integrated across subject areas, and it provides the opportunity to detect relevant and irrelevant material (Brown et al., 1989; Collins, Brown and Newman, 1989; CTGV, 1990; Young, 1993). Learners in authentic learning environments participate in the actual experience (contextualized) rather than being external (decontextualized) to the event. Learning in context implies constructing an instructional environment that incorporates the tasks that learners must complete in order to be

successful in their choice of practice. To be in context means learners interact with the values, norms, and true culture of a specific community or organization (Moore, 1998, Brown et al., 1989). It appears then, that school can be a community where all learners can interact with the activities that go on in the classroom.

Driscoll (2005) recognized the importance of learning in context by emphasizing that learners who are learning in familiar contexts are more capable of relating new information than they would be in unfamiliar contexts. Brown et al. (1989) defined authentic activities as “the ordinary practices of the culture” (p. 6). More importantly, Choi and Hannafin (1995) contended that authentic activities are not simulated tasks or exercises that are usually found in formal education setting; they are actual real life activities that experts within the community perform while they are engaged in actual problem solving situations. Lave (1988) emphasized this point by providing the example of apprentice tailors who first start by only ironing finished garments and indicating that even though ironing is a very simple task, it still remains absolutely authentic. Therefore, authentic activity becomes important to learners because it allows them the opportunity to gain access to the expert’s perspective within the community and provides them with the ability to act meaningfully and purposefully within the practice (Brown, et al., 1989).

Against this background, Lave and Wenger (1991) observed that school activity too often tends to be hybrid, implicitly framed by one culture, but explicitly attributed to another. Many activities students undertake, they argued, are simply not the activities of practitioners and would not make sense or be endorsed by the cultures to which they are attributed. Lave and Wenger (1991) went on to contend that when authentic activities are transferred to the classroom, their context is inevitably transmuted; they become classroom tasks and part of the school culture. This argument seemed to suggest that it is a big challenge to situate activities in the context of a

conventional classroom. But then Brown et al. (1989) went on to emphasize that the activities of a domain are framed by its culture. Their meaning and purpose are socially constructed through negotiations among present and past members. Authentic activities then are most simply defined as the ordinary practices of the culture. Brown et al. (1989) concluded this argument with caution, arguing that this is not to say that authentic activity can only be pursued by experts. They finally proposed situating authentic instruction for students through a cognitive apprenticeship model which would involve supporting students' instructional activities through a guided independence. This discussion follows.

Legitimate, Peripheral Participation in Communities of Practice

According to Lave and Wenger (1991), legitimate peripheral participation views learning as an activity which is situated, whereby learners sometimes become participants in communities of practice or practitioners in communities of practice and move up in the community starting as a new entrant all the way to mastery which is in essence full participation. Through this journey within the community, newcomers learn skills, acquire knowledge and understand the artifacts and identities of the community, eventually becoming what are known as old timers. Driscoll (2005) explained that the notion of peripheral is used to distinguish those who are newcomers to a practice from the old-timers, who are considered full participants. He further clarified that it is a matter of time and experience within the community before a newcomer is allowed or given full access to the community's resources. He drew an example of university students who are not fully aware of all the resources and opportunities available to them but find out about what resources are available through negotiating their way through the system of the university structure.

Wenger (1998) suggested that there are three levels of learning, the first level is the individual learning process in which the learner becomes a member of the community of practice, the second is the community learning level, where the whole community structure insures that the progression from newcomer to old-timer is in place, and finally, the third, which pertains to learning on the level of the entire organization, must have the practitioners and resources to be able to sustain the multiple communities operating within its structure. On benefits, Brown et al. (1989) argued that legitimate peripheral participation is important for those individuals or learners who do not fully participate directly in a specific activity yet learn from their participation on the periphery. Also, that peripheral participation is very important for those entering into a new culture. Newcomers on the periphery have the opportunity to observe how old timers or practitioners in the community's various levels interact and behave, for which they will understand the rules and culture of the community. The notion of a culture where meaning is negotiated between past members (who could be more knowledgeable) and present members, is an interesting one as it could result into good knowledge sharing.

Wenger (1998) defined five types of learning trajectories in legitimate peripheral participation. First, learners on peripheral trajectory never, for one reason or another, engage in full participation. For example, the case of a student who takes music lessons through high school but then fails to continue them in college. Second, an inbound trajectory suggests that a newcomer has invested in the community of practice and is headed toward full participation while the concept of an insider trajectory suggests a means for continued evolution of practices within the community. Fourth, boundary trajectories occur when learners sustain membership and participation in related communities of practice and, in essence, broker interactions between

them. Finally, learners on the outbound trajectories are in the process of leaving a community.

Actual Cases of Apprenticeship

Lave and Wenger (1991) observed: “In the United States today, much learning occurs in the form of some sort of apprenticeship, especially wherever high levels of knowledge and skill are in demand (e.g., medicine, law, the academy, professional sports, and the arts)” (p. 63).

Altalib (2002) contended that where new comers as peripheral participants participate by interacting with old timers, they gradually gain skills and knowledge and become old timers as time passes.

To explore the concept of legitimate peripheral participation, Lave and Wenger (1991) studied actual cases of apprenticeship. First, they cited the apprenticeship of Yucatec midwives who are almost always daughters of experienced midwives and specialized knowledge and practice is passed down within families. Second, they cited the apprenticeship of Vai and Gola tailors, where the apprentice and his family negotiate with a master tailor to take a newcomer into his house and family and make sure he learns the craft. These enter and leave apprenticeship ceremoniously. Third, Lave and Wenger (1991) alluded to the apprenticeship of naval quartermasters: These leave home to join the Navy for a short period of time. They have instructors and officers and work with other enlisted persons. Most of them learn their rating primarily on the job (though) some of the experience aboard ship is a bit like school with work books and exercises. In order to advance to higher ranks, novice quartermasters participate in joint activity with more experienced colleagues in two contexts. Fourth, Lave and Wenger (1991) drew on the apprenticeship of meat cutters where butchers (apprentices) join a union and are placed in trade schools where they receive on-the-job training in supermarkets. They learn meat cutting from master butchers and journeymen who work there. It consists of a mix of trade

school and on the job training. However, because journeymen and apprentices are so occupied with profit-making tasks, apprentices rarely learn many tasks. Fifth and finally, Lave and Wenger (1991) cited the apprenticeship of nondrinking alcoholics where an apprentice alcoholic attends several meetings a week where old timers give testimony about their past drinking and the course of the process of becoming sober.

In conclusion, Lave and Wenger (1991) observed that the key to legitimate participation is access by new comers to the community of practice and all that membership entails. Lave and Wenger went on to argue that even though this is essential to the reproduction of any community, it is always problematic at the same time. To become a full member of a community of practice requires access to a wide range of ongoing activity, old-timers, and other members of the community; and to the information, resources and the opportunities for practice.

Assessment in Situated Cognition

Choi and Hannafin (1995) contended that the content of tests has an impact on both learning and instructional processes. They stated that in many cases, teachers often “teach to the test” (p. 63). When students eventually realize that they are being tested on their ability to recall the information that the teacher has presented, they start to memorize the required information, which in turn decontextualizes their knowledge, and learning becomes merely learning for the test. Altalib (2002) complemented this view by observing that adopting a situated learning strategy impacts the way in which learners must be assessed. He went on to mention that many of the traditional standardized tests that are administered, and the instructor constructed exams fall short of being able to measure many learning outcomes.

Several scholars have argued for the need to have assessment and learning in situated learning contexts done as part of learning rather than separated from it (Case, 1985; McLellan, 1993; Young, 1993, 1995). McLellan (1993) argued that evaluation in a situated learning context is based on dynamic, continuous, ever-emerging assessment of the learning process, the learner's progress, the instructional strategies deployed, and the learning environment. The goal according to McLellan (1993) is to better customize the instruction, adapting and refining instructional strategies to invoke and improve the learner's progress toward mastery. She went on to argue that evaluation must be inextricably coupled with learning, not set apart from it, since knowledge is situated. That knowledge is a product of the activity, context and culture in which it is developed and used, and must be evaluated as such. In fact, Young (1993) shared this view by arguing that assessment can no longer be viewed as an add-on to an instructional design or simply as separate stages in a linear process of pretest, instruction, and posttest. Rather, assessment must become an integrated, ongoing and seamless part of the learning environment. In short, according to Young (1993) design techniques for situated learning must encourage the construction of instruction and assessment as one. Case (1985) had actually argued that assessment must not only be integrated with instruction but must focus on the learning process as well as the learning products. Young (1993) went on to assert that multiple-choice items that assess the static factual knowledge of students must be replaced by cognitive tasks and assessments that can focus on the processes of learning, perception and problem solving. Young (1995) further argued that first assessment must emphasize process as much as product, second, assessment must move away from a linear additive model and accept at the onset, the complex, nonlinear and possibly chaotic nature of real learning, that is to say, assessment must acknowledge that learning, knowledge and thinking are situated as much and as such, they are

inherently nonlinear. Finally, assessment must adapt to and take advantage of students working with technologies that extend perceptual and problem solving-capacities beyond what they could do standing alone on a desert island. It appears from their arguments then, that these scholars believe that it is more reasonable to conduct assessment alongside learning for it to make sense and assist learners make meaning of what they learn rather than make the two (learning and assessment) devoid of one another. The scholars it appears believe that while students learn, it is important to assess them on tasks that allow them to solve realistic problems.

Collins' Model for Assessment in Situated Learning Contexts

Collins (1990) proposed a scenario for integrated learning and evaluation in a computer learning environment that could serve as a model for evaluation in situated learning environments. Collins' scenario included three kinds of evaluation measures; diagnosis, summary statistics, and portfolios. Portfolios, he argued, consist of learner-created products that reflect the processes of learning and development over time. Summary statistics show patterns and trends in the learner's development. Diagnosis is based on many kinds of information including portfolios and summary statistics, as well as teacher's continuous assessment of the learner's progress and capabilities. Diagnosis is dynamic, on-going, the teacher must at every moment analyze the progress of the learners and adapt or customize the methods, sequencing, and other conditions of learning to meet the emergent needs of the learners in real time. This, according to Collins, demands great skill on the part of the teacher. Collins (1990) explained that his model of evaluation derives from professional sports where extensive records are kept on players. While supporting Collins' model, McLellan (1993) contended that learning activities that center on reflection and self-assessment are extremely valuable for diagnosis. Reflection enables students to compare their own problem-solving processes with those of an expert, and

another student, and ultimately, an internal cognitive model of expertise. In the final analysis, McLellan (1993) recommended that this three-part model proposed by Collins (1990) be adopted as an approach to assessing situated learning with the three parts providing different kinds of assessment measures.

Situated Cognition and Instructional Design and Technology

Several scholars have argued for the possibility of marriage between instructional design and situated cognition (Altalib, 2002; Harley, 1993; Streibel, 1989; Winn, 1993; Young, 1995). Altalib (2002) contended that the theory of situated cognition in its most general form has the power to inform instructional designers on several levels both descriptively and prescriptively, in the classroom and in the workforce. As an educational theory, Altalib (2002) argued, situated cognition integrates useful principles of sociocultural learning and cognitivism. It sits as an integrating framework that is much more flexible and dynamic than its predecessors as it finally accounts for the interactions pertinent to learning. Harley (1993) argued that the role of the teacher within situated activity can be considered as supportive rather than directive of learning. Young (1995) observed that computers and multimedia technology for example, can provide the complex contexts that constitute realistic situations. He went on to say that while the ideal situations are no doubt activities in the real world, there are several advantages of constructing realistic (rather than real world) situations for learning.

Winn (1993) initially observed that several of the basic assumptions of instructional design appear at first sight to be antithetical to several of the basic assumptions of situated learning and that this may suggest that the two are incompatible. However, Winn (1993) and Streibel (1989) agreed in their opinions that instructional design and situated learning can coexist in a productive partnership. To that end, Winn (1993) went on to argue that instructional

designers are challenged by two issues when constructing instructional materials for situated learning environments. The first is designing instruction in a way that can help transfer in various types of situations. The second is to try to contextualize the learning of knowledge and skills, by replicating the environment in which it is to be applied. Winn (1993) further suggested that in order for students to encounter that same type of reasoning that experts encounter, they must be presented with unauthentic, complex, and ill-defined tasks, where the situated learning environment allows the students an opportunity to build awareness and ability to retrieve the relevant information that they need. Winn (1993) then, suggested that it is possible for instructional designers to fulfill the goals of situated learning in the following three ways: “designing worthwhile ways for students to serve apprenticeships in school as learners, designing experiences that bring into the classroom activities that are in some way authentic, and planning learning experiences that are situated in the real world” (p.18).

Young (1993) argued that “the true test for successful learning is transfer of learners’ skills from the situations in which they are learned to novel situations in which the relevant knowledge could also be applied” (p. 49). However Winn (1993) observed that the flexibility in performance that this requires is endangered not by placing students in all the situations in which their knowledge and skill will be applied, but teaching at a level of generality that allows application in multiple settings. However, as Gagne, Briggs, and Wager (1992) argued, the purpose is to teach generic skills that are transferable, not specific skills for each situation. Still on transfer, Winn (1993) observed that in spite of a great deal of research on transfer, there is still little knowledge on how to promote it. In fact Butterfield and Nelson (1989) suggested that simply doing a thorough job teaching a task is usually not sufficient in itself to bring transfer

about. Finally, Streibel (1989) cemented the preceding argument by contending that a marriage is possible between traditional instructional design and situated cognition.

Implications of Cognitive Apprenticeship on Instruction.

Driscoll (2005) observed that in higher education, the concept of apprenticeships has long been a part of instructional programs, typically taking the form of an internship in the student's final semester of study. The usual purpose of internships as Driscoll observed is to provide students with an opportunity to practice the skills and knowledge they have spent studying. Driscoll (2005) went on to argue that although school children and learners in other situations cannot become apprentices in quite the same way as interns, they may experience some of the same advantages through projects in which the instructor models desired skills and coaches learners as they attempt to follow suit. When the situative concept of communities of practice is applied to a classroom context, it becomes apparent that the culture of the classroom has to change (Brown, 1992). Driscoll extended this argument by observing that within such a structure, teachers are typically in charge, they set not only the learning agenda and goals, but also the means by which these goals are pursued and achieved. Driscoll (2005) went on to argue that when a classroom becomes a learning community, however, the social structure transforms into one in which teacher and learners work collaboratively to achieve important goals.

Situated Cognition Summarized

Even though it has roots from Gibson's theory of affordances (Gibson, n.d.) and Vygotsky's socio-cultural and social learning theory (Vygotsky, 1978), situated cognition can be said to have developed from the work of Brown et al. published in 1989. In fact Brown et al. (1989) are the most cited authors in situated cognition. The theory indeed addresses important

implications for the design and development of classroom instruction. Succinctly, it basically argues for the closing of gap between learning and use. Situated cognition argues for the conduct of authentic activities in the classroom, putting it plainly, it argues for the teaching of classroom activities as they would occur in the real world so that what students learn in class, is directly practicable in the real world. However, it must be noted that it is naturally not easy to bring the real world into the classroom. So, perhaps instructors and students should simulate real world activities in the classroom. But then Choi and Hannafin (1995) contended that authentic activities are not simulated tasks, meaning that they are real. This leaves us with a big challenge to make simulated tasks as real as possible in the classroom. To that end, Young (1995) observed that while the ideal situations are no doubt activities in the real world, there are several advantages of constructing realistic (rather than real world) situations for learning. “Contrived situations that are realistic and complex are required to establish a context in which experts and novices can meaningfully collaborate to solve problems (cognitive apprenticeship)” (p. 92). So, from Schell and Black (1997)’s observation, situated cognition theory encourages educators to immerse learners in an environment that approximates as closely as possible context in which their new ideas and behaviors will be applied. From the perspective of an instructional designer, it would be sensible to go by Winn (1993) who encourages the design of instruction for transfer. As it is, it is a challenge to teach for transfer; however, if instruction is designed for transfer, it will lessen the burden for instructors in the classroom to teach in styles that require transfer of knowledge from learning to performance contexts. In any case, the true test for successful learning is transfer of learners’ skills from the situations in which they are learned to novel situations in which the relevant knowledge could be applied. The intention should be to teach generic skills that are transferable, not specific skills for each situation (Gagne et al., 1992; Young, 1993).

Finally, as pointed out earlier on, situated cognition remains a young theory that is open for growth.

Criticism of Situated Cognition Theory

Anderson, Reder, and Simon (1996) listed what they saw as the four central claims of a situated learning perspective and argued that each is flawed. First, on the claim that action is grounded in the concrete situation in which it occurs, they objected, claiming that it is true that Brazilian street sellers who correctly calculate the cost of items they sell in the streets are unable to answer similar questions at school. They argued that this is actually a demonstration that skills practiced outside of schools do not generalize to schools, not that Arithmetic procedures taught in the classroom cannot be used by shop keepers. Nevertheless, they contended that skills like reading clearly transfer from one context to another. On the claim that knowledge does not transfer between tasks, Anderson, et al. (1996) objected by claiming that the psychological literature contains both success and failures to achieve transfer. Transfer between tasks, they argued, depends on the amount of practice in the initial domain and the degree of shared cognitive elements. On the claim that training in abstraction is of little use, Anderson, et al. (1996) objected by arguing that this has been extended into an advocacy for apprenticeship training by those taking a situated perspective. In contrast, Anderson, et al. (1996) advocated a combination of abstract instruction and concrete examples. Finally, on the claim that instruction must be done in complex, social environments, Anderson, et al. (1996) argued that research in psychology shows that training is often more effective when nearly independent parts are practiced first, before combining them.

Greeno (1997) responded to the claims by Anderson et al. (1996) not necessarily to take issue with their argument, but simply to note that the purported claims are not those of situated cognition. Greeno argued that Anderson et al. (1996) basically interpreted the claims they discussed in terms of cognitive presuppositions and therefore did not accurately represent the propositions of situated cognition theory. However, Anderson et al. counter-argued that Greeno was, in effect, linguistically hair-splitting. Rose (1999) nevertheless supported Greeno's call for parallel developments from situative and cognitive perspectives (Greeno, 1997).

Summary

While Anderson, Reder, and Simon (1996) make a valid point by claiming that skills like reading clearly transfer from one context to another, the observation by Greeno (1997) and Rose (1999) clearly holds in the sense that indeed the claims that Anderson et al. (1996) bring up are generally not specifically those of situated cognition.

Studies on Situated Cognition

Research conducted by Lave (1988) provides evidence for the claim that the learner engages in situational meaning-making and acts upon this understanding to create plans for action. Lave's ethnographic studies in schools indicated that although a teacher had engaged in teaching a specific algorithmic problem solving strategy in a mathematics class, students' perceptions of the problem were conceptualized with reference to contexts larger than the restrictive parameters of the math problem statements and teacher expectations of how to answer the questions. For the students, the problem definition also included getting the right answer to satisfy the teacher's requirements. So, the problem of the students was not, it seemed, the acquisition of substantive knowledge and skills for use beyond the classroom, but rather the

attainment of more immediate objectives, namely to please the teacher and presumably, earn a good grade. As shown earlier on, this contextually sensitive dynamic is what a theory of situated cognition attempts to identify and explain. In a study investigating how students determine meaning from their context-embedded experiences and their sense of situation in a math class, Harley (1991) employed a qualitative approach to observe third and fourth grade students as they participated in classroom learning activities. The study found that students in the classroom were involved in situating their thinking and action with direct reference to the contextual conditions of the activity. Teachers on the other hand were found to be sensitive to the immediate context of the students as definers of present moment conditions and goals. The study concluded that students can compensate very efficiently for skill deficiencies in abstract math by utilizing their ability in recognizing object affordances in relation to problem solutions. Students were found to be able to situate other personally constructed abstractions to facilitate their problem solving.

Herrington and Oliver (2000) conducted a qualitative study to determine the possibility of applying a model of instructional design based on the theory of situated learning to the design of a multimedia environment for university students. The study was done in three inter-related stages: First, to identify critical characteristics of a situated learning environment from the literature, to operationalize the critical characteristics of a situated learning environment by designing a multimedia program that incorporated the identified characteristics, and third, to investigate students' perceptions of their experiences using (the) multimedia package based on situated learning framework. Eight students were observed and interviewed. Findings suggested that the use of the situated learning framework provided effective instructional design guidelines for the design of an environment for the acquisition of advanced knowledge.

Griffin and Griffin (1996) investigated the impact of situated cognition on short- and long-term retention of map skills among fourth graders and the effect of cognitive style on their learning. Fourth-grade students were assigned either to situated-cognition instruction using cognitive apprenticeship or to a conventional-instruction treatment. The conventional-instruction group performed significantly better than the situated-cognition group on the immediate post written measure of map skills. This finding contradicted those of Griffin (1995), who had found no differences between groups on written assessments. More importantly, this called into question the proposition by Brown et al. (1989) that situated cognition produces more robust knowledge that encompasses and surpasses that provided by conventional instruction. While these studies have been highly cited in situated cognition literature, it must be pointed out that it is important to focus on contexts in which learning takes place rather than on a comparison of the ways through which learners are taught, an approach which has been deemed an inappropriate measure in the field of instructional design and technology.

Herrington, Sparrow, Herrington and Oliver (1997) developed a program to introduce prospective primary and secondary mathematics teachers to a variety of assessment strategies used in K-12 mathematics classrooms. The program consisted of a CD-ROM which contained information on 23 assessment techniques. The data resulted from a wider study into students' use of interactive multimedia based on a situated learning framework. The data were obtained from observation and interviews with eight pre-service teachers and education undergraduate students. The students were given a complex assessment task that was sustained and ill-defined investigation of the resource and were required to prepare both a written report (to be assessed by the instructor), and an oral presentation to be made to a simulated school staff meeting (to be assessed by their peers). Upon being interviewed at the conclusion of the class presentations,

generally, the students found that being assessed within the context of a teacher presenting a report to his or her colleagues during a staff meeting was a useful one. By and large, the students appreciated the opportunity to be assessed in a real life, simulated context. The findings of this study suggested that authentic assessment can be used successfully within an interactive multimedia learning environment. The students' comments revealed their perception that university education is relatively impoverished of authenticity, where students are required to absorb factual information provided in a "transmission" style of delivery largely devoid of any real-life relevance.

Cole et al. (1995) organized a series of activities involving reading, writing, and human-computer interaction tasks for children in elementary school. These activities were implemented in four different institutional contexts: School, a library, a youth club, and a kindergarten. Results showed that the children were performing the tasks very differently from context to context, depending on their own interpretation of the setting and on the social relations developed in each of them. Again, in his study, Lave (1988) demonstrated that participants show elaborate skills in a practical context (such as calculating prices on the market or calories in the everyday preparation of meals) while sometimes obtaining very poor scores in formal tests.

A study by Mondada and Doehler (2004) explored the interactive (re)- configuration of tasks in French second language classrooms. Stressing that learning is situated in learners' social, and therefore profoundly interactional practices, the study investigated how tasks are not only accomplished but also collaboratively (re)organized by learners and teachers, leading to various configurations of classroom talk and structuring specific opportunities for learning. Recordings in classes specifically designed for newly arrived children between 10 and 12 years of age were made. Also, other recordings made by these children in their ordinary out of school

activities were made. The study found that there is need to go far beyond merely postulating activity as a contextual phenomenon but to also recognize that cognitive processes in general and language acquisition in particular are publicly deployed, socio-interactionally configured, and contextually contingent.

Summary

In general, these studies emphasize the importance of situating or contextualizing the learning of knowledge and skills which as indicated, promotes meaning-making on the part of the learner as it simulates the environment in which the knowledge will be applied. The studies further indicate that it is important to rid education of the practice where learning is relatively devoid of authenticity and where students merely absorb factual information without any real-life relevance. Interestingly, there is only one study done on situated cognition and second language learning which was specifically conducted in a French as an L2 environment. It must finally be pointed out that much as studies on the theory have mostly looked at learning, meaning making and assessment in context; future studies could focus on the possibility of making learning in the classroom as close as possible to real world authentic activities.

Second Language Pedagogy

Even though it has been there since the 17th century, language pedagogy came into its own as a profession in the 20th century. Central to this phenomenon was the concept of “methods” of language teaching. The method concept in language teaching (the notion of a systematic set of teaching practices based on a particular theory of language and language learning) is a powerful one and the quest for better methods was a preoccupation of teachers and applied linguists throughout the 20th century. Methodology in language teaching has been

characterized by a variety of different ways. A more or less classical formulation suggests that methodology is that which links theory and practice. Theories of second language learning/acquisition are linked to various design features of language instruction. These design features might include stated objectives, syllabus specifications, types of activities, roles of teachers, learners, materials and so on. Design features are in turn linked to actual teaching and learning practices (Richards & Rodgers, 1986; Rodgers, 2001). This whole complex of elements defines language teaching methodology as summarized below:

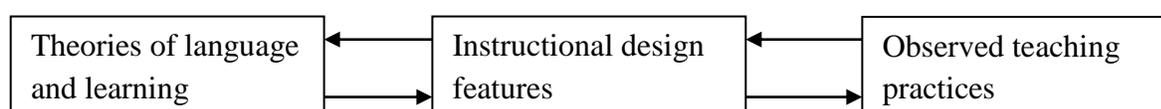


Figure 1: Language teaching methodology (Rodgers, 2001, p. 3).

