STUDENTS AND TEACHERS' VIEWS ON FACTORS THAT HINDER OR FACILITATE SCIENCE STUDENTS IN MASTERING ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES (EAP) IN RWANDA HIGHER EDUCATION

BEATRICE KAREKEZI UWAMUTARA MIRONKO

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of

Philosophy in the Department of Applied Linguistics/Language Education in the Faculty of

Education,
UNIVERSITY of the

University of the Western Cape

Supervisor: Professor SIVAKUMAR Sivasubramaniam

May 2013

Students and teachers' views on factors that hinder or facilitate science students in the mastery of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) in Rwanda Higher Education

Béatrice K. U. Mironko

KEY WORDS

EAP	
Postcoloniality	
Higher Education	
Language Policy	
Curriculum	
Science	
Genres	
Academic Writing	
KIST	
Rwanda	UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE

ABSTRACT

Students' and teachers' views on factors that hinder or facilitate science students' mastery of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) in Higher Education in Rwanda

Béatrice K.U Mironko

PhD in the Department of Applied Linguistics/Language Education, Faculty of Education, University of the Western Cape

This study explores second and third year students' and teachers' views on factors that hinder or facilitate the mastery of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) in the Science and Engineering Technology Higher Institutions of learning in Rwanda (KIST) and seeks to establish the extent to which the current programme meets the needs of the students. This is done by highlighting a whole range of teacher and student perspectives on the EAP programme. Two key requirements invite students to write their academic assignments in the form of research proposals and research project reports. In order to help them perform well in their field subjects, KIST introduced a department of English with a General English Programme under the umbrella of the then School of Language Studies (SORAS) in 1997. The department's first assigned mission was to teach English to students in all departments in a bid to support and encourage them to cope with their field specific courses which are taught in English.

Rwanda's National Council for Higher Education (2007), on language teaching and learning, states that the trio, that is Kinyarwanda (the Mother Tongue and national language) and English and French (as foreign languages), should be taught at primary, secondary and higher

education levels in order to reconcile the divide between Rwandan returnees (who had lived abroad for many decades) and locals. It is in this context that KIST, one of the institutions of higher learning, adopted the bilingual policy to cater to students' needs to learn both French and English as media of academic communication.

However, after Rwanda's integration into the East African Community and the Commonwealth, English has been officially adopted as the medium of instruction in all schools and higher institutions of education. That is why there was a sudden language shift in 2006 from French to English as a medium of instruction at KIST. French and Kinyarwanda are now merely taught as subjects. The motive behind the move was to cater for Rwanda's needs to fully participate in the economic community of East African Community in general and in the global economy in particular. The move drastically affected students' ability to read and write English in their respective disciplines. The move also affected lecturers of other speciality areas.

UNIVERSITY of the

To avert the obvious challenges emanating from this sudden shift in language policy, the Institute introduced the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP) programmes under the then KIST School of Language Studies (SOLAS) and the KIST Language Centre. However, appropriate instructional materials for such courses have not been easily available. Given this situation, English teachers have had to create their own materials rather than the existing generalised and pre-packaged language teaching materials. As a result, students' specific needs for induction into a scientific writing community at tertiary level have rarely been met. It is against this background that the study seeks to investigate factors that are facilitating and the mastery of EAP. The study operates on post-colonial/post-structuralist theoretical perspectives. These were founded on the analytical framework that is guided by thematic and/or conceptual underpinnings of language policy in the post-colonial Africa. Thus, English Language Teaching (ELT), developed into

English as a second and additional language that is multi-semiotic and multi-modality in EAP and science genres, focusing mostly on its academic literacy, identity, ideology, power and agency, as well as its investment in language teaching and learning and the scientific community practice.

Using a combination of ethnographic principles/practices like participants' observations, one-to-one interviews, focus group discussions and documentary review in data collection, the study utilises thematic/conceptual analysis to draw its conclusions. Drawing from the above conceptual perspectives, therefore, as well as from the methodological approach, this thesis emphasises the fact that the inability of students to successfully master EAP is caused by various factors, including the choice of English language learning materials. Contradictory approaches to language learning and to academic literacy practices create further challenges to the Rwandan students' advancement in English mastery. These same practices also serve to limit the students' ability to learn this language and complicate their access to local and global cultural exposure that is necessary for their socio-economic development of Rwanda.

The study also reveals lack of appropriate discursive competence and multi-semiotic repertoires as some of the major factors inhibiting students' academic progress. This is partly explained by the nature of the English language learning and teaching materials that is in use which neither provides general nor disciplinary specific academic and learning opportunities in English. Similarly, a range of structural and professional constraints on 'agency' exists for teachers of English in Rwanda as an additional language to the students, including lack of induction into scientific discourses or the EAP community of language practice. The overall lack of power and agency by teachers also contributes to constraints and constrictions in English language learning practices for these students in Rwanda. The study, however, observes that this situation is not only peculiar to KIST, as it is also common in almost all tertiary institutions in Rwanda.

Specific recommendations are made in the study to improve the quality of English language learning and teaching in general and EAP in particular at KIST as an institution of higher learning, through the establishment of a clearer language policy and training opportunities for staff to update and develop required language skills in EAP, especially with regards to writing skills in sciences and engineering.

The government of Rwanda, under the umbrella of Rwanda Education Board (REB) and the contribution of English language experts at the Institute, should provide a clearer direction of the language policy and curriculum that addresses Rwandan students' specific needs. KIST, as an institution of higher learning, should value and facilitate the teaching and learning of English in general and the teaching of EAP in particular, bearing in mind its assigned mission. The management of the Institute should encourage interaction between EAP and subject area lecturers to discuss and agree upon, text types to be used by EAP lecturers in teaching. KIST management should also provide room for regular interactions with English lecturers to listen to their views and offer them further language training opportunities in order to update and develop the required skills in EAP, especially with regards to writing skills in science and engineering.

DECLARATION

I declare that Students' and Teachers' views on factors that hinder or facilitate students success in mastering English for Academic Purposes (EAP) in Rwanda Higher Education is my own work, that it has not been submitted for any degree or examination in any other university, and that all sources and quotes have been fully acknowledged.

Béatrice K. Mironko

May 2013

Signed	
~- g	
	UNIVERSITY of the
	WESTERN CAPE

DEDICATION

To my dear Children Dascha Mwiza, Andrea Keza, Issa Idende, Cindy Urugeni, and Naissa Umutoni, for your love, understanding, encouragement, positive attitude (jokes, laughs, dance) and patience during the times of my long absences. I dedicate this thesis to you.

To Cindy I say, now you can put back my picture in your room on which you wrote "Dr. Béatrice Mironko" in 2008 when I started this doctoral programme. I think, presently, it makes sense.



ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

First I wish to thank the Father Almighty God through Jesus Christ for the grace and blessings He poured on me from the start of this programme till its completion, making my dream come true. This doctoral thesis award is the most rewarding achievement ever for me, as I am celebrating my fiftieth birth anniversary next year in November 2014. This achievement will always be remembered by me and my family.

I am indebted to my supervisor, Professor Sivakumar Sivasubramaniam for his assistance, rigorous critique, insights, patience and trust in my ability to conduct and complete this research. I have learnt a great deal under his supervision, tutelage and mentoring.

I also wish to thank the management staff of the Faculty of Education at the University of the Western Cape. I appreciate their support.

To Dr. Caroline Kerfoot and Ms. Margie Probyn, I thank you for your invaluable guidance and insights at the start of this academic journey.

To Dr. Monica van Heerden, I thank you from the bottom of my heart for editing my work.

I am profoundly indebted to my government, through Rwanda Education Board (SFAR), for sponsoring my doctoral studies. Further, I express my sincere gratitude to the then Rector of KIST, Professor Chrisologue Karangwa for his concern about my ability to bring about positive change to KIST Language Center (KLC).

I also thank all my KIST participants, teachers in the Department of English and all second and third year students who played some role in the process of my investigations.

My gratitude also goes to you all who have in one way or another assisted and/or encouraged me in this long academic journey. To mention but a few, Innocent Sebasaza Mugisha, Fred

Mugisha, Emma Rubagumya, Joseph Magambo, Patrick Ujwiga, Juvenal Biraguma, J.M.V Namahoro, Bertrand Bizimana and Alain Fredy Niyibaho. To all of you, I humbly request you to please accept here my sincere gratitude.

I am grateful to my Uncle and my Aunt, Kayitana Manzi Emmanuel and Rosette Hodari, for their love and care. I also would like, in a special way, to thank my cousin brother, Abbe Oswald Musoni for his tireless advice and support without which I would not have been able to continue on this programme.

Last but not least, I express my gratitude to my family: My father Mironko Ntampaka Leodomir, to whom this thesis is the fruits of the intellectual foundation he gave me and the discipline-oriented culture you induced in me at an early age. To my sisters and brothers, I am indebted to you for your encouragement and moral support during my studies. To you my seniors, Charlotte and Dr. Charles Mironko, I thank you very much for being my second parents. Charlotte, you have been my role model throughout my life. I am proud of you.

WESTERN CAPE

TABLE OF CONTENT

KEY WORDS	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
DECLARATION	vii
DEDICATION	viii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	ix
LIST OF ABREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS	XX
CHAPTER ONE: GENERAL INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Contextual Background: Socio-linguistic, political and economic situation	in Rwanda1
1.2 Rwanda Higher Education Language Policy and related challenges	
1.2.1 Pre- higher Education Period	3
1.2.2 Higher Education	
1.3 Statement of the problem	6
1.3.1 Introduction	6
1.4 Study objectives	9
1.4.1 Key objective	9
1.4.2 Specific objectives	9
1.5 Research questions	10
1.6 Epistemic Framework	11
1.7 Research Design and Method	12
1.8 Scope and Limitations	13
1.9 Summary of the Chapter	14

1.10 Outline of the thesis	.5
CHAPTER TWO: THE REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE1	6
2.1 Overview of developments in English and EAP language teaching1	.6
2.2 What is EAP?	20
2.2.1 Other factors that might hinder or facilitate students' ability to become part of a scientific academic discourse community2	21
2.2.2 Needs Analysis2	1
2.2.3 Course Design	2
2.2.4 EAP Curriculum and Teaching Approaches/Methods2	3
2.2.5 Teaching Programme/ Syllabus2	3
2.2.6 Teaching Four Language Skills in Science Context2	5
2.2.6.1 Effective Academic Reading as a Crucial Skill2	5
2.2.6.2 Academic Writing Skills	7
2.2.6.3 Adequate Speaking and Listening Skills2	7
2.2.6.4 Effective Study Skills2	8
2.2.7 Teacher Training/Development Programme	8
2.3 EAP literacies	9
2.3.1 What are the distinctive linguistic features of EAP literacy for science education?	
3	0
2.3.2 What are the conceptual and theoretical underpinnings of EAP?3	2
2.3.2.1 Post-colonial views of EAP	2

2.3.2.2 English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) and English for Specific	2
Academic Purposes (ESAP)	33
2.4.1 Definitions of genre from different schools of thought	42
2.4.1.1 Genre in Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL)	42
2.4.1.2 Genres in New Rhetoric (NR)	45
2.4.1.3 Genres in ESP (EAP)	46
2.4.2 Multimodal and multiliteracy genres and discourses in EAP	48
2.4.3 Genre and Text type	49
2.5 Writing in EAP and science disciplines	51
2.5.1 Disciplinary specificity in heterogeneous classes	52
2.5.1.1 Distinguishing disciplines from one another	53
2.6 Assessment and Feedback in EAP	59
2.6.1 Assessment	59
2.6.2 Assessment of student progress	60
2.6.3 Feedback	63
2.6.3.1 Feedback in a typical EAP class	64
2.6.3.2 The importance of feedback	65
2.6.3.3 Evaluation	66
2.6.4 Writing multimodal genres and discourses in EAP and science disciplines .	67
2.6.4.1 KIST students' limited academic writing skills	70

	2.6.5 Multimodal genres and discourses in EAP and science disciplines	71
	2.6.5.1 What makes science difficult for ESL students?	71
	2.6.5.2 Writing in science disciplines	73
	2.6.6 Challenges faced by writing using multimodal genres inscience disciplines	75
	2.7 Challenges of EAP in post-colonial Africa	76
	2.7.1 Challenges caused by the learning materials in foreign languages	78
	2.7.1.1 Identity, Ideology and Attitudes	80
	2.7.1.2 Agency, Power/Authority	83
	2.7.2 Disciplinary Specificity, Language and Literacy, Investment and Community of	
	practices	88
	2.8 English As A Second Language Curricula	88
	2.8.1 Assessment in Rwanda Higher Education	90
	2.8.2 Understanding Theories on Modes of Assessment	91
	2.8.2.1 Placement and Progress Tests	91
	2.8.2.2 Achievement Tests	92
	2.8.2.3 Alternative Multi-dimensional Tests	95
	2.8.2.4 Teachers' and Students' Perspectives on language and literacy learning in EA	P 99
	2.8.2.5 Effective Literacy Support for EAP Students	100
2	2.9 Summary of the Chapter	. 104
CF	HAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS	105

3.1 Introduction	105
3.1.1 A Walk on KIST Campus	105
3. 2 Choice of design and methods	108
3.2.1 Ethnography: Principles, Approaches and Applications in Education	al Research109
3.2.1.1 Definition of Ethnography	109
3.2.1.2 Approaches	109
3.2.1.4 Ethnography in educational research	111
3.2.1.5 Ethnography in Research on Academic Literacy	112
3.2.2 Access to the site	115
3.3 The Research Site	119
3.3.1 Selection of the site and subject profile	
UNIVERSITY of the	101
3.4 Ethical Issues	
3.5.1 Introduction	
3.5.2 Piloting	124
3.5.3 Observation in EAP classroom	125
3.5.4 Observation in Discipline classrooms	125
3.5.5.1 The Student Focus Group Discussions	127
3.5.5.2 EAP One-on-one Teacher Interviews	129
3.6 Data Analysis Procedure	130
3.7 Scope and Limitation of the Study	133

3.8 Summary of the Chapter	135
CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS	136
4.1 Introduction	136
4.2 SECTION A: Presentation and analysis of data: Field descriptions	139
4.2.1 Overview of the classes	139
4.2.1.1 Class 1: The teaching of listening and writing in Second year group	141
4.2.1.2 Class 2: The teaching of speaking to the Third year group	143
4.2.1.3 Class 3: The teaching of reading for the Third Year Group	143
4.2.1.4 Class 4: The teaching of writing in Third Year Group	145
4.2.2 Observations in Science classrooms	149
4.2.2.1 Biology	149
4.2.2.2 Physics	150
4.2.2.3 Computer Engineering and environmental Technology (CEET)	150
4.2.2.4 Electrical and Electronic Engineering (EEE)	150
4.3 SECTION B: Data Presentation and Analysis: Students' Perspectives	152
4.3.1 The purpose of the Section	152
4.3.1.1 Students' perspectives: Ironies of colonialism versus post-colonialism on	EAP
	153

4.3.1.2 Student perspectives: Ideologies of language learning and academic literacy...171

4.3.1.3 Students' perspectives: Course Content	178
4.4 SECTION C; Teacher Perspectives on EAP and Teaching Methods	184
4.4.1 The purpose of the Section	185
4.5 SECTION D: Data Presentation and Analysis: Materials/Texts	216
4.5.1 Introduction	216
4.5.2 The National Policy on Language Teaching in Higher Education (NPLTHE))217
4.5.2.1 Introduction	217
4.5.3 EAP Text Genres	224
4.5.4 Science and Engineering Text Genres	232
CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION OF	
FINDINGS	241
UNIVERSITY of the	• 40
5.1 Introduction	
5.2. 1 The purpose of the Section	242
5.2.2 Field notes from EAP classrooms	242
5.2.3 Discussion of the findings from Science classes	248
5.3 Section B: Discussion of findings from students' perspectives on EAP	250
5.3.1 Identity, Curriculum/Programme, Investment, Professionalism, EAP Theore	etical
background	250
5.3.2 Multimodal/Multisemiotic Repertoires, Institutional management	252
5.3.3 Discussion and interpretation of findings from feedback on writing	253
5.4 Discussion of findings from EAP teachers	255