Klein (1986) distinguished spontaneous (naturalistic) and guided learning treating the distinction as a psycholinguistic one. He argued that in spontaneous learning, the learner focuses on communication in naturalistic language acquisition and thus learns incidentally, whereas in instructed or guided language learning, the learner typically focuses on some aspect of the language system. Ellis (1994) argued that it may be better however, to view the distinction as a sociolinguistic one, that is, reflecting the settings and activities in which learners typically participate. While children learn first languages spontaneously, without the benefit of formal instruction, second languages are mostly learned through guided learning from direct instruction with fewer cases of spontaneous learning (Klein, 1986; Schulz, 199; Thompson, 1977). Generally, language educators have long used the concepts of four basic language skills when delivering instruction: listening (receiving), speaking, reading and writing (Celce-Murcia, 2001;

Driscoll & Frost, 1999; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Richards & Rodgers, 1986, 2001; Rodgers, 2001).

The Critical Period Hypothesis

The critical period hypothesis is the subject of a long-standing debate in linguistics and language learning over the extent to which the ability to acquire language is biologically linked to age. This hypothesis states that there is a period (believed to be between 2 and 14 years of age) in a person's life in which he or she must learn a language, or else language acquisition becomes impossible. This (critical) period is associated with structural brain cell changes such as increased cellular density and electrophysical and chemical alterations. So, the basis for this hypothesis is that by puberty the brain is already fully developed and afterwards language acquisition becomes extremely difficult (Bongaerts, Planken, & Schils, 1995; Moyer, 1999; Thompson, 1977; Young-Scholten, 2002). Thompson (1977) cited striking evidence in favor of this belief when he told a story of Genie who was 13 years old when she was found living in conditions of extreme neglect and isolation. Since approximately two years of age until the time in which she was found, she had received very little language interaction. Genie was eventually able to learn limited vocabulary, but was never able to grasp onto language as a whole. Interestingly though, some scholars argue that this evidence does not necessarily support the critical period hypothesis because she may have an overall low intelligence quotient, in which case, her inability to master a first language (L1) may reflect cognition and not language acquisition at all (Bongaerts et al., 1995; Young-Scholten, 2002).

According to this hypothesis, second language (L2) learning should occur before puberty for best results. If there is a critical period for learning an L1 then the same would apply to acquiring an L2. Studies have shown that before the brain is fully developed, an L2 can be

learned more easily than afterwards (Thompson, 1977). However, many people have been able to master the syntax and vocabulary of a foreign language after puberty. But as Moyer (1999) observed, the only conclusive evidence for the critical period hypothesis with regards to an L2 is phonology, in that learners who have shown great ability to acquire a foreign language have not been able to overcome their foreign accents.

It must be pointed out at this juncture that unlike a generation ago; most graduate programs whose goal is to train students in language teaching now require coursework in second language acquisition. This is because people have come to realize that if one is to develop language-teaching methodologies, there has to be a firm basis for those methodologies in language acquisition/learning (Gass & Selinker, 2008). To that end, the review proceeds to analyze the theoretical roots of second language acquisition/learning before focusing on a discussion of established methods of language teaching basing on various theoretical roots evolving from as early as the 17th century all way through the 21st century.

Second Language Acquisition/Learning

Second language acquisition is a relatively young field. Its study expanded and developed significantly in the past 40-45 years. The study of second language acquisition draws from and impacts many other areas of study, among them linguistics, psychology, psycholinguistics, sociology, sociolinguistics, discourse analysis, conversational analysis and education (Gass & Selinker, 2008; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). This seems to suggest that second language acquisition is an interdisciplinary field. By definition, second language acquisition is the process by which people learn languages in addition to their native language(s). The term “second language” is used to describe any language whose acquisition starts after early childhood. The language to be learned is often referred as the “target language” or “L2” compared to the first

language “L1”. Second language acquisition may be abbreviated “SLA” or “L2A”, or “L2 acquisition”. Also, the terms “learning” and “acquisition” are normally used synonymously. A second language is any language learned after one’s native language. So, one can have two, three or four second languages and there is no such a thing as a third or fourth language (Gass & Selinker, 2008; Larsen-Freeman & Long 1991).

According to Schulz (1991), an L2 can be learned in a formal school setting, where the instructional goals, activities and tests emphasize analysis and mastery of the grammatical code. It can also be learned in a naturalistic environment where there is no direct instruction. Schulz (1991) went on to point out that research in L2 acquisition often poses the question as to why do practically all normal learners acquire a language when immersed in the target language culture, but so many fail to succeed in a classroom setting? Why do people who have acquired a second language in actual communicative contexts remember the language much longer than individuals whose language experience was limited to a tutored setting? Are there insights from L2 acquisition theory which can be applied to instruction to make the classroom resemble more closely a natural acquisition setting? A discussion of established theories of second language acquisition/learning follows.

Universal Grammar Theory

Second language acquisition theories start with Noam Chomsky’s universal grammar theory (Chomsky, 1965). The theory takes the approach that claims that at least some aspects of language learning involve innateness. As Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) pointed out, “nativist theories are those which purport to explain acquisition by positing an innate biological endowment that makes learning possible” (p. 227). According to Chomsky (1965), universal grammar theory hypothesizes a shared, innate biological linguistic component in the genetic

make-up of homo-sapiens which accounts for these genetically shared features. The theory holds that the child starts with all the features of universal grammar available and that the right environmental input at the right time furthers the acquisition process. Universal grammar is postulated as an innate language facility that limits the extent to which languages can vary. Chomsky (1965) claimed that the child is born with a mental organ called the Language Acquisition Device (LAD) which atrophies with the onset of puberty and enables the learner to pick language by enabling them to make sense of what they hear. As Cook (1997) observed, universal grammar theory assumes that language consists of a set of abstract principles that characterize core grammars of all natural languages. However, in addition to principles that are invariable (i.e., all languages have them) are parameters that vary across languages.

However, McLaughlin (1987) observed that universal grammar should not be expected to be a set of specific grammatical rules in the traditional sense; rather, it consists of general, shared features in all natural languages. Also, McLaughlin (1987) contended that we should not expect universal grammar to account for all features of a language as each language differs in certain unique aspects (peripheral grammar).

Interlanguage Theory

Selinker (1972) defined interlanguage as a different linguistic system constructed by the learner as a result of five central cognitive processes (1) language transfer from the mother tongue, (2) transfer of training resulting from special features of instruction, (3) second language communication strategies, (4) strategies involved in second language learning such as rote memorization, use of formal rules, and guessing in context and (5) overgeneralization of the rules of the target language. Through error analyses of speech and writing samples of learners at various stages, researchers have found that interlanguages reflect systematic patterns of error and

communication strategies. As Selinker (1972) explained, many of these errors are developmental and will eventually disappear if the learner receives sufficient appropriate input. Complementing process (1), Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) contended that interlanguages are influenced by learner's L1.

According to Shrum and Glisan (2005), Selinker's interlanguage theory helps to understand what happens in the mind of the learner. Shrum and Glisan went on to point out that an implication for foreign language teachers is that a learner's use of the target language reflects a system in development and therefore has errors that occur as a natural part of the acquisition process. Schulz, (1991) identified two implications of interlanguage theory for foreign language teaching. First, he argued, extended comprehensible input helps learners shape their output to an increasingly closer approximation of the target language, and second, formal instruction (i.e., grammar analysis and discrete-point grammar practice) can temporarily improve performance on discrete-point tests, but apparently has relatively little influence on spontaneous language use. Interestingly, Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) observed that interlanguage development in instructed (classroom) learners does not differ significantly from that in learners acquiring a second language naturalistically.

Schumann's Acculturation/Pidginization Theory

Advanced by Schumann (1975, 1978), the acculturation/pidginization theory holds that second language acquisition is part of an acculturation process and that the degree of language proficiency is determined by the degree to which a learner acculturates to the target language group. The acculturation process is affected by the social and psychological distance between the home and foreign cultures. These social and psychological factors determine the effort language learners will make to come into contact with speakers of the target language and the degree to

which they are open to the input they receive. Some of the factors which according to Schumann (1975, 1978) are believed to be conducive to positive social distance are the perceived social equality between L1 and L2 groups, the similarity between the native and target language cultures, low cohesiveness by the outsiders as a cultural group within the target language culture (i.e., easy integration and assimilation into the target language culture), positive attitudes between each other and the expectation by the L2 learner to stay in the target language area for an extended period.

According to Schumann (1975, 1978) acculturation theory suggests that when social and psychological distance is great, (i.e., when attitudes toward the target language and its speakers are negatively loaded and integrative motivation is lacking), learners will have difficulties progressing beyond the early stages in language development, and the language will stay pidginized (i.e., will fossilize in reduced and simplified forms). As evidenced in the preceding discussion, this theory accounts only for naturalistic L2 acquisition. In the final analysis, Schumann (1978) claimed that early second languages and pidgins shared several linguistic features because each was governed by the same underlying simplification processes.

The pidginization theory has been criticized in the following ways: (1) pidgins develop when groups of speakers of several different L1s are in contact, whereas second language acquisition is a situation of bilingual contact, (2) the admixture (merging of two or more languages into one) characteristic of pidgins is not seen in second languages, and (3) second language learning generally involves monolinguals, whereas speakers of pidgins generally know several languages, with correspondingly greater access at some level to general properties of human languages, and consequently higher tendencies to simplify towards those more general properties (Bickerton, 1975; Flick & Gilbert, 1976; Meisel, 1975). These are seemingly valid

criticisms; however, the pidginization theory does provide very useful insight into the process of learning second languages naturalistically rather than through direct instruction.

The Role of Input: Krashen's Input Hypothesis Model

Building on innatist views of language learning proposed in Chomsky (1965)'s work on acquisition, Krashen (1982) proposed further explanations of how language is acquired in his widely known and controversial theory basing on five hypotheses: The acquisition-learning hypothesis: Acquisition is defined as a subconscious "picking up" of rules characteristic of the L1 acquisition process. Learning, by contrast, is a conscious focus on knowing and applying rules. Acquisition, not learning, leads to spontaneous, unplanned communication.

1. The monitor hypothesis: The conscious knowledge of rules prompts the internal monitor that checks, edits and polishes language output and is used only when the language user has sufficient time, attends to linguistic form, and knows the rule being applied.
2. The natural order hypothesis: Learners acquire the rules of a language in a predictable sequence, in a way that is independent of the order in which rules may have been taught.
3. The input hypothesis: Acquisition occurs only when learners receive an optimal quantity of comprehensible input that goes a little beyond their current level of competence not simply grammatically sequenced, but understandable using background knowledge, context and other extralinguistic cues such as gestures and intonation.
4. The affective filter hypothesis: Language acquisition must take place in an active environment where learners are "off defensive" and affective filter (anxiety) is low in order for input to be noticed and reflected upon by the learner.

People acquire second languages only if they obtain comprehensible input and if their affective filters are low enough to allow the input in. When the filter is down and appropriate comprehensible input is presented (and comprehended), acquisition is inevitable. (Krashen, 1982, p. 4)

Gass and Selinker (2008) observed that Krashen's perspectives are intuitively appealing to teachers and have been influential in terms of the strong implications for classroom instruction. Among these implications is that language classrooms should provide comprehensible input in a low anxiety environment in which learners are not required to speak until they are ready to do so. Also, input should be interesting, relevant, and not grammatically sequenced; and error correction should be minimal in the classroom since it is not useful when the goal is acquisition.

Krashen's input hypothesis theory has been criticized in the following ways: (1) His theories have not been empirically tested in language learning environments, (2) concepts such as comprehensible input and the learning-acquisition distinction are not clearly defined or testable and (3) his model presents far too simplistic a view of the acquisition process (Lightbown, 2004; McLaughlin, 1987; Munsell & Carr, 1981). Despite this criticism, Lee and VanPatten (2003) contended that an area that developed significantly as a result of Krashen's theory is teaching vocabulary. Historically, vocabulary textbooks were presented in lists of words followed by their native language equivalents, however, according to the input hypothesis, children acquire vocabulary as a result of attending to large quantities of meaningful input and by interacting with the concrete objects referred to in the input. Again, as Westhoff (2003) suggested, without extended exposure to a rich input, there is little second language learning.

Discourse Theory

According to Ellis (1986), discourse theory posits that learners develop competence in a second language not simply by absorbing input, but by actively participating in communicative interaction, (i.e., by negotiating and filling information gaps). Ellis (1986) stated the main hypothesis of the discourse theory, which applies to L1 as well as L2 acquisition as “the development of the formal linguistic devices for realizing basic language function grows out of the interpersonal use to which language is put” (p. 259). Just as the acculturation theory, the discourse theory addresses L2 acquisition in naturalistic settings.

Hatch (1992) further advanced the following principles on the theory: (1) Second language learning follows a natural route in syntactical development. This route, according to Hatch (1978) is determined by the predictable discourse which includes predictable input in which L2 learners engage. (2) Native speakers adjust their speech in order to negotiate meaning with non-native speakers. This is done by speaking slowly, louder, and using shorter sentences and less complex structures. (3) The conversational strategies used to negotiate meaning and the resulting adjusted input influence the rate and route of second language learning.

Cognitive Theory

Rather than stressing innate, universal linguistic processes, affective factors, input, or interaction as causative factors for second language development, cognitive theory sees second language learning as a mental process, leading through structured practice of various component subskills to automatization and integration of linguistic patterns. While discourse theory posits that language is available for analysis after it has been acquired or routinized, cognitive theory maintains that skills become automatic or routinized only after analytical processes. Controlled analytical processes including structured practice are seen as stepping stones for automatic

processes (Berman, 1987; McLaughlin, 1987). McLaughlin (1987) pointed out that rather than positing a hierarchical development of linguistic structures, such as those suggested by interlanguage theory, cognitive theory posits a hierarchy of complexity of cognitive subskills which lead from controlled practice to automatic processing of language. From the cognitivists' point of view, language acquisition is dependent "in both content and developmental sequencing on prior cognitive abilities" (Berman, 1987 p. 4). As the learner develops increasing degrees of mastery, he or she engages in a constant process of restructuring to integrate new structures with those previously learned. Cognitive learning thus, is seen to consist of several different phases where the learning tasks become refined, restructured, and consolidated (Berman, 1997; McLaughlin, 1987).

Sociocultural Theory

In recent years there has been an increased emphasis on language use. This has resulted in the field incorporating approaches that go beyond the purely linguistic and psycholinguistic orientations that had been prevalent in the past. Frawley and Lantolf (1984) first brought to light the importance of utilizing sociocultural theory in second language research. Current conceptualizations of the theory draw heavily on the work of Russian psychologist Vygotsky (Vygotsky, 1962, 1978) as well as later theoreticians like Wertsch (Wertsch, 1991). It represents a fundamentally different way of looking at language and learning (Fagan, 2008; Gass & Selinker, 2008; Lantolf, 1994). Vygotsky's fundamental theoretical insight is that higher forms of human mental activity are always, and everywhere, mediated by symbolic means (Vygotsky, 1978). Gass and Selinker (2008) however observed that this does not mean a divorce from the psychological processes because a sociocultural approach considers language and, by extension, second language acquisition as contextually situated and is concerned with situated language as

it relates to internal processes. Vygotsky (1978) reasoned that symbolic tools empower humans to organize and control such mental processes as voluntary attention, logical problem-solving, planning and evaluation. Included among symbolic tools are mnemonic devices, algebraic symbols, diagrams and graphs, and, most importantly, language. From this background, Lantolf (1994) contended that sociocultural theory emanated from its core principle of linguistically mediated cognition.

So, the theory is built on Vygotsky's (1962, 1978) concepts of mediation and regulation, internalization, and the Zone of Proximal Development. Mediation is seemingly the most important of these, because sociocultural theory rests on the assumption that human activity is mediated by what are known as symbolic artifacts such as language. Vygotsky (1978) argued that regulation is a form of mediation. As people learn language, they also learn to regulate their activities linguistically. Internalization, he argued, is the process that allows us to move the relationship between an individual and his or her environment to later performance. One way internalization occurs is through imitation which can be both immediate and intentional and delayed. Finally, the Zone of Proximal Development is defined by Vygotsky (1978) as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more peers" (p. 86). This in essence, implies that learning results from interpersonal activity where there is emphasis on the importance of collaborative learning which shapes what is learned. According to Tharp and Gallimore (1988) the sociocultural perspective has profound implications for teaching, schooling, and education and that higher order functions develop out of social interaction. Vygotsky (1962) for instance,

argued that a child's development cannot be understood by a study of the individual alone, there must also be examination of the external social world in which that individual life has developed.

Second Language Acquisition/Learning Summarized

Even though second language acquisition is deemed a relatively young field having developed in the past 40-45 years, it has produced varying and interesting theories that attempt to explain just how second languages are learned. From early theories like Chomsky's universal grammar (Chomsky, 1965) which emphasized more nature than nurture, the trend has grown through interlanguage and more cultural-based theories such as the acculturation theory. Theories such as input hypothesis (Krashen, 1982) have gone back a little and further built on innatist views by bringing up a more modern and interesting but controversial aspect of comprehensible input. Cognitive theory on the other hand, did not take on the innate component to second language learning but emphasizes learning as a mental process. Most interestingly, in the later years, theories have continued to evolve with the introduction of discourse theory which has a modern feel of participation and interaction. Finally, since 1984 there has been increased emphasis on language use with the incorporation of the sociocultural theory into second language acquisition. This trend has underscored social interaction as the basis for acquiring knowledge and indeed a second language. Rather than focusing on the individual, this modern view to second language acquisition emphasizes collaboration. It must however be pointed out that it would be counterproductive to identify one theory to explain second language learning best, rather, a combination of these theories depending on context would be more useful in explaining just how second languages are learned. For example, if it was proposed that sociocultural theory explains the process better, would it not be reasonable to argue that while learning socially through collaboration and other ways, one does some mental processing

(cognitive) of the comprehensible input (Krashen) that they receive? Finally, sociocultural theory, a modern theory which considers second language acquisition as contextually situated, ties in well with the philosophy in situated cognition theory discussed earlier on.

Second Language Teaching Methods

The history of language teaching has been characterized by a search for more effective ways of teaching second or foreign languages. Unlike second language acquisition which is relatively a young field, for more than hundred years, debate and discussion within the teaching profession have often centered on issues such as the role of grammar in the curriculum, the development of accuracy and fluency in teaching, the choice of syllabus frameworks in course design, the role of vocabulary in language learning, teaching of productive and receptive skills, learning theories and their application to teaching, memorization and learning, motivating learners, effective learning strategies, techniques for teaching the four language skills and so on (Celce-Murcia, 2001; Driscoll & Frost, 1999; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Richards & Rodgers, 1986, 2001).

The period from the 1950s to the 1980s has often been referred as “the age of methods” during which a number of quite detailed prescriptions for language teaching were proposed. From a practical stand point, language teaching in the twentieth century was characterized by frequent change and innovation and by the development of sometimes competing language teaching ideologies (Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Rodgers, 1986, 2001). In fact, studies by Kelly (1969) and Howatt (1984) demonstrated that many current issues in language teaching are not particularly new. Today’s controversies reflect contemporary responses to questions that have been asked often throughout the history of language teaching. As a matter of fact, in the 1950s, 1960s and 1970s second language teaching and learning was largely seen as having to do with

formal properties of language such as grammar, lexicon and pronunciation. In the 1980s however, researchers and practitioners began to realize that learning a second language involves a great deal more than attaining L2 linguistic proficiency (Hinkel, 2005; Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Rodgers, 1986, 2001). In her study on culture and the individual for instance, Rosaldo (1984) concluded that the constructs of personhood, identity, culture, and language are intertwined in the social milieu where people live. By 1980s and 1990s, research in L2 teaching and learning also added focus on the social contexts in which second languages are taught and learned (Hinkel, 2005; Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Rodgers, 1986, 2001).

According to Smith (1971), second language teaching instruction must involve four basic steps: Presentation of the item, explanation of the item, repetition to mastery and transfer to appropriate real life situations. Presentation of the item, contended Smith (1971), can be by a variety of media. Presentation assumes perception or true presentation has not occurred. Good materials will provide a variety of presentation media. Presentation of material should encourage formation of rules rather than memorization of items. Explanation, argued Smith (1971), may either precede or follow presentation: this is the word for “X” or “X” means “Y”. Repetition of some sort is an essential part of language learning. Even the best learner will repeat a new word or structure to themselves. Finally, Smith (1971) contended that transfer allows the learner to move from the learning situation, either structured or informal, to new situations in real life encounters. However, despite this seemingly reasonable explanation on stages of second language instruction it would be important to take heed of Spolsky (1970)’s argument that it is not enough to teach a language learner to respond automatically to predetermined stimuli, language instruction must lead to creative use in new situations.

While emphasizing the importance of studying language acquisition concurrently with language pedagogy, Gass and Selinker (2008) underscored the importance of differentiating the two related fields. To that end, after tracing the theoretical roots of second language acquisition/learning, the discussion proceeds with a review of established second language teaching methods. Specifically, the evolution of these teaching methods is traced from as early as the 17th century through the 21st century. Also, these methods are discussed basing on theoretical roots on which they are built. As Richards and Rodgers (2001) contended, “an approach or method refers to a theoretically consistent set of teaching procedures that define best practice in language teaching” (p. 15).

The Literary Method

During most of western history, second languages, and indeed foreign languages, were taught in accordance with classical literature. This stemmed from the emphasis that was put on literacy and the aristocracy. The Renaissance was involved in the return to the classics, particularly in Latin, but importance was placed on written mastery as opposed to speech. So, the literary method is said to have theoretical roots in the philosophy in aristocracy and classical literatures. Therefore, learners were essentially taught to imitate the classics instead of putting second languages to use in everyday situations. For example, children entering school in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries in England were initially given a rigorous introduction to Latin grammar which was taught using rote learning or grammar rules, conjugations, translations and practice in writing sample sentences (Howatt, 1984; Kelly, 1969; Richards & Rodgers, 1986, 2001). It becomes clear then, that the literary method involved a lot of rote learning and imitation rather than involving students in more practicable and creative situations. Richards and Rodgers (1986) justified this trend by pointing out that it was due to the need to rejuvenate the Latin

language which was on the verge of decline. And so the study of Latin grammar became an end in itself.

The Grammar Translation Method

This method was sought to reform the older literary method, and became popular in the 1800s. It was mostly comprised of translating sentences back and forth between the L1 and the prospective L2. Grammar translation required learners to master grammar and to memorize extensive vocabulary lists, and had little to do with the principles of speaking or listening. First known in the United States as the Prussian method, grammar translation method had theoretical roots from the philosophy in German scholarship the objective of which was to know everything about something rather than the thing itself. It was first introduced to teach modern languages in public schools in Prussia at the end of the 18th century. The primary goal of this method was to prepare students to read and write classical materials and pass standardized examinations (Howatt, 1984; Kelly, 1969; Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Rivers, 1981). Like courses in classical Latin and Greek, this method used classical literature chosen for its intellectual content as materials; it was typically assumed that students would not actually use the target language but would profit from the mental exercise (Zimmerman, 1997). Students were provided detailed explanations of grammar in their native languages, paradigms to memorize, and bilingual vocabulary lists to learn. This prepared them for the regular task of translating long passages of the classics. According to Rivers (1981), lessons typically consisted of a reading selection, two to three columns of new vocabulary items with native-language equivalents and a test. Language skills were judged according to one's ability to analyze the syntactic structure, primarily to conjugate verbs.

The grammar translation method was used well into the twentieth century as the primary method for foreign language instruction in Europe and the United States, but it had received challenges and criticism for many years. In the mid 1800's for example, the primary objection to the method was the neglect of realistic, oral language. Another challenge came from Thomas Prendergast who objected to the use of archaic vocabulary lists (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, 2001; Zimmerman, 1997).

The Direct Method

The direct method is the best known natural method introduced towards the end of the 19th century and went on into the 20th century. Its name stems from the priority of relating meaning directly with the target language without the step of translation (Howatt, 1984; Zimmerman, 1997). It has theoretical roots in the philosophy behind child language learning. That is, it is based on the idea that people can learn an L2 easier if it were taught without any use of the L1. It actually ties in well with the fact that children learn their first language without any other language basis (Klein, 1986; Thompson, 1977). Developed in the United States, the direct method stated that interaction was the heart of natural language acquisition. As Richards and Rodgers (1986, 2001) contended, its proponents used the target language as the language of instruction in small, intensive classes consisted of carefully graded progressions of question and answer exchanges. This was supposed to simulate the way in which a child learns an L1 because when a child acquires an L1, he or she has no prior language to refer back to. In this method, the learner was to communicate in the second language in realistic conditions. One criticism of this method is that it is not easy to achieve in the classroom, which is obviously not a realistic situation and its lack of consideration of practical logistics of the public classroom (Richards &

Rodgers, 1986). However, as Zimmerman (1997) observed, it continued to draw a lot of support way into the 20th century.

The Audio-Lingual Method

Also known as the structural approach by its founders, Smith (1971) contended that the audio-lingual approach to language teaching had theoretical basis on psychological and linguistic insights of the late 1940's and 1950's. These saw the fruition and popularization through the writings of Fries, Brooks, and Lado with dissemination via the Modern Language Association and the National Defense Act in the United States (Smith, 1971). The audio-lingual method was developed in the 1950s but became popular in the mid 1960's. It is based on theoretical roots in behaviorist psychology with the idea that language is a habit forming process. The method was developed by American structural linguists during World War II when governmental and institutional support were available for the teaching of foreign languages. Its original founder is believed to be Charles Fries.

The audio-lingual method was originally used at the English Language Institute of the University of Michigan (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). The focus of the method is mainly on oral discussion and very little on grammar rules. The idea was that phrases would be repeated orally until a kind of pattern is established, and then systematic changes would be implemented to broaden the learners' skills. So normally, the lesson comprises drilling and memorization where students would first hear a model dialogue (either read by the instructor or on tape) containing the key structures that are the focus of the lesson. They, then, repeat each line of the dialogue, individually and in chorus with the teacher paying attention to pronunciation, intonation, and fluency. Correction of mistakes of pronunciation or grammar is direct and immediate. The dialogue is memorized gradually, line by line (Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Rivers; 1964; Smith,

1971; Zimmerman, 1997). In terms of the four basic language skills, the audio lingual method supports listening (where students listen for phrases from the instructor or tape), and speaking (where students repeat phrases from the instructor or tape). Most notably, this method provides very little room for creativity in comparison to what most language learners would hope to get out of second language learning. This is because it is mostly done through drilling and memorization of phrases (Rivers, 1964; Smith, 1971; Zimmerman, 1997).

Criticism of the Audio-Lingual Method

Evaluation of the audio-lingual method did not take place until the end of the 1960s and was received with considerable disbelief by the profession. While the basic assumption that foreign-language learning is primarily a mechanical process of habit formation was early challenged by Chomsky (1959), this theoretical discussion was remote from the classroom until Rivers (1964) through his studies pointed out four major assumptions of the audio-lingual approach that did not agree with the then thinking in psychology: (1) Foreign language learning is a process of habit formation; (2) speech should precede writing; (3) learning should be through analogy rather than analysis and (4) meaning should be taught in a cultural context (i.e., without the world lingua franca, English). The method reached its pick in the mid 1960s, however, as it gained widespread acceptance between 1964-1965, criticism came on two fronts, on the one front; the theoretical foundations of audiolingualism were attacked as being unsound in terms of both language theory and learning theory. The theoretical attack on audio-lingual beliefs resulted from changes in American linguistic theory in the 1960s (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). The all-time famous American linguist, Noam Chomsky rejected the structuralist approach to language description as well as the behaviorist theory of language learning. Argued Chomsky (1966), “language is not a habit structure, ordinary linguistic behavior characteristically involves

innovation, formation of new sentences and patterns in accordance with rules of great abstractness and intricacy” (p. 153). On the other hand, practitioners found that the practical results fell short of expectations. Students were often found to be unable to transfer skills acquired through audiolingualism to real communication outside the classroom, and many found the experience of studying through audiolingualism procedures to be boring and unsatisfying. So, as the “audio lingual decade” of the 1960’s closed, enough serious questions had been raised to warrant an examination of the bases for second language learning in formal education process (Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Smith, 1971).

The Immersion Approach

Since 1967, second language teaching through immersion gained widespread popularity. The approach has theoretical roots in the idea of communicative competence derived from Chomsky’s transformational theory (Chomsky, 1957). The Immersion approach involves exposing students to instruction through the target language, and communicative interaction in it for many years, 100% of the school day during the first two to three years. In its longest form, early immersion, learners are exposed from kindergarten and by the time they finish high school, learners in full immersion programs would have been exposed to the language for thirteen years, 7,000 hours. The goal of language immersion is to provide learners with an environment in which they have to learn the L2 in order to do well.

Immersion programs have come to be regarded as the most highly developed form of second language acquisition through classroom communication (Hammerly, 1987; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). Krashen (1984) for example, referred to the immersion approach as one of the methods that agree with his input hypothesis model discussed earlier. He observed, “it may be the most successful program ever recorded in the professional language teaching

literature” (p. 61). He added that “no program, to my knowledge, has done as well” (p. 61). The approach had been given its most thorough test with French in Canada. With this method, there are no materials specifically prepared for second language instruction. Children in immersion classes are constantly exposed to natural communication via the second language in the classroom since the second language is adopted as a medium of instruction for normal school subjects such as mathematics and science as well as the means of communication for class management (Hammerly, 1987; Harumi, 2000; Larsen-Freeman & Long 1991).

Criticism of the Immersion Approach

Over the years, certain scholars have found that immersion students are less linguistically competent in speaking and writing skills. Research has shown, for example, that there exist major gaps in immersion children’s acquisition and control of many aspects of grammar despite the fluent functional proficiency they achieve in their second language (Adiv, 1980, 1984; Day & Shapson, 1987; Harley & Swain 1984). Also, another example can be drawn from the Pawley study which showed that by the eleventh grade, the average rating of 41 early French immersion students was between two and two + (out of five). This is a low level of proficiency considering the amount of instructional time involved. Also, the Pellerin and Hammerly study used interviews to analyze errors made by students in a French immersion program and recorded errors from different aspects of grammar and speaking as ranging from 53 per cent to 72 percent. Yet also, the Totto Study showed that after 5,300 hours of instruction, the written grammaticality of early French immersion students was not significantly better than that of students with less than 500 hours of regular French classes (Pawley, 1985; Pellerin & Hammerly, 1986; Totto, 1983). In short, these studies show that scholars in different places,

using a variety of measures, all converge on the same conclusion that the output of immersion students whether in grade one, six or 12, is linguistically faulty.

However, an experimental study by Day and Shampson (2001) was designed to evaluate the effect on French language proficiency of an integrated formal, analytic and functional, communicative approach (experiential) to second-language teaching in the immersion classroom. The impetus for the study arose from previous research (described) indicating that immersion children show persistent weaknesses in their grammatical skills despite the fluent, functional proficiency they achieve in their second language. Results of the study showed that the experimental group performed significantly higher in writing than the control group in both the post- and the follow-up testing. Although this was not found for speaking, an examination of the individual class data revealed greater and more consistent growth in speaking for the experimental than for the control classes, suggesting that they benefited somewhat from the experimental treatment in this domain as well. Finally, in terms of the four language skills, immersion students as indicated earlier, have been found to develop good skills in listening and reading (Hammerly, 1987; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991).

The Communicative Approach

Since the late 1970's enormous efforts have been made to develop a more communicative approach in language teaching/learning where the language is used for real communication, for real purpose, authentic rather than contrived language. In reaction to the grammar-translation method of the 1800s and the audio-lingual method, the communicative approach to second language teaching emphasizes the communicative activities that involve the real use of language in daily life situations. It is understood to represent a major shift away from early methods (Littlewood, 1981; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). This approach stems from Hymes' definition of

communicative competence as the internalized knowledge of the situational appropriateness of language (Hymes, 1972). Just like the immersion approach, theoretical roots of the communicative approach were traced from Chomsky's transformational theory (Chomsky, 1957). The idea of communicative competence is actually originally derived from Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance. By competence, Chomsky meant the shared knowledge of the ideal speaker-listener set in a completely homogeneous speech community. According to Chomsky (1957), such underlying knowledge enables a user of language to produce and understand an infinite set of sentences out of a finite set of rules. Chomsky called this transformational grammar which he claimed is not conscious. Based on this thinking, Hymes (1972) asserted that the transformational theory carries to its perfection the desire to deal in practice only what is internal to language. Performance on the other hand, he argued, is concerned with the process of applying the underlying knowledge to the actual language use, commonly stated as encoding and decoding.

So, an essential insight that emerged from this period is that communicative competence incorporates linguistic competence in the sense of linguistic creativity and that language learning is quite different from the previous held model of habit formation. The result was a complete change in the direction of language instruction where the focus in language teaching changed to communicative proficiency rather than the command of structures (Hymes, 1972; Littlewood, 1981; Rodgers, 2001; Zimmerman, 1997). So, this shift has been manifested in communicative language teaching which strives to make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and to develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication. The approach has grown out of the realization that mastery of grammatical

forms and structures does not adequately prepare learners to use the language they are learning. Rather, L2 learners learn effectively and appropriately when communicating with others (Berns, 1983; Richards & Rodgers, 1986). Therefore, the communicative approach focuses on the use of language in everyday situations, or the functional aspects of language, and less on the formal structures. Communicative language teaching advocates subscribe to a broad set of principles such as these: (1) Learners learn a language through using it to communicate, (2) authentic and meaningful learning should be the goal of classroom activities, (3) fluency is an important dimension of communication, (4) communication involves the integration of different language skills and (5) learning is a process of creative construction and involves trial and error. So in terms of the four basic language skills, this approach endeavors to incorporate all (listening, speaking, reading and writing). However, some linguists believe that there needs to be some sort of bridge between formal structures and functional aspects of language in order for effective language learning to take place (Hymes, 1972; Littlewood, 1981; Richards & Rodgers, 1986; Rodgers, 2001; Zimmerman 1997;). So, the communicative approach became the recommended basis for language teaching methodology of the 1980s and it continues to be considered the most plausible methodology in language teaching in the 21st century. It is however understood to mean little more than a set of very general principles that can be applied and interpreted in a variety of ways (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Using teacher classroom observation and a group interview of five randomly selected students, Huang and Liu (2000) conducted a study to identify the implications of the communicative language teaching approach in a multimedia computer language lab. The study found that the choice of appropriate computer software that fits into the setting of a multimedia lab is one of the keys to success to using the communicative approach in such a learning

environment. According to the study, chalk and blackboard are obsolete and the computer is the most appropriate teaching tool in a multimedia lab and that using computer software in a multimedia lab should be fun and interactive. Finally, the study recommended that teachers should prepare themselves for the use of modern computer technology and that with the help of a setting such as a multimedia lab, second language teaching will be more efficient. Also that second and foreign language teaching in a setting other than the traditional classroom is still a promising trend. Apparently, this study ties in well with trends in modern language teaching. For example Gates (1997) contended that due to the impact and influence of information technology on society and education, computer-assisted language learning is becoming the trend in foreign language teaching. Interactive computer network allows students to test the result of learning without the risk of being punished for any mistake. Gates (1997) concluded that computer-assisted language learning can reduce the anxiety of students and turns out to be a positive side of learning.

Related to Gates' contention, Hyte (2002) studied the influence of metacognitive strategy training for L2 learning within the context of computer-assisted language learning (CALL). An experimental group received metacognitive training while the control group did not. He found a significant difference between the two groups in terms of their listening strategies with learners in the experimental group scoring higher. Hyte concluded that the metacognitive training increased the awareness of learners in the control group such that they more accurately reported their strategy use. Even more interesting was the fact that these learners were taught language using computers.

Competency-Based Language Teaching

With a theoretical basis on a combination of functional and interactional perspectives, Competency-Based Language Teaching (CBLT) is an application of the principles of competency-based education to language teaching. It was adopted by the end of the 1970's particularly as the basis for the design of work-related and survival-oriented language teaching programs for adults. In fact, in 1983, the Center for Applied Linguistics in the United States called CBLT the most important breakthrough in adult English as a second language (ESL). While most methods/approaches have focused on inputs to language learning, CBLT on the other hand focuses on the outcome or outputs to learning, addressing what the learners are expected to do with the language (Auerbach, 1986; Docking, 1994; Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Schenck, 1978). Schenck (1978) for example, observed that CBLT had in common with such approaches to learning as performance-based instruction, mastery learning and individualized instruction. Schenck (1978) went on to contend that it is outcome-based and is adaptive to the changing needs of students, teachers and the community per-se. So, by the end of the 1990s, CBLT had come to be accepted as the "state-of-the-art" approach to adult ESL by national policy makers in the United States (Auerbach, 1986). Docking (1994) contended that advocates of CBLT saw it as a powerful and positive agent of change. He went on to argue that competency-based approaches to teaching and assessment generally offer teachers an opportunity to revitalize education training programs

However, critics have argued that there are in fact no valid procedures available to develop competency lists for most programs. It has further been argued that many of the areas for which competencies are needed, such as adult living, survival and functioning proficiently in the community are impossible to operationalize (Rylatt & Lohan, 1997; Tollesfson, 1986). In the

final analysis, Rylatt and Lohan (1997) concluded that as we entered a new millennium, the business of improving learning competencies and skills would remain one of the world's fastest growing industries and priorities. In terms of the four basic language skills, CBLT strives to advocate for the combination of listening, speaking, reading and writing as it has been shown that it (CBLT) is a method that stands as the basis for the design of work-related and survival-oriented language teaching programs for adults (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Using a Story-Based Approach to Teach Grammar

The standards of foreign language learning in the 21st century (National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project [NSFLEP], 1999) emphasize that communication is at the core of second-language learning. The rationale for teaching grammar is multifaceted; the first reason is theoretically motivated. As the variable competence model (Bialystok, 1982; Ellis, 1988; Tarone, 1983) states, depending on the social and communicative context, a learner draws on both their automatic (non-analyzed) and controlled (analyzed) language knowledge. Ellis (1988) suggested that analyzed knowledge of grammar can become automatic as learners are placed into interactional situations that call for a two-way negotiation of meaning. The second reason for the teaching of grammar relates to the dynamics of classroom practice and, particularly, to the background knowledge of the learners. Learners in middle school and high school already have some knowledge of language and can reflect on and analyze how language forms are used to make meaning (Celce-Murcia, 1991; Swain & Lapkin, 2002). Grammar instruction can also be beneficial because it raises learners' consciousness concerning the differences and similarities of L1 and L2 (Rutherford, 1988). However, understanding of grammatical structures apart from their use and function is pointless unless one wants to be a linguist or wants to describe a language systematically without becoming a communicatively

competent user of that language (Larsen-Freeman, 2003). Like road signs, grammatical structures take on meaning only if they are situated within a context, within people, and within connected discourse. They become internalized only if the learners are placed in a situation in which they need to use the structures for communicative purposes (Adair-Hauck & Donato, 2002; DeKeyser & Sokalski, 1996; Fotos & Ellis, 1991; Salaberry, 1997; Shaffer, 1989; Van Patten & Cadierno, 1993). Thus, the important role of the language teacher is to create learning situations in which students perceive how grammar is used to make meanings and the need to make use of the grammar to comprehend and communicate in the target language. A story-based language approach stresses natural discourse and encourages learners to comprehend meaningful and longer samples of discourse from the very beginning of the lesson. Learners can be guided to reflect on language to create their own meanings (Adair-Hauck & Donato, 2002).

The Explicit/Implicit Controversy on Story-Based Approach

Although many researchers agree on the benefits of grammar instruction, how to teach grammar is an issue of little agreement. For several years, second language acquisition researchers and theorists have been grappling with polarized views concerning the teaching of grammar within a communicative framework. On the one side of the dichotomy is the explicit approach to grammar instruction that involves teacher explanations of rules followed by related manipulative exercises intended to practice the new structure. Most textbooks still present grammar explanations in this fashion, followed by manipulative drills that are cast in shallow and artificial contexts unrelated to the real concerns of learners (Adair-Hauck & Donato, 2002; Aski, 2003; Ellis, 1988). Thus, these practice opportunities are often meaningless to learners and are not capable of engaging their language problem-solving skills and their desire to communicate using the forms they are learning (Brooks & Donato, 1994). Adair-Hauck and

Donato (2002) extended this argument by contending that it is common for teachers to observe that these mechanical repetitive drills often result in unmotivated and lethargic responses in learners, no matter how much context is given in the directions or how much personalization is provided. Finally, Adair-Hauck and Donato (2002) observed that another potential problem with explicit grammar instruction is that it implies a direct instructional and authoritative role on the part of the teacher, who takes all of the responsibility for understanding and constructing grammatical knowledge.

Second Language Teaching Summarized

From the 17th century when second languages were taught based on classical literature which stemmed from a theoretical basis on aristocracy, methods of second language teaching have gradually evolved. As the times evolved, in the 1800's came grammar translation which had theoretical roots from the philosophy in German scholarship and had more to do with memorization of vocabulary lists than speaking and listening. This approach was popular through the 20th century. It seems that this method basically promoted proficiency in a second language rather than practical ability. It is interesting to note that during this early period in time (17th century through 18th century), there was a lot of emphasis on rote learning and imitation rather than involving students in more practicable situations. Introduced towards the end of the nineteenth century and with theoretical roots from child language learning, the direct method brought a new dimension with it, that of relating meaning directly with the target language without the step of translation. Developed in the 1950s, the audio-lingual method was theoretically based on behaviorist psychology with the idea that language is a habit forming process. The focus of this method was mainly on oral discussion and very little on grammar rules. Even though it is regarded as the pedagogy of the 1960's, Soko (2007) observed that

audio-lingual method continued to be used to teach languages such as French as an L2 through the mid 1990's. The immersion approach on the other hand, started out in 1967 with theoretical roots from the idea of communicative competence (Chomsky, 1957). It involves exposing students to instruction through the target language, and communicative interaction in it for many years. Over the years however, some scholars have found that immersion students are less linguistically competent in speaking and writing skills.

Taking a major shift away from early methods however, and with roots from Chomsky's transformational theory of 1957 was the communicative approach which was hatched by a man named Hymes in 1972 who began by defining communicative competence. The approach promotes linguistic creativity and communicative competence with others in the learner's community (Chomsky, 1957; Hymes, 1972;). Another modern method that has emerged as part of the shift from the early methods is Competency-Based Language Teaching (CBLT). Adopted by the end of the 1970s and serving as basis for the design of work-related and survival-oriented language teaching programs for adults, CBLT focuses on the outcome or outputs to learning, addressing what the learners are expected to do with the language. Finally, adopting a communicative approach to language teaching, the story-based approach to teaching grammar can be regarded as a manifestation of the 21st century language teaching pedagogies. Just as its mother, the communicative approach, the story-based approach advocates situating grammar instruction to promote authentic learning.

It becomes clearer then, that modern approaches to second language teaching such as the communicative approach and the story-based approach seem to be in agreement with the philosophy in situated cognition theory discussed earlier since they all advocate for closing of gap between learning and use. So, it seems that recent literature shows trends in second language

teaching heavily leaning towards the communicative approach with research further indicating that there is a gradual advancement towards computer-assisted language learning as we go further into the 21st century. It is however too soon to tell if this modern trend is as effective for teaching second languages as it promises to be, since there is need to conduct more vigorous studies to bear out its potential.

As Gass and Selinker (2008) contended, studies in second language learning have made language teachers and curriculum designers aware that language learning consists of more than rule memorization. More importantly, it involves learning to express communicative needs. According to Gass and Selinker (2008), the details of this new conceptualization of language learning have resulted in methodologies that emphasize communication. To that end, it becomes clear that modern trends in language pedagogy seem to be heavily drifting towards the direction of the communicative approach. It is also interesting to note that approaches to second language teaching have all grown from theory, this ties in well with the argument by Richards and Rodgers (2001) that “different theories of language and language learning influence the focus of methods, that is, they determine what a method sets out to achieve (p. 24). From the background discussed, it becomes clear that in second language pedagogy, theory has driven method.

Second Languages in Malawi

Malawi lies at the southern end of the Great Rift Valley (a region where paleontologists are still discovering millions-of-year-old remains said to be ancestors of the modern homo sapiens) in southern Africa. The first known human inhabitation of the area presently known as Malawi dates back at least 50, 000 years ago (Nave, 1999). Malawi has more than 14 local languages spoken in different regions of the country and a myriad other dialects which are learned based on region and from a first language (L1) perspective. The biggest local language in

Malawi is Chichewa which is a national language as well as official language (Kamwendo, 1997a, 1997b; Kayambazinthu, 1998a, 1998b; Matiki, 2001; NSO, 1966; Stubbs, 1972).

However, in Malawi, there are five foreign (imported) languages which are learned from a second language (L2) perspective namely; English, French, Latin, German and Greek. Whereas today English is the world's most widely studied foreign language, 500 years or so ago it was Latin which was the dominant language of education, commerce, religion, and government in the western world. In the 16th century however, French, Italian and English gained in importance as a result of political changes in Europe, and Latin gradually became displaced as a language of spoken and written communication (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

The History of second languages in Malawi can be traced from as early as 1891, the year Malawi came under colonial leadership from British masters. British colonial leadership ran from 1891 to the attainment of independence on July 6, 1964. As a result of this, Malawi belongs to the Anglophone group of countries in Africa. To that end, other than Chichewa, English is the principal official language in Malawi (Chipembere 1970; Kamwendo, 2003; Kayambazinthu, 1998b; Rahman, 1995). It must however be pointed out that from the colonial period to the present, French, Latin, German and Greek have continued to be taught in some schools and colleges but not to the extent to which English is taught, learned and used. In this section of the review, the history and current status of second languages in Malawi is discussed. While at that, historical and modern forces influencing second language policy and practice in Malawi are identified.

Latin, German, Greek and French as L2s in Malawi

Latin, German and Greek

There is very little that has been published on the history of Latin, German and Greek in Malawi. Latin was introduced in Malawi during the colonial period starting in 1891. The language has always been taught in selected Malawi secondary schools and the University of Malawi. Malawi's first president after independence, Dr. Hastings Kamuzu Banda believed that one cannot be said to be educated enough if they have not learned Latin. Generally regarded as a dead language due to the difficulty one encounters to speak it, Latin continued to be taught in selected schools and the University of Malawi from the colonial period. In 1981, Kamuzu Academy, a top grammar high school popularly known as the Eton of Africa where the cream of the country's students went to study, was opened. Under the direction of Banda, the school placed emphasis on excellence in foreign languages namely; English, French, Greek, and Latin. Apart from the University of Malawi, only Blantyre and Dedza secondary schools have continued to teach Latin to small numbers of students (Kamuzu Academy, 1999; Kamwendo 2003; Kishindo, 1998; Mazrui & Mazrui 1998). German and Greek have only been taught at the University of Malawi as optional courses and without credit since its establishment in 1964 (Kamwendo 2003; Mazrui & Mazrui, 1998).

French as an L2 in Malawi

Despite the fact that the French Language has continued to grow (in Malawi) since its introduction in 1962, very little has been published on the history of the francophone language in Malawi. French was introduced in 1962 and this was because the then in-coming President, Dr. Kamuzu Banda who had been familiar with the ideology of Pan-Africanism, wanted a language

which was widely spoken in Africa. He argued that French should replace Latin (as the second biggest L2 after English) which was not used much in Africa in the schools. In 1964, the French Embassy opened its doors in Lilongwe and one or two volunteers were sent to Malawi to teach French. When Chancellor College, a constituent college of the University of Malawi was opened in 1965, there were two instructors teaching all the courses in French, through audio-lingual methods. *Grammaire Francaise* (French grammar), *La Literature Francaise* (French literature) and *Civilization Francaise* (French civilization) were the main courses taught at that time. In the schools, the audio-lingual method was used with the addition of images. The direct method was also used concurrently with the audio-lingual and visual methods.

Until 1996 when the Embassy was closed due to rationalization and transferred to Lusaka in Zambia, scholarships were being offered to academics at the University of Malawi and to secondary school teachers. Beneficiaries would first go to France for master's and doctoral degrees and later for refresher courses in Burundi. The diplomatic mission was re-opened in 2003, following the visit of the French Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs to Malawi. However, since 1996, the budget from the Embassy to support teaching of the French Language has dropped to almost zero. The French Ambassador to Malawi is still stationed in Lusaka in Zambia. Between 1996 and 1998, the pedagogy for teaching French in secondary schools changed from the audio-lingual method to the *Communicative Methode* (the communicative approach) which interestingly, many instructors and students dislike (Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Malawi [MFAM], 2010; Soko, 2007). Soko (2007) further contended that despite this trend, French teachers have continued to be produced at the University of Malawi and Mzuzu University. Also, the number of French students has remained stable over the years with a slight

increase with the opening of Mzuzu University in 1999 which admitted its first French students in 2000.