5.5 Section D: Discussion and Interpretation of findings from EAP Documents	267
5.5.1 Introduction	267
CHAPTER SIX:CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMEN	DATIONS
	276
6.1 Introduction	276
6.1.1 Genres, discourses and practices that students at KIST engage in	277
.6.2 The extent to which students' needs are met by the EAP programme at KIST	280
6.2.1 Academic literacy programme/curriculum/policy	280
6.2.2 Outdated materials, institutional management, professional practice, EA	νΡ
theoretical background, academic practices' culture of reading	281
6.2.3 Assessment/testing, feedback and needs analysis	282
6.3 Students' and teachers' understanding about the process of language and literacy I	earning283
6.3.1 Process of language and literacy learning	282
6.4 Students' understanding of the postcolonial approach to learning of EAP	282
6.4.1 The influence of NPLTHE officials' attitudes towards EAP	282
6.5 Other factors that may hinder or facilitate students' ability to become part of academic discourse community	
6. 5.1 Students' scientific academic discourse community	283
6.6 Conclusions from observations and document analysis	284
6.6.1 Implementation of National language Policy	284
6.7 Recommendations	286
6.7.1 KIST management with respect to students ana EAP teachers	286
6.7.2 Students	287
6 & Limitations of the study	201

6.9 Implications for further investigations	291
6.10 Conclusion	293
LIST OF REFERENCES	294
LIST OF APPENDICES	317



LIST OF ABREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ELT: English Language Teaching

ESL: English Second Language

EAP English for Academic Purposes

EGAP: English for General Academic Purposes

ESAP: English for Specific Academic Purposes

BICS: Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills

CALP: Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency

REB: Rwanda Education Board

SFAR: Student Financing Agency

EPLM : Ecole Pratique de Langue Modernes,

UNR: Université National du Rwanda

KIST: Kigali Institute of Science and Technology

KLC: KIST Language Center

EEE: Electrical and Electronic Engineering

MEE: Mechanical Engineering

UNDP: United Nations for Development Programme

UNESCO: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

MINEDUC: Ministères de l'Education (Ministry of Education)

CEET: Computer Engineering and Environmental Technology

TOEFL: Test of English as a Foreign Language

IELTS: International English Language Tests

TWE: Test of Written English

CAT: Continuous Assessment Tests

ETE: Electrical and Electronic Engineering

MEE: Mechanical Engineering

SOLAS: School of language studies

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE 4.1: EAP AND NCEC GENRES	232
TABLE 4. 2: SCIENCE MATERIALS' GENRES	238



LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: From Chamot & O'Malley, 1994:199	50
Figure 2.2: Components of language curriculum development evaluation Brown & Hudson, 2002:29)	` 1
Figure 2.3: Agency, department, discipline and context	86
Figure 2.4: From LeCompte & Preissle, 2003	99
Figure 6.1: Three sources are combined. First is the source from Ken Hyland's (2006) The	ory on EGAP and
ESAP; second source is from a Models by Lea & Street (1998:172) on Writing in higher educ	ation; and the last
source is a Model from Cope & Kalantzis (1993:196) on teaching and learning experiences	290



CHAPTER ONE: GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 Contextual Background: Socio-linguistic, political and economic situation in Rwanda

English language teaching depends on specific institutional, geographic and cultural contexts (Burns & Coffin, 2001). Geographically, Rwanda is a land locked country situated in East-Central Africa. It is also one of the countries in the Great Lakes region, with four neighbouring countries; Uganda in the North, Burundi in the South, Tanzania in the East, and Democratic Republic of the Congo in the West. Its population is estimated at 11.7 million, with Kigali, the capital city having close to a million people encompassing a total area of 26.3 square kilometres. Rwanda, which belonged to the German East Africa Company in 1890, was established as a result of what was known as the "Scramble for Africa" which took place between 1880 and 1900. During the First World War in 1916, Belgians occupied Rwanda and later combined it with Burundi under the name of Ruanda-Urundi. This was a combination of the present day countries of Rwanda and Burundi.

During World War II, Rwanda became a German colony and later on Belgium took over from them again. A decision was that the country became a UN trust territory in 1946 and was later administered as part of a Belgian colony in 1960.

The history of Rwanda even before independence was therefore marked by a lot of political instability which was mostly driven by those different and divisive political ideologies such as the introduction of identity cards bearing the ethnic names like Tutsi/Hutu by the Belgians in 1933. As a result, Rwanda experienced its first mass exodus of Tutsi people to neighbouring countries in 1959. Rwanda and Burundi later separated and Rwanda became an

independent state in 1962, and France first established diplomatic relations with Rwanda. French was made the second official language alongside Kinyarwanda, the home language.

Since the colonial era, French had been been used as the only international medium of instruction with English being merely taught as a subject until 1994. Even after the 1994 Genocide, French was still the medium of instruction in many public and private schools. The few private schools, whose medium of communication was English, mainly taught Rwandan pupils and students returning from Anglophone neighbouring countries and beyond.

The spread of the use of English in Rwanda has been largely due to the socio-political and economic reasons obtaining in Rwanda. Due to the multiple needs for international economic exchange, there has been a strong surge towards the increased use of English at the expense of French and other languages. In other words, the use of English as medium of communication medium has increased in recent years due to increased commercial transactions between Rwanda and the neighbouring countries such as Uganda, Tanzania and Kenya, where English is the main language of business. Moreover, top political leadership in Rwanda has tended to use English as their medium of communication both nationally and internationally.

Furthermore, after the 1994 Rwanda genocide period, different identities of Rwandese returned from Diaspora from all over the world and had to be accommodated in all domains of life, including education. Thus, the education sector had an important role to play in the rehabilitation of all returnees. As a result, English began to have a significant impact on education and politics in Rwanda.

1.2 Rwanda Higher Education Language Policy and related challenges

1.2.1 Pre- higher Education Period

Before independence in 1962, primary school education comprised two cycles. The first cycle of three years dealt with the apprenticeship of the learner to the basic reading and writing skills and dealing with basic mathematics. The second cycle also spanned three years and focused more on general or basic education. In both cycles, Kinyarwanda was the only language of teaching and learning while the emphasis was on English and French in private schools like minor seminaries and also in selected government schools. In 1990, primary education shifted to the six years cycle (from Grade One to Grade Six) and Kinyarwanda was only taught and used as a medium of instruction from first to third year, while from third year onwards, French was the medium of instruction (UNESCO – UNDP, 1997).

Secondary school level was also divided into two independent categories: a long cycle of six years, and a short cycle of four years. Both cycles were taught through the medium of French. Normally, this last phase prepared pupils for higher education. This cycle, known as the "cycle de-orientation" (Ordinary Level Year), also commonly known as "tronc commun", was spread over the first three years of that long cycle. From the fourth year onwards in this cycle, pupils were put into different sections like Arts, Biochemistry, Mathematics and Physics (UNESCO – UNDP, 1997). At the end of the six years, pupils had two choices, either they could either continue with tertiary studies or start working. At the end of the short cycle which stretched only over four years (from year one to year four), pupils were awarded a vocational certificate which allowed them to apply for technical jobs.

In 1996, the education system was revised and English language as a course subject was introduced in all primary schools from the third year and at secondary school level from the first year onwards (Ministères de l'Éducation, 1967). Currently, there is a trial training programme for primary and high school science teachers. They are trained on how to teach science subjects using the English language in place of the French medium of communication. That is why hundreds of English teachers from the English speaking neighbouring countries (Uganda, Tanzania and Kenya) were enlisted to offer English training programmes for Rwanda local teachers in order to help Rwandan teachers ready to teach science subjects in English well by 2009 academic year (Rwanda New Times, 2008; the Guardians, 2009).



1.2.2 Higher Education

Before 1990, only a few higher education institutions or schools taught learners in the medium of English. In most schools, English was not taught or used at all. English was mostly taught to students in the Faculty of Arts, those studying English as their academic option under the umbrella of English Language Teaching (ELT) at the National University of Rwanda (NUR). All other institutions used French as the medium of instruction (UNESCO – UNDP, 1997). In 1996/1997, when the bilingual education was piloted at NUR, the university registered new students for the apprenticeship studies in English and in French. Students from a French background learnt English and those with an English background learnt French. The piloting phase was initiated under Ecole Pratique des Langue Moderne, (EPLM). This is a department at the NUR dealing with language studies. This programme was mostly aimed at providing equal opportunities to students from French as well as English linguistic backgrounds. As a result of this integration, both languages were taught as subjects

under the programme called bilingual policy in education. However, in July 1997 the government acknowledged that this policy failed to address its desired mission (Ministères de l'Education, Projet RWA/97/006). After a thorough revision of the existing higher education system, members who attended a workshop on this matter comprising NUR academic staff, suggested the restructuring of the so-called bilingual policy and came up with another option, that of teaching all subjects in the medium of English at tertiary level in all departments.

The assumption then was that by the end of the academic year, students would have acquired sufficient English or French knowledge to be able to easily cope with their courses taught either in English and/or in French. Thereafter, similar programmes elsewhere in other institutions of higher learning were to be initiated.

The current teaching material programme that is used in teaching English in varied disciplines might present challenges. Most importantly, the assumption is that English teachers lack an informed understanding of EAP theoretical issues, while students seem to lack sufficient knowledge of this academic language, a situation which results in not being able to meet the academic needs of learning science. Neither English teachers nor science students show enough awareness of the differences existing between every day English language use and English language literacy within the context of science education (Lemke, 1993). For example, the everyday meaning of 'energy' is different to its meaning in a scientific context. This is why an investigation of this nature is needed, to find out the nature and impact for this problem.

1.3 Statement of the problem

1.3.1 Introduction

Although theorists on post-colonial development acknowledge the knowledge of English is an investment for the new economies, they argue that USA and UK exercise unequal treatment vis-à-vis their former colonies by means of their worldwide known power (Canagarajah, 1966). This makes it difficult for African students living in a multiingual environments to perform that well in English as a medium of communication, especially when the colonial perspective on English Language Teaching (ELT) assumes that one-size-fits-all and a unique theory applied to all educational contexts. (Canagarajah, 1996).

The break-through of EAP in any country depends on many factors as outlined by a number of expert practitioners. Flowerdew and Peacock (2001) and Hyland (2006) signpost a number of these factors that play an important role in successful teaching of EAP. These are the learning resources that are available to students which determine the success of EAP learning to students inside and outside the academic life, the methodology employed in specific EAP settings and the level of innovativeness. How these factors relate to the specified goals is also central to the success of EAP learning (Hyland, 2006). Furthermore, to ensure positive learning outcomes, the assessment procedures and strategies are counted as important by critically considering the purpose of the assessment.

In addition to all this, the success of EAP programmes also depends on the presence of a robust and vibrant programme evaluation system that is aimed at assessing whether EAP is meeting its assigned goals. Programme evaluation also informs the extent to which the course can be modified and re-directed towards the set goals of the programme. Finally, it is also purposeful to include a 'multi-dimensional assessment' approach to the evaluation of

students' progress on the programme (LeCompte & Pressle, 2003). This approach entails the inclusion of multiple choice, performance-based and portfolio assessments of students' work.

Based on the above mentioned criteria for successful EAP learning and acquisition of language skills, KIST's track record shows that the institution does not have the above prerequisites in place to ensure successful learning outcomes. In this study I will attempt to show that the process of shifting from the mother tongue or vernacular languages, in this case, Kinyarwanda, which has always been students' language outside and even in some instances inside the classroom, is often problematic to students (Lin & Martin, 2005). The latter makes it even more difficult for students to excel academically. Thus, the objectives advanced by KIST of introducing English and EAP programmes are of paramount importance, especially in averting what would be called the double task of students in the academic setting of KIST. Accordingly, this research anticipated to be able to highlight substantial challenges facing students at KIST in order to ensure eventual success in achieving adequate levels of English for academic purposes at the end of students' studies.

While I acknowledge that the transition from general English to academic English is a challenge, the suspicion is even more pronounced in pure sciences than in arts and social sciences because of the developmental level of the learners. To ensure that teaching practices recognise the particular subject matter and academic language levels of students in EAP programmes, there is need to develop a strategic teaching approach that takes account of the disciplinary specificity, discourse, genres and practices required by each field. It is against this background that this study seeks to investigate the factors that are hindering and facilitating the mastery of EAP. Consequently, the results derived from the KIST research project could depict a comprehensive picture of the kind of challenges that need to be addressed at this institution, but more probably also in other institutions of higher learning.

The success of primary and secondary education in any country depends on the quality of education throughout students' school careers, which in turn influences the overall success of the education system. In this regard, it is beyond controversy that the factors that influence the learning outcomes in Rwanda higher institutions such as KIST are clearly identified and subjected to the realm of national education policy's consideration and response.

Few considerations have set Rwanda's English for Academic Purposes as distinct from many other similar programmes and, consequently, render them as fresh in the academic debates. Firstly in Rwanda, the majority of the students still learn through the medium of French at high school and probably come to university equipped with very little knowledge of general English. They are not at all conversant with scientific English genres and discourses.

At university level, not only do students need to perform well in general English, they also need to be inducted into the scientific academic discourses in English for them to be able to meet the needs of their disciplines. The main cause of students' inability to cope with English has been their long exposure to the French medium of instruction. The possible alternative would be for students to start learning English as a foundation group and then to be taught the generic discourses and genres of the language, before progressing to the specific discourses and genres after mastering the former. In this study, I will endeavor to provide an analysis of a guided approach to the development and extension of students' existing knowledge in English. The second distinct feature of Rwanda's English for Academic Purposes relates to the political landscape which made Rwanda habitable for the Tutsi and moderate Hutus.

Having spent many years in exile, many of the Rwandan returnees came back with different language backgrounds, creating a multi-lingual setup for Rwanda. Furthermore, the children born to these returnees while they were in exile have had to surmount an added challenge of mastering Kinyarwanda, which obviously puts them at a disadvantage when they are taught

by teachers who may use Kinyarwanda in making illustrations and other explanations. Not only do these students suffer from the lack of knowledge of Kinyarwanda to understand illustrations and giving other explanations, they also have to battle with either English or French as mediums of instruction.

The EAP, as is commonly known, is difficult to acquire. It is more difficult for the students doing sciences since the specificity of science genres differs from those encompassed in the EAP course taught at KIST. KIST, as will be elaborated in Chapter three, is a typical case of a highly specialised and a science-oriented institution. These three distinct features provide a research agenda whose gap, besides not being fulfilled in recent scholarly work on the status of EAP in Rwanda, would also provide valuable insights to the other countries with similar socio-political backgrounds. The next section provides the research objectives which will inform the research questions.

1.4 Study objectives

1.4.1 Key objective

In view of the problem statement stated earlier, the main objective of this study is to explore students and teachers' views on factors that hinder or facilitate the mastery of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) at (KIST) in Rwanda.

WESTERN CAPE

1.4.2 Specific objectives

In order to explore the EAP needs of the science students and whether EAP teaching materials and methods meet these needs, the following objectives of the study were set up as follows:

- i) to investigate the discourses, genres and practices with which students in KIST need to engage in/with;
- ii) to determine the extent to which these needs are met by the academic literacy programme at KIST;
- iii) to explore teachers' and students' understanding of the processes of language and academic literacy learning;
- iv) to investigate how these understandings might affect students' mastery of EAP, and finally,
- v) to explore other factors that may hinder or facilitate students' ability to become part of scientific academic discourse community.

It is in view of the afore-mentioned problem and the research objectives that this study seeks to explore factors that influence students' success in mastering EAP at KIST in Rwanda. It attempts to do so by answering a number of research questions.

1.5 Research questions

- i) What are the discourses, genres and practices that students at KIST need to engage in?
- ii) To what extent are students' needs met by the academic literacy programme at KIST?
- iii) What are the teachers' and students' understanding of the process of language and literacy learning in terms of a constructionist approach?
- iv) How does students' understanding of the post-colonial approach to learning affect their performance?

v) What are the other factors that may hinder or facilitate students' ability to become part of a scientific academic discourse community?

1.6 Epistemic Framework

Students are expected to be equipped with writing skills if they are to be successful in their learning trajectory. They are expected to write assignments, examinations, project proposals, theses and industrial attachment reports. KIST students must familiarise themselves with ways of how to write different essays in terms of the introduction, body, conclusion and recommendations, all of which may include one or all elements of words, formulas, images, figures, tables and diagrams, as ways of reading and writing using diverse genres. Therefore, students need to master a multi-modal approach. A multimodal approach accommodates all the possible means we have to make to create meaning by means of language communication. It accommodates the specific ways that language users adapt to in order to fit into the twenty-first century world in the best ways of learning reading and writing, as we engage with the social and natural world (Kress, 2003). This means that EAP teachers should embrace the multi-modal approach to teaching reading and writing so as to enable science students to interpret better academic and professional texts, and be able to write adequately well within the professional parameters of the subject area. This is irrespective of whether a student is doing engineering, computer science or biology subjects. She/he is required to write in a certain academic style that is promoted by her or his field of study.

Therefore, students in science-related disciplines would feel more secure when using this multi-modal approach as opposed to the old traditional technocratic system of teaching that I believe is currently in place at KIST. In this study I will attempt to show how students and EAP teachers at KIST, can benefit from the different approaches to language studies. EAP

teachers will hopefully see the need to embrace this multi-modal approach in order to prepare for their students more holistically. The following section, which deals with research methodology strategies, sets out to explore the approach advocated in the study.

1.7 Research Design and Method

This study is ethnographically informed and describes the detailed complexity of everyday life of students on campus. Ethnography (Willet, 2012), combined with the notions of social constructivism (Knorr-Cetina, 2009), community of practices (Wenger, 1998) and methods of genre analysis (Swales, 1990) are the tools which provided my understanding of the ways individuals participate in academic life through their communicative activities as Hyland (2006) and Flowerdew and Peacock (2001) suggest. The data collection strategies and analytical framework I used are as follows:

• A pilot study with one EAP teacher and one student focus group was initiated as a way of tracking the comprehensibility of the research questions by the respondents and re-phrasing or reworking of the questions where necessary. The visits were organised with these participants once a week for six weeks.

UNIVERSITY of the

• EAP classes as well as selected courses in Physics, Biology, Electrical and Electronic Engineering (EEE) and Mechanical Engineering (MEE) were observed. My intention in attending EAP classes was to witness how EAP was taught, and I mainly looked at the kind of spoken or written discourses and genres that took place in teacher-student interactions, anticipating the question of how this contributed to the general understanding of language learning and teaching respectively. For the observation in the four courses in Biology, Physics, ETE and MEE, I intended to see whether the English language the local language or French teachers used ithese languages well to

communicate with students. In other words, I wanted to observe how subject teachers contributed to the students' academic English language development.

- Student Focused Group discussions were organized in order to listen to students'
 experiences on ELT in general language situations EAP in particular situations. I
 intended to compare their answers to what I had observed for validity and
 triangulation purposes.
- I conducted face-to-face interviews with EAP teachers. I wanted to hear individual teachers' opinions on the EAP programme, because I believed their teaching experiences were informed by varied ways they themselves understand and perceive EAP.
- Lastly I analysed EAP, Biology, Physics and Electrical and Electronic Engineering materials, past tests, examinations and assignment papers to see their interconnectedness.

UNIVERSITY of the

1.8 Scope and Limitations

Generally, students at KIST face various academic English literacy challenges. For the present study, nevertheless, it has not been feasible within the available period of interaction and resources that I possessed to include all issues related to EAP. Therefore, as one of EAP practitioners at KIST, I felt a strong commitment to only attend to and concentrate on exploring students' writing challenges for those students in the second and third year in Biology, Physics, ETE, and MEE. I anticipated that the outcomes from this study will provide an overall picture of the writing challenges that Rwanda higher education students are facing. Although they enrolled in different disciplines and fields in college, most of them went through similar linguistic landscapes while in primary and/or secondary school. I selected

second and third year students, roughly 43 of them from the departments of Biology, Physics, ETE, Civil Engineering and Information Technology (CEIT), Computer Engineering and Environmental Technology (CEET) and (MEE). I have also included all ten English teachers (eight teachers teach EAP and two teach general Englishteachers).

1.9 Summary of the Chapter

Structurally, I have explained the contextual overview of the socio-linguistic and political landscape of Rwanda in relation to language in education at primary, secondary and higher education. I mainly highlighted issues around EAP for science courses, language policies and their related challenges. Since I believe that until a problem is systematically addressed through formal research, we cannot see the unseen nor hear the unsaid in order to address a given problem, I have provided the rationale for the stimulus that motivated the "inner me" to satisfy my curiosity to further my study and therefore investigate the issue pertaining to the learning of EAP by students at KIST. I have also described the methodological research strategies within the frame of data collection and analysis which I believe to be the most appropriate for these kinds of enquiries. Key and specific research objectives were determined and questions formulated during the interaction with teachers and students to explore factors impacting on students' success and/or gaps in learning EAP. I have also described the methodological strategies within the frame of the data collection and analysis I believe to be the most appropriate for these kinds of enquiries. Key and specific research objectives were determined and questions formulated during the interaction with teachers and students to explore factors impacting on students' success and/or gaps in learning EAP. Lastly I have presented the scope and limitation for my study and suggested areas for possible further investigation.

1.10 Outline of the thesis

The thesis is organized into six Chapters with twelve appendices.

Chapter one introduces the study in providing the background and the rationale for the study. This Chapter also specifies the general and the specific objectives the study intends to meet, the research questions used to explore these objectives, the epistemic framework, design and strategies that the research project followed, the scope and limitations of the study as well as the summary of the overall Chapter.

Informed by the review of the literature and debates in the area of EAP for higher education, Chapter two explains the challenges of the teaching and learning of EAP for science education students in Rwanda, highlighting the role played by the national language policy as well as other factors that may influence EAP teaching and learning.

Chapter three provides the outline of the research design and methods which are predominantly based on ethnographic strategies directed at research.

The data coming from the field work, students' focused groups discussions, teachers' interviews, as well as language policy and school curriculum documents are expounded in Chapter four. In Chapter five the findings of the ethnographic research are discussed. Chapter six presents conclusions and future implications emanating from the study, along with recommendations and the limitations of the study.

CHAPTER TWO: THE REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

2.1 Overview of developments in English and EAP language teaching

The overall structure and organisation of this Chapter includes the review of the literature and the theoretical perspectives on English and English for Academic Purposes (EAP), focusing more on the study of English in science education at tertiary level. Two approaches or methods relying on Structural Linguistics and the current Communicative Approach are referred to. The study of English has gone through a number of changes/phases overtime.

In the 19th century, the Grammar Translation Method was traditionally used to teach Latin and Greek to students by scholars. The same methods were also used to teach modern languages like German, French and English. "A language cannot be taught, it can only create conditions for learning to take place" (Celce-Murcia, 1991:2), and can only be taught in context (Hadley, 2003). In the early 20th Century, de Sauzè introduced the Direct Method to the USA (Celce-Murcia, 1991). This effort failed to yield the required result to a great extent as there were not enough skilled teachers who were fluent in English. During the course of the 20th century, various approaches and methods were used to teach English to non-mother tongue speakers (Celce-Murcia, 1991). Apart from the two methods mentioned above, various other approaches were introduced in an attempt to promote English language learning. These included The Reading Approach, the Audio-lingual Approach in the US, the Situational Approach in the UK, the Cognitive Approach, the Affective-Humanistic Approach, the Comprehension-Based Approach and the Communicative Approach. Celce-Murcia (1991) concludes that in most of these approaches a structural syllabus was used. Both teachers and text-book writers followed these trends and developed their materials around grammar points. Teachers of English were seen as having all the knowledge on the subject which was merely banked onto the students to withdraw and use. The focus was on

the grammar rules, phonology, phonetics, translation methods and the like (Chomsky, 1970; Ivanic, 2004). When teachers use the structural approach in language teaching and learning, the grand theory is favoured more than the grounded theory. In the grand theory, teachers seemingly know everything at the theoretical level and have to transfer their knowledge to the recipients (students). Students absorb and give back all the knowledge as received from their teacher during presentations, tests or assignments, and this has been seen as a sign of good performance. This approach is still characterised by lack of students' voice and identity in their own learning (Canagarajah, 2002, 2006; Kumaravadivelu, 2006), lack of agency and creativity (Sinclair, 1999) on the part of students and teachers of English, and less attention is given to students' knowledge of the discipline/field of study. Hyland (2002: 33) finds that "an important aspect of the positivist-empirical epistemology is that it characterises a great deal of scientific endeavour on the authority of the individual as subordinate to the authority of language scientific procedure."

Although the study of EAP aims to help students to make sense/meaning out of the learning materials without academic knowledge and disciplinary grammar to be able to write it well in the science subjects (Hyland, 2000, 2006; Becher, 1989; Bourdieu and Passeron, 1996; Bruffee, 1986). Becher (1989:8) maintains that "each discipline must be seen as an academic tribe". Also, a concern has been raised that the purpose, context and the situation in which students learn English language is unique and essential in the teaching and learning of English and EAP (Hyland, 2006; Mohan, 2007).

The reasons for the shift from the structural linguistic to the current approaches to language teaching and learning are varied but complement each other. In the 1960s, the deficiencies of the audio-lingual methods (traditional), which focus on the performance of forms and structures of language, were said to encourage repetition and memorisation on the part of ESL students (Richards and Rogers, 2001: 158; & Kilfoil and van der Walt (1997:10). These

scholars acknowledge that the audio-lingual method, one of the traditional approaches to English language teaching, fails to address the students' communicative needs. The structural methods/approach focuses on the different ways of learning the first language, and any theory and/or practice from this approach cannot be helpful to the teaching and learning of English as a second language (ESL)/ or English additional language (EAL). Another reason for the failure of the structural methods has also been because students are not given sufficient input by their mentors to allow for real communication in English (output). The above-mentioned authors suggest a shift from the patterns to communication practice and from repetition to creative language production. They argue that the monotony of patterns, drilling, substitutions and memorization cannot create competence. On the contrary, they create demotivation on the part of the students. Furthermore, a question on the applicability of any particular method to the enormous diversity of students and their varied learning needs (Brown, 2001) emerges due to the importance practitioners give to needs analysis (Hyland and Hamp-Lyons, 2002). In the structural methods/approach, the specific teaching methods are prescriptive and inapplicable to divergent learning contexts. This is how the shift/change from structural to current approaches to language teaching and learning needs to come about.

It is argued that there is need for a shift from the traditional curricula to communication curricula and the resultant teaching methods that suits, promotes and implements appropriate, relevant and effective instruction for both classroom teachers and students (Hinkel, 2006). The EAP curricula that students at the tertiary level need, should allow them to develop their ability to use the medium of instruction in a multi-dimensional range of oral and written activities (North, 2000; Rosenfeld, Leung, & Oltman, 2001) and be able to access knowledge of English academic registers (Aschcroft, 2001). All these strategies are dependent on the context in which the learning and teaching of language takes place. Given that language education is to be seen differently in different contexts, Canagarajah (1999) suggests the

understanding of approaches to English and EAP teaching and learning in the perspective of Africa which has to be a different context on its own.

The era for communicative approach to English and EAP offers teachers of English and their students the power (Canagarajah, 1996; Hyland, 2000,), identity and power (Bourdieu, 1977; Cummins, 1996; West, 1992), voice (Norton, 1997; Thesen, 2006) and agency (Hyland, 2000) over their teaching and learning. It includes practice in which teachers basically build the grounded knowledge theory through which they give their students a voice and allow them to talk first about what they already know before they can incorporate the knowledge from the grand theory to deepen their existing knowledge (Kilfoil & van der Walt, 1997; Michael & Swain, 1980; Piaget, 1980; Richards and Rogers, 2001).

This approach also takes into account the fact that the practice required for students' academic success differs from one discipline to the other (Hairston, 1982; Hyland, 2006; Kuhn, 1970). Kuhn (1970) in his book, *The structure of scientific revolution*, reminds us that students who enter the discipline prepare for membership to its intellectual community by adherence to a paradigm shift that reinforces their learning. And yet, the EAP programmes do not always address this issue well enough. Hinkel (2006: 109) goes even further to suggest that "in view of the on-going development of L2 teaching as an expectation of what is current, innovative and central in L2, pedagogy today is likely to become a stepping-stone in the expansion and refinement of disciplinary knowledge".

In the next sections I attempt to tackle issues regarding EAP as it is taught at the tertiary level. Driven by Canagarajah's (2006) insight about questioning and researching EAP, two questions need to be answered. What is EAP? What is its raison d'être or rationale? For each question, I draw from but I am not limited to Hyland and Hamp-Lyons (2002) and Flowerdew and Peacock (2001) who provide insights on EAP as the major force in English

language teaching and research. I review the debates on EAP theories, methods and pedagogies that are likely to enhance the quality of EAP teaching and learning in science education.

2.2 What is EAP?

By definition, EAP is "the teaching of English with the specific aim of helping learners to study, conduct research and teach in that language" (Hyland, 2006:1). EAP refers to language research and instruction that focuses on the specific communicative needs and practices of particular groups in academic contexts, such as the grounding instruction in an understanding of cognitive, social and linguistic demands of specific academic groups (Scollon, 2001). It was developed as a response to a massive increase in the number of students pursuing their studies in English as a medium of instruction at tertiary education level. Therefore, EAP programme should be able to address issues to do with specialised kind of teaching of academic literacy practices such as writing notes taken from lectures, essays, peer discussions in tutorials and seminars, writing examinations, completing projects and theses, participating in assessment and giving feedback (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001; Hyland, 2006; Scarcella, 2003). The concept of EAP and the ways in which it is taught all respond differently to different needs. Four different spheres have been identified by Flowerdew and Peacock (2001).

Firstly, as mentioned above, EAP has been taught to non-mother tongue speakers for different purposes and different goals. In America and Britain, EAP has been taught and has been consolidated over the past number of years (Bourdieu, 1996; Kandhiah, 2001). Secondly, EAP is taught to English second language/additional language classes in the former colonial territories of Britain and functions as the medium of instruction. Thirdly,

EAP has been taught in Western Europe, Japan, China, Latin America and Francophone Africa (such as the case for Rwanda). Lastly, there are other countries where EAP has been taught just as a means to gain access to research in the English language in order to participate in the English academic community.

In the UK and USA, there a strong desire to help international students to have access to English medium discourses. In the same way, the main goal of teaching English in Australia is to empower disadvantaged children in poor rural and urban places to understand it better. Most of these people have rarely or even never been exposed to the English language professionally.

2.2.1 Other factors that might hinder or facilitate students' ability to become part of a scientific academic discourse community.