Summary

Even though German and Greek have been taught as optional courses at the University of Malawi since 1964, there is little or nothing written about these languages in Malawi. Latin continues to be taught in selected secondary schools and at the University of Malawi. But just as it has been labeled a dead language; it is a language that is generally not spoken at all. French, which was introduced in Malawi in 1962, has grown into the second biggest second language in Malawi. It is taught at the University of Malawi and Mzuzu University as a secondary school teaching subject and therefore taught in many government and private secondary schools throughout the country.

English as an L2 in Malawi

English is the biggest second language in Malawi, the most widely learned and used and apart from that, it is also Malawi's principal official language. This ties in well with the fact that English is the World's Lingua Franca. In the following section of the review, the history and current status of English as an L2 in Malawi is discussed.

History of the English Language in Malawi: From the Turn of the Twentieth Century to 1964 (the Colonial Period)

The colonial period can be divided into two parts. The period between 1891 and 1918 is the *laissez-faire*, phase of unplanned or uncoordinated planning, when each missionary body followed its own policy according to its needs and linguistic environment. No attempt was made

at status planning, but language was used as a communication tool for religious and educational purposes. The second phase, between 1918 and 1964 was one of coordinated efforts by both the colonial government and the missionaries (Kashoki, 1990; Kayambazinthu, 1998b).

Uncoordinated Planning Period: 1891 to 1918

During the uncoordinated planning period, education was instrumental in causing new ideals and ideas of perceived social reality and in exposing Malawians to a foreign language, English, and its values. The significant development of education together with evangelism are considered as important social factors that contributed to language spread and later on language planning. Colonialists in Malawi included Scottish missionaries, shire highlands planters and government administrators. All these played an important role in both the formulation and shaping of Malawi's language policy. The first British visitors to Malawi were Dr. David Livingstone and his party (1858–1864, 1866–1873) who came in the name of commerce and Christianity. Other groups to follow were referred to as planters and were fortune seekers who acquired huge pieces of land for growing coffee and tea in a region called the shire highlands (Kashoki, 1990).

Britain declared Malawi (then Nyasaland) the British Central African Protectorate in 1891 and on July 6, 1907, the name was changed to Nyasaland Protectorate. English became the official language to be used by this small group of colonialists for the purpose of administration, education and commerce. The advent of Christianity and secular education further entrenched the position of English. As Lacey (1936) observed, the colonial language policy came in after protracted discussions between the colonial government and Christian missionaries. It was realized at the time, that while a small section of the local population could acquire English as a second language, the language could not, in the short run, become a lingua franca in Malawi.

Matiki (2001a) observed that there was also a greater recognition of the role of vernacular languages particularly among the Christian missionaries who saw these languages as the most appropriate for purposes of evangelization. So in short, the history of English as an L2 in Malawi is closely tied to the presence of the British colonial administration, missionary educators, and the shire highlands planters who brought English to the country. Three main ways in which English spread to different places in Malawi were; (a) by migration of English-speakers of British Isles ancestry, (b) through a situation where residents needed to learn English informally (slavery, indentured labor) and (c) by establishing schools where English was formally taught to children who did not have English as a native language (Gorlach, 1991; Gupta, 1997).

The Coordinated Period: 1918 to 1964

The coming of the British and the need for streamlining administration language for education and evangelism ushered in a different language which was English. Colonialism created and confined Malawi within its present borders and artificially separated linguistic groups from each other, including the Chewa in eastern Zambia and western Mozambique from those of Malawi, and the Yao and Lomwe in Malawi from those of Mozambique. The Tumbuka from eastern Zambia were also cut off from those of Malawi. The British invasion, unlike that of the African groups, was complete and led to total European control over the country and contributed greatly to the rise and spread of lingua francas in Malawi and the stratification between English and indigenous languages. So, during the coordinated period, government mostly concentrated on promoting local languages such as Chinyanja (Later Chichewa), Chiyao and others. Chinyanja was developed by way of codification, implementing it as a national lingua franca. Differences among various dialects of the language were also bridged. English remained to be the language of the high culture (Kayambazinthu, 1998b; Matiki, 2001a;

Rahman, 1995). As Kayambazinthu (1998b) put it, of utmost importance during this period was the ideology and objectives of the colonialists, their treatment of various linguistic groups and their cultures and how this redefined the relations between the language groups in terms of status and prestige.

Summary

During the uncoordinated period from 1891 to 1918, colonialists played an important role in the formulation and shaping of language policy in Malawi. Over this period, English became the official language used by colonialists for administration, education and commerce. The coordinated period from 1918 to 1964 on the other hand, saw the stratification between English and indigenous languages. Chinyanja (presently Chichewa) was promoted to a national lingua franca while English remained the official language of the high culture.

English as an L2 in Post-Colonial Malawi: 1964 to 1994 - Kamuzu Banda's Era

During the dictatorial presidency of Dr. Kamuzu Banda (1964–1994), English received special support and recognition from the President himself. At the attainment of independence in 1964, Banda retained English as the official language. This was in contrast to his northern neighbor, President Julius Nyerere of Tanzania, who embarked on the process of Kiswahilization, in which the East African lingua franca, Kiswahili, became the official language. Banda, however, argued against the vernacularization of an official language, maintaining that English was very important for Malawi's development. This, therefore, entailed two different language planning ideologies at work, Tanzania opting for vernacularization and Malawi for internationalization. Banda's strong attachment to the English language can be explained by the fact that he had been out of Malawi for over 30 years, having left the country at

a young age in search of employment and education in South Africa, United States and Britain. Interestingly, although Banda was a native speaker of Malawi's national language, Chichewa, and was the University of Malawi's honorary professor of Chichewa, he never spoke the language in public. His speeches used to be relayed into local languages by interpreters (Kamwendo, 2003; Kayambazinthu, 1998b; Matiki, 2001a).

So, when Malawi attained its independence from Britain in 1964, it retained English as the language for government services, the judicial, the media, and commerce. Two indigenous languages, Chichewa (spoken in the south and center) and Chitumbuka (spoken in the north), performed some official roles. For example, both languages featured in the print media, the radio and also in schools. Following the 1968 Malawi Congress Party (MCP) Convention's declaration, two official languages were adopted. These were English and Chichewa. English was used as the language of government, commerce and parliament. The bulk of official government literature remained in English, with a small portion available in Chichewa (Chipembere, 1970; Kamwendo, 1997b). It is therefore interesting to note that although English and Chichewa were both promoted as co-official languages, it is evident that the policy has favored English as the official language over its counterpart. According to Matiki (2001a), this is a result of an incoherent and contradictory language policy. But as Matiki further observed, the dominance of English in all formal domains is not a case peculiar to Malawi, but rather part of the large-scale globalization of the English Language. And so through its dominance in official domains and education, English created an elite group in Malawi.

It is also interesting to note that whilst some newly independent African countries were pursuing policies aimed at promoting indigenous languages as official languages, Malawi did not push Chichewa into key areas such as parliament and education. Tanzania and Kenya for

instance, had Kiswahili as their language of government business and education. The status and power of English in Malawi were further strengthened by President Banda himself. He regarded English as one of the keys to the country's socio-economic development. Banda was very strict with the way one spoke or wrote the English language. To this end, he even used to correct his ministers' English. At public rallies, he would school his audiences on how to speak and write English well, putting emphasis on the importance of grammar. Throughout his presidency, he was regarded as the national model of good English. The masses saw him as the great teacher of English (Chipembere, 1970; Kamwendo, 1997b, 2003; Kishindo, 1996).

Banda did not go without critiques; some scholars observed that his linguistic practices were nothing but signs of linguistic imperialism, that he was, if anything, a man of contradictions, a vehement supporter and native speaker of Chichewa who never spoke his mother tongue language even when talking to villagers who knew no English. Banda's response to his critics was simple, that he wanted his people to learn and master one of the most important languages for trade and most importantly for knowledge (Kishindo, 1996; Mazrui & Mazrui, 1998; Ngugi, 1986).

Summary

During the post-colonial period from 1964 to 1994, Dr. Kamuzu Banda's administration gave English special support and recognition. In contrast to policies in other African countries like Tanzania and Kenya where Kiswahili, an indigenous language was promoted to official status, Dr. Banda retained English as the official language of Malawi. Chichewa on the other hand, served as a co-official language but played a different diglossic role.

English as an L2 in the Post-Banda Era (1994-2004) – Bakili Muluzi’s Era

One of the major changes in the post-Banda era (from 1994 onwards) was the linguistic behavior of Banda’s successor, Bakili Muluzi. President Muluzi was a native speaker of a language called Chiyao and did not possess a high level of education. Normally, Muluzi addressed rallies in Chichewa, the national language. When he went into Yao-dominated areas, he spoke Chiyao. In official domains like parliament, Muluzi used English (Kamwendo 2003; Kayambazinthu, 1998a). One would therefore argue that he was very diglossic, that is to say, he was able to switch languages depending on the social domain that he was operating in. While Banda was far more fluent in English, Muluzi was not, and this speaks volumes about the two men’s education. So, after 1994, the president was no longer the national model of English. In fact, prior to the 1994 general elections, those who did not expect Muluzi to win the presidential elections cited low education and inability to speak good English as two of his weaknesses (Kamwendo 2003; Kayambazinthu, 1998a). For example, a notable language policy innovation during the Muluzi era was interestingly the 1996 Ministry of Education announcement that from then onwards, grades 1 through 4 would be taught through mother tongues. Despite the fact that the policy announcement had said that English would continue to be offered as a subject right away from grade one, this did not help to drive away the fear that the new policy was anti-English. For example, opponents of mother-tongue instruction argued that it was unwise for government to strengthen local languages in the curriculum at a time when standards of the official and international language were going down (Kamwendo, 2003; Kishindo, 1998; Matiki, 2001a).

In modern Malawi, it is not uncommon to hear the old generation talk of the colonial days and the Banda era as being the time when Malawi could boast of high standards of English.

In fact, this view is strongly advanced by Malawi's most celebrated columnist, D. D. Phiri, to whom the University of Malawi awarded an honorary doctorate. Phiri is a staunch advocate of more and better English for Malawi. For example, he was very critical of the 1996 proposal to introduce mother-tongue education (Phiri, 2002a, 2002b). Again, reacting to Matiki's research findings (Matiki 2001a), that some members of parliament are unable to make meaningful contributions during parliamentary debates due to low proficiency in English, and that allowing such members of parliament to use Chichewa or any other local language would be the solution, Phiri (2002a) argued, "If the late Dr. Hastings Kamuzu Banda in his mausoleum learns that we do send to parliament men and women with poor command of English, his soul will stir (p.6).

Muluzi's language policies did not go without repercussions. At the University of Malawi, many external examiners expressed concern over the falling standards in students' expression in English. The English Department at the University of Malawi was asked to find ways of improving the situation. The Department's compulsory first-year course in literature and language did not seem to improve students' level of spoken and written English. It was therefore decided that English for Academic Purposes be taught in a specialist department called Language and Communication Skills. However, in the following years, the concern over university students' standards of English still stood (Kamwendo, 2006; Mweninguwe, 2002).

So, one of the issues that the Muluzi administration had to grapple with was the decline in Malawi's educational standards, including falling standards in English. In a country where English is the linguistic key to socio-economic and political advancement, the decline in standards of English had become a big concern. There were claims for example, that government was not doing enough to arrest the decline in the standards of the language. For example, in 2000, the Association of the Teaching of English in Malawi (ATEM) blamed government for not

supporting adequately the activities of the Association, whose goal remains to improve the learning and speaking of the language (Kamwendo 2003; Mnelemba, 2002).

Summary

The post-Banda Era from 1994 brought a slightly different scenario to Malawi's language policy with the new President, Bakili Muluzi, being less educated and an advocate of local languages and the culture behind them. It was not surprising that he introduced a new policy where a variety of indigenous languages were used in media and broadcast. A proposal to embark on the Bilingual Educational (TBE) System in Malawi was also put forward in 1996 but up to date, it has not been fully implemented. Muluzi's reign was however marred by poor standards in the English language and education in general. However, it must be pointed out that it may not be sensible enough to allude these problems entirely to his policies because there have not been any convincing studies to verify that claim.

The Transitional Bilingual Education (TBE) System in Malawi

In March 1996, the Ministry of Education in Malawi announced that from the 1997 school session onwards, English and Chichewa would cease being the official media of instruction in grades one through four. Instead, each school would use the language most dominant in its area as the medium of instruction. This was termed the Transitional Bilingual Educational (TBE) System. Some people saluted government for taking yet another step towards promoting Malawian languages and culture. Such people argued that the child had the right to education, and so he or she must be provided with education (especially in the early years) in a language he or she is very familiar with. Some critics, however, argued that the mother tongue instruction policy would not work well since there were a number of technical problems (such as

lack of textbooks and teachers specializing in local languages) that needed to be sorted out first. Yet others viewed it as a move that would diminish the presence of English in the curriculum (Kamwendo, 2003; Kayambazinthu 1998b).

It must be pointed out that the new policy by the Ministry of Education came in view of the fact that Malawi had more than fourteen local languages spoken in different regions of the country (NSO, 1966; Stubbs, 1972). Interestingly, Matiki (2006) observed that Malawi is a country where the language policy had, in the past, essentially established the hegemony of English over indigenous languages and to that end, the fundamental question that the new policy would have to consider would have to revolve around the role that these languages could play in the development of Malawi(ans) from a traditionally oral to an increasingly literate culture, ever more connected to the international community through the English language. So, until this change in policy, English and Chichewa had been the only languages used as media of instruction in the schools of Malawi. The primary reasons advanced by the Ministry of Education in support of the policy change were largely based on the 1953 United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) report that stipulated that children learn better and faster when taught in their own mother tongue or in their own vernacular language during the first four years of their education (Chipembere, 1970; Kamwendo, 1997b; Matiki, 2006; UNESCO, 1953).

And so the implementation of TBE in Malawi was bound to face some enormous obstacles one of which was the attitude of Malawians, in general, towards such a system. Malawians had come to regard Chichewa and English, particularly the latter, as the only economically viable languages in the school system. For many Malawians, economic success is predicated on one's ability to speak, read and write in English (Matiki, 2001). As Matiki (2006)

observed, in spite of the Ministry of Education having issued a directive for the introduction of mother tongue education in early elementary school, its officials were less than receptive to the policy. The draft language policy, which was drawn up by the Center for Language Studies (CLS) and incorporated the proposed language-in-education directive, has over the years laid unattended to by government officials. This essentially meant that there had been no legal framework for the implementation of the policy. In fact, Matiki (2006) further observed that during Malawi's third National Language Symposium organized by CLS, in 2004, officials from the Ministry of Education were clearly at pains to explain why the Ministry issued the directive on mother-tongue education but was not willing to implement it. It therefore became apparent that the Ministry was under political pressure to introduce a policy that was not well understood in Malawi. Other reservations to the proposed mother-tongue policy centered on people's fears that such a policy would seriously undermine the teaching of English in the schools and that it would promote tribalism in the country. It should also be pointed out that there was a fundamental contradiction in the new system as it made little sense to the average Malawian that government was promoting vernacular education while at the same time maintaining English as the official vehicle. English on the other hand, continued to be the main determinant of a student's progress up the ladder of formal education. It is not a coincidence, for example, that Malawians, in general, equate education with one's ability and proficiency in English (Matiki, 2001). In fact, apart from symposia conducted each year that aimed at thrashing out modalities for the implementation of the new TBE policy, the Ministry of Education has not implemented the policy to date leading to some of its (the policy's) key proponents resigning from their positions in the process.

Related to the same, Fishman (1989) argued that the instructional use of disadvantaged mother tongues may lead to improved academic outcomes and safeguard the sociocultural and political interests of minority groups. However, UNESCO (1953) and Fishman (1989) among others also acknowledged the financial burden such a program entails in multilingual countries. Other scholars have also cautioned against total vernacularization vis-à-vis colonial languages, especially if the chosen vernacular is not tied in with immediate important issues in the local population's world events, science and technology, employment and the general upward mobility. These scholars have pointed out that vernacularization should be supported by the whole community for reasons of integration, economics and political power. The implication of this discussion is that planners of vernaculars should clearly spell out the economic and cultural benefits of using such languages. It is further argued that there is no point in elevating a vernacular to a language of teaching if it does not elevate people's social mobility and economic standing or else such a policy is bound to fail as it did in Burkina Faso (Eastman, 1983; Fishman, 1989; Matiki, 2001; Sawadogo, 1990).

People's Reaction to the Bilingual Educational Policy

The following is a summary of the public's negative reactions to the TBE directive: (1) If students from grades one through four were to be instructed in a local language dominant or common in an area in which a school is located, children would get inferior education and would end up being drawers of water and hewers of wood, (2) it is a political decision because the ruling United Democratic Front (Muluzi's political party) did not want to be reminded of the former ruling party, the MCP which made the teaching of Chichewa in primary schools mandatory, (3) the use of the mother tongue would encourage tribalism in the country as smaller groups of people would want to identify themselves with their mother tongue, (4) what would

happen to children staying with their parents in areas where their mother tongue is not dominant? Would they have to transfer back to their home district to be taught in their mother tongue? (5) The policy was aimed at saving the face of some teachers who, according to some people, are not conversant with English, (6) new teachers' guides, textbooks, manuals, students' reading materials in all dialects or vernaculars would need to be produced and printed (Chauma et al., 1997; Kazembe, 1996; Saukani, 1996).

Finally, Kayambazinthu (1998b) contended that the Malawi Government, which is one of the poorest and most debt ridden in the third world, had to realize that it cannot sustain such a policy, hence its failure to implement it. Notably, while the Center for Language Studies in Malawi has continued to hold annual conferences through the years making strong recommendations for the implementation of the policy, the Ministry of Education has always dilly-dallied and the policy remains unimplemented. To that end, in light of the failure by the Ministry of Education to implement the policy on use of local languages for instruction, the English language has found a way in Malawi, it continues to exist as the more powerful official language, an economically and educationally viable survival tool for the people of Malawi.

Summary

While Transitional Bilingual Education (TBE) System came as a brave policy by the Malawi Government on the use of languages in education, the system has generally hit a huge snag. Apart from Malawians' negative attitude towards the new policy, TBE has received heavy criticism from scholars in the southern African country and government itself has failed to fully implement it. The fact that the proposed language-in-education directive has laid unattended for years means that to date, there is no legal framework for its implementation. One would argue that perhaps government would have conducted profound research on the implications of

implementing such a policy in a country like Malawi before announcing it as a change. Finally, while no vernacular language has been elevated over English, the Queen's language has grown to become Malawi's powerful imported language.

Current Status of English as an L2 in Malawi

The major question confronting language education planners in post-colonial societies such as Malawi, and indeed in Africa as a whole, is what language(s) to include in the school system. The question in Malawi (and in other Anglophone countries) has often hinged on the feasibility of English as a lingua franca for its practical usefulness for science and technology and world civilization, as well as the maintenance of cultural identity as Malawians and ease of communication with the masses, since English remains far removed from them. This dilemma often translates into programmatic issues such as what should be the first medium of communication in school and when should the transition to English be made. Although from 1968 both English and Chichewa were promoted as co-official languages of Malawi, it is evident that the policy tends to favor English as the official language over the other which is also the national language (Bamgbose, 1984; Matiki, 2001a).

All the three arms of government machinery in Malawi (the Executive, the Legislature and the Judicial) use English as the official medium of their transactions. It is a constitutional requirement for example, that members of parliament should demonstrate reasonable fluency in written and spoken English since the language is the sole medium of parliamentary proceedings. For this reason, prior to parliamentary elections, candidates have to possess the Malawi School Certificate of Examinations (M.S.C.E) with a pass in English which is already a requirement for attainment anyway. In education, English is the dominant language. It is taught as a subject all

the way from grade one at the elementary school through university. English is both a compulsory subject and the sole medium of instruction in all school subjects. Among all the school subjects, English has more class periods per week than any other subject. No school certificate is awarded in Malawi if a candidate fails to get a pass in English and the entrance examination for university has an English language competence test. National and private universities in Malawi which require a credit (B) grade in English for admission have maintained English as the sole medium of classroom instruction. Freshman English courses are compulsory for all first year students in university. The authority of English on the school system in Malawi is further stamped through national examinations. Malawi has three national examinations in the regular school systems, one at the end of middle school, another at the end of junior secondary school and the last one at the end of secondary school. In all these examinations, English is the passing subject. Mass communication through broadcast and print is mostly in English, newspapers are published in English with one or two pages devoted to stories in Chichewa (Bwanali, et al., 2002; Kamwendo, 2003; Kayambazinthu, 1998a; Matiki, 1998, 2001a; Mazrui, 1998).

English in Malawi also plays an imaginative or innovative function. This function refers to the use of language in various literary genres, especially written ones. The earliest written literature in Malawi was by European missionaries and consisted mainly of transcriptions and translations of folk literature. Otherwise, few other creative works have been in local languages (Chimombo, 1992, 1996). As Matiki (2001a) put it, the explanation could be that most creative writers aim at winning international literary awards and recognition. Also, the publishing industry has promoted writing in English because it has a wider market internationally. So, English in Malawi retains the same status as was the case in colonial Kenya:

Any achievement in spoken and written English was highly rewarded; prizes, prestige, applause; the ticket to higher realms. English became the measure of intelligence and ability in the arts, sciences and all branches of learning. English became the main determinant of a child's progress up the ladder of formal education. (Ngugi, 1986, p. 12)

Matiki (2001a) further argued that in Malawi, issues of literacy are generally linked to the learning of English, this is related to what Spolsky and Irvin (1982) observed: "When the introduction of literacy is associated with a second language, an alien culture, and modern, technological functions, literacy in these new domains is preferred in the alien, second or standard language" (pp. 75-76).

English also plays an interpersonal function in Malawi; this is a sense in which language is used to provide a code which symbolizes modernization and elitism. English in Malawi has acquired this status through its use in education, government, commerce, social promotion and a ticket to white collar jobs. The language policy has successfully marketed English as an economic resource. Proficiency in English is directly convertible to economic and social capital (Kamwendo, 1997a; Kayambazinthu, 1998; Matiki 2001b, 2006; Mtenje, 1999). For instance, in a study of obituaries discourse in Malawian newspapers, Matiki (2001b) found that there was predominant use of English (95.2%) in writing obituaries. Given that English is a language that is acquired through education, Matiki concluded that its use in these obituaries not only reflects the pervasive use of English in the secondary domains of national life, but also reflects the social status of those who write these obituaries. The obituaries are normally written by individuals who have been to secular schools and have adopted a western form of commemorating death or its anniversary.

Despite this trend, in Malawi, standards of English and of education in general have in the last decade or so made headlines in the media because of the claims that the standards are going down (Bwanali, et al., 2002; Kamwendo, 2003; Matiki, 2001a). Problems in the deterioration in standards of the English Language have been noted at various levels and forums. It has generally been noted for example, that when students come to university, they fail to express themselves clearly in the language which is the world lingua franca. This trend continues even when Malawian students graduate and go into various work places where most of them fail to orally communicate and write effectively in the language. In fact, in 2008 the Ministry of Education cautioned national universities to do something about the problem. As Matiki (2001a) observed, the link between the declining standards of education and the poor performance in English was also clear in the consultative work of a presidential commission of inquiry in the falling standards in education. During its work, the Commission noted that poor English skills, both written and spoken, were frequently identified by the stakeholders as indicators of falling standards in education. Several causes of the deterioration in standards of the language have been proposed. For example, some argue that the splitting of the subject in secondary school into two subjects namely: Literature and language where students had to choose between the two and not take both could be the cause. It was not surprising when in 2008 that split was revised to enable students take both literature and language as one mandatory subject. Others have also suggested that if fully implemented, TBE has the potential of eventually inflicting disastrous consequences on the standards of the prestigious official language (Kayambazinthu, 1998b; Matiki, 2006; Mtenje, 1999).

Summary

English has grown to become the biggest and most prestigious second language in Malawi. It is not merely a second language but the principal official language. Its history is closely tied to the coming of British colonial masters, missionary educators and the shire highlands planters who brought the language to Malawi. It became the official language used by colonialists for administration and commerce. Since independence in 1964, the regime of Kamuzu Banda interestingly gave English special support. Trained in Britain and the United States, Banda believed that English was very important for Malawi's development. And so alongside Chichewa, which is also Malawi's national language, English continued to be the official language of Malawi. This was in contrast with language policies employed by other newly independent African countries that pursued policies aimed at promoting indigenous languages as sole official languages. Despite the reported low standards of English, the language remains Malawi's most prominent second language. Apart from being learned as a subject, English is used for instruction in school, for publishing in media and broadcast, and in several other social and political domains, making it Malawi's most economically viable language.