EAP needs analysis requires the collection of information on students' rationale for learning English, their English learning background, their ESL proficiency, the extent to which they have mastered the language and the opportunities that exist for them to speak, listen, read and write English well, both inside and outside the classroom (Hutchison & Waters, 1987; Oxford, 1990). The Strategy analysis is particularly important in EAP context where learners and teachers come from a different "cultural background and where approaches to language learning may vary a lot" (Tudor, 1996:179). One of the strongest links between EAP and ESP is the emphasis that practitioners place on needs analysis as a systematic way of identifying the specific sets of skills, texts, linguistic forms and communicative practices that learners must acquire.

2.2.2 Needs Analysis

The key aspects for developing a feasible EAP curriculum, according to Johns and Dudley-Evans (1991), are embodied in four inter-connected stages. The first stage is the needs analysis. This is the necessary point of departure for designing a syllabus, tasks and materials and should be the preoccupation of all curricula designers aiming at identifying different genres appropriate for an EAP course and putting the needs of the students at the centre (Nunan, 1988). "Needs analysis is a process of finding out as much as possible, before learning begins, about the learners' current and future language use" (Brindley, 1989:63). An important principle of "ESP approaches to language teaching is that the purposes for which a learner needs a language for, rather than a syllabus reflecting the structure of general English, should be used in planning an English course" (Richards, 2001: 32). There is now considerable evidence to support that academic discourses represent a variety of specific literacies (Gandlin & Plum, 1999; Hyland, 2000). EAP scholars and others have been researching on the analysis of text types (discourses, genres and practices) that students in different disciplines expect to produce in their learning trajectory (Hyland, 2004, 2006; Swales, 1990, 2004; Johns, 1997). The outcome of the needs analysis can thus help determine the genres that are most appropriate for student needs in different disciplines, and hence, no needs analysis can be conclusive (Belcher, 2006).

2.2.3 Course Design

The second factor that impacts upon students' success is relevant course design. Many students experience problems when trying to bridge the gap between secondary school and university work, and when there are no or fewer resources to assist them This can constitute a barrier to their progress in learning (Probyn, 2005). Drawing on the results of an analysis of 15 texts by Flowerdew (2000:199) has affirmed that 'apprentice' texts provide more realistic models for learners. Flowerdew continues to argue that "genre analysis" can inform EAP pedagogy in a very direct way.

2.2.4 EAP Curriculum and Teaching Approaches/Methods

The way curriculum is developed has an impact on the teaching and learning that takes place in the classroom situation. The role of curriculum/material/syllabus developer is to offer students from diverse school backgrounds an empowering and critical curriculum (Archer, 2006) in which semiotic resources serve as "the means and practices by which we represent ourselves to ourselves and to others" (Kress, 1996:18). Kress talks about change based on the "interested action" to transform and reshape the resources that are available to students (2000:155). One vital step in this process is producing a comprehensive description of the unique needs and wishes of the EAP student and shaping and designing the EAP curriculum is seen as accepting that the methodologies and approaches that are valid in any area of ESL are not necessarily the most appropriate for EAP. The need and wishes of EAP learners are distinct and clearly identifiable from those that of general English. English language teaching can, therefore, be classified into two main branches, English for General Purposes (EGP) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987).

2.2.5 Teaching Programme/ Syllabus

Since EAP materials and methods play an important role in the development of students, they are the fourth important factor to impact on the success of the overall educational process (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001). Materials include abstract resources such as discourses, concrete resources such as materials and structures such as genres. Hyland (2006) recommends exploring the potentials and limitations of these resources in the context of formal and informal assessment of the tertiary environment.

WESTERN CAPE

The discourses associated with the social places that the individual has occupied "habitus" is crucial, and it would then make little contribution to choosing generic or pre-packaged materials for an EAP course" (Bourdieu, 1991). The materials should serve specific needs of

students and, therefore, motivate them to learn (Hussin, 2002). Materials such as audio- or video-taped are sometimes inappropriate to the teaching of EAP. Rather, for students studying a variety of subjects, less specialised post-graduate texts can be useful (Swales and Feak, 2000/2004).

Teaching material/syllabus should be drawn from the outcomes of the needs analysis. The syllabus designer needs to develop a detailed description of goals for the course and organise the evaluation of the potential difficulties students may have in order to meet that goal (Hall & Crabbe, 1994). Once a syllabus has been established, teaching materials need to be selected. EAP practitioners recommend EAP textbooks that serve as a kind of data bank, allowing teachers to choose the materials that are most appropriate (Kuo, 1993). It must also be remembered that each EAP discipline has its own specialised language style and discourse and thatshould be incorporated into the selected teaching materials (Widdowson, 1983).

Furthermore, the material for teaching EAP in the science class will be successful only when teachers have the ability to use and promote texts in students' disciplinary field (Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001). Moreover, within an institution of higher learning, students need to be able to select texts from content areas and texts clearly showing the link between the content area and the ESL may be helpful (Thesen, 2006; Hyland 2006). Nonetheless, the fact that in some instances English academic literacy has been considered as a remedial course worldwide has impeded its progress (Swales, 1990).

For the teaching methods/approaches, EAP methodology is the notion of purposeful and authentic learning activity in which teaching should reflect bottom-up methods, extracting meaning by focusing on the linguistic components only where necessary (Flowerdew, 1994a). The methodological approaches used to teach English as a second language have not always been appropriate for EAP curriculum material (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987;

Flowerdew& Peacock, 2001). An approach that seems to address the issue of teaching materials in a complementary way should include abstract resources such as discourses, concrete resources like teaching materials and structures such as genres in the EAP curriculum (Thesen & Pletzen, 2006). Hyland (2006) also mentions needs analysis as an added value to the EAP curriculum. He argues that students' learning experiences are not only influenced by course design, materials and methodologies, but also influenced by the needs analysis. Writing academically has become the main issue as lecturers always complain that university students do not know how to write (Lea and Street, 1998).

2.2.6 Teaching Four Language Skills in Science Context

The fifth stage is the teaching of the four language skills and I would like to address them in the following sub sections.

2.2.6.1 Effective Academic Reading as a Crucial Skill

Effective reading of academic prose becomes an imperative for reading in English for the students' academic work is needed by EAP students throughout the world as most books and journal articles are published in English (Greller, 1981). EAP reading involves a number of specific difficulties such as registers/genres of different disciplines which are difficult for EAP students. Students may do well in reading for pleasure as opposed to reading with difficulties in their subject areas. In subject areas, students read textbooks and journal articles with the goal of extracting relevant information and insights for their use in writing assignments, examinations and dissertations (Bloor & St John, 1998). They need to be familiar with note-taking skills, skimming and scanning skills, use of connecters in paragraphs and sections, use of cohesive patterns and other grammatical markers and interpreting skills of writer's point of view.

Also, the aims of reading different tasks are different. For an example, reading narratives may be for enjoyment alone, but reading in subject areas is often for students to read in order to perform some tasks-to-learn about something, get information, learning how to do something or draw material for argument (John and Davies, 1983). This author highlights the dichotomy of dealing with texts in the classroom, text as a linguistic object and text as a vehicle for information.

Reading is often neglected by many subject teachers. Nuttall, (1996) points out that regardless of the fact that reading textbooks is vital for assessments, projects and examinations, students are often not taught how to read them properly. Students need to develop a number of EAP micro- and macro-reading skills (Munby, 1978; de Escorcia, 1984; Nuttal, 1996). Important micro-skills for EAP reading include recognising logical connections (Sawyer, 1989) such as cause and effect, time, condition, comparison and contrast, recognising definitions, generalisations, examples, explanations and predictions and distinguishing fact from opinion (Huckin, 1998).

Further, necessary skills are being able to cope with vocabulary (especially in lexically dense texts) and identifying and learning technical, field-specific terms (as opposed to non-field specific terms) they may have problems with (Carrell Oxford, 1990; Curson, 1997:56). This possible outcome suggests that EAP students need be immersed in both intensive and extensive instruction and practice in reading skills. The former helps students to acquire particular reading strategies that are helpful to them as life skills such as reading for detail and distinguishing main ideas and evidence and reading to gain experience in extensive reading skills and for the ability to deal with a large amount of texts which is required by all academic disciplines.

2.2.6.2 Academic Writing Skills

First year EAP students are often given relatively simple writing assignments. These students are often unaware of the wide range of genres among different disciplines and are also unable to reprocess information from given texts, perhaps because they have not been taught the necessary steps and procedures in secondary school (Reid & Lindstrom, 1985). EAP writing, certainly at the more specific levels, places emphasis on the socially constructed nature of writing, how the norms and values of the target discipline can shape the features of the target genres (Dudley-Evans, 1994). Much of any discussion in EAP writing revolves around the question of whether to focus on product or process reading, whether to view writing as a single production or as a process (John & Dudley-Evans, 1991). A typical product-oriented writing cycle (Reid, 1988) is setting up a context (exploring situations that require a particular register/genre audience, purpose, topic). On the other hand, the process approach brings about multiple writing and rewriting efforts before reaching the final goal.

UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE

2.2.6.3 Adequate Speaking and Listening Skills

There is a general consensus among ESL educators that speaking skills (oral language) is very important, and yet speaking in EAP remains a relatively neglected skill. Subject teachers, for an example, tend to judge ESL students by how they express themselves orally (Jordan, 1997). EAP speaking skills are seen as the ability to ask questions during lectures and tutorials, participating in seminars and discussions, giving presentations, interacting in laboratory and workshops (Chirnside, 1986). An important area of EAP speaking instruction is directed towards seminar participation. For listening skills, most work in academic listening research has focused on lectures which are interactive or conversational listening.

However, listening is usually dealt with simultaneously when speaking skills are being developed.

2.2.6.4 Effective Study Skills

Another key aspect of EAP curriculum is the study skills which contribute to students' performance. The fact that EAP is concerned with helping students to use English well in their learning makes EAP teaching always associated with the various study skills. Therefore, the curriculum/ teaching materials serve as a guide to the teaching of EAP. In the following sections I wish to explore issues related to the outcomes of learning. In order to do that, I will try to focus on a number of concepts.

2.2.7 Teacher Training/Development Programme

Inside the classroom there are suggestions that teachers' limited proficiency in English may reduce opportunities for language development (Probyn, 2005). Also, research indicates that relatively little reading and writing takes place during lessons (Taylor & Vinjevold, 1999: 151-52), and yet, it is proficiency in reading and writing in English that becomes a necessary condition for students' academic success, especially in case where the medium of teaching and learning is English. Teachers need good knowledge skills to be able to teach English and EAP and also need to be trained in the knowledge of genre theory and scaffolding strategies (Johns, 1997). All these are areas that are clearly connected with ELT language teaching and need to be included in teacher training programmes. First and second year tertiary students who are not yet in a major field of study, mastering ways to teach general academic literacies may serve EAP teachers well, especially with respect to equipping students with rhetorical flexibility and ability to move with relative ease from the literacy demands of one subject area to another (Johns, 1997).

2.3 EAP literacies

EAP comprises multiple literacies, and "each discipline has its specific literacy while within every discipline, new literacy resources are acquired" (Hyland, 2006:5). In addition, EAP encompasses quite a number of practices such as reading abstracts, writing notes from lectures, completing research projects, course summaries, reports, references and essay writing (Hyland, 2006; Scarcella, 2003).

Apart from varied literacies, EAP also encompasses linguistic, cognitive and socio-cultural/situated components (Kern, 2000). The linguistic component includes the knowledge and skills of the appropriate use of academic genres and discourses in which writing is seen as a "non-linear, exploratory and generative process whereby writers discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meaning" (Zamel, 1983: 161). Here, research focuses on the cognitive aspects of writing and sees writing as essentially a problem-solving endeavour. Writing is also seen as a social act that can only occur within a specific situation which is influenced by the writer's social experiences that s/he brings to the writing process within a particular political / institutional context in which writing takes place.

The cognitive component of the English language teaching focuses on critical thinking, assertiveness and creativity of students of knowing and using the choices available to them. The socio-cultural component includes the curricula or materials, the teacher training and development, working conditions and students' multiple identities (Kern, 2000). This author argues that the linguistic, cognitive and socio-cultural components complement each other or interact with each other. In other words, features of academic writing are the know-how and the ability to use the specific vocabulary, impersonal voice and the ways that ideas get packed together (Hyland, 2006). This includes three elements: the high lexical density, which encompasses high proportion of content words in relation to grammar words (prepositions,

articles and pronouns), high nominal style which includes action and events presented as nouns rather than verbs. Altogether they complement each other and contribute to meaning making in a particular field of study.

2.3.1 What are the distinctive linguistic features of EAP literacy for science education?

Varied disciplines comprise diverse topics of specialised subjects and use varied science discourses. As far as science is concerned, there exists different kinds of discourses, arguments and genres that operate in the various subjects (Martin, 1992). With regard to this situation, we cannot determine in advance all the genres in which students need to engage in (Halliday and Martin, 1992). First and foremost, it is probably worthwhile to signal how EAP literacy relates to linguistic features of science and technology and then explain the relationship between the linguistic features of science and the linguistic features of technology. Linguistic features, according to Martin (1992), can be combined with general genres to form other genres. For an example, from procedure as the general genre which has the purpose to show how something is done and the stages in which this is done, is derived another three genres: exposition (when we start with the reading of the literature), discussion (when the student discusses the information gained from the literature) and reporting (when s/he presents the findings or reports the outcomes). This means that from 'procedure' as the main genre we derive other genres (exposition, discussion, and reportage) and all these together contribute towards the overall purpose.

The difference between linguistic features of science and technology discourse can be compared to the difference between ordinary language and the language used in the field of science and technology (Lemke, 1993:21; Martin and Veel, 1998). While ordinary language functions by simply using basic spoken and written language, the language of science refers

to scientific practices and the combination of technical vocabularies, rhetoric in language structures and the kind of discourse found in science books, journal articles and other scientific resources. The relationship between science and technology is that science and technology are inter-dependent, since a discourse of science is also a discourse of technology and the resources used in learning science genres and discourses are also appropriate to the learning of technology (Sutton, 1992; Martin and Veel, 1998:83-84). Science discourse uses analogy, (describing something in relation to what the student already knows) that may benefit students' understanding.

The tertiary level uses the genres structures such as recount, procedure, narrative, report and explanation (Sutton, 1992). Each genre has a purpose, a stage and a stage purpose. Recount as genre has the purpose to reconstruct past events by telling events in their original sequence and its stages serve as the orientation and the record of events of which the stage purpose is to provide the information and present the events. Narrative genre purpose reflects on experiences and its stages are to entertain and instruct. The purpose of these different stages is to inform about the character's situation. Report as a genre has the purpose to present information by classifying and then describing the characteristics of something. Its purpose is to solve a given problem through reasoning and report conclusions and to provide related recommendation(s). The stage purpose is to identify the problem, the possible reasons for the problem and suggest means of solving the problem and the measures to be adopted. The last genre is explanation. The purpose of explanation is to explain how and why things happen the way they do. The identification of things comes first, and then the identification and lastly the explanation of how and why they are happening as they do. The purpose of the stage includes the statement of the topic of the text and sequences expending on how things occurred.

2.3.2 What are the conceptual and theoretical underpinnings of EAP?

This section provides the conceptual insights for operationalising the five objectives adopted by this study.