Overall Summary of the Review of Literature

From the literature reviewed, it is manifest that situated cognition is a useful theoretical construct for promoting real and authentic learning. On the whole, it provides important information that would make learning of skills in the classroom occur in contexts that reflect how that knowledge is gained and applied in everyday situations since it argues for the teaching of classroom activities as they would occur in the real world. Basically, situated cognition advocates for the closing of gap between learning and use. While numerous studies have been conducted on the theory reiterating the importance to rid education of the practice where learning

is relatively devoid of authenticity and where students merely absorb factual information without any real-life relevance, it is further clear from the literature that only one study has specifically been done on situated cognition and second language learning and in an environment outside of Africa.

The literature reviewed also indicates that since the 17th century, second language pedagogy mostly embraced structural and functional methods that simply promoted proficiency in a second language. However, since 1984, second language pedagogy took a different direction where there has been increased emphasis on language use, creativity and interaction as the basis for acquiring language skills. It is also interesting to note that all these methods have been based on robust theoretical basis making it clear that in second language learning, theory drives method. Where second languages in Malawi are concerned, the history can be traced from the colonial period starting in 1891. Since then, Latin, German, French and English have grown to become imported second languages learned and spoken in different proportions in the southern African country. While there is little published on Latin, Greek, and German, English has emerged as Malawi's biggest L2 seconded by French which is still growing as an L2. In the colonial days, English became the official language used by colonialists for administration and commerce. Interestingly, since independence in 1964, the regime of Kamuzu Banda gave English special support. Presently, the language remains Malawi's most prevalent second language. Apart from being learned as a subject, English is used for instruction in school, for publishing in media and broadcast and in several other social and political domains making it Malawi's most economically viable language. However, since the reign of Bakili Muluzi from 1994, poor standards have been reported on the language and they remain a concern considering the economic and social significance of the language in the country. As pointed out earlier, the

literature reviewed indicates that second language pedagogy is driven by theory. To that end, it is plausible to conclude this review on the stand that situated cognition theory has the potential to improve teaching and learning in the English as an L2 classroom in Africa and specifically in Malawi where no similar study has been done in the past. A study on situated cognition and L2 pedagogy in an African country like Malawi would be of substantial value as it would give way to the improvement of the teaching and learning of the language based on a philosophy in a modern theory with a lot of potential.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of the present study was to develop a framework for teaching second language English as a situated practice. It is planned that the framework will be used by university faculty members in Malawi to train pre-service teachers to employ a contextualized language instruction approach in the teaching of topics in English language and grammar in a second language context. The study employed the following phases: (1) Analysis, (2) development and (3) evaluation.

Research Question

From the literature espoused, the present study sought to answer the following research question:

What features would a framework have for teaching English as an L2 in Malawi using situated cognition strategies?

Benefits of the Study

Situated cognition strategies have shown to improve teaching in various areas throughout the world (Harley, 1991; Herrington & Oliver, 2000; Herrington, Sparrow, Herrington & Oliver, 1997; Griffin & Griffin, 1996; Lave, 1988; Mondada & Doehler, 2004). Interestingly, those strategies are not in use in Malawi, especially in the English as an L2 classroom. That being the case, the development and implementation of a framework that contextualizes the teaching of English as a second language would have the capability to assist the Ministry of Education to improve the quality of instruction of the language which plays a very significant social and economic role in the country. The framework would, in the long run, have the potential to be a basis for improvement of the quality of teaching the language in Malawian secondary schools. The implementation of this kind of framework would have the positive benefit of promoting quality in the English as an L2 classroom, thereby making the teaching of the language more meaningful resulting into improved standards. Also, ultimately, implementation of a situated cognition framework would, in the long run, benefit employers in various sectors in Malawi since fluency in the use of English as the official language of communication is critical for work performance. Finally, a framework of this nature would be of relevance and importance to researchers in instructional design as it provides a model for the use of theory to drive effective instructional practice.

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

Study Design

This developmental study employed the following three phases to create a framework for teaching L2 English as a situated practice: (1) Analysis, (2) development and (3) evaluation and revision. Developmental research studies involve the production of knowledge with the ultimate aim of improving the process of instructional design, development, and evaluation. Such research is based on either situation-specific problem solving or generalized inquiry procedures (Richey & Klein, 2007; Richey, Klein & Nelson, 2004). Richey, Klein and Nelson (2004) went on to elucidate that there are two types of developmental studies. Type one research studies originate with the design and development of an instructional product or program. Frequently, the entire design, development, and evaluation process is documented. The research methodology in Type one is design–development–evaluation. According to Richey, Klein and Nelson (2004) and Richey and Klein (2007), Type two developmental research studies often do not focus on development of a product or program. These studies mostly focus on the more generic use of development processes, offering implications for any design or development project. As a study in instructional design, the present one took the Type one approach where a product was developed and evaluated.

Phase One: Analysis, involved interviewing eight conveniently sampled faculty members from five teacher training institutions of higher learning in Malawi. The process began with a review of syllabi used by the identified institutions to train English teachers. Using semi-structured open-ended questions, the selected faculty members were interviewed. The questions basically sought to seek their views on the strategies they use to train pre-service teachers of English. The interviews did not actually take a full needs assessment approach where the

researcher would have gone there with a blank slate and planned to learn everything from the interviewees (Witkin & Altschuld, 1995). Rather, the researcher went there with principles of situated cognition in mind from the literature and latterly related such strategies with what was obtained from the interviews. Considering that situated cognition is a new concept in Malawi, the researcher conveyed the description of the construct in the interviews using simple academic language rather than technical terms. While review of syllabi initially provided the researcher with an impression of the strategies the faculty members used to train pre-service teachers, the actual interviews provided opportunity to explore a detailed account of what exactly went on in class.

Based on the results from Phase One, a framework for teaching English as a situated practice in Malawi was created in Phase Two: Development. The Framework was designed to reflect the features of situated cognition derived from the literature and indicate how to operationalize that for L2 English instruction in Malawi. According to Clifton (2003), a framework is a real or conceptual structure intended to serve as a support or guide for the building of something that expands the structure into something useful. Clifton (2003) further pointed out that a framework ties together a bunch of discrete objects/components into something more useful. From the literature, it was learned that situated cognition provides a more authentic learning experience and this framework was created to inform future teaching of English as an L2. The researcher procedurally took a snapshot of how teachers of English are prepared in Malawi which guided the development process.

Developmental research studies fall into a category which involves situations in which the product development process used in a particular situation is described and analyzed and the final product evaluated (Richey & Klein, 2007; Richey, Klein & Nelson, 2004). In Phase Three:

Evaluation and revision, the present study employed a formative approach to evaluate and revise the product. One situated cognition expert from a state university on the east coast of the United States examined the framework for conformity with the construct. Three faculty members from the initial eight interviewed in Phase One also evaluated the framework for compatibility with the content they teach and its relevance to the English language curriculum in Malawi. Based on their experience in teaching English methodology courses and supervising teachers-in-training, the faculty members in essence determined if the framework would be capable of being operationalized in a Malawian secondary school English classroom. Data collected from the evaluation phase was used to revise the product.

Within the present chapter, a description of the researcher stance is made. It specifically addresses the beliefs that the researcher held going into the present study and how those beliefs had the potential of influencing his understanding and interpretation of pedagogical practices employed to teach English as an L2 in Malawi. The research sites selected for the study are also described, that is, how they were selected and also how participants were selected. The chapter further describes how data was collected and analyzed to guide the framework development process.

Researcher Stance

Qualitative studies require the researcher to expose inclinations, values, and experiences that are personal to him or her that may have implications in the way the he or she perceives and interprets phenomena (Creswell, 2009; Patton, 2002). Because Phase One of the study, analysis, took a qualitative approach, an insightful account of the researcher's position is presented as he went into the present study based on his experience regarding the phenomena of interest

(pedagogy for English as an L2 in Malawi). First person is used to describe the researcher's proclivity to that effect.

I was raised in Malawi, did my primary, secondary and my undergraduate education in the southern African country. At the time I enrolled in undergraduate studies in 1995, Malawi only had one national university, the University of Malawi, with colleges spread across the southern and central parts of the country. I went to Chancellor College, a constituent college of the University of Malawi in the south where I specialized in English language and linguistics with a minor in theatre arts. As I graduated in 1999, Malawi's second national university was born in the north and between then and today; two other Christian universities have opened. From 2000, I worked as lecturer in English and linguistics at the new National University in the north and after finishing my master's degree in the United States in 2003, I continued to teach English and linguistics at the University until 2008.

During my teaching period, I developed a lot of interest in the way English was taught, spoken and written by Malawians. As a creative writer in the language, anything having to do with the quality of English in Malawi always fascinated me. As a university lecturer, I was privileged to serve as a supervisor of our teachers-in-training and this gave me opportunity to have a hands-on experience with the way English is taught in Malawian secondary schools. So apart from the opportunity I had, teaching and grading work in English (including language and communication courses), I went into the secondary school classroom and saw how English was taught. I read publications in Malawi about the dwindling standards of the language, and I attended forums that tackled the problem. For years, I saw the performance of Malawian students and graduates alike in spoken and written English. While embarking on this study, I speculated

that the standards of the lingua franca language had been deteriorating in Malawi and to that end; I delved into the literature to substantiate my contemplation.

With these experiences in mind, I went into the field to collect data patterning to strategies used to teach English as an L2 in Malawi. I must acknowledge that I did not go there with a blank slate, I had an idea of how the language is generally taught and I also went there with knowledge of the possible ways in which the teaching of the language could be improved. It then became evident that as I went out to collect data, it was likely that I would be viewing issues in the lenses of such knowledge and experience. However, I must point out that I deliberately went into the field with an open mind to learn from university faculty members who train English teachers. I must also point out that even though I had taught English and supervised English teachers-in-training, I had never talked to the faculty members who prepare the teachers on their classroom experience in using the pedagogies currently in practice. I must however point out that as someone who had been in the secondary school classroom as a supervisor before and saw what actually happens; I had the advantage of engaging the participants better than anyone who had never been there. This advantage also applied in the development of the framework. So all in all, even though I did not go into the field completely empty, I went there with the open mind of a researcher keen to discover phenomena that would inform my understanding of this issue.

Site Selection

In the present study, data was collected from five teacher training institutions in Malawi, southern Africa. Three of these institutions lie in the southern part of the country while the other two are in the north. In the south, a constituent college of the University of Malawi was engaged.

The college which is University of Malawi's biggest opened its doors to Malawian students in 1965 with the faculty of education as one of its earliest schools. Since that year, the college has been producing English teachers up to the present (Chancellor College [Chanco], 2010; Soko, 2007). A Christian university in southern Malawi was also engaged. The young University opened in 2006 and began to produce teachers of English from the onset. Presently, it has two faculties, the faculty of education and the faculty of social sciences. Also engaged in the southern region of Malawi was a government teacher training institution which was established in 1993 in response to a teacher shortage problem in secondary schools. The college has capacity to accommodate 540 students and has produced English teachers since its establishment (Southern African Institute for Distance Education [SAIDE], 1999). In the northern region, Malawi's second national university was engaged. The University was established in 1997 by an act of Parliament with a mission to provide complementary services that meet technological, social and economic needs of Malawians (Mzuzu University Act, 1997; Nur-Awaleh & Mtegha, 2005). The University opened its doors to students in 1999 and has since then produced English teachers among others. Finally, a Christian university in northern Malawi was engaged. Located on a plateau in northern Malawi, the University opened in 2003 and has one faculty, the faculty of education which has been producing teachers of English since its inception (University of Livingstonia [Unilia], 2010).

Sample and Sampling Procedures

Purposive sampling was used to select participants for the study. This is a process whereby the researcher selects a sample based on experience or knowledge of the group to be sampled (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006; Russ-Eft & Preskill, 2001). A total of eight English

methodology faculty members from five teacher training colleges in Malawi were identified. These faculty members were selected for virtue of their teaching subject. Specifically, six faculty members were engaged from three colleges, two from each and one faculty member from each of the remaining two colleges were also engaged bringing the total to eight. These were the only faculty members teaching English methodology and so the sample of eight faculty members also comprised the population (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). These faculty members were engaged in open-ended semi-structured interviews seeking their views on instructional strategies they use in class. As Rossman and Rallis (2003) contended, interviewing is an imperative step in the qualitative research process, helping the researcher understand individual participants' perspectives, deepen the researcher's understanding, and generate rich, descriptive data. Also, it has been suggested that "much of what we cannot observe for ourselves has been or is being observed by others. The interview is the main road to multiple realities" (Stake, 1995, p. 64). The five institutions of higher learning were selected because they are the only secondary school teacher training institutions in the country. Again, three faculty members from the initial eight were purposively selected to evaluate the framework and provide feedback for improvement. These three faculty members were selected from two government teacher training institutions in the southern region of Malawi because these institutions have been training English teachers far much longer than any of the other three colleges. As Richey and Klein (2007) observed, in the instructional design process, many expert review studies collect data directly from persons serving as subject matter experts. Driscoll (1998) complemented this reflection by contending that subject matter expert review is conducted to examine the accuracy and currency of content, that experts can provide information about whether the content is complete, accurate and relevant. In the present study, a situated cognition expert from a state university on the east coast

of the United States was purposively selected to evaluate the framework. This brought the total number of participants to nine in this study. Table 1 describes the eight participants interviewed in Malawi.

Table 1: Study Participant Table

Participant Name	Training Institution(s)	Length of College Teaching in Years	Participation in Study Evaluation
Ms. Chidothe	University of Malawi	6	No
Mr. Chikapa	University of Malawi	9	Yes
Mr. Kaliza	University of Malawi, University of Nairobi	16	No
Ms. Mjojo	University of Malawi, University of Cape Town	6	No
Mr. Jere	University of Malawi	9	No
Professor Mjojo	University of Malawi, University of Reading	21	Yes
Mr. Damalekani	University of Malawi	11	Yes
Professor Namagowa	University of Malawi, Virginia Tech	25	No

Data Collection Procedures

Before beginning the data collection process, the study sought approval from the Virginia Tech Institutional Review Board for the protection of human subjects (see Appendix D). This was due to the fact that even though the study was conducted in Malawi, the researcher used input from his graduate advisor as a human resource. It must be pointed out that colleges in Malawi do not have institutional review boards; however, at the beginning of each interview, participants were asked to review, sign and be served with a copy of an informed consent form. Participants were also informed that the interview would be recorded using a digital recording device to ensure accuracy of their statements, experiences, and direct quotes (Rossman & Rallis, 2003). Prior to each interview, the participants were served with the interview protocols so that they were able to study the questions prior to the actual interview. This gave them ample time to understand what they would be required to provide the researcher with during the interviews.

Data Analysis Techniques

Data collected from interviews with eight Malawian English methodology faculty members produced eight transcripts which were analyzed in NVivo software. In a single iteration, the transcripts were coded in line with the purpose of the study. A total of 115 codes were generated as a result of this process. Whole text analysis was used to examine the continuous text contained within the transcripts. This technique requires the researcher to fully understand the purpose of his or her study to enable them study the data continuously in order to identify specific codes. This procedure for analysis was developed by Glaser and Strauss (1967) and Strauss and Corbin (1998). From the theme: “Strategies for training pre-service secondary school teachers of English in Malawi”, seven categories were derived. These categories were

then discussed with close reference to the data contained in the transcripts. Results from this phase were used to guide the framework development phase in the following ways: (1) They assisted in deciding what content to include in the framework; (2) they helped in justifying what the framework would be used for, and (3) they would tell whether the framework would replace current strategies being used or largely complement the strategies being used.

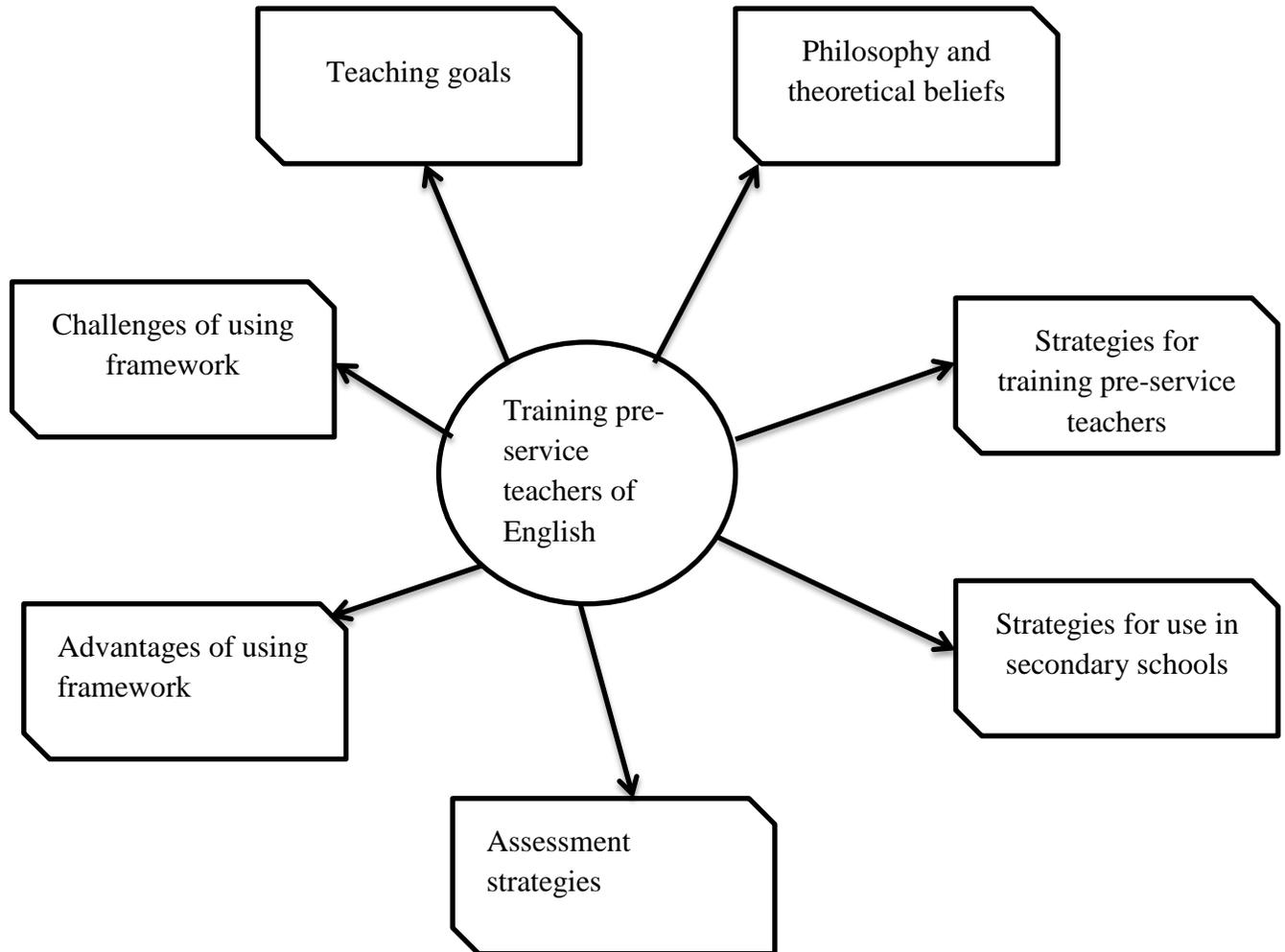
Chapter 4: Data Analysis and Results

The analysis of transcripts developed from interviewing eight English methodology faculty members in Malawi's five secondary school teacher training institutions resulted in 115 codes that were grouped into seven separate categories (see Figure 2). While coding and categorization provided a structure to aid in examining and discussing strategies for training pre-service secondary school teachers of English, it was clear that the whole phenomenon of training English teachers is a complex one comprising of interrelated practices none of which exist in isolation and all of which are open to multiple interpretations. So, from the theme: "Training pre-service secondary school teachers of English in Malawi," the following seven categories were derived: Teaching goals, teaching philosophy and theoretical beliefs, instructional strategies for training pre-service teachers, instructional strategies for use in secondary schools, assessment strategies, advantages of using an authentic learning framework and potential challenges for using an authentic learning framework. These categories provided the basis for discussion of the responses obtained from the eight English methodology faculty members. For subject protection, pseudonyms have been used to identify the eight faculty members who were interviewed in Malawi.

Teaching Goals

While syllabi may provide generic goals for training pre-service secondary school teachers in Malawi such as to familiarize students with various approaches and methods of teaching or to enable students choose appropriate methods of language teaching, interviews with faculty members interestingly indicated that each member goes to class with varying goals in mind. For example, while one faculty member reiterated that he solely goes to class with the goal of making learners to be fluent in English, another member contended that her main goal is

Figure 2: The Seven Categories in Diagram



to teach English as a second language, not as a foreign language and enable teachers-in-training evaluate themselves and their teaching strategies. Reasoned Ms. Chidothe:

So most of the time you are going there to help them, give them ways, as to how they can teach English as a second language not as a foreign language, and that will include how to teach language skills, grammar, as aspects of language. And apart from that, they should also be in a position to evaluate themselves because now and again a teacher is supposed to evaluate whatever methods or whatever approaches he or she is using in class.

In this excerpt, it is evident that as an English methodology faculty member, Ms. Chidothe does not only go to class to impart skills that would enable her students handle aspects such as grammar but also be able to evaluate themselves on the basis of the strategies they use to teach topics in English as an L2.

Some faculty members further explained that they go to class with the goal of equipping students with the necessary skills to teach a secondary school class without a problem and also enable learners acquire skills for teaching. Others reiterated the importance of going there to make students competent in theory and also practice as elucidated by Mr. Damalekani in the following excerpt:

The main goal is to make my students competent in theory and also in practice. So these are the main two, they should relate the two, the theory and the practice and having in mind our context, the problems that we face in Malawi.

So for this faculty member, it is important for teachers-in-training to be equipped with the theoretical part of teaching and also practice. Above everything else, he finds it essential for the

teachers-in- training to bear in mind contextual factors that define problems faced in Malawi where teaching of English as an L2 is concerned.

Some faculty members also explained that they go to class with the goal of sharpening students' skills in terms of delivery of English language topics bearing in mind that language is a skill related subject. To another faculty member, the goal when going to class is to produce English teachers who can widen horizons and also be creative. Said Ms. Mjojo:

We need to have a teacher who can widen horizons, who are creative in this world.

Because we are saying we are producing teachers but they are not only teachers in class, they should be able to perform even outside the teaching profession. So that's really what drives me to teach them and to help them, to inform them as much as I can.

To Ms. Mjojo, the goal for training pre-service teachers of English should not only end at making them deliver content in class but also making them creative professionals. Above everything else, she finds it important to make her teachers-in-training perform even outside the teaching profession.

Teaching Philosophy and Theoretical Beliefs

Interviews with English methodology faculty members in Malawi did reveal that as they go to class, they hold varying philosophical and learning theory beliefs which are in turn reflected in their teaching. For instance, some faculty members explained that they hold a theoretical belief in the communicative approach which as discussed in the review of literature chapter, is a popular 21st century approach in the teaching of English as an L2. In the following excerpt, Mr. Kaliza points out his strong belief in the approach:

On theoretical point of view, I emphasize, and this is so current and dominant, which is communicative approach, communicative teaching approach. Learners should be trained to communicate, should be trained to speak, on situational basis. Whatever situation they are found in, these students should be in a position to express themselves fully.

It is clear in the excerpt above that Mr. Kaliza realizes that the communicative approach is a modern theory in the teaching of second languages. He actually goes on to emphasize the importance of training students to be able to comfortably communicate in a second language in varying situations.

Other faculty members however, expressed their belief in the philosophy that teaching and learning are contextual. According to such faculty members, one cannot necessarily prescribe that this is the best way to teach, rather, they prefer exposing students to different instructional strategies in different schools and afterward go back to discuss with the students the strategies they found to be effective as used in different contexts. Better still, interviews with English methodology faculty members in Malawi further revealed that some of them hold theoretical beliefs in constructivism as one Professor Namagowa elucidated:

The teaching philosophy that I strongly hold is constructivism which is very learner-centered teaching. It's because we believe that learners should be active as they are learning. So usually, I use the constructivism philosophy that encourages learner-centered type of education.

So, to faculty members like Professor Namagowa, the belief is that constructivism is the best learning theory as it promotes learner centered teaching where they (the learners) actively take part in learning.

Instructional Strategies for Training Pre-Service Teachers

While English methodology faculty members in Malawi did admit that lecture is the predominant strategy they use to train pre-service teachers of English, interviews also clearly revealed that there are numerous instructional strategies that accompany it. For example, when asked what strategies he uses to train pre-service teachers of English, this is what Mr. Jere had to say:

I will be honest there, mostly it's lecturing. I don't know, maybe it may be a misconception because when you are known as a lecturer perhaps that has implication on how you conduct your teaching as well. So I use lecture, but sometimes I also use learner-centered strategies especially when I want students to have a deeper understanding of a topic. So quite often I've put students into groups, I've had them conduct debates where they take sides and argue on a topic and so on. So I'd say that several learner-centered strategies may be used from time to time while lecture is perhaps the strategy that dominates.