2.3.2.1 Post-colonial views of EAP

The colonial era perspectives on EAP reveal the belief that only one way of teaching English exists by implementing a unique theory that applies to the language teaching profession as a whole (Lin & Martin, 2005: xv). Two literacy theories of English teaching were distinguished before EAP was considered as a university discipline (Hyland, 2006). In 1979, for an example, the concepts of Basic Interpersonal Cognitive System (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) originated from Cummins (2003) who argued that there are three dimensions of English proficiency namely: the Basic Interpersonal Communicative System (BICS), the Discrete Language Proficiency (DLP) System and the Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) System. Whilst BICS and DLP focuses on the conversational fluency and discrete language skills (grammar, literacy and phonetics) respectively, CALP focuses on academic language skills. BICS is actually concerned with the ability to communicate in English in social environments. Tasks under BICS are viewed as activities that students can develop with fewer problems in conversational interactions in a second language. CALP, on the other hand, is concerned with cognitive academic language proficiency and determines whether a student has the ability to perform complex tasks in that particular language (Cummins, 2003). It requires academic tasks and tests of academic achievement which are more difficult than the tasks under BICS and DLP; and it develops more slowly over several years than the other systems.

Researchers in the field of EAP have been viewing BICS and CALP as limiting (Lea and Street, 1998). They rather suggest that multiple literacies have to be included in the academic

literacy for tertiary students (Lea & Street, 1998). They argue that BICS and CALP may be considered as a foundation of English language teaching and learning because BICS is learnt for fundamental English knowledge at primary education, whereas CALP is learnt for subject specific purposes at secondary level and shows whether a pupil has the ability to perform particular complex tasks in that particular language before being updated into EAP at tertiary education. In the same vein, the situation, time and resources are crucial prior to determining what would be the relevant English literacy teaching (Thesen & Pletzen, 2006: 1). These authors continue to say that students need language literacy (reading and writing) skills that lead to the understanding of academic activities and shows how texts are constructed and reconstructed, especially in an institution of higher learning. The next section attempts to review the academic literacies judged to be more relevant to students at the tertiary level. Classroom language practices are very different from the language that students use every day (Gibbons, 1991). The classroom language practices will therefore needto consider aspects such as predicting, and classifying, evaluating, inferring, and so on (Biber, 1986; WESTERN CAPE Corson, 1995; and Coxhead, 2000).

2.3.2.2 English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) and English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP)

With a possibly similar understanding of the differences between BICS and CALP (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Cummins, 1984, 2000, 2010) about the sub-division of English language in academic work, EAP has been sub-divided into two divisions: EGAP and ESAP. EGAP differs considerably from ESAP. While EGAP teaches general academic English, ESAP teaches English for specific academic purposes, and is taught to students in a particular academic discipline (Hyland, 2006). The difference between EGAP and ESAP/EAP is that,

for an example, a student in Physics who has to deal with a text on the impact of solar energy to the vegetation deals with specific science-related text (Physics and Biology), whereas a text on general English concerns general issues which include a holistic study of the four language skills.

While EGAP takes into account a holistic approach of the four general language skills (speaking, listening, reading and writing, including vocabulary) and the general academic activities that are taught regardless of the discipline they are applied to. For an example, EGAP, which deals with general academic vocabulary, would not be of much help to students' varied academic activities given that each specific course/discipline has its own particular vocabulary which is obviously very different from that of the general academic language (Hyland 2006:9). ESAP, on the other hand, teaches the language skills of a particular discipline such as Biology, Mechanical Engineering and so on. It provides the theoretical basis of EAP for better understanding of ways in which it (ESAP) functions in different academic settings and focuses on the teaching of academic discourses of a particular discipline. Though EGAP and ESAP play different roles in the teaching of EAP, they are said to complement each other and to contribute towards EAP's overall academic discourse and genres. Thus, combining them in the overall teaching of EAP as one discipline would be a better option than the present split (Hyland, 2006).

English speakers use changes in forms and variety of speech, depending on specific institutional, geographical, socio-economic and/or cultural/disciplinary locations (Burns & Coffin, 2001). For this reason, the recognition of the value of linguistic diversity and language development is of paramount importance. Each type of text therefore, has to be viewed in its particularity. One model cannot account for all the considerable variations among the essays may be required to be produced by all students in the different disciplines, or even within one discipline.

In the 1980s, EAP evolved from just being a branch of English for Specific Purposes to being the heart of the development relevant theory in the teaching of English as a second language (Hyland, 2003). Flowerdew and Peacock (2001: 8), whose work investigates perspectives on EAP research, provide this definition that EAP is "the teaching of English with the specific aim of helping learners to study, conduct research and teach in that language". English being the language of academic work in many parts of the world, has seen new developments in the teaching of ESL in the context of academic studies as a response to the students' varied disciplinary academic discourses' needs for better understanding of their disciplines and for successfully navigating through their learning (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002).

EAP is said to be a powerful weapon for realising success in specific academic disciplines (Hyland, 2003) and for those students who are exposed to a variety of learning resources who are better off as compared to those who are not (West, 1992).

Language policies have not made the language diversity a priority since it has remained on the periphery of educational needs to which it has thus far largely been assigned to (Canagarajah, 1996). If we want students to be able to perform well and engage in developing genres, appropriate language learning materials need to be made available. Special attention should be given to students who have been exposed for the first time to the learning of English language at the university level.

Classroom practices and curriculum function best when they are informed by "clearly defined pedagogy" Cope & Kalantzis (1993:190). Consequently, there is no way students can be familiar with the varied language and genre practices without being exposed to the appropriate resources (Flowerdew, 2006). A disciplinary academic text, for an example, is different from a friendly letter and, consequently, their content is likely to be different. ESL students who use EAP for the first time and who attended schools with no resources and

learning facilities, such as in South Africa, Uganda, Kenya and now Rwanda, meet a lot of challenges when studying in English. The above-mentioned scholars acknowledge a considerable mismatch between the students' needs and the teaching programme/curriculum as well as approaches/methods of teaching that they are exposed to. From this situation arose the need for an "academic support programme" at KIST started in 1997 and aiming to develop strategies that will help first year students at the university to find themselves grounded in their discipline areas and as a strategy to provide them with a strong academic support (Thesen & Pletzen, 2006:1). The EAP course was consequently introduced from students' first year of study.

Another issue that is pointed out about academic literacy is the ideology of literacies by the New Literacy Studies (Scollon 2001; Street, 1984). Street argues that this view should be replaced by a multiple literacy view of literacy which will show the differences in the literacies and their associated competences. In this vein, with the introduction of EAP, teachers have been able to reshape the curriculum with academic literacies that include complex writing discourses inside as well as outside classrooms. Academic literacy has its basis in educational Marxism and critical linguistics/critical education (Scollon, 2001) and so it argues from very different premises than those that traditional EAP supports. Scollon also adds that despite coming from quite different socio-political contexts, proponents of academic literacy and those of EAP share a common desire to provide appropriate and effective education.

Gee (1996) supports the argument of the construction of discourse at primary and secondary school. In doing so, this author suggests idea that the student's academic experience is important because he/she needs to be exposed to a more challenging literacy programme besides the formal education rather than adopting the New Literacy Studies (NLS) views which stand for generalization and decontextualisation while minimizing its impact regarding

educational policy on language and literacy (Check the sense of these 2 statements in this paragraph. Its not clear what they intent to express). The available materials were previously aimed at the writing of thesis/dissertations (Braine, 2002; Johns & Swales, 2002). Since EAP involves inculcation of both communication skills and knowledge of the genres related to the students' discipline, this practice varies according to the connection between the discipline and its own literacy (Hyland, 2006). The NLS aims at exploring how members of a cultural community use written texts and engage in practices as part of their educational development. "Critical literacy" and "New literacy studies" Hyland, 2006:4) are both branches of literacy studies and have many shared characteristics. These include a common understanding that "literacy is best understood as consisting of distinct literacies" (Burns & Coffin, 2001: 102).

In other words, literacy is seen as having many different types of reading and writing practices which are distinct across different social cultures and contexts. This view contradicts the traditional view that considers literacy as a single and uniform skill (Heath, 1980: 123; Gee, 1991; Street, 1994 and Lin & Martin, 2005). Conventionally, the word "literacy" (Heath, 1980: 123) was defined as the ability to read and write, and this tacitly suggested what literacy can do for individuals or specific communities. Literacy is also the teaching of particular academic genres and registers of professional books and is characterised by specific linguistic features associated with academic disciplines (Martin, 1990; Hyland, 2006). Thus, students can only acquire enough competence when they are able to find out, understand and use different genres in their respective disciplines (Kapp, 2002; Hyland, 2006; Swales, 1990; Martin, 1993 and Lemke, 1990). This requires the understanding of the genres that are more appropriate for each discipline. The following section provides more details of this.

2.4 Genre knowledge in EAP

Since the 19th and 20th centuries formal communication has influenced a great deal of policy and practice in literacy education (Ivanic, 2004:227). Such discourses focus primarily on teaching of formal grammar rules for sentence construction. As a result, these discourses viewed English as a set of skills to be taught, learnt and mastered. Furthermore, Dullay, Burt and Krashen (1982) state that the earliest work in the teaching of writing was based on the concept of controlled or guided composition.

During the late 1970s writing approaches were more concerned with what students can do with language (meeting the practical demands) in different contexts such as the workplace and other contexts. For an example writing tasks such as filling up job applications, preparing for interviews or writing application letters, which involved minimal writing other than completing short tasks 'designed to reinforce particular grammar points or language functions' (Auerbach, 1999: 1). Writing instruction at university level has been a constant concern and there have been numerous approaches to the teaching of writing in the history of language teaching for English as a first and second language (Canagarajah, 2006; Celce-Murcia, 1997; Hinkel, 2006/2011 & Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Cameron (1991), as cited in Lin & Martin (2005) argues that writing as an instructional approach has not taken into account the fact that we write for different purposes and communities.

This section discusses EAP genres and discourses. It covers the first and the second objective of this study. The aim is to provide a conceptual backbone analysis for the investigation of the discourses, genres and practices with which students in KIST need to engage in for them to be able to determine the extent to which these needs are met by the EAP academic literacy programme. The second section highlights teachers' and students' understanding of the processes of language and literacy teaching and learning and how their understanding might

affect students' performance. This responds to objectives three and four. The third section looks at factors that influence students' ability to become part of a scientific academic discourse community. The aim is to provide clues for the exploration of other factors that may influence students' success in EAP as per objective five. An overview of EAP and discussion of the role of language policy and challenges of EAP in post-colonial Africa are, however, first presented. The next section illustrates EAP discourses and genres practices for academic literacy demand.

The concept of genre has in the past been used as an approach to teaching writing (Swales, 1990; Hyland, 2006). Genre has been used in the past to define and classify literary texts such as drama, poetry and novels in the fields of arts, literature and the media (Breure, 2001). For an example, a detective story, a novel or a diary is each regarded as belonging to a different literary genre. Later on, the concept of genre came to be seen as a tool for developing both first language and second language instruction (Paltridge, 2004; Hyon, 1996; Johns, 2002; Feez, 2002). In second language writing pedagogy, much interest has been put on raising students' awareness of genres as the only route to the development of effective writing (Hyon, 1996; Cope & Kalantzis, 1993), rather than developing the process approach to teaching (Johns, 2002; Paltridge 2004; Feez, 2002).

Genre, therefore, has been originally defined generally as written any texts that are primarily literary, and are recognised by textual regularities in form and content and can be classified into restricted categories and sub-categories (Flowerdew and Medway, 1994), whereas texts are now more commonly viewed as purposeful and situated oral or written work (Miller, 1984). Genres are situated in a specific cultural context and grouping of texts that show similar characteristics and can represent how writers use language to respond to similar contexts (Hyland and Hamp-Lyons, 2002; Hyland, 2004). The structure of genre is crucial,

since it is seen as a "staged goal-oriented social process" (Martin and Rose, 2002:7). Here, members of the same disciplinary communities share the knowledge of their genres.

A theoretical framework that seems to account better for our experience of genres in the different disciplines is one that links up the notions of activity systems to genre sets and genre systems (Bazerman, 1994, 2004; Devitt, 1991). Genre sets are "collections of types of texts someone in a particular role is likely to produce," while genre systems consist of "the several genre sets of people working together in an organized way" (Bazerman, 2004: 318). A theoretical framework that views individual genres as constituents of a system should be of pedagogical significance. Devitt (1991) defines *genre sets* in terms of the genres of a particular category of actor in an institutional context. This also includes *genre repertoire* which looks at a broader range of possible genres in a sphere of activity (Devitt, 2004).

Genre analysis is dealt with within a text based on out of text context, and the understanding of texts is important in order to be able to identify the rationale behind particular genre features (Prior & Molle, 2008). To help in this regard, an EAP programme should provide oral and written genres which equip students with the necessary academic literacy needs in specific disciplines (Hyland, 2006; Martin, 1990). EAP teachers also need to assist students to understand and construct texts in order for them to actively engage with their disciplines (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998, cited in Sharpling, 2002).

Genre typologies, such as exposition, provides room for students to deal with valued academic genre tasks where they use extra resources in order to perform better (Hyland, 2007). Various genres guide writers to ways of using language to construct different understandings of scientific knowledge for their different audiences (Myers, 1994; Hyland, 2006). The scientific and popular articles are compared with each other on three levels: organisation, syntax and vocabulary. For an example, an article is structured in a way that

links together statements in a structure with an argument and vocabularies that are associated with contextual meaning, so that writers can be seen to use specialised terminologies for varied texts.

A process-oriented approach to writing is another way that can be used to assess writing. Researchers have embraced this approach by focusing on the writing process rather than on the product approach (Auerbach, 1996:2; Paltridge, 2004). In the process approach students go through a process of drafting, re-drafting and editing of work. In this case, the role of the writing teacher is less prescriptive, allowing students to learn through exploration of how to write (Paltridge, 2004). This approach was taken up by researchers such as Krashen (1981); Ellis (1992) and Nunan (1988) who were interested in second language classes where students are encouraged to develop ideas, draft, review texts and then write final drafts. Caudery's (1995) study found that very little had been done to develop a process approach, specifically for ESL students.

Students' specific literacy practices are also an approach to teaching writing, which bases teaching on the student's discipline/field (Street, 1984, Barton, Hamilton & Ivanic, 2000). This approach advances the point that literacy is not a universal cognitive process but varies from context to context and from one discipline to another. Therefore, if literacy varies from context to context and from discipline to discipline, teachers should assist students to write well in varied contexts and disciplines (Auerbach, 1996).

UNIVERSITY of the

The genre-based approach came into being as a way to complement the student's disciplinary practices, since the socio-cultural context and the process approaches to teaching writing alone have not proved sufficient to promote students' writing ability (Delpit, 1998; Martin & Rose, 2005). These authors argue that students have principally to be exposed to the more powerful genres, and should be given an opportunity to access the discourses within their

culture, context and text that open up to their understanding of genre and register. Genre is understood to be "rhetorical actions or responses to recurring contexts" (Burns & Coffin, 2001:109). It refers to the expected form and communicative function of the written product such as a letter, an essay or a laboratory report (Cohen, 1994). In the context of language education, the term *genre* comes from a perspective of language which sees it as a resource used to achieve social goals.

2.4.1 Definitions of genre from different schools of thought

Three schools of thought: Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), New Rhetoric (NR) Studies and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) dispute the way teaching of the English language is approached and have emerged with different definitions and methods of teaching genres (Hyon, 1996; Hyland 1996, 2002, 2004). Flowerdew (2002) proposes that this view of genre needs to be viewed in two separate categories: linguistic and non-linguistic, each conceptualising and analysing genre in different ways (Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001; Hyland, 2004; Hyon, 1996). In the context of language education, genre is a construct that has been developed for educational goals within the context of the above schools of thought. The contribution of these genre schools is elaborated in the following sections.

2.4.1.1 Genre in Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL)

Broadly speaking, SFL is the Sydney school of thought. It is referred to as 'the Australian school' in the United States of America and is found in the works of Halliday(1978,1985; Halliday & Martin, 1989 and Johns, 2002). SFL and its concept of genre was developed by Martin and Rothery (1980, 1981), drawing from Halliday's theory, and focuses on language form, function and context. Genre-based pedagogy in SFL is concerned with the relationship

between language and its functions in a social context, where grammar is seen as a resource for communication (Halliday & Martin, 1989).

A text is understood as functioning in a context operating at two levels: at the level of a register where social activity (field) and the interpersonal relationships is noted among people using the same language (tenor) and at the level of mode where the communication draws its own meaning through the choice of language use. Both levels (register and mode) influence the choices that are made in the linguistic system, as well as at the level of genre, where social purpose requires the linguistic choices. The basic components of meaning in SFL draws from the relationship between experiences (ideational=physical), social roles (interpersonal=social), and (textual=semiotic) and all these contribute to shaping the meaning of a text. The SFL model defines genres by linguistic features where spoken and written genres are seen as a finite set of linguistic processes such as narrative (life history), and recount (e.g. letters, media, memos, and so on (Halliday, 1994).

The educational context of genres in SFL started with an 'educational experiment' (Cope, Kalantzis, 1993; Kress & van Leeuwen, 2001). The goal of SFL genre is to help primary and secondary school students where most of them participate effectively in the school curriculum (Callagham, Knapp & Noble, 1993; Dudley-Evans, 2001). A narrative in SFL refers to a story which interprets some historical and cultural aspects of the world through a novel and includes problems which are to be solved by characters and the major events for the characters. Recount helps to reconstruct past experiences by retelling events in their original sequences, through the stage of recording, in order to bring past events into the present. SFL genres are purely general and grammar-oriented.

Genre in SFL emphasises language at the level of whole texts (Martin, 1993, Rose & Martin, 2005). As a result, it sees social purpose, language and context in the text as interrelated.

Therefore, the teaching of genres needs to move away from linguistic description to an explanation of why texts are shaped the way they are (Paltridge, 2004). Consequently, students need to be taught explicit genres and the dominant forms of writing valued in schools (Grabowski, 1996) and beyond (Macken-Horarik, 2002). Genr,e in language teaching, is a valuable concept and plays an important role. In the 1990s, genre developed to the next stage where it describes text structures that occur in specific social contexts and institutions (Christie and Martin, 1997). Genre theory has not been developed exclusively as an educational tool as stated by SFL on the insights it provides into language structure. SFL theorists, therefore, think of genre descriptions as staging and the linguistic levels drawn on to achieve a particular social goal, rather than as rule-governed structures (Halliday, 1985).

2.4.1.2 Genres in the New Rhetoric (NR)

Genre is defined by NR as "stabilized for now and forms of action which are open to change and subject to negotiation" (Collin, 2012:84; Schreyer, 1994). This latter scholar draws attention to the fact that the genres are provisional and represent social and ideological actions. The main claim here is that genres are sensitive to contestation and that there is always the possibility of play. Genre is also seen as a "distinctive category of discourses of any type, spoken or written, with or without literary aspirations" (Swales, 1990:13; Martin, 1993) and deals with text, context and ways in which individuals use language to create texts. The context of writing in NR "views genre as predominantly concerned with first language university students and novice professionals" (Hyon, 1996:698). The knowledge of genre helps students become more successful readers and writers of academic texts in which the writing purpose is on making students aware of the contexts and the social functions of the genres in which they engage (Bazerman, 1994).

Genre is also seen as complex, dynamic and not amenable to explicit teaching (Johns, 2002; Cope & Kalantzis, 1993). These proponents of genre theory argue that it is through the understanding of context that students can become more successful readers and writers of genres. NR values the contexts as well as the social nature of genres (Dias & Pare, 2000; Dias, Freedman, Medway, & Pare, 1999), given that language does not occur in a vacuum (Adams & Artemeva, 2002). Genres in NR function as a specific communicative language. The key focus is not linguistically-oriented like ESP and SFL, but draws its strengths from post-modern social literary theories (Johns, 2002), which does not only involve description of linguistic system and rhetorical patterns but also purports that genres are "embedded in the communicative activities of the members of a discipline" (Berkenkotter & Hucklin, 1995:2).

The main aim of the New Rhetoric (NR) studies, sometimes referred to as the North American school (due to geographical location of many of its theorists and researchers), is to stress the concept of genre which largely evolved in the 1980s within the fields of composition studies, rhetoric and professional writing. Compared to the SFL genre approach, the NR genre approach "places far less emphasis on textual features, rather focus is on the relationship between text and context" (Freedman and Medway, 1994:9). Being able to unpack these relationships provides "the keys to understanding how to participate in the actions of a community" (Miller, 1994:38-9). It is argued that "a rhetorically sound definition of genre must be centred not on the substance or form of discourse but on the action used by the discourse to accomplish it" (Miller, 1984:151).

The analytical tool within NR has been ethnographically, rather than linguistically, informed methods to the analysis of texts (e.g. Bazerman, 1998; Schryer, 1994). Ethnographic methods applied to the analysis of texts highlights academic and professional contexts of genre, its action and tasks performed (Hyon, 1996). In addition to ethnographic techniques, discourse analysis and cognitively based rhetorical analysis forms what is referred to as "a socio-

cognitive theory of genre" (Berkenkotter and Huckin, 1995: xi). In the NR approach, genre is seen as a form of social action which is not centred on the form and structure of the discourse as does ESP, but on the action the discourse is used to accomplish it. Here, genres evolve to meet the needs of communities. On the other hand and in a very distinctive way, NR's view of genre addresses the issue of genre that is built on the relationship between texts, context and audience. The NR focuses on persuasive texts and thus there is a close link with critical language studies.

In terms of scientific texts, Rwandan students need to be able to deal with persuasive texts in genres such as arguments, discussions, explanations, expositions, reports and procedures. Therefore, the genre school that seems to operate within the institution and is relevant to the study of EAP, is the NR, given that the major preoccupation of its genres is on disciplinary specificity, context and purpose; this is the core role of EAP. Academic genres are viewed differently from SFL and ESP/EAP (Martin, Christie & Rothery, 1987), emphasising that pedagogy has prioritised interactive practices over grammar-based practices simply because the former encourage interaction to facilitate negotiation.

I would like to use the following sub sections to address the concept of EAP at tertiary institutions.

2.4.1.3 Genres in ESP (EAP)

This perspective of ESP argues that genre is a "distinctive category of discourses of any type, spoken or written, with or without literacy aspirations" (Swales, 1990:13). EAP genre originated from the UK and is used at the tertiary education level. Here, genre is seen as "a class of communicative events with some shared set of communicative purposes and a range of structural patterns (Swales, 1990:68). Genre is understood as a teaching strategy of the

types of texts required by students in specialised fields who want to perform well in their studies in a variety of contexts and diverse genres (Flowerdew, 2000; Gosden, 1992; Hopkins & Dudley-Evans, 1988; Swales, 1990). Hyland (2006:46) defines genres in EAP as, "Grouping texts together to show how writers use language in different situations".

Genres focus on text, context and the situation in which texts occur. That is to say, particular language features are used to shape particular texts. Genre is also defined as "a path from language to social contexts and communities" (Hyland, 2003:21) which justifies the why texts are shaped by the society/community based on ways "people think, organise and use the language" (Hyland, 2003:21). The concept of EAP at the level of tertiary education emerged out of the broader field of English for Specific Purposes (Johns, 1998) with the focus on specific instructional strategies rather than study skills, general academic English in the area of study (Hyland, 2006; Scarcella, 2003; Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001). Students need to understand EAP through teacher feedback and peer group discussions (Hyland, 2006; Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001 & Scarcella, 2003).

EAP encompasses cognitive and linguistic elements of specific academic disciplines (Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001). These scholars also refer to EAP as language research and instruction that focuses on the specific communicative (spoken and written) needs and practices of particular learner groups in academic contexts. The teaching of cognitive and linguistic features of English for specific academic purpose aims at facilitating students in their different disciplinary studies and research (Hyland, 2006; Scarcella (2003). English language teaching and learning in African schools has been much influenced by the post-colonial language policies.

The purpose and context of ESP is to develop English for its academic and professional purposes and other kinds of academic writing at university level such as English for academic

purposes, English for business, English communication for Law and so on. Students are taught formal genres that they can make use of in promoting their reading and writing skills which are promoted by their" English language academic discourse communities" (Paltridge, 2004:16). In this case, however, ESP genre theories have successfully promoted basic elements of genre in a number of specific purposes, but failed to address genre pedagogy and linguistic conventions of ways in which these genres could be used in a classroom context (Hyon, 1996). The goal of genre theory in this tradition, therefore, is largely educational with one of the main target audiences being English Second Language (ESL) students. The theoretical approach of ESP/EAP has a communicative purpose as the central criterion for identifying genre (Swales, 1990; Bhatia, 1993; and Dudley-Evans, 2001).

2.4.2 Multimodal and multiliteracy genres and discourses in EAP

Genre has become a term that refers to complex oral and written responses by speakers or writers to meet the demand of a social linguistic context (Johns, 2002). Since texts vary, there is need to account for situational context, where students need "flexibility in their language use that goes beyond an understanding of the schematic structure of the different genres", crucial though that may be (Burns & Coffin, 2001: 172). Genre knowledge, particularly in academic writing, includes knowledge about the socially and culturally appropriate forms of writing tasks in a given situation to satisfy a given purpose (Swales, 1990). A multi-modal text is a mixture of different modes, such as words, images and written texts that are integrated into a composite form of meaning. Chamot & O'Malley (1994) suggest that relevant content of each EAP programme should include major science concepts while EAP teachers can be assisted by science teachers in selecting themes for building science units.

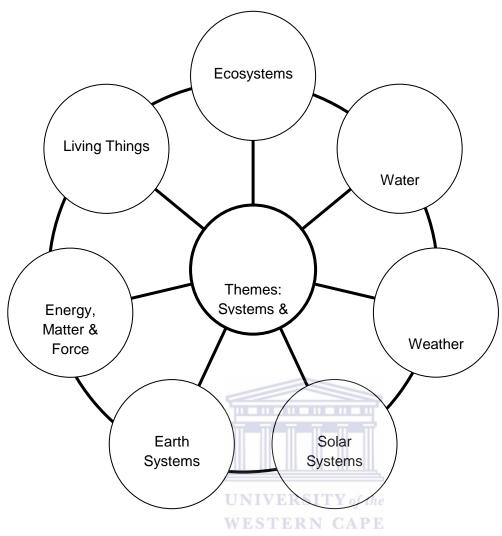


Figure 2.1: (From Chamot & O'Malley, 1994:199)

As shown in the diagram, Science units built around themes can help students understand better connections and inter-relationships in the world they live.

2.4.3 Genre and Text type

Genre is also discussed in many of the more recent books aimed at the professional development of second language teachers (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). Less attention, however, "has been given to the relationship between genre and text type in much of this work" (Biber, 1989: 6). Genre and text type deal with aspects of language in different ways, and the distinction is made between the elemental genres (Feez, 1998). Proper and complete

reference and micro-genres, such as "narratives", "anecdotes", "recounts", "arguments", "reports", "explanations", "expositions", "descriptions", "instructions", "procedures" and "discussions", altogether make up larger, more complex texts or macro-genres such as laboratory and research reports (Martin & Veel, 1998).

English being a world language allows for the interpretation at the same time of local and many other globally situated contexts through discourses, and this is done through meta-discourse (Hyland, 2006:16). Meta-discourse includes heterogeneous texts and interpersonal features of spoken communication which help relate a text to its social context. It reveals the writer's awareness of the reader and the text, and thus, the need for elaboration, clarification, and interaction. One of the ways that genres vary, both internally and in relation to other genres, is in their meta-discourse. This can be seen by comparing academic texts and editorial texts.

Genres in EAP represent communicative events used by a specific discourse community. This involves examining what these communities do with language in essays, dissertations and lectures (Swales, 2004). A research article is presented as a written academic genre that has the book review purpose. Conference abstracts have the purpose of writing an academic dissertation. Spoken genres are lectures, tutorial sessions and peer feedback. The teaching of writing to ESL, and EAP in particular, has been concerned with genre analysis (Swales, 1990). Thus, using genre-oriented instruction is one of the important elements in preparing students for the writing they are expected to produce in their academic activities (Bazerman, 2004; Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995; Bhatia, 1993; Dias, Freedman, Medway, & Pare, 1999; Hyland, 2004; Johns, 2002; Paltridge, 2001; Russell, 1997; Swales, 1990, 2004; Swales & Feak, 2004).

In order for one to understand genre and discourses, spoken or written language, one needs to refer to the relationship existing in their meanings, their social context and their targeted audience (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain (2000). Therefore, analysing genres helps students to select the kind of language that needs to be used in varied disciplines, so that it is clear that the language used in one field may not necessarily be the same as the one used in another field (Coffin et al., 2003). EAP genres, therefore, draw from both multi-modal perspectives of discourses and disciplinary differences (Hyland, 2006). This has been the pre-occupation of EAP scholars doing research on the types of academic texts that students produce in diverse disciplines (Bhatia, 1993; Braine, 1995; Coe, 2002; Hyland, 2004; Swales, 1990, 2004). It also looks at the skills that such texts require demand from the students as their knowledge base (Belcher, 1995; Johns, 1997; Leki & Carson, 1997) and the ways in which genres function in specific social and academic contexts (Casanave, 2002; Prior, 1995, 1998). Genre analysis has considerably increased our understanding of the complexity of genres and their linguistic and social realization. It has also offered to us valuable perspectives on possible approaches to teaching genre to students in diverse fields of academic practice while it sheds light on the most urgent needs of students in those particular contexts (Benesch, 2001).

WESTERN CAPE

2.5 Writing in EAP and science disciplines

Writing in academic fields of study is an act that takes place within a context and accomplishes a particular purpose "for its intended audience" (Hamp-Lyons & Kroll, 1997: 8). It is viewed as "a meaning making activity that is socially and culturally shaped and individually and socially purposeful" (Sperling, 1996: 55). What we write, how we write it and who we write for shapes the social conventions and interactions (Hayes, 1996). In this case, students in different departments need a multi-modal approach to their learning of varied genres and discourses that they encounter in their disciplines, especially given the fact that learning concepts in a discipline means learning to communicate effectively as a member

of the community of that discipline (Lea & Street, 1998). Moreover, genre as multi-modal and meaning making activity, demands that students need to be able to read, write and analyse visual literacy modes of communication such as images, graphs and tables in text together with the word genre. The visual literacy activities that are used in science academic texts, like graphic design in books and articles and the screen are all semiotic works which help students to perform learners' discourses.

2.5.1 Disciplinary specificity in heterogeneous classes

Perhaps the issue here can best be understood from the point of view of the question, how can research results which emphasise disciplinary specificity be effectively employed in heterogeneous classes?

An investment in larger and wider language use is an investment in a learner's own social identity, which changes across time and space. This concentration of features, which connects language use to academic contexts, is useful for students to be aware of. One feature of an academic register, and one which students often find most intimidating, is what might be seen as the comparatively high degree of formality in academic texts (Hyland, 2006).