In this excerpt, Mr. Jere acknowledges that he predominantly uses lecture to train pre-service teachers of English but does also switch to strategies he describes as learner-centered such as group work and debates.

Some faculty members however pointed out that they had actually moved from using a lot of lecture to using other strategies as pointed out Mr. Damalekani:

There is lecture method which was predominant in the past but what I'm doing now is to teach just like they would teach in secondary school. Use question and answers, put them in group work, ask them experiences, and from that relate everything to theory and to

what I have experienced in teaching. So, like this year, it's not lecture method, it's interactive, the way teachers teach in secondary schools. This has come about because I have seen that those I have supervised in teaching practice tend to use lecture method for teaching in secondary schools. The reason is that they model their lecturers. So I want to bring in that, they should also have a model of how it is done in schools from their lecturer.

It is clear that after observing that most students were using lecture method while in practice in secondary school, Mr. Damalekani thought the best way to make his students get used to employing a variety of strategies was to use strategies such as question and answer, group work, recollection of past experiences and others which his students would then model.

So apart from lecture, group work, question and answer experiential learning, and debates, faculty members said they use other strategies such as pair work, role play, demonstration, microteaching, question and also pause and name. They justified themselves in using these strategies by pointing out that they do so for students to model, that some methods such as group work enable students to share experiences and also that they are practical. The main reason for using lecture, it was indicated, was to cover more ground in the least time available for teaching.

Faculty members also pointed out challenges they face while implementing these strategies. For example they did contend that some students feel that group work is a waste of time, that working in groups also makes some students to shy away from making presentations by hiding behind others, sometimes students do not like participatory methods, pair work and

role plays become unpopular because students feel they are adults and that large class sizes are not conducive to implementing certain strategies as Mr. Chikapa explained:

Of course some of the main problems that we encounter are like large classes. For example, in my second year class I have 116 students. Now to do a practical lesson, the ideal is all the members in the class, all the 116 students should demonstrate a lesson. Now with the time available, it's not possible so sometimes we just put them in groups. Normally the challenge is if you put them in groups, and a group comes up with a lesson, they normally pick may be an active or the most intelligent student to present the lesson. So others are not given that chance because they are may be shy, they are afraid, so they always run away from that. But the ideal should have been that everyone should present their own lesson.

So it is clear from Mr. Chikapa's explanation that large class sizes become a limitation to delivering a practical lesson.

Finally, from a general point of view, faculty members felt that appropriate strategies are those that help students to participate in speaking which is an important language skill and those that are learner-centered.

Instructional Strategies for use in Secondary Schools

English methodology faculty members in Malawi pointed to several strategies that they teach their students for use during their secondary school teaching of English. These included pair work, role play, group work, question and answer, presentations, projects and conferencing, lecture, debates, simulation and field trips. While identifying some or all of these strategies, some faculty members emphasized on the need for the teachers-in-training to focus on

communication and integrate the four language skills in their teaching as pointed out by Mr. Kaliza in the following excerpt:

Our teachers-in-training should always remember to center on communication despite the fact that all these four language skills will be integrated but the center is communication. Therefore, they should remember that there should be activities concerned with listening, there should be activities concerned with speaking, there should be activities concerned with writing, there should be activities concerned with the other skill which is reading.

From this extract, it is clear that Mr. Kaliza finds it important for student teachers to learn to employ the communicative approach while integrating the four language skills; speaking, reading, writing and listening in an English lesson.

English methodology faculty members also came up with challenges that teachers-in-training face while employing the mentioned strategies especially during teaching practice which they (the faculty members) supervise. For example, some faculty members did mention that class management issues negatively impact on strategies such as group work. Faculty members also pointed out that there is usually poor mentorship in schools, classes are large with little space available, lazy students participate less; there is also the issue of scarcity of teaching and learning materials. Again, faculty members pointed to the problem that while student teachers have been trained and are ready to use the communicative approach which is recommended by the Ministry of Education, what they find being used in schools is a contrary pedagogy and that becomes a challenge. Also, serving teachers in schools mostly do not like employing participatory strategies and instead like teaching for examinations. So when student teachers bring in these strategies, students sometimes find it strange as pointed out by Mr. Chikapa below:

The main challenge that they encounter is that serving teachers in schools don't use those participatory methods because the focus by serving teachers is to prepare their learners to pass examinations. So as a result, instead of normal teaching of language where they are supposed to assist the learners to develop the four language skills, they will simply focus on the areas that are examinable. So as a result they don't employ participatory methods like role plays and so on. Now when our student goes there and employs the participatory methods, sometimes they are like strange to the students in the schools because their teachers normally don't use those methods. Interestingly, once they graduate, they also join the system; they neglect those particular areas and also become exam oriented in their teaching.

In the excerpt above, Mr. Chikapa clearly identifies the problem student teachers face in schools where serving teachers use short cuts to making their students pass examinations. However, it is indeed interesting to note that after graduation, the students also end up joining the system and teach for examinations.

Assessment Strategies

English methodology faculty members in Malawi cited numerous strategies they use to assess their students' work. These included desk research, practice teaching in demonstration schools, formal examinations, group projects where participation is also assessed, presentations, microteaching, peer teaching, writing essays and also development of lesson plans and schemes of work as pointed out by Ms. Chidothe in the following excerpt:

They have to come up with lesson plans, they have to have schemes of work and so we move from stage to stage. So that is the kind of assessment that they go through. But

because we are also looking at certain theoretical aspects of the teaching of English, they have to write essays, for example they may be asked to evaluate a particular theory in line with our own education system or in line with their own experiences in secondary school.

So, according to Ms. Chidothe cited above, apart from writing essays where they may evaluate a particular learning theory based on their own experience, students are also given the task of developing lesson plans and schemes of work. Interestingly, other faculty members found examinations the most appropriate strategy for assessing students' work as elucidated by Professor Mdotso in the following excerpt:

We assess our students may be periodically or at the end of a semester. The approach is that they are given a formal exam where they have to prepare for, for example at the end of the semester. Err...the mere announcement that you are going to have an exam is a motivation to make them study, recall what they have been learning and so on. Such is the approach that we take and when you do that, you evaluate what has been going on in class and you can see that you are either successful or not through their performance.

For professor Mdotso, examinations become the best strategy for assessing students' work because they motivate students to study and also enable faculty members to evaluate learning in class based on students' performance on the examination.

Another assessment strategy that English methodology faculty members mentioned was what they called the evaluation of a particular teaching method encountered in the school.

Explained Mr. Damalekani:

So, in most cases I do not have the real exam where they have to sit in the exam room and write the exam. What I do is give them something like a project where they have to

assess err...a particular teaching method and the reality based on what they have actually encountered in the school. So, it's more of practical in nature.

From the excerpt, Mr. Damalekani prefers giving his students assessment tasks that are practical in nature than examinations. In this case, he cites an instance where he takes a somewhat project-based approach to assess students' work (Krajcik et al., 1994).

While employing these strategies, faculty members also alluded to challenges that they face in the process. For example, some faculty members mentioned lack of teaching materials as being a challenge to employing certain assessment strategies such as microteaching. It was also mentioned that a challenge to employing a strategy such as group work is that some students do not participate or are totally absent from group discussions. Essay writing, they pointed out, also poses a problem because writing itself is an issue to most students. Desk research, it was mentioned, becomes a challenge because students can evaluate a theory but fail to put into practice. They also pointed out that examinations become a challenge because first, not many students do well in examinations and also that items become cumulative over a number of topics. Finally, it was also mentioned that using peer teaching and an approach where students assess a method they encountered in school can be challenges in the sense that some students do not want to participate, that some class members do not want to work with a particular member who is lazy and also that at a departmental level, practical assessment strategies bring in very high grades and that becomes an issue.

Advantages of Using an Authentic Learning Framework

Some English methodology faculty members expressed the view that the framework will generally help teachers know the right way of doing things in class. Others felt that a framework

that addresses language use is in line with the communication approach which the Ministry of Education in Malawi highly recommends. Again, it was also felt the framework would actually enable teachers to understand how to put language rules and skills into use as pointed out by Ms. Chidothe in the following excerpt:

The advantage of using such kind of an approach is that learners are not only going to know that grammar is all about what the rules of language are but they are also going to understand how these rules are used in actual sense. The framework will promote the understanding that when they learn the language, the next step is to use it and they have to start that in class so that when they go out they are able to use the language appropriately.

To faculty members like Ms. Chidothe, an authentic learning framework would enable learners take a step further from learning grammar as a set of rules to the level where they would put the rules into use and take that outside the classroom.

English methodology faculty members also felt that an authentic learning framework would enable students in class to be able to practice what is realistic. Some faculty members also expressed the view that an authentic learning framework would enable them find solutions to the problems that students face since it takes context into consideration. They further felt that since development of the framework has taken a bottom-up approach where there is a close look at the prevalent problems before development, it would very likely succeed if implemented. This, they argued, is opposed to imposing strategies that are believed to work and have them implemented. Faculty members further expressed the view that a framework of this nature would promote authentic learning which would minimize teaching for examinations. Reasoned Mr. Jere:

I think it would be good to come up with such a framework because in the end you want learning to be authentic. You want teaching and learning experiences in the classroom to reflect what is going to happen in the outside world, you don't want them to simply learn for the purpose of passing exams, you want them to be competent in the language; you want them to participate in different communication contexts outside the classroom. So, if that framework will include communication situations that reflect real life communication, then I think the students will not find difficulties involving or participating in communication situations outside the classroom.

To Mr. Jere, use of an authentic learning framework would rid teaching of the serious disease prevalent in Malawian schools; teaching for passing examinations. Rather than drilling students on certain examinable aspects of the syllabus, Mr. Jere feels that an authentic learning framework would, on the contrary, promote that type of teaching and learning which reflects what will happen outside the classroom.

Faculty members also felt that since language is principally for communication and that communication varies from context to context, any framework developed around that is going to be good. They further felt that an authentic learning framework would ease the type of teaching that goes on in most Malawian schools because a number of teachers struggle to reconcile language itself and communicative ways of teaching. Interestingly, some faculty members also expressed the view that the framework would make learning to be authentic since teaching the parts of a car would for instance mean taking learners to a garage shop as pointed out by Ms. Mjojo in the following excerpt:

Using this approach would really be very good. For example, if you want to teach them parts of car, you will take them to a garage shop, you will take them to Toyota Malawi, the hospital, you will take them to the court to learn legal language and so on.

To Ms. Mjojo, an authentic learning framework would imply physically taking students to various places outside the classroom in order for them to learn a particular topic of interest.

Potential Challenges for Using an Authentic Learning Framework

Malawian English methodology faculty members did point to potential challenges an authentic learning framework would face if implemented in Malawi. For instance, it was felt that a framework of this kind would face the problem of lack of time and space considering the time allocated for a teaching period which is one hour in college and less than that in secondary school. Some faculty members also pointed out to the concern that old timers are mostly reluctant to embrace change and so teachers who have served for a long time would very likely resist switching to an authentic learning approach in their teaching. Also, faculty members observed that the school system in Malawi is examination oriented, that teachers teach to the examination because they get credit for making more students pass. To that end, it was felt that it would be an enormous challenge for them to change from that to an approach like authentic learning as Mr. Chikapa observed:

I think the main challenge that an authentic learning framework would face would stem from the fact that our system is exam oriented. If you go to the Malawian classroom, a teacher whose students have passed national exams is regarded as the best teacher. In fact, no matter what strategies a teacher may use, if the learners fail an exam at the end, the teacher is not regarded as a good teacher. That's why many teachers become exam

oriented, the methodologies may be there but if the methodologies are to tamper with the passing of the exam I think that will be the main challenge.

In this excerpt, Mr. Chikapa clearly registers the concern that even though an authentic learning may be an appealing approach to teachers, the fact that they (the teachers) get credit for making more students pass examinations would make it difficult for them to implement change.

Other faculty members felt that the willingness of the Ministry of Education to adopt a new pedagogy could be an issue considering how they (the Ministry) work. Faculty members also thought the approach would prove to be expensive since contextualized language instruction implies taking students to different settings such as the court, hospital and other relevant places. It was further felt that the framework might demand a paradigm shift in terms of preparation of teaching and learning materials. Argued Professor Mdoto:

The only challenge I would see is that the framework might demand a paradigm shift in terms of preparation of teaching and learning materials. That's what I can see. Now that will demand for huge resources to be pulled into such an endeavor. But if this is supported at national level, I don't see the challenge being lasting, no, because then there must be room to mobilize some kind of resources into the project and let it start.

Otherwise, how did other programs start? They started with huge expenditure so we cannot be afraid of that. So that is the challenge that I can see.

It can be noted in this excerpt that while the Professor views the paradigmatic shift in terms of preparation of teaching and learning materials as requiring a lot of resources, he ends boldly, pointing out that such an important shift would not be expected to be cost-free.

Issues that Guided the Framework Development Phase

From the preceding discussion that was based on seven categories emanating from interviews with English methodology faculty members in Malawi, numerous issues arose that would guide the framework development phase. These issues are discussed hereunder, in the lens of situated cognition which was the guiding theory for the development of a framework for teaching English as a second language in Malawi.

English methodology faculty members in Malawi pointed to three philosophical or theoretical beliefs that are reflected in their teaching. These are; constructivism, communicative approach and teaching and learning as being contextual. While there is no single constructivist theory of instruction, researchers in the field of instructional technology among others, articulate various aspects of a constructivist theory (Driscoll, 2005). So, constructivist theory rests on the assumption that knowledge is constructed as learners attempt to make sense of their experience. In this regard, learners are not empty vessels waiting to be filled but rather active organisms seeking meaning. This is in slight contrast with situated cognition which is about authentic learning. As a construct, situated cognition advocates for learning to take place in context, familiar contexts rather than unfamiliar contexts (Brown, Collins & Duguid, 1989; Driscoll, 2005; Perkins, 1991). So while constructivism is about constructing new knowledge from experience, situated cognition goes a step further by focusing on meaning making in the right context of the knowledge. The communicative approach, which was another theoretical belief that some faculty members held while teaching, is not only in line with requirements of the Ministry of Education in Malawi for the teaching of English as a second language, it is also the popular pedagogy for teaching second languages in the 21st century according to the literature espoused (Hymes, 1972; MOE, 2008; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). But then while situated

cognition focuses on authentic learning in familiar contexts, the communicative approach takes a direction of language instruction where the focus is on communicative proficiency rather than the command of structures as used to be in the past (Brown, Collins & Duguid, 1989; Hymes, 1972; Littlewood, 1981; Rodgers, 2001; Zimmerman, 1997). Finally, the belief held by other English methodology faculty members in Malawi about teaching and learning being contextual, could, to some extent, be in line with the philosophy underlying situated cognition as explained above.

As discussed earlier, it was found that among several strategies for training pre-service teachers of English in Malawi, lecture is the most dominant. The other strategies discussed included group work, question and answer, recollection of past experiences, debates, pair work, role plays, demonstration and microteaching. While some of these strategies can be said to be learner-centered from an instructional design point of view, role play, debates and group work especially small groups are the only ones which are a situated cognition strategies (Bonk & Reynolds, 1997; Oliver, Omari, & Herrington, 1999; Paulsen, 1995; Van Ments, 1983). From a generic point of view, faculty members did disclose that they prefer using strategies that are learner-centered. But then it was also pointed out that large class sizes in Malawi are a hindrance to learner-centered teaching. Likewise, an authentic learning approach would also be hindered by large class sizes and that would be put into consideration while developing the final authentic learning deliverable.

While some faculty members expected their students to model the strategies they (the faculty members) use for use in secondary schools, several strategies that faculty members specifically teach to students for use during their secondary school teaching of English, from teaching practicum through the rest of their careers were brought forward. These are; use of pair

work, role plays, group work, question and answer, presentations, projects, conferencing, lecture, debates, simulation and field trips. Faculty members also pointed out that while imparting these strategies to students, the latter are encouraged to integrate the four language skills regardless of which strategy they were employing at a given time. As pointed out earlier on, role play, small groups and debates are situated cognition strategies (Bonk & Reynolds, 1997; Oliver, Omari, & Herrington, 1999; Paulsen, 1995; Van Ments, 1983). Also, even though Choi and Hannafin (1995) argued that authentic activities are not simulated tasks, meaning that they are real, it is naturally not easy to bring the real world into the classroom. In fact, Herrington and Herrington (2006, p. 3) pointed out that “in designing learning environments it is impossible to design truly ‘authentic’ learning experiences”. So, the framework would be designed to enable instructors and learners to simulate real world activities in the classroom and make them as close as possible as they would occur in the real world. To that end, simulation, which is one of the strategies faculty members cited, would, depending on how it is done, be part and parcel of the situated cognition pedagogy being suggested. Also, English methodology faculty members did point out that even though student teachers are equipped with all these strategies prior to their teaching experience during teaching practicum, they still faced challenges such as poor mentorship, large class sizes, dealing with lazy students, scarcity of teaching and learning materials, contrary pedagogies in schools and the practice of teaching for examinations by established teachers. It is only plausible to say that the situated cognition approach that the framework would take, would most likely face similar challenges.

English methodology faculty members put forward numerous strategies that they use to assess students’ work over the course of an academic year. Assessment strategies that came up in the interviews were; formal examinations, desk research, practice teaching in demonstration

schools, group projects where participation is also assessed, presentations, microteaching, peer teaching, writing essays, development of lesson plans and schemes of work and also projects that require students to evaluate a particular teaching strategy encountered in the school. Where assessment in situated cognition is concerned, scholars have clearly pointed out the need to desist from “teaching to the test” because when students realize that are being tested on their ability to recall, they start to memorize the information which in turn decontextualizes their knowledge (Choi & Hannafin, 1995). So, unless, examinations are set in such a way that they enable learners to master skills in their right contexts, they (examinations) may not be the best strategy from a situated learning point of view. Scholars have actually argued for the need to have assessment and learning in situated learning context done as part of learning rather than separated from it, and also deployed in the right environment (Case, 1985; McLellan, 1993; Young, 1993, 1995). From this background of argument, strategies such as desk research, group projects, presentations, microteaching, peer teaching, writing essays, development of lesson plans and schemes of work would have to be conducted seamlessly with teaching and learning rather than as separate activities for them to be deemed situated learning strategies. In fact, faculty members did point out that desk research as an assessment strategy is a challenge in the sense that mostly students can evaluate a theory but fail to put it into practice which is quite contrary from what situated cognition advocates for. The same applies to lack of participation by students as another challenge that was brought up. It implies that contrary to the philosophy in situated learning, non-participating learners would fail to close gap between learning and use. On the other hand, practice teaching in demonstration schools and evaluation of teaching strategies encountered in schools are strategies that are done in the right learning environments and are in

line with situated learning practice as long as they are also not detached from teaching and learning.

The advantages for using an authentic learning framework that English methodology faculty members in Malawi pointed to would in essence pave way for its development and eventual implementation. These included; the framework would be in line with the communicative approach which is Ministry of Education recommended pedagogy, the framework would enable teachers to understand how to put language rules into use, that it would enable students in class to practice what is realistic, it would enable faculty members find solutions to problems faced by students since it takes context into consideration, that it would promote authentic learning which would minimize teaching for examinations, it would promote that teaching and learning which reflects what will happen outside the classroom, it would reconcile language itself with communicative ways of teaching and finally, that since it takes a bottom-up approach it would very likely succeed if implemented. However, it was also found of utmost importance to take note of the potential challenges the framework would face before going into the process of developing it. Potential challenges that were brought forward by faculty members were; it would face the problem of lack of time and space allocated to a teaching period, old timers are mostly reluctant to embrace change in Malawi schools, that the school system itself is examination oriented, the willingness of the Ministry of Education to have the framework implemented would be an issue, it would prove expensive since it means taking students to places for example the court, hospital, garage shops and others and that it might demand a paradigm shift in terms of teaching and learning materials. It must be noted however that from the literature, the situated cognition pedagogy might not necessarily demand constantly taking students to different places for lessons; rather, what would be needed to be done in class is

to simulate activities from the real world (Brown, Collins & Duguid, 1989; Driscoll, 2005; Lave, 1988).

So, with all these lessons in mind, and based on analysis of the data from interviewing English methodology faculty members, seven tasks emerged as a means to operationalize the teaching of English as a second language through situated cognition strategies as delineated in tables 2 through 9 found in Chapter 5.

Chapter 5: Framework for Teaching L2 English as a Situated Practice Operationalized

Based on the themes identified from interviews with English methodology faculty members in Malawi and improved upon by suggestions from an expert reviewer and users, a framework for teaching English as a second language using situated cognition strategies was created. The framework would be used by university faculty members in Malawi to train pre-service teachers of English. Table 2 shows the seven tasks derived from situated cognition while tables 3 through 9 specifically describe how to operationalize the situated tasks in the teaching of English as an L2 in Malawi.

In an effort to break the conventional school culture as much as possible, the situated activities have been designed to encourage instructors to create environments that involve moving students from learning-about something to learning-to-be something (Brown, 2006; Wenger, 1998). Also, while these situated activities will be implemented in the English classroom in Malawi and not outside it, there is an understanding that there is ongoing communication infrastructure or array of networks that Malawian students, their families, the instructors and indeed everyone in the target culture belongs to or has some access to. For example, schools in Malawi have committees comprising of selected parents of students who act as a link between a particular school and the rest of the surrounding community. So in essence, the framework takes a deliberate approach to assist students to acquire knowledge that will be easy to use outside of the classroom. As Krajcik and Blumenfeld (2006) contended, when learners acquire information through memorization of discrete facts that are not connected to important and meaningful situations, the superficial understanding that results is difficult for students to generalize to new situations.

Table 2: Situated Cognition Tasks that Guided Development

Situated Task	Sources
(1) Provide authentic context that reflects the way knowledge will be used in real life.	(Brown, Collins & Duguid, 1989; Collins, 1988; Gabrys, Weiner, & Lesgold, 1993; Harley, 1993; Herrington & Oliver, 2000 Palincsar, 1989, Resnick, 1987, Winn, 1993, Young, 1993).
(2) Promote reflection - opportunity for learners to compare with other learners, collaborative groupings of students	(Brown, Collins & Duguid, 1989; Collins 1988; Herrington & Oliver, 2000).
(3) Promote articulation – groups to enable articulation, publicly present arguments to enable defense of learning	(Bransford et al., 1990; Collins, 1988; Herrington & Oliver, 2000).
(4) Support collaborative construction of knowledge – classroom organization into small groups	(Herrington & Oliver, 2000).
(5) Provide coaching and scaffolding – a complex, open-ended learning environment, collaborative learning	(Collins, 1988; Griffin, 1995, Harley, 1993 Herrington & Oliver, 2000).
(6) Provide for authentic assessment of learning within the tasks –assessment to be seamlessly integrated with the activity	(McLellan, 1993; Herrington & Oliver, 2000; Young, 1995).
(7) Provide opportunities for role-playing - allow students to characterize and play various roles from content being taught	(Blatner, 2002; Van Ments, 1983).