Disciplinary differences provide teachers with insights into target texts and allow them to identify the different kinds of arguments and writing/speaking tasks that are valued by different disciplines. For Moss (2000), academic institutions should be treated differently from other engagements or site as far as literacy is concerned just because it has its unique codes of communication, and therefore ways of arriving at meaning. For an example, home discourses will obviously accommodate different discourses from those of the school. This shows how important it is to determine the discourse that is to be adopted in a given site. Kapp (2002: 14) is of the view that subject discipline should be given some voice for learners

to make meaning from it. He suggests a thorough understanding and resolution of the gaps existing between township schools and university-based literacy practices. It seems, then, that the university will have a dual mission to fulfil, the literacy at the local place on one hand and on the other hand, the literacy as it is perceived internationally. That is to say that our home literacy programmes must be complemented by rhetoric literacies which should be used internationally (Thesen and Pletzen, 2006). Learners whose home language is not English (who constitute about 83.3% in Rwanda) and yet have to study various subjects through the medium of English are therefore forced to be studying English as a second language in that subject discipline (Bot and Pillay 2004:22).

The growth of EAP at the university sees teachers in post-graduate classes having a module on EAP, such as what happens at UWC, and that means that most emphasis is put on EAP in pre-university schools as well as in post-graduate student groups who write academic theses. It is offering language teachers some professional practices and ethics to learners on the one hand and also to guide the earners to understand their subject content in their courses.

2.5.1.1 Distinguishing disciplines from one another

Writing involves interactions in which writers and readers consider each other's perspectives on a given subject. This means that both the writer and the reader must anticipate the purpose and effect of writing. It means that a writer must and reader must interpret well the text in terms of these anticipations (Hyland, 2006:2-3). Thus, analysing genres helps the reader or listener, especially, to select the most appropriate spoken and written language, together with the arguments that are used to speak or write in the varied disciplines. Writing for a specialist audience or community of practices always results in the production of different kinds of texts and views of science (Myers, 1994). Each language community has different purposes for producing texts and have different ways of seeing the world with its distinct language

practices, genres and communicative conventions. The large body of results for survey research that was carried out in universities during the 1980's and early 1990's has not only revealed the considerable variation of discourses across the curriculum but also shown the differences in the structure of common genres employed by different disciplines (Braine, 1995).

Writers in both research and language practices not only write differently and argue differently, but they also actually construct views of science differently in different languages. However, once someone is trained in a given culture and ideology, successful outcomes only come at the completion of that training (Kress and van Leeuwen, 1996). In discourse communities, meta-discourse plays an important role in the negotiation of meanings of a text by the speaker or the writer when they interact, at the same time engaging with readers as members of a particular community. Becher (1989) examines the nature of academic disciplines and characterises them as distinctive tribes with their own cultures and practices.

Subject disciplines are in part identified by the existence of relevant departments, but, it does not necessarily follow that every department represents a discipline because international currency is an important criterion, and is not defined according to a set of notions of academic credibility. One way of looking at subject disciplines, according to Becher (1989), is through the use of a structural framework, noting how the disciplines are manifested in the basic organisational components of the higher education system (Becher, 1994, and Clark 1983). This has implications on how language programmes can be structured in these institutions. An investment in the larger language scenario is also an investment in a learner's own social identity, which changes across time and space (Norton, 2000).

Myers's (1994) analysis of text shows the different ways in which writing for specialist and community insiders' as well as outsiders' results in different kinds of texts and views of science matter. The professional article, written for a specialist scientific community, creates a narrative of science, following the arguments of the scientist's claim. A scientific article written for a specialist audience normally concentrates on concepts and procedures rather than individuals, which are fore-grounded. This issue has already been elaborated upon above. People are the first and most important resource in curriculum planning and implementation (Wenger, 2008). Communities are strongly shaped by a collective history of pursuing particular goals within particular forms of social interaction. Torfing (1999) gives a primary role to discourse analysis, insisting on its role of shaping the social relations.

• The role of Content teachers in EAP

ESL teachers should meet with content teachers to discuss aspects of the local curriculum implementation (Chamot& O'Malley, 1994). Hyland (2006) looks at disciplines more structurally as tribes or communities with recognisable identities and particular cultural attributes. Mauranen (1993), as cited in Hyland (2006), describes how national cultural attributes and practices can influence a student's academic writing. Horowitz (1986a: 447) maintains that in essays there is "a specific range of acceptable writing behaviour that is dictated upon, not only by the individual, but also by the academic community". The features of a text are, therefore, influenced by the community for which it was written for and this should be taught through the specific genres of communities (Porter (1992). This scholar argues that such a community has conventions, a vital history, and mechanisms for wielding power, institutional hierarchies and vested interests. Swales' (1990) discussion also highlights the socio-rhetorical character of communities organised to accomplish common goals through their use of particular genres.

Killingsworth and Bilbertson (1992), however, argue against such a concentration on discourse-based criteria, privileges and global perspectives over local systems. For social construction purposes and EAP, there is growing literature in academic discourse studies which has begun to reveal how different rhetorical features express the purposes and understandings of particular disciplines (Berkenkotter and Huckin, 1995: 21). Skilled writers acquire their ability to use and to employ language skills strategically as 'genre knowledge' within subject disciplinary contexts. Some writers have sought to "localise" the subject concepts into "place discourse communities" (Swales, 1990) or "communities of practice", (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

Learning a discipline implies, among other goals, learning to use language most appropriately in the disciplinary approved ways (Hyland, 2006). In a disciplinary community of practice and texts, writing involves interactions of all the parties of the community. That is why it is argued, in agreement with Becher (1989) above, that each subject discipline might be seen as an academic tribe on its own with particular norms, knowledge, conventions and modes of inquiry all constituting a separate culture (Bartholomae, 1986; Swales, 1990). Through the code of their specialised languages, these tribes consecrate their cultural privilege through writing genres (Bourdieu and Passeron, 1996).

• The notion of discourse community

The notion of discourse community/community of practices in language has therefore been seen as useful as it seeks to locate writers within particular social and academic contexts in order for them to identify how their rhetorical meanings are dependent on their linguistic and academic purposes, settings and audiences (Bruffee, 1986). An individual's engagement in specific discourses comprises his or her membership into that subject discipline. An example

in verifiable support of the Swales' argument that there is a link between language medium and content knowledge (1990). In the case of students' final assessment results at KIST, the language courses' results are not credited to the student at the end of the academic year, and yet this may be linked to students' mastery of writing skills which have been progressively decreasing over the past number of years.

A community of practices notion constitutes a set of key features that serve to develop the use of the requisite knowledge in the learner (Wenger, 2008). Indeed, communities of practice are everywhere, at work, at school, at home, in our hobbies as we all belong to a number of them. Wenger (1998), as cited in Johnston (2003), defines community of practices through the language dimensions of mutual engagement, joint enterprise and shared repertoire.

A discourse community/community of practices is, therefore, a community that has "conventions, a vital history, mechanisms for wielding power, institutional hierarchies, vested interests and so on" (Porter 1992: 106). The socio-rhetorical character of community of practices is also organised to accomplish common goals through their use of particular genres (Swales, 1990; Lave and Wenger, 1991). Students in specific disciplines need to be skilled in and be able to employ the 'genre knowledge' of their disciplines. In the meantime, their ability to use the conventions of these genres reveals the extent to which they can comply with the community's norms, epistemology and ideology (Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995: 21). Within that culture, the community, society and the individual interact with each other. These three (individual, community, and society) sometimes function cyclically in terms of how they influence each other cross purposes (Kumaravadivelu, 2008:13).

The ethnographic research which is participant-oriented and draws from the insiders themselves, has been used to complement discourses and contributed to better students' own understanding of communities (Prior, 1998; Swales, 1998). Communities then are seen to

differ from one another along both social and cognitive dimensions. Students in varied scholarly communities face different challenges to understand, interpret and translate more complex genres in their academic texts. Particularly, visual texts are ever present in science books and research papers (Berkenkotter and Huckin, 1995).

The cognitive view of the writing process is that it is a "non-linear process whereby writers discover ideas and then reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meaning" (Zamel, 1983: 161). The cognitive aspects of writing have been prioritised by most researchers who see it as essentially a problem-solving and context situated activity. Writing is therefore, seen as a social act that can only occur within a specific social situation. When seen as a situated activity, it does not stand on its own as the discrete act of writer, but emerges as a confluence of many streams of activity such as reading, talking, observing, acting, making, thinking, feeling as well as transcribing words on paper (Prior, 1998: xi). The notion of an audience is very much a contentious area of literary debate. The LeCercle (2000) has been much discussed as rhetoric (Park, 1982), Even though the audience is, in fact, rarely a concrete reality, particularly in academic and professional contexts, and must be seen as essentially representing a construction of the writer which may shift during the composing process.

Social construction is based on the idea that the ways in which we think and the concepts we use to understand and describe the world are all language constructs that are generated by knowledge of the communities and are used by them to maintain coherence (Bruffee, 1986: 777). The boundaries and development of community of practice are a matter that is continuously negotiated by all members bound together in its joint construction. Wenger (1998) and Lave and Wenger, (1991) discuss how the dynamic membership adopted by interactions among learners contributes to meaningful learning. It has been suggested that perhaps in addition to all the above, evaluating an EAP course at every end of the programme

helps to rework those areas that presented difficulties and get the problems solved before the next programme begins (Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001). In short, a community of practices also involving another system of social engagement with the culture of the community members and therefore should be seen as representing the legitimate discourses that are facilitating, defining and maintaining particular epistemologies and academic boundaries.

2.6 Assessment and Feedback in EAP

Assessment can be classified under three main uses: administrative, instructional and research (Cohen, 1994). Institutional tests use diagnosis, progress, feedback and evaluation as tests of writing ability but these have been limited. Assessment tests at the university have the purpose of informing the students about their progress and from there make necessary decisions on their participation in the programme. Therefore, prior to designing writing tests, we need to know our rationale of testing as well as the purpose of assessments (Bachman & Palmer, 1996).

2.6.1 Assessment

Assessing EAP course is different from assessing general language skills in the sense that it has to take into account the assessment modes suggested by EAP practitioners. These include assessment tests such as achievement, placement, portfolio, and so on. There has been concern on whether there is need to assess English language skills or if we need to assess academic writing skills (Hayes, 1996). This author affirms that in order to assess academic writing; cognitive and meta-cognitive model of assessment would be relevant in generating coherent specific texts. Each assessment has a purpose. For example, while general language proficiency can be assessed to make inferential decisions on admission to a given academic

programme, placement into different levels of a language programme, course exemption or selection for a particular job, so that an achievement test looks at the degree to which individuals or groups of students have met specific instructional goals. As a result, the situations in which such tests have been researched have been mostly administrative, resulting in the use of assessments like placement test, general proficiency test, and the like.

On the other hand, portfolio assessment is another possible form of assessment that is seen as an alternative way of evaluating students' writing prowess in English. It is used, not only in classroom testing, but also in out of classroom practices on a large scale. This approach is used by English first language educators from primary to higher education.

2.6.2 Assessment of student progress

Assessment of students' progress is essential in order to maintain continuous information on their academic accomplishments in relationship to the instructional goals. Most teachers assess the student's initial performance upon entering a programme and monitor performance each term in order to adapt instructional methods to the student's needs when it becomes necessary (Chamot& O'Malley, 1994). The ability to write in a language effectively in a globalising world is becoming increasingly important and writing instruction is now playing an important role in both second- and foreign-language educational programmes. Two key issues that arise are on decisions to design assessment tasks or scoring procedures. We can ask ourselves the question, what it is that we are trying to test and whether or not we can provide a clear purpose for the testing (Chamot& O'Malley, 1994). Writing, as compared to speaking, can be seen as a more standardised system which must be acquired through specialised instruction (Grabowski, 1996: 75).

Hamp-Lyons, (2006) defines portfolio as "a collection of the writer's work over a period of time, usually a semester or school year". Although process approaches to the teaching, learning and assessment of writing processes remain popular and convincing, portfolios as alternative assessment method are also accepted for their ability to provide students with performances in key skill areas in different teaching contexts (Hamp-Lyons, 2006). A portfolio-based approach to assessment appears to provide enough room for both teachers and students to engage in feedback processes on writing. All the processes that the student goes through up to the final draft are part of the assessment portfolio. However, the issue with portfolio assessment is that it has a large literature to refer to which is only in first language, and less on the teaching, learning and assessment in second language (Freedman & Medway, 1994; Peirce, 1995, and Song & August, 2000). The greatest strength and power of portfolio in teaching and learning comes when the potential for a focus on process in learners' development is demonstrable (Hamp-Lyons & Condon 2000; Rochmer et al., 1991).

Assessing writing processes through portfolio analysis is a worthwhile strategy when comparing it to the use of one or more essays written in 50 or less. The fact that portfolio assessment looks at all students' texts collected and collated into a folder makes it possible for teachers to have enough time to read through the whole folder in order to make an opinion about the student's progress. Therefore, teachers need to request students to select from their own texts written texts that they will keep their portfolio for them to be submit for assessment later (Hamp-Lyon, 2006).

Criterion-referenced assessment (CRA) and norm-referenced assessment (NRA) are other ways of assessing writing processes, each type having its own uniqueness and value (Broun & Hudson; 2002). This is in contrast to the arguments by Davies (1990) and the implications of it by North (2000:19). They argue that a "test is meant, by definition, to disseminate, to produce a rank order and an exercise that is not so much intended to be".

What is problematic about it is that this is an indirect assessment of students' mastery of language acquisition skils, such as IELTS and TSWE which are seen as irrelevant sometimes because it has little to do with communication per se, but rather focus on accuracy in writing processes. A controversy that sometimes arises is in the view that rather than focus on the most explicit genres that draw on the readers' assumed understanding, these assessment tests should instead focus on use of grammar and error corrections to it, and simply develop the general understanding of language in the learners. In this kind of situation, the teacher is seen as a language expert (Nystrand, Doyle & Himley, 1986: 81). The Test of Standard Written English (TSWE) and the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) both measure the assessment product in statistical terms rather than measuring the writing development process. TOEFL is the biggest language assessment measure for pre-university students in the USA. It involves multiple choice selection of questions, (50 multiple choice items in 30' minutes policy) and focuses on sentence completion, multiple-choice error identification, and correction of grammatical errors. These tests are used in large international examinations and are often considered autonomous (context- free). However, that position is highly debatable.

On the other hand, the direct assessment measure such as the Test of Writing English (TWE), introduced in 1986 in the USA, has been used to complement TOEFL's Section 2. Students are given 30 minutes to plan, write and revise one essay). International English Language Testing System (IELTS) is a British-oriented assessment system which plays an alternative assessment role for university students' admission programmes. Here, students are asked to write texts of 150 to 250 words in 60 minutes and have the choice to use either their 'academic' or 'general' topics. According to some authorities, the success of TOEFL and IELTS is now believed to have made it possible for th language proficiency tests to be obtained quickly and easily (Turner, 2004). These measures provide little information about the individual students' abilities to write appropriately for different audiences or purposes,

and that grammatical accuracy cannot be considered as an appropriate assessment mode for EAP writing (Hamp-Lyon 1991; White, 1993). Thus, TWE and TOEFL as assessment tools are not suitable for EAP.

However, there is some justification that tests can be used in powerful ways and in a variety of contexts to assess learners (Norton & Toohey, 2004:72). When reading science texts with "images and verbiage complement or contradict each other, it is obviously and most likely to result in possible interpretations of meaning that cannot be inferred from the words or image alone" (Unsworth, 2008:269; Norton and Toohey, 2004:72). Multimodal pedagogy strategies used in teaching language and literacy skills and aiming at helping students benefit from their classroom learning activities demand our special attention (Stein, 2004). The semiotic tasks can be understood within the realm of "a specific culture, for particular purposes and with particular consequences." This view is emphasised by Chamot& O'Malley (1994: 96) who argue that teachers need to understand how their students learn in order to know how best to teach them.

2.6.3 Feedback

After looking at the assessment issues comes the issue of feedback. Feedback is a key component of teaching second language writing processes from a social constructivist and academic literacy point of view (Hyland and Hyland, 2006). Its importance in instructional theory emerged with the development of learner-centred approaches to writing processes of instruction in North America First Language (L1) composition classes during the 1970s. Use of the "writing process approach" gives greater attention to the teacher-student encounters around texts and encourages the teachers to support the writers through their multiple drafts by providing immediate feedback on the written work seen. The written comments, as a

feedback to students' writing skills, sometimes contributes to the students' self- confidence (Kroll, 1990: 60) which cannot be attainable through the corrections of surface errors while much more significant problems like serious ambiguity of meaning go uncorrected (Zamel, 1985). Feedback is, therefore, part of the broader questions of how best teachers should respond to the students' writing skills (Kroll, 1990: 57-58). To that end, teachers have to deal with aspects such as the number of assignments and the types of assignments.

Feedback is very important in providing students with the rhetorical choices that are central to new academic or professional literacy skills and as a way of assisting students in negotiating for their access to new subject knowledge and academic practices. It is clear that many areas of feedback remain unsolved in determining the kinds of institution, the classroom, the students' purposes in learning to write, their prior proficiencies and the genres they are studying (Ferris, 2003:10).

2.6.3.1 Feedback in a typical EAP class

In a typical EAP class, students receive feedback from their instructors and/or from classmates on one or more essay drafts before turning them in for a final grade. Thus, a single written assignment may be the product of several weeks' work (Burns & Coffin, 2001:174). Another approach to assessing writing skills is called the portfolio. Portfolio is "a collection of written texts written for different purposes over a period of time" (Burns & Coffin, 2001:197). Feedback consists of ways by which teachers can assist students towards a better understanding of their texts, their readers, writing processes and their learning. In so doing, they develop their awareness of writing skills and language use more generally (Hyland and Hyland, 2006). Thus, a useful way to examine the relationship of texts may be to examine the feedback that staff gives to students as a genre. Thus, in providing feedback, teachers respond

to students' needs terms of exposure to critical language skills in their community and not just to texts. When teachers give feedback to their learners, they have to choose the most appropriate language and style to accomplish a range of informational, pedagogic and interpersonal goals (Ferries, 1995; Hyland, 1998; Hyland & Hyland, 2001).

2.6.3.2 The importance of feedback

The importance of feedback is also acknowledged in process based classrooms practices by scholars who are in the field of second language learning where writing skills are seen as fundamental (Anderson, 1989). Through these genre-oriented strategies, teachers employ scaffolding learning techniques where they provide some feedback to the learners. The feedback forms a key element of students' method of boosting their confidence in writing compositional work. Authorities argue that feedback should be understood as a key component for teaching second language writing and academic or literacy skills and needs to be a central part of English and EAP teachers' instructional repertoires (Hyland and Hyland, 2006; and Hyland, 2006).

In real life there are many cases where feedback challenges remains unsolved, as teachers fail to give back feedback to their learners on assessed written work, maybe until the students have completed their studies (Lea & Street, 1998:168-169; Hyland and Hyland, 2006). In order to complement and reinforce the feedback from EAP teachers, content subject teachers also need to provide students with constructive feedback on their performance both in the content area and the language skills area (Cavusgil, 2007). In this regard, subject matter courses in the shared subject areas can then become a source for reading and writing materials for the students and also for their tasks for the EAP classes so that both EAP and

subject teachers can consult with each other on the needs of their language learners (Belcher, 2004).

To conclude on feedback issues, the researcher believes that writing is widely seen in education as crucial for both encouraging the learner as well consolidating learning understanding in the field of study. These issues of curriculum material, assessment and feedback can all positively or negatively influence EAP teachers and/or students. Given that the success in EAP can also be influenced by students' and/or teachers' identity, ideology, power and agency, community of practices and investment towards the course itself. Effective feedback is therefore crucial to success to the whole instructional programme.

2.6.3.3 Evaluation

At the end of EAP classes, in order to consolidate the EAP course, Flowerdew and Peacock (2001) recommend an evaluation of EAP programme. They suggest that as many participants as possible, including students, teachers, subject teachers, institutions and administrators, can contribute to this important aspect of teaching and learning. Thus, this triangulated view may be made very comprehensive enough and serves as basis for future improvement for both teaching and learning (Alderson, 1992). It is generally agreed that three different kinds of tests can be seen as relevant to the EAP programme: placement tests, which measure students' abilities in meeting the demands of mastering the language. This can be done at the start of a whole course so that students can be placed in the right EAP class, achievement tests, which tests the extent to which students have learnt their language-based skills and items i as well as conducting the proficiency tests which are normally used to assess and describe students' linguistic abilities before enrolling in any university. Programme evaluation, as we view it below, entails regularly evaluating all the other five elements in the curriculum in a formative manner (and, perhaps in a summative manner, where the

programme is being terminated). Evaluating the effectiveness of a teaching and learning programme and its whole curriculum can be done before, during and after the programme has ended.

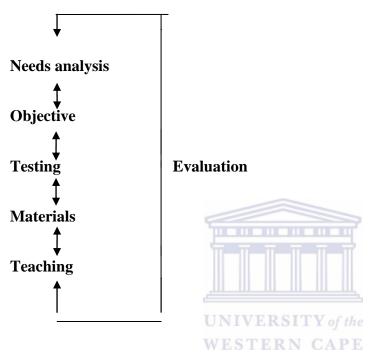


Figure 2.2 Components of language curriculum development evaluation (adapted from Brown & Hudson, 2002:29).

2.6.4 Writing multimodal genres and discourses in EAP and science disciplines

Multimodality refers to "texts which communicate messages using more than one semiotic mode or channel of communication" (http://www.labspace.open.ac.uk). In addition, it uses several modes of communication through which teaching of science subjects can be done. Therefore, being able to use a multimodal approach to the teaching and learning of EAP in the contexts of varied science disciplines is crucial (Kress et al. (2001)

Essentially, "multimodality is a more integrated perspective which deals with all the means we have of making meaning" (Unsworth, 2008:173). This social interaction theory includes

three key elements: disciplinary differences, multi-modal discourses and genres. The questions that could be asked reside in knowing the content that is being analysed: *What is scientific knowledge? And how is it rhetorical?* Genres are often organised into disciplinary sets that share a common register (Swales, 1990). It is believed that the concept of academic genres and the discourses that they support are fundamental to students' successful participation in EAP practices (Sharpling, 2002). This is important when one is trying to find out the levels of mastery of language skills.

The teaching of multi-modality genres facilitates students' improvement in writing their course subjects. However, EAP teachers and students are believed not to be properly resourced on text genres that the teaching of EAP was supposed to focus on. In order to understand the significance of acclimate students in KIST may need a table of the genres that they might need to accustom themselves to and a table of the genres that they may need to cover in the EAP course, which two tables are then compared to each other in order to give the students a chance to know the correct standard of language and content mastery, through an analysis of possible overlaps. The researcher is of the view that unless EAP teaching materials accommodate identical genres that need to be promoted by science subjects, such as explanation, procedure, discussion, recounts, reports and argument, it may not be possible for EAP to respond to its mission and students might develop challenges of mastering the key language used in teaching and learning (see Chapter One).

EAP teachers seem to struggle to address the writing skills of the students' content courses and may need collaboration between teachers in the subject disciplines and language experts (Bhatia, 1993; Dudley-Evans, 2001; Flowerdew& Peacock, 2001; Johns, 1997; Starfield, 2001). The specific features of texts used in the disciplines other than specialized knowledge materials are rarely accessible to language teachers due to the fact that disciplinary texts are

multimodal. And yet it will be important to assess the language skills of these learners in the specific subject disciplines in Rwanda.

Research on multi-modality that was done by the London Group (1996), as cited in Cope and Kalantzis (2000), and also done by scholars in United States, United Kingdom and Australia have brought out crucial contributions of multi-literacy pedagogic projects and on methodology (anthropology versus textual approaches) of measuring mastery of language skills in subject disciplines. They are also concerned with change from verbal to visual and how this is reflecting meaning making processes. The frontier of literacy nowadays generally means that people must be able to interpret correctly both visual and verbal texts in subject content subjects, making the two increasingly complementary to each other and to open up new resources for meaning- making (Halliday 1994:359). Learners become accustomed to packages of pre-written forms of language from which they should be able to provide correct meanings of the multiple disciplinary demands (Thesen & Pletzen, 2006). Students need to be prepared to use their multiple disciplinary genres and meet their community's expectations in the context of specific tasks for particular content courses (Johns, 1997). This is the point at which it is essential to assess their language competence levels and its role in their learning.

The multi-modal nature of genre in science learning would suggest that there is need for collaboration between EAP instructors and instructors in the disciplines (Flowerdew& Peacock, 2001; Johns, 1998) to ensuring that careful attention is given to the full range of multi-media genres and practices for the benefit of the learner. The characteristic of academic writing is its discursive hybridity (Canagarajah, 1996). The term academic writing, which seems to imply a unity and consistent academic discourse, is still widely used in EAP genre theory discourse and in EAP research in general. One of the most popular handbooks for teachers of EAP at the college level is by Swales & Feak (2004): *The New Cambridge English Course Series*.

Academic texts have always been multi-modal (Hyland, 2006:52) and EAP genre tasks represent a wide range of possible network contacts that a particular individual or group of learners must engage (Swales, 1990). Part of that engagement team is the EAP instructors, over and above the subject discipline instructors. Thus, EAP plays a multi-modal role as it helps to reconcile the language skills thrust with its educational purpose. For an example, English for science education will be different from English for commerce, English for law, and so forth (Hyland, 2006). It means that choices of the subject disciplines imply of the listening, speaking, reading and writing skills that are involved in ability to choose particular language features that are created in subject texts (Martin, 1993). Students may not necessarily be at the same level of mastery of the requisite language skills. The following sections draw from scientific debates that are also related to possible EAP literacy implications.

2.6.4.1 KIST students' limited academic writing skills

Generally, students are not accustomed to writing in consonance with the issues mentioned above. This may be due to the fact that EAP teachers are not familiar with theories of EAP, and this can be seen in the kind of tasks students do or are given in their assignments, tests, examinations and projects. Students' writing slkills seem to point to lack mastery of particular linguistic features of the genre practices that are necessary for the teacher and the student to understand well the texts (Prior &Molle, 2008). Given this situation, EAP teachers would need to give students tasks involving multi-modal tasks, since most textbooks and articles used by teachers and students are highly influenced by graphic design and images (Prior & Molle, 2008). Cultivation of multimodal skills in the learners becomes crucial.

Another factor that makes EAP difficult for students is that the academic language that is used in the learning seems to be difficult and takes longer to learn than the general English language features. Academic language is used and functions, more often than not, in the classroom and includes such genres as explaining, informing, justifying, comparing, describing, classifying, providing, debating, persuading and evaluating (Chamot and O'Malley, 1994). It will be important to find out how students cope to use the above genres in their learning, but more specifically their writing output.

2.6.5 Multimodal genres and discourses in EAP and science disciplines.

The use of multimodal genres and discourses in EAP as well as in students' disciplines is crucial. The EAP classes therefore need to teach the genres and discourses that students meet in their discipline in order to facilitate and consolidate students' knowledge in that.

WESTERN CAPE

2.6.5.1 What makes science difficult for ESL students?

What seems difficult in science for most English second language students is probably that the discourse structure that is used in the subject discipline which might differ from the one the students are used to (English background knowledge). Students may also face problems with the language of science because it includes unfamiliar ways of handling information in textbooks, journal articles, teacher demonstrations, diagrams, charts and tables and experiments. Another issue with ESL students who study science courses is that they are "required to use the language that is scientifically accurate" (Chamot and O'Malley, 1994:198-202). In particular, science discourse demands a high level of knowledge of the texts which ought to be decontextualised in order to facilitate students' easier understanding, and therefore developing their thinking and creative minds (Schutte, 1992:105-28). It is possible that there could be gaps between subject discipline expectaions of students'

communicative level and the actual language performance by the learners. The next subsection advances the motives behind the challenges facing ESL students to write acceptable scientific texts.

Students in the sciences are exposed to a lot reading and writing of multi-modal texts in their course subjects. Given that language and science have a close relationship, and that science tasks demand the use of words and visuals, the needs of students will differ from student to student and from one field and level to another, creating possibilities of comprehension problems (Lin and Martin, 2005). In fact, students may encounter problems when it comes to writing what they have learnt (observations and documentations), and this may be due to lack of language learning opportunities or exposure on how science texts are written and can be read. "These strategies may help students learn the lesson, but might not help them improve their content reading skills or their independence" (Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001:185). Hence, we end up having a lot of science learners with challenges of mastering the content because of poor language background.

Research reveals that it can be difficult for students to appropriately include scientific genres and discourses in their writing since science subjects use multi-modal and multi-disciplinary texts with specialized subjects and diverse topics (Martin and Veel, 1998; Lemke, 1998: 283-84). Learning a new language for academic needs is even more difficult and challenging because it combines learning of science and learning of the language, which eventually means comprehending what all the multi-modal texts mean (Unsworth, 2008). Moreover, a combination of meaning making media that is expressed through more than one mode means a 'multiplicity' of challenges for the learner, thus, making a complete task for greater than the simple sum of its parts' (Lemke, 1998: 283-84; Daly and O'Donnell, 2008:269).

2.6.5.2 Writing in science disciplines

Writing, in a science context, refers to social practices interpreted through a combination of technical and rhetorical language structure. These social practices use science discourses and academic texts which are multi-modal and multidisciplinary in their nature and orientation and science discourse also uses the grammatical metaphor, that is, the grammar pertaining to EAP register and requires specialised teaching of academic genres (Halliday& Martin, 1993). It is, therefore, further argued that language skills acquisition should be deeply embedded in subject discipline content as well as the acquisition of grammatical constructions that are relevant to science in the context of scientific content, such as the passive voice and past tense (Orr and Schutte, 1992). Research looks at the ability of science students to use grammatical metaphors appropriately and to their own benefit.

Existing literature seem to suggest that ESL students struggle to conceptually process both language and science material to the extent that it negatively affects their learning (Hyland, 2006:46; Swales, 1990/2004). In science classes all four language academic skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) are required and necessary for the facilitation of students' learning since grammatical forms and structures in science textbooks become increasingly complex. The language of science is thought to be naturally embedded in science activities, and students are expected to deal with their academic activities such as teacher demonstrations, student experiments, observations, discussions and exploration of scientific phenomena in the best way possible. An analysis of how students are copying with their language skills becomes necessary. Concept learning in science may seem difficult for ESL students because of some language barriers to their learning (Sutton, 1992; Martin & Halliday, 1993; Lemke (1990). It is difficult to identify any 'pure' or 'original' form of science as this requires a high degree of systematic and intelligent manipulation and integration of complex investigation (Lemke, 1998:5; Chamot and O'Malley, 1994; and

Kern, 2000). Students need to develop a responsive, reactive, interactive, creative reading and writing skills of higher order of thinking if they want to be successful in their learning. The discourse of science refers to a social practice of science that is interpreted through the combination of technical expressions like technical vocabularies and technical grammar, and also through rhetoric language structure and formal speech, an important mark in science books, journal articles and other scientific resources (Chamot and O'Malley; 1994:198-202).

The genres and discourses of science accommodate a special form of writing that deals with texts (Lemke, 1993:21), using science concepts that make meaning of varied and different disciplinary discourses (Hyland, 2006:4; Scarcella, 2001:12; Martin and Veel, 1998:4 – 26; Schutte 1992:105 -28). Scientific genres and discourses are made easily understandable and meaningful to novice scientists if they are contextualised. The research looks at the difficulties