Table 3: Strategies for Situated Task to Provide Authentic Context that Reflects the way Knowledge will be used in Real Life

Situated Task	Example: Teaching tenses of the English Language	Instructor Role	Student Role
<p>Provide authentic context that reflects the way knowledge will be used in real life</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teaching grammar in context can be a challenge to most practitioners (Swick, 2005; Weaver, 1996). • While teaching an important topic such as the Past Tense in English, begin topic by asking students to cite occasions from their everyday life in which the past tense has been used and for what purpose. Let students recollect scenarios making them cite specific examples and why they thought the past tense was used in such contexts. Students should be encouraged to draw experiences from everyday things like health, nutrition, farming, child care, religion, safety needs, vocational activities, politics, and others. Let rest of class provide input to examples cited. • Instructor introduces familiar stories from Malawian literature in English and asks students to identify them. • Instructor reads out a familiar Malawian story set in the past tense taken from any source such as a newspaper, magazine, novel or any type of popular local publication. • Instructor asks students to listen attentively. • At second reading, instructor asks some students to read out the story to fellow students. 	<p>Encourage students to draw examples from different contexts in everyday life, stimulate thinking among learners and facilitate class discussion, give feedback as needed, ask students to identify published Malawian stories in</p>	<p>Listen attentively, cite examples from day to day experiences with the Past Tense, take part in story identification, volunteer to read out story to class, take short notes, present views to rest of class, take part in thrash-out of modalities for field project.</p>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • While story is read, students take notes after which they individually present to whole class the past tense excerpts they got from the story. • Students who read out story are given sufficient time to take notes like everyone else. • Afterward, instructor discusses with rest of class each past tense example provided by students giving the latter feedback where necessary. • Instructor recaps by discussing with students formal and informal real life occasions in which the past tense is typically used. Let students cite specific examples from the context of their day to day life. • Engage students in a field project to look for other stories from a variety of literary genres and identify use of tenses in such stories for presentation in class on a set date. Students should be encouraged to work on this project with family members and other people in their community. • Same structure may be used to teach other tenses such as the Present Tense, Future Tense, the Past Continuous Tense, the Recent Past Tense and others. 	<p>English, read out story to class, ask students to read out story to fellow students, work with class to thrash out modalities for field project.</p>	
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Table 4: Strategies for Situated Task to Promote Reflection

Situated Task	Example: Teaching writing skills – writing an essay in English	Instructor Role	Student Role
<p>Promote reflection - opportunity for learners to compare with other learners, collaborative groupings of students</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In teaching a topic such as writing an essay in English, begin topic by asking students to explain the importance of developing good writing skills for life outside the classroom. For example, students could be asked to state the importance of developing writing skills for different contexts in life such as health, religion, education, farming, child care, medicine, law, politics, and others. Let individual students come up with views to be discussed among themselves with instructor providing support. • Instructor gives class a short writing exercise on a topic that is stimulating and practical in real life. For example, instructor may ask students to write about their views on a contentious subject such as the quota system for selecting Malawian students to university. • Students begin by brainstorming ideas on the selected subject as class and then go into individual writing using the ideas that come up in plenary. • After each student completes the task, instructor divides class in manageable groups. This may be done at random or according to the situation at hand. Ask learners to share the structure and content of their essay including language with group members allowing for each member to receive feedback from the rest of the group members. Let each group put on chat paper (for example), summary of what they find to be the best way to tackle such a writing exercise 	<p>Encourage students to draw examples from different contexts in everyday life, provide feedback to students on their views, facilitate class discussion, facilitate random (or situation-dependent) formation of groups, supervise group</p>	<p>Share views on writing from everyday life with rest of class, brainstorm ideas on selected topic for writing, share written work with other students, participate in discussion with group members, take part in presentations</p>

	<p>(writing an essay) as a result of the shared discussion they had in their group.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Let each group present their final thoughts to rest of class with instructor giving feedback to each group and rest of class weighing into each presentation. • This type of lesson may require a double period class. • Engage students in a field project where they would be required to write a longer essay on a different topic from a field different from the one they practiced on. Students should be encouraged to work on this project with family members and other people in their community. • Use same structure to teach other types of writing in English. 	<p>work, help students with the process of writing, provide feedback to groups, work with class to thrash out modalities for field project.</p>	<p>to rest of class, take down important points from instructor feedback and comments from fellow students, weigh in to other students' presentations, take part in thrash-out of modalities for field project.</p>
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Table 5: Strategies for Situated Task to Promote Articulation

Situated Task	Example: Teaching speaking skills – speaking in public	Instructor Role	Student Role
<p>Promote articulation - groups to enable articulation, publicly present arguments to enable defense of learning</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In teaching a topic such as speaking in public, begin by engaging students in a discussion on occasions that require people to make a public presentation on a variety of topics in everyday life. Students should be encouraged to draw from speaking occasions in areas such as health, nutrition, farming, child care, religion, safety needs, vocational activities, politics, education and others. Let individual learners suggest such types of occasions with other learners expressing their views on the same. • Instructor leads students in an exercise where they (the students) suggest topics from day to day life that one would make a public presentation on. Allow all students to provide input in selecting the most stimulating and contentious topics from the rest. • Depending on class size, instructor facilitates random (or situation-dependent) formation of an even number of groups. Instructor further gives directions for holding a debate between groups. Let group members confer before staging debates between two groups at a time with each group taking sides on a contentious topic such as pros and cons of allowing Malawian presidents to vie for a third term of office. Let members of two debating groups (at a time) present arguments on a topic to defend their knowledge and beliefs with rest of class being audience. 	<p>Encourage students to draw examples from different areas in everyday life, provide feedback to students on their views, lead learners in topic selection, enable random (or situation-dependent) formation of groups, supervise group work, provide directions for holding debates,</p>	<p>Share views on occasions that require making public presentations, provide views on topics for debates, confer with group members before staging debates, participate in debates, write down</p>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recap by asking learners to come up with challenges they faced during the exercise with instructor providing feedback for future improvement. • This type of lesson would be good for a double period English class. • Engage students in a field project where they would be required to take part in other public speaking events with people in their community where they would be required to make a diary of the benefits they get and challenges they face while doing such an exercise for presentation at a set date. 	<p>make judgments to lead class on as events unfold, provide after-debate feedback, work with class to thrash out modalities for field project.</p>	<p>main points as debate unfolds, weigh in to after-debate discussion, take part in thrash-out of modalities for field project.</p>
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Table 6: Strategies for Situated Task to Support Collaborative Construction of Knowledge

Situated Task:	Example: Teaching the Passive Voice in English	Instructor Role	Student Role
<p>Support collaborative construction of knowledge – classroom organization into small groups</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In teaching a topic such as the Passive Voice in English, instructor begins lesson by asking students what the Passive Voice is (Loberger, 2001; Swick, 2005). Let students come up with varying definitions from their general knowledge and at the end consolidate all suggested definitions into the correct one. • Instructor asks individual students to cite scenarios they have encountered the Passive Voice in their everyday life and why they think the Passive Voice was used in the scenarios cited. Encourage students to vary contexts as much as they can. Possible contexts could be in health, religion, politics, vocational activities, religion, farming, nutrition, child care and others. Let rest of class weigh in to individual suggestions. • Instructor randomly (or according to the situation at hand) assigns small groups. Instructor distributes handout containing two familiar stories properly selected from a local Malawian newspaper, magazine or any other source. Within the small groups, instructor asks students to read one story carefully and identify all instances in which the passive voice has been used. • Instructor allows members of each small group to discuss what they find and ask them to go a step further to identify the function which each passive voice 	<p>Encourage students to draw examples from different areas in everyday life, assign small groups, create a safe environment for small groups to conduct discussions, provide feedback and encouragement, monitor progress in small groups, facilitate whole class discussion</p>	<p>Cite scenarios they have encountered the Passive Voice in everyday life, weigh in to other students' suggestions, participate in small group discussions, make a presentation to whole class with</p>

	<p>expression plays in the story. Instructor goes around class, supervises groups and offers feedback and encouragement while students work.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Instructor asks each small group to present to whole class the passive voice expressions they identified from the story they read and the functions such expressions play in advancing the storyline. • Recap with a plenary discussion of the functions identified through the small group exercise. • Engage students in a field project where they would be required to collect passive voice expressions used in different social setups in their community. Students should be encouraged to work on this project with family members and other people in their community. A list comprising passive voice expressions and contexts in which they were used should later be brought to class for presentation and discussion on a set date. • The same structure may be used to teach the Active Voice, infinitives, gerunds, tenses, phrasal verbs and other topics in English language and grammar. 	<p>on functions identified in small groups, work with class to thrash out modalities for field project.</p>	<p>fellow group members, weigh in to whole class discussion, take part in thrash-out of modalities for field project.</p>
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Table 7: Strategies for Situated Task to Provide Coaching and Scaffolding

Situated Task	Example: Teaching phrasal verbs in English	Instructor Role	Student Role
<p>Provide coaching and scaffolding – a complex, open-ended learning environment, collaborative learning</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Situated learning sees the teacher’s role in coaching by observing student, offering hints and reminders, providing feedback, scaffolding and fading, modeling as integral to the learning situation (Herrington & Oliver, 2000). • To teach a topic such as phrasal verbs in the English language, begin a lesson by asking students to come up with phrasal verbs they have encountered in their everyday life. Students should be encouraged to cite use of phrasal verbs in contexts such as health, nutrition, farming, child care, religion, safety needs, vocational activities, politics and others. List all suggestions on the board. Discuss each suggestion with class and determine if it does qualify as a phrasal verb in the context in which it was used and what purpose it serves. Make relevant corrections where necessary with consent of class. When accurate list is complete, discuss with class how the listed phrasal verbs are formed, their meanings and in which other contexts they can be used. • Instructor gives students an exercise where they would, for example, write a page-long story in the past continuous tense (for example) from their everyday life that connects the phrasal verbs the class listed on the blackboard. • Depending on what students suggest, listed phrasal verbs could for example include: burn down, keep up, put up, look up, look for, look forward, write down, team up, and so on (Sroka, 1997). 	<p>Encourage students to draw examples from different areas in everyday life, provide feedback to students on their views, facilitate random (or situation-dependent) formation of pairs, create community feel (Bonk & Reynolds, 1997), support</p>	<p>Identify phrasal verbs from day to day life, work in pairs to produce a phrasal verb write up, be assertive about problems faced during writing task, weigh in to problems being faced in other pairs, pairs with a particular</p>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Let students write the story in pairs. As they write, go around continuously, providing hints on how to construct the story in the past continuous tense using the given phrasal verbs, encourage pairs to be assertive, probe students for problems they face while doing the task, support pairs continuously, communicate problems being faced by each pair to the rest of the class and ask for solutions, let learners weigh in to problems faced by other students in their pairs, offer hints to the class as a whole, make sure all concerns are addressed openly and that each pair completes the task. • Let all pairs submit their written stories. After all write-ups are graded, recap by listing common errors and challenges from the write-ups and wrap up by discussing them with whole class. • This type of lesson would be good for a double period English class or more. • Engage students in a field project where they would be required to collect phrasal verbs used in different social setups in their community. Students should be encouraged to work on this project with family members and other people from their community. A list comprising phrasal verbs and contexts in which they were used should later be brought to class for presentation and discussion on a set date. • Same structure can be used to teach a variety of other topics in English language and grammar. 	<p>students in their pairs, probe students on problems they face during the exercise, ask whole class for solutions to arising problems, facilitate progress and completion of task, work with class to thrash out modalities for field project.</p>	<p>strength on a particular task should help those without, turn in written work, take part in recap and reflective discussion, take part in thrash-out of modalities for field project.</p>
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Table 8: Strategies for Situated Task to Provide for Authentic Assessment of Learning Within the Tasks

Situated Task	Example: Using poetry to facilitate vocabulary development	Instructor Role	Student Role
<p>Provide for authentic assessment of learning within the tasks – assessment to be seamlessly integrated with the activity</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assessment can no longer be viewed as an add-on to an instructional design or simply as separate stages in a linear process of pretest, instruction, and posttest. Rather, assessment must become an integrated, ongoing and seamless part of the learning environment (Young, 1993). • Helping students to acquire vocabulary may be a challenge to teachers. A literary genre such as poetry can be used to teach and assess vocabulary development in an authentic context. • Begin by asking students to cite examples of words typically used in certain fields in everyday life. For example, students could cite examples of words that are typically used in areas such as law, education, religion, politics, farming, vocational activities, health, medicine, child care, and others. • Distribute to students in their groups numerous popular Malawian poems in English that are set in varying contexts. Instructor asks students in each group to sample the poems randomly distributed to them and select two that they find appealing to them. Let students quickly identify new words in the two poems and present to the class as a whole their reasons for selecting the poems and the new words. Depending on how students respond to task, allocate maximum points of say 20 for successfully completing this task with a rubric that may be broken down as follows: Five points for selecting two poems, five points for justifying the selections, five marks for quickly identifying new words and five points for presenting to the rest of the class. 	<p>Encourage students to draw examples from everyday life, facilitate random (or situation-dependent) deformation of groups, supervise and support students in their groups, facilitate progress and completion of tasks, facilitate presentations, facilitate final discussion, take arising</p>	<p>Participate in group tasks; brainstorming, best poem selection, identifying new words and their meanings, and identifying tone of poems. Discuss what they liked/disliked about poems, ask instructor questions where necessary, write a review</p>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students read slowly and between the lines this time and decide in their groups whether each of the two poems' tone is a sad one or happy one. Students look for more new words from the poems and also write down the meanings of all the identified new words in the context of the poems and without using a dictionary before presenting their written thoughts to rest of class. • Depending on how students respond to task, instructor allocates maximum points of say 20 for successfully completing this task with a rubric that may be broken down as follows: Five points for determining tone, five points for producing a final list of new words, five points for determining meanings of words and five points for presenting their thoughts to the class. • Students briefly discuss what they liked/did not like about the poems, write a brief review of one poem, and write another stanza for one of the two poems using relevant vocabulary. Present final write-ups to rest of class for feedback. • Depending on how students respond to task , allocate maximum points of say 40 for successfully completing this task with a rubric that may be broken down as follows: Ten points for a brief discussion of what they liked and disliked 10 points for writing a brief review of one poem, five points for each of the two stanzas written, and 10 points for making the final presentation. • Instructor wraps up by discussing with class (as a whole) challenges for doing the various tasks, taking questions from students and making clarifications. • Apart from using poetry, other literary genres such as short stories may also be used to teach vocabulary. 	<p>questions, provide clarification where necessary, assign grades to students' performance on tasks.</p>	<p>of poem, write a new stanza for selected poem, take part in presentation of thoughts to class, weigh in to whole class discussions, take part in wrap up discussion.</p>
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Table 9: Strategies for Situated Task to Provide Opportunities for Role-Playing

Situated Task	Example: Using role plays to teach tenses in English	Instructor Role	Student Role
<p>Provide opportunities for role-playing - allow students to characterize and play various roles from content being taught</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Role-playing exercises can be hard work for the instructor, both in preparation and in execution, but the work tends to pay off in terms of student motivation and accomplishment (Blatner, 2002; Van Ments, 1983). • Role-playing can be used to teach a variety of topics in English language and grammar. An example could be using a role-play to teach the Future Tense in English. • Instructor asks students to cite occasions in which the Future Tense has been used in their day to day life. Contexts could include health, nutrition, politics, vocational activities, child care, religion, farming, and others. Let class weigh in to suggestions from individual students with instructor facilitating the discussion. • Instructor briefs class on a role play to be conducted to teach the Future Tense. Instructor divides class into groups for the conduct of the role-play. Explains to group members that class will (for example) simulate the Malawi Parliament in the role play (politics). Instructor further briefs students on the setting of the role play, in this case, resembling parliament sitting with members from the government side attempting to answer questions from members from the opposition side about projects that the Malawi Government pledged to complete for the people of Malawi. 	<p>Facilitate class discussion on occasions students have encountered the Future Tense in everyday life, brief class on role playing a non-scripted play, facilitate random or situation-dependent formation of groups, brief learners on forms of the Future Tense,</p>	<p>Participate in discussion on everyday occasions they have encountered the Future Tense, take part in allocation of characters with other group members, take part in role play performances, take notes while others</p>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Instructor explains that a non-scripted play will be used to run this theme with conflict being created where members from the government side will make pledges and opposition members will come in with the argument that government seldom fulfills all its pledges. • Instructor further advises students to use the Future Tense as much as they can throughout each play. • Instructor explains that the Future Tense in English comes in four forms and that all forms can be used (Loberger, 2001; Swick, 2005). These forms are: Simple future which uses will and be going to. For example: We will construct the school in the year 2013. Future continuous tense which uses will be and present participle. For example: You will be regretting your actions. Future perfect tense which uses will have plus past participle or be going to plus past participle. For example: You will have completed constructing the hospital in Nkhatabay District or: You are going to have finished your work by the time you come back from Lilongwe. Lastly, the future perfect continuous tense which uses will. For example: You will have been waiting for more than three years. • Allow group members to allocate characters to one another with instructor giving goals to be achieved by each character in the play. Make sure each character know their goals very well as they go into role-playing. • Instructor clearly outlines his/her expectations of the participants. Explains to group members where exactly an argument will start and end. Emphasizes the 	<p>assess students' level of English proficiency so it can assist role allocation, run performances, facilitate peer debriefing, facilitate final reflective discussion, work with class to thrash out modalities for field project.</p>	<p>perform, take part in peer debriefing, take part in final reflective discussion, take part in thrash-out of modalities for field project.</p>
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	<p>need to use the Future Tense as much as they can.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Give time to all groups to look over their characters so they can get into the roles but do not allow them to rehearse. Let groups perform one after another with those not performing taking notes on the performance of those on stage. • After each group performs, let students debrief one another on their use of the Future Tense from the notes they took. Instructor comes at end with a reflective discussion with class as to what they have learned with students asking questions where necessary. • This type of lesson would be good for a double period English class. • Community life being popular in Malawi, engage students in a field project where small groups would be required to conduct role plays to practice use of other tenses in different settings with family members and other people in their community. Students should be asked to make a diary of lessons learned and challenges faced during the project for presentation in class at a set date. • Same structure can be used to teach other tenses and indeed any other topic in English language and grammar using different themes and setting of the role plays. 		
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Chapter 6: Summary and Observations

This chapter provides a summary for the study and also looks at its contributions to the fields of instructional design and technology and pedagogy for English as a second language in Malawi. Also, limitations and recommendations for future research based upon this study are suggested.

Summary of Study

The purpose of the present study was to develop a framework for teaching L2 English as a situated practice in Malawi. An in-depth review of the literature related to the research problem was conducted and a criterion for the study, based upon seven characteristics of situated cognition theory was used as a basis for operationalizing seven tasks. Each of the situated tasks was operationalized and presented in a table format that delineated a template-like structure that instructors would use to train pre-service teachers of English. Also, from English as an L2 perspective, development of the framework was guided by views of eight English methodology faculty members from Malawi's five teacher training institutions. Example topics from Malawi secondary school English language and grammar curriculum were used to illustrate the structure.

As Richey and Klein (2007) observed, in the instructional design process, many expert review studies collect data directly from persons serving as subject matter experts. The present framework was evaluated and validated by a situated cognition expert and three of the eight English methodology faculty members interviewed at the analysis stage for alignment with situated cognition construct and practicality in the Malawian English as an L2 classroom respectively. Two different instruments were expressly developed to collect formative evaluation

data from these two groups of reviewers. From the feedback, revisions were made to the prototype to produce the present artifact.

It was planned from the onset that the framework would be used by university faculty members in Malawi to train pre-service teachers to employ a contextualized language approach in the teaching of topics in English language and grammar. It must however be pointed out that being a framework and not a lesson plan, it would be important for practitioners to study it wholly and embrace the philosophy that it advocates and apply it in training pre-service teachers of English rather than use it as a step by step guide in teaching. It is expected that English methodology faculty members would study the framework and use it to train pre-service teachers from the perspective of what would be happening in the secondary school English classroom. To that end, it (the framework) delineates templates that show exactly what a teacher-in-training would be required to do in a classroom situation including roles that students would also be required to perform. So university English methodology practitioners in Malawi would essentially assume the new pedagogy to help them improve upon strategies they have been using to train English teachers.

Implications of Study

The present study goes in line with current trends in the field of instructional design and technology where developmental studies are being seen as the right way to advance direction in the discipline. In fact, Reeves et al. (2005) observed that developmental research can contribute to the field as it can inform the field of instructional design “as it may well advance the quality and usefulness of a field that is presently at risk of becoming inconsequential and irrelevant” (p. 110) through the ineffective media comparison studies. Actually, Reeves (2000) pointed out that “if educational technologists want to be more socially responsible, they should pursue

developmental goals” (p. 24). So, the framework comes to be of essential relevance and importance to the field of instructional design and technology as it provides a model for the use of theory to drive effective instructional practice.

The literature reviewed did indicate that situated cognition provides a more authentic learning experience (Brown et al., 1989; Collins, 1988; Collins, Brown & Newman, 1989; CTGV, 1990). The present framework has been created to inform future teaching of English as an L2 in Malawi. The literature also identified the gap that while situated strategies have shown to improve teaching in various areas throughout the world, those strategies are not in use in Malawi especially in the English as an L2 classroom (Harley, 1991; Herrington & Oliver, 2000; Herrington, Sparrow, Herrington & Oliver, 1997; Griffin & Griffin, 1996; Lave, 1988; Mondada & Doehler, 2004). To that end, a different way to teach English as a second language more meaningfully in Malawi has been identified based on the literature. The features contained in the framework have been derived from situated cognition and they serve to contextualize the teaching of various topics in English language and grammar. This, in essence, solves the problem where teaching of English as an L2 in Malawi was to a large extent being done using strategies that did not enable learners to seamlessly close gap between what they learn and how those skills would be used in real life outside of the classroom. So, essentially, conduct of the study has supported the creation of the framework informed by the literature and guided by input of educational experts and practitioners who will be employing these strategies.

Study Limitations

The framework has been predominantly developed to be used in Malawi. From the analysis phase, its development was guided by views and practices of English methodology faculty members in Malawi’s five secondary school teacher training institutions. For example,

the eight faculty members emphasized the importance of developing the framework around the four language skills; listening, reading, writing and speaking. To that end, there was deliberate effort in the development process to vary content in the examples used in the framework across these important four skills in language teaching. Furthermore, learning materials and aids used in the examples are typically Malawian including literary genre pieces, names of places and so on. It must further be pointed out that views from English methodology practitioners on the potential challenges the framework would face in Malawi were also taken into consideration in its development. Such challenges included lack of time and space allocated to a teaching period, practicing teachers who are reluctant to embrace change, a school system which is examination oriented, the willingness of the Ministry of Education to have the framework implemented, high expenses associated with implementing the framework and also the observation that its implementation might demand a paradigm shift in terms of teaching and learning materials. For these reasons, the framework is to a large extent good for use in Malawi but may work in other countries with minor modifications. Also, while the framework was evaluated by a situated cognition expert and English methodology practitioners, pilot-testing it would help guide development of the final version before implementation.

Future Investigations

This study was instigated by the need to employ appropriate strategies in the teaching of English as an L2 in Malawi. English is not only taught as an L2 in Malawi but also as an official language which plays an important social and economic role. To that end, the study responds to the need to improve pedagogical practices in the English as an L2 classroom in the southern African country. Implementation of the framework would have the benefit of promoting meaning making in the English as an L2 classroom in Malawi. It must finally be pointed out that future

research inquiries could look at the impact of the implementation of the framework and suggest ways that would further improve the new pedagogy for the betterment of the lingua franca language in the southern African country.

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Appendix A

Interview Protocol for English Methodology Faculty Members

My name is Mapopa Sanga and I am doing a study that will enable me develop a framework for teaching L2 English as a situated practice in Malawi. Of particular interest in this research is to find out the types strategies you use to teach English as a second language.

- Reminder all answers will remain anonymous and confidential, to be used for data analysis.
- Obtain signature on informed consent form.
- Ask for permission to audiotape the interview.
- Proceed with the rest of the interview

Goals

1. When training pre-service secondary school teachers of English, what goal(s) do you set in mind to achieve during the time you teach them an English methodology course?

Teaching Philosophy

2. As a methodology faculty member, what teaching philosophy or learning theory beliefs do you hold and how are those reflected in your teaching?

Instructional Strategies

3. What instructional strategies do you use in the classroom to train pre-service secondary school teachers of English?
4. Would you explain why you use the instructional strategies identified in your preceding response?
5. Do you encounter any problems with any of the instructional strategies you have identified? (If yes), would you explain what such problems usually are?
6. In your opinion, what types of instructional strategies are appropriate for training pre-service teachers of English in Malawi? Why do you think the types of strategies you have identified are appropriate?

Assessment Strategies

7. How about assessment, what strategies do you use to assess your students' work in the English methodology class in the course of a semester?
8. Do you encounter any problems with any of the assessment strategies identified in the preceding question? (If yes), would you explain to me what such problems usually are?
9. As a faculty member, what assessment strategies do you teach to your students for use during their secondary school teaching of English?

10. During the time you supervise English teachers-in-training; do your student teachers encounter any problems in using the assessment strategies you teach them to use? (If yes), would you explain to me what such problems usually are?

Class Activities

11. What kinds of activities do you engage your students in during an English methodology class?
12. What impact do you think the activities you have mentioned have on students' mastery of skills in English methodology?

Instructional Strategies for use in Secondary Schools

13. As a faculty member, what instructional strategies do you teach to your students for use during their secondary school teaching of English?
14. Would you explain why you think the strategies identified in question five above are the appropriate ones for teaching English as a second language?
15. During the time you supervise English teachers-in-training; do your student teachers encounter any problems while using the instructional strategies you teach them? (If yes), would you explain to me what such problems usually are?

Proposing a Pedagogy

16. If I were to propose a framework that includes strategies that promote authentic learning in the English as an L2 classroom, describe to me what some of the advantages or challenges for using such an approach would be.

Anything Else

17. Is there anything else you would like to say about strategies for teaching English as an L2 in Malawi?

Closing

Thank you very much for your time.

Appendix B

Invitation to Study Participants

February 20th, 2011

Dear Sir/Madam,

INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN MY STUDY

I am a Malawian student studying for Ph.D at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University in the United States. I will be conducting a study that will enable me develop a framework for teaching L2 English as a situated practice in Malawi. I would therefore like to interview you on the strategies that you use to train pre-service teachers of English in Malawi.

Should you accept to participate, I will serve you with a consent form between March 1st and 6th 2011 which you will study and later sign. I will collect the form from March 9th after which I will engage you in an interview which will run for approximately 45 minutes.

I look forward to hearing from you.

Mapopa W. Sanga

(msanga@vt.edu)

Appendix C

Informed Consent for Participants in Research Projects Involving Human Subjects

Title of Project: Development of a Framework for Teaching L2 English as a Situated Practice in Malawi.

Investigator: Mapopa W. Sanga

I. Purpose of this Research/Project

The purpose of this research is to develop a framework for teaching second language English as a situated practice in Malawi. The framework will be used by faculty members to train pre-service teachers of English to employ a contextualized language approach to teaching English.

II. Procedures

You will be interviewed for about 45 minutes about your experiences in employing various strategies for training pre-service teachers of English. The interview will be recorded and notes will be made about the interview. You will only be asked to sit for one interview. The interview will take place at the institution where you teach. After the interview, the researcher will type a transcript of the interview. At least three attempts will be made to contact you. You will be invited to read the transcript and make comments. A time and place to read the transcript will be selected. You may read the transcript in the presence of the researcher. If necessary, the researcher will read the transcript to you.

III. Risks

Apart from sitting for the interview for about 45 minutes, there are minimal risks associated with the present study.

IV. Benefits

No promises or guarantees of benefits have been made to encourage you to participate. However, by participating in the study, you will be playing an important role in the improvement of the pedagogy for teaching English as an L2 in Malawi.

IV. Extent of Anonymity and Confidentiality

Every effort will be made to hide your identity in any written work resulting from this study. Pseudo names will be used to identify you in any written materials. The researcher will try to minimize the possibility of identifying other people you may mention. Fake names will be used in any printed materials. Within the transcripts, you will be identified by a number. Digital data and transcripts from the interview will be saved in a protected file on the researcher's computer. The researcher is the only individual who will have access to the recordings. Copies of the

transcripts may be viewed by the researcher or other members of his graduate committee. All data will be destroyed after dissertation defense of the study.

VI. Compensation

There will be no money given to you for participating in this study.

VII. Freedom to Withdraw

You are free stop participating in this study at any time. You may feel free to not answer any questions. If there are circumstances which arise and it is determined that you should not continue as a subject, the interview will end.

VIII. Subject's Responsibilities

I voluntarily agree to participate in this study. I have the following responsibilities:

- I agree to answer questions honestly. Initial _____
- I agree to allow the researcher to record the interview on tape. Initial _____
- I agree to allow the researcher to use a non-identifying direct quote. Initial _____

X. Subject's Permission

I have read the Consent Form and conditions of this project. I have had all my questions answered. I hereby acknowledge the above and give my voluntary consent:

_____ Date _____

Participant signature

Mapopa Sanga, Investigator e-mail: msanga@vt.edu

Dr. Barbara Lockee, Supervising Faculty member e-mail: lockeebb@vt.edu

Appendix D

IRB Approval



VirginiaTech

Office of Research Compliance
Institutional Review Board
2000 Kraft Drive, Suite 2000 (0497)
Blacksburg, Virginia 24060
540/231-4606 Fax 540/231-0959
e-mail irb@vt.edu
Website: www.irb.vt.edu

MEMORANDUM

DATE: February 23, 2011

TO: Barbara B. Lockee, Mapopa Sanga

FROM: Virginia Tech Institutional Review Board (FWA00000572, expires October 26, 2013)

PROTOCOL TITLE: Development of a Framework for Teaching L2 English as a Situated Practice in Malawi

IRB NUMBER: 11-194

Effective February 23, 2011, the Virginia Tech IRB Chair, Dr. David M. Moore, approved the new protocol for the above-mentioned research protocol.

This approval provides permission to begin the human subject activities outlined in the IRB-approved protocol and supporting documents.

Plans to deviate from the approved protocol and/or supporting documents must be submitted to the IRB as an amendment request and approved by the IRB prior to the implementation of any changes, regardless of how minor, except where necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subjects. Report promptly to the IRB any injuries or other unanticipated or adverse events involving risks or harms to human research subjects or others.

All investigators (listed above) are required to comply with the researcher requirements outlined at <http://www.irb.vt.edu/pages/responsibilities.htm> (please review before the commencement of your research).

PROTOCOL INFORMATION:

Approved as: **Expedited, under 45 CFR 46.110 category(ies) 6, 7**

Protocol Approval Date: **2/23/2011**

Protocol Expiration Date: **2/22/2012**

Continuing Review Due Date*: **2/8/2012**

*Date a Continuing Review application is due to the IRB office if human subject activities covered under this protocol, including data analysis, are to continue beyond the Protocol Expiration Date.

FEDERALLY FUNDED RESEARCH REQUIREMENTS:

Per federal regulations, 45 CFR 46.103(f), the IRB is required to compare all federally funded grant proposals / work statements to the IRB protocol(s) which cover the human research activities included in the proposal / work statement before funds are released. Note that this requirement does not apply to Exempt and Interim IRB protocols, or grants for which VT is not the primary awardee.

The table on the following page indicates whether grant proposals are related to this IRB protocol, and which of the listed proposals, if any, have been compared to this IRB protocol, if required.

Invent the Future

VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY
An equal opportunity, affirmative action institution

Date*	OSP Number	Sponsor	Grant Comparison Conducted?

*Date this proposal number was compared, assessed as not requiring comparison, or comparison information was revised.

If this IRB protocol is to cover any other grant proposals, please contact the IRB office (irbadmin@vt.edu) immediately.

cc: File

Appendix E

Rubric for Evaluation of the Framework by English Methodology Faculty Members

The following rubric has been designed to seek feedback from you as to whether the framework would be practical in an English language class. The framework will be used by university faculty members who train secondary school teachers of English. It will serve to guide them in the teaching of topics in English language and grammar as a situated practice. Please provide your feedback in the spaces provided after a question for each of the seven features of situated cognition.

Following the rubric, you will find a few additional questions giving you the opportunity to explore the framework in its entirety and offer some additional feedback. Please provide as much feedback as you are able and feel free to direct any questions to me at any time throughout the review process.

Situated Cognition Feature	Instructor Role	Student Role	Relevance of Example
1. Provide authentic context that reflects the way knowledge will be used in real life.	<p>Is the instructor role adequately defined to effectively deliver content in an English language class?</p> <p>If yes, explain how.</p> <p>If no, what should be done to improve the instructor role?</p>	<p>Is the student role adequately defined to participate fully?</p> <p>If yes, explain how.</p> <p>If no, what should be done to improve the student role?</p>	<p>Would the example used be relevant in an English language class?</p> <p>If yes, explain how.</p> <p>If no, what should be done to improve the example?</p>
2. Promote reflection – opportunity for learners to compare with other learners, collaborative groupings of students.	<p>Is the instructor role adequately defined to effectively deliver content in an English language class?</p> <p>If yes, explain how.</p> <p>If no, what should be done to</p>	<p>Is the student role adequately defined to participate fully?</p> <p>If yes, explain how.</p> <p>If no, what should be done to</p>	<p>Would the example used be relevant in an English language class?</p> <p>If yes, explain how.</p> <p>If no, what should be done to improve the example?</p>

	improve the instructor role?	improve the student role?	
3. Promote articulation – groups to enable articulation, publicly present arguments to enable defense of learning.	<p>Is the instructor role adequately defined to effectively deliver content in an English language class?</p> <p>If yes, explain how.</p> <p>If no, what should be done to improve the instructor role?</p>	<p>Is the student role adequately defined to participate fully?</p> <p>If yes, explain how.</p> <p>If no, what should be done to improve the student role?</p>	<p>Would the example used be relevant in an English language class?</p> <p>If yes, explain how.</p> <p>If no, what should be done to improve the example?</p>
4. Support collaborative construction of knowledge – classroom organization into small groups.	<p>Is the instructor role adequately defined to effectively deliver content in an English language class?</p> <p>If yes, explain how.</p> <p>If no, what should be done to improve the instructor role?</p>	<p>Is the student role adequately defined to participate fully?</p> <p>If yes, explain how.</p> <p>If no, what should be done to improve the student role?</p>	<p>Would the example used be relevant in an English language class?</p> <p>If yes, explain how.</p> <p>If no, what should be done to improve the example?</p>
5. Provide coaching and scaffolding – a complex, open-ended learning environment, collaborative learning.	<p>Is the instructor role adequately defined to effectively deliver content in an English language class?</p> <p>If yes, explain how.</p> <p>If no, what should be done to</p>	<p>Is the student role adequately defined to participate fully?</p> <p>If yes, explain how.</p> <p>If no, what should be done to</p>	<p>Would the example used be relevant in an English language class?</p> <p>If yes, explain how.</p> <p>If no, what should be done to improve the example?</p>

	improve the instructor role?	improve the student role?	
6. Provide for authentic assessment of learning within tasks – assessment to be seamlessly integrated with the activity.	<p>Is the instructor role adequately defined to effectively deliver content in an English language class?</p> <p>If yes, explain how.</p> <p>If no, what should be done to improve the instructor role?</p>	<p>Is the student role adequately defined to participate fully?</p> <p>If yes, explain how.</p> <p>If no, what should be done to improve the student role?</p>	<p>Would the example used be relevant in an English language class?</p> <p>If yes, explain how.</p> <p>If no, what should be done to improve the example?</p>
7. Provide opportunities for role playing – Allow students to characterize and play various roles from content being taught.	<p>Is the instructor role adequately defined to effectively deliver content in an English language class?</p> <p>If yes, explain how.</p> <p>If no, what should be done to improve the instructor role?</p>	<p>Is the student role adequately defined to participate fully?</p> <p>If yes, explain how.</p> <p>If no, what should be done to improve the student role?</p>	<p>Would the example used be relevant in an English language class?</p> <p>If yes, explain how.</p> <p>If no, what should be done to improve the example?</p>

Additional Questions

1. In general, do you think the features of this framework would be practical in an English language class? If yes, explain why.
2. If no, in question one above, explain what would make use of the features of this framework impractical in an English language class.
3. Looking at the framework as a whole, what would you want changed in order to improve its potential to improving teaching and learning in an English language class?

Thank you very much for participating in this study.

Appendix F

E-mail to Situated Cognition Expert Reviewer Requesting Participation

E-mail Subject Line: Invitation to Evaluate my Study

Dear Professor,

I would like to invite you to evaluate a framework I am developing as part of my dissertation work in Instructional Design and Technology (Ph.D.).

The title of my study is: Development of a Framework for Teaching L2 English as a Situated Practice in Malawi. I am specifically developing the framework using situated cognition theoretical construct as a basis. I and my advisor, Dr. Barbara Lockee (lockeebb@vt.edu) agree that you would provide the most valuable input that would enable me revise the product for improvement. Should you accept this invitation, I will go ahead and serve you with my dissertation prospectus so you can study it.

Thank you in advance,

Mapopa W. Sanga

(Ph.D. Candidate, Instructional Design and Technology).

Appendix G

Criteria for Evaluation of the Framework by a Situated Cognition Expert Reviewer

Using the following questions as a guide, evaluate the framework for teaching L2 English as a situated practice. Please provide as much feedback as you are able so I can use it to revise the framework.

1. Having reviewed the framework for teaching English as an L2 in Malawi as a situated practice, would you say it conforms to the principles of situated cognition theory?
2. Would you explain how well each of the seven situated cognition features included in the framework conforms to the principles of the construct?
3. In what ways would you say the framework deviates from the principles of situated cognition theory?
4. From a situated cognition point of view, how do you think each of the problems identified in question three above would specifically be addressed in order to improve the framework?
5. Overall, how does this framework align, or not align, with the elements of situated cognition?
6. Are there any recommendations you would make to improve this framework in regards to alignment with situated cognition theory?
7. Bearing the elements of situated cognition in mind, what else would you like changed in order to make the framework better?

Thank you very much for participating in this study.

Appendix H

Themes from Situated Cognition Expert Reviewer

September 16th, 2011

Reviewer: Situated cognition expert

Strengths:

The general argument for using a “situated cognition” or “community of practice” frame for this dissertation is well developed and supported with a broad range of literature.

The scholarship and quality of thinking/writing that is apparent in the sections reviewed are pleasing.

The framework conforms to the principles of situated cognition theory.

Each of the seven “situated cognition features” present reasonable and relevant considerations for design. The general sense of what needs to be done in design is captured very well, and aligned with relevant literature.

There are no glaring deviations from situated cognition theory, there is generally good alignment.

Proposed Revisions:

As much as possible, embed the tasks and exercises posed in some relevant cultural practice. Make tasks less discrete and make sure all of them are inside a real context other than the typical school culture.

Need for more culturally rich situation or practice in implementation in which the instructional moves can be enacted.

Make instructor and student roles fit into less formal apprenticeship situations than school culture.

All changes effected on: September, 18th, 2011

Appendix I

Themes from English Methodology Expert Reviewers

September 4th, 2011

Reviewer's Name: Mr. Damalekani

Task: Provide authentic context (Table 2).

Strengths:

Instructor role presented in detailed but simplistic way

Instructor role is appropriate and clearly presents what is required of instructor

Task relevant for Malawi teachers who hardly undergo INSERT

Task places duty of sourcing teaching materials on teacher

Task relevant to Malawi considering poor access to popular media materials on the part of students

Student role adequate

Activities meant for students are of an active nature, make them active participants in learning process

By letting students connect what is planned in lesson and their personal experiences, students are presented with opportunity to make sense of what is being presented not just in technical terms but more importantly in operational sense appropriate to day to day experiences.

Example appropriate in an English class, teaching of grammar in context is well presented in line with what Ministry of Education propagates.

Proposed Revisions:

Apart from instructor, the role to read out a story should also be given to students.

Allow students to be initiators in the student-teacher interaction. E.g. they should be allowed to suggest the source of materials, ask questions etc.

Make example utilize reading and writing skills.

Task: Promote Reflection (Table 3).

Strengths:

Instructor role adequately defined. Since example more student-centered, role of teacher becomes that of managing class work and providing feedback where necessary. Makes instructor a real facilitator.

Allowing students to compare work brings in a real sense of reflection.

Example is relevant, incorporates all four language skills, connection between class work to real world makes it meaningful and most likely to be effective.

Example gives instructor freedom to make decisions based on contextual issues, this facilitates creativity on part of instructor and guards from rigid conformity to guidelines which is common among teachers in Malawi.

Proposed Revisions:

Give instructor freedom to supervise formation of groups according to situation rather than make it random all the time.

Task: Promote Articulation (Table 4).

Strengths:

Role of instructor adequately defined and most likely to enable effective delivery of content

Due to active student participation, role of instructor as facilitator is well pronounced through description of managerial/administrative activities/roles.

This presentation helps instructor understand that their role is not imparting knowledge but rather facilitating learning through provision of conducive environment for learning.

Student roles well-presented requires all of them to take part in the lesson.

Personal experiences maximize participation.

Class choice of debatable topics helps learners to weigh ideas on merit.

Example relevant in an English class, really promotes articulation of ideas as students are provided with activities that stimulate meaningful interaction that connects class content to real-life issues.

The fact that activities involve all class members makes the example appropriate for helping all students attain a good degree of public speaking.

Proposed Revisions:

Present this in a way that allows instructor to make situation-based judgments.

Student roles to include writing an outline/main points as it is an important element of public speeches. Outline will act as guide during debate or public speaking.

Task: Support collaborative construction of knowledge (Table 5)

Strengths:

Instructor roles broadly stated and thus provide room for making decisions based on instructor judgment of situation.

Class organization into small groups is effective for interaction.

Instructor's role greatly promotes collaborative construction of knowledge.

Working in small groups facilitates collaboration among students

The fact that the discussion starts from what students know and progresses to knowledge sharing provides opportunity for sharing of knowledge and hence constructing meaning in a collaborative way.

Proposed Revisions:

Improve role of participation during class presentations which seems impractical.

Considering class sizes in Malawi, it is impractical to have groups of three present findings and then discuss them as a class unless lesson takes whole day. Avoid prescribing size of groups to make class presentations practical.

Task: Provide coaching and scaffolding (Table 6).

Strengths:

Instructor takes an active role in knowledge construction by getting involved in the actual activities not just setting them. This helps instructor to direct learning according to desirable goals and thus provide appropriate guidance and coaching.

By probing for answers and asking whole class questions, instructor takes some sort of traditional approach where instructor dictated pace and direction of learning which is in most cases appropriate and popular in the teaching of grammar in Malawi.

Students working in pairs provides a context in which they will scaffold each other based upon their level of knowledge.

Grammatical aspect has been learnt in context familiar to students and even more, in the context of all four language skills.

Activities put both students and instructor as active participants and hence provide two levels of scaffolding; student-student and instructor-student.

Proposed Revisions:

Clearly spell out role of individual students on their expertise in order to create some sort of knowledge difference or gaps that will facilitate meaningful scaffolding.

Task 6: Provide for authentic assessment of learning within tasks (Table 7).

Strengths:

Role of supporting students clearly stated.

Instructor is clearly advised to treat class as comprising individual students and therefore provide support to students in small groups based on individual problem.

There are active and meaningful activities at both individual student's and group levels that will really provide a clear basis for assessing learning.

Students have been given a power-laded role of asking questions which is crucial for getting clarification in order to complete tasks.

The example is generally appropriate, it removes stress associated with assessment as it the assessment is embedded in the task and not coming after the task.

This is also relevant as it provides feedback to the teacher in real time.

Proposed Revisions:

Make clear role of instructor as they assess students' work rather than the latter grading each other's work which is detested by students in Malawi.

Considering that Malawian students prefer a red pen in their exercise book, provide proper guidance for the instructor to devise a proper way of assessing imbedded tasks so that students don't lose interest in the assessment.

Task: Provide opportunities for role playing (Table 8).

Strengths:

Instructor has clear guidelines of what is expected of them.

Instructor provided opportunities for role playing through provision of instructions and facilitation of role-play and explanation of grammatical aspect to be learned.

Students are given roles that make them active participants; they are not idle at one point.

Proposed Revisions:

Include another instructor role as: Assess the English proficiency of students to ascertain level of structuring of role play in order to make activities more successful.

Make sure students do not rehearse play to avoid them relying on rote learning.

General Observations:

Features of framework are practical in an English language class since English is a skills subject learnt through practice.

The collaborative nature of the features of the framework provides the required opportunities for practice.

The collaboration propagated provided a conducive environment for scaffolding among students and between students and the instructor.

It will help instructors provide their students with both the classroom and outside classroom skills effectively without undermining the other, a scenario that has troubled Malawian teachers for long.

Most importantly, this is a framework that I have learnt a lot from and will surely influence my teaching immediately.

I like the assessment task best; why should we separate assessment from teaching? What you have done is commendable!

This is what African students should do when they study abroad; create something to be used in their own country.

All changes effected on: September 5th, 2011.

Appendix J

Themes from English Methodology Expert Reviewers

September 7th, 2011

Reviewer's Name: Professor Mjojo

Task: Provide authentic context (Table 2).

Strengths:

For each stage of situated task, there is a clear statement of the instructor's task. Instructor will hence not be a loss to know what to do at every stage.

Grammar topics cited are present in current Malawi English language teaching syllabi for junior and senior secondary school.

Procedure followed to teach grammar topics is in line with approach in current secondary school curriculum.

Proposed Revisions:

Extend "stimulate thinking among learners" to "stimulate thinking among learners and lead class discussion.

Task: Promote reflection (Table 3).

Strengths:

Role of instructor comes in a very logical order thus enabling smooth progression of the lesson.

Use of group and class discussion would help to achieve the purpose of this particular task:
Promoting reflection.

The essay students are asked to write is a typical example students are required to write.

This type of writing is also useful in real life (e.g., writing for publication in newspapers etc.).

Proposed Revisions:

Add instructor role: Lead class discussion

Include in student roles: Take down important points from instructor feedback and comments from fellow students.

In the third bullet, students should share not only the structure and content of essays but also its language.

Task: Promote articulation (Table 4).

Strengths:

Working in groups will help promote articulation.

Student roles clearly defined, in particular, use of group discussion. This will lead to full participation.

Proposed Revisions:

Add instructor role: Supervise students as they hold discussion in groups

Add student role: Confer with group members before staging debates.

Several debating teams after group discussion might not work in one class. Consider improving on how they would go about it.

Task: Support collaborative construction of knowledge (Table 5).

Strengths:

Framework has outlined all necessary roles for effective small group discussion.

There is adequate and clear description of student role, groups of three would indeed maximize participation.

Active Voice relevant topic in Malawi secondary school English language curriculum

Grammar topic is well integrated with language skills.

Proposed Revisions:

None

Task: Provide coaching and scaffolding (Table 6).

Strengths:

Instructor roles clearly stated and relevant to achievement of the situated task.

Use of pairs will mean maximized student participation.

Proposed Revisions:

Very involving class, consider splitting it over two periods

Task: Provide authentic assessment of learning within tasks (Table 7).

Strengths:

Good scheme for assessing students is provided, makes it easy for instructor to implement task.

Most tasks are being done in small groups, this will make students participate fully.

Example is very relevant because current secondary school language curriculum also encourages use of literary works to teach elements of language.

Proposed Revisions:

Add instructor role: Assign grades to students' performance of tasks

Add student role: Discuss what they liked/disliked about poems, write a review of poem, and write another stanza for selected poem.

Task: Provide opportunities for role playing (Table 8).

Strengths:

Students well prepared to be able to perform role play successfully.

Final reflective discussion led by instructor would help students improve their future role plays and use of the grammar skills learned.

Activities suggested would actively and fully engage all students.

Role play is one of the T/L techniques highly recommended for teaching secondary school English but least used, this will encourage teachers.

Proposed Revisions:

Preparation for play performance and a reflective discussion may require more time; consider splitting class over two periods.

Consider asking students to use the future tense as much as they can, not strictly future tense.

General Observations:

The framework is great! Examples are practical in a Malawian English language classroom and are in line with the provisions and aspirations of current syllabi. Actually, the framework goes beyond the stated syllabi to provide illustrations on how instructors could practically contextualize the teaching and learning of English language while integrating grammar with language skills and literature in a learner-centered fashion.

The other beauty about this framework is that it can be easily manipulated or adapted and be used to teach other related topics that have not been illustrated at great length.

All changes effected on: September 8th, 2011.

Appendix K

Themes from English Methodology Expert Reviewers

September 8th, 2011

Reviewer's Name: Mr. Chikapa

Task: Provide authentic context (Table 2).

Strengths:

The example brings out the real life situation in which the grammatical concept is used and not out of context where it may look abstract.

Proposed Revisions:

Instructor should facilitate learning by organizing content to involve students in lesson.

Task: Promote reflection (Table 3).

Proposed Revisions:

Instructor to ask students to brainstorm ideas on the topic given and ask them to use some or all of those ideas in their writing.

Add instructor role: Help learners with the process of writing.

Add student roles: brainstorm, discuss ideas/points needed in the process of writing.

Task: Promote articulation (Table 4).

Strengths:

Instructor has organized content well and facilitated students' learning.

Students are actively involved and take responsibility of their learning.

The example gives an authentic practice of the language skill.

Proposed Revisions: None.

Task: Support collaborative construction of knowledge (Table 5).

Strengths:

Instructor organizes content well and facilitates learning. Choice of stories from newspapers adds more power to it as it provides learners with real life situation/context in which the concept is used.

Students are actively involved and take responsibility of their learning.

The example gives learners an authentic context in which the grammar concept is used.

Proposed Revisions: None.

Task: Provide coaching and scaffolding (Table 6).

Strengths:

Instructor organizes content well and facilitates students' learning.

Students are actively involved and take responsibility of their learning.

Proposed Revisions:

Make the phrasal verbs task less daunting, many Malawian teachers and students struggle with phrasal verbs.

Task: Provide for authentic assessment of learning within tasks (Table 7).

Strengths:

Instructor organizes content well and facilitates learning. Choice of popular poems from Malawi adds more power to it and it provides learners with real life situation/context in which the words are used.

Students actively involved and take responsibility for their learning.

Example gives learners authentic context in which words are used.

Proposed Revisions: None

Task: Provide opportunities for role playing (Table 8).

Strengths:

Instructor organizes content well and facilitates learning.

Students actively involved and take responsibility for their learning.

Example gives learners an authentic context in which the tense in question is used.

Proposed Revisions: None.

General Observations:

Features of the framework would be practical in an English language class because they enable learners to integrate language skills with grammar and that provides contexts/real life situations

in which certain difficult concepts/topics in English are used thereby making learning/teaching of the same simple.

All changes effected on: September 9th, 2011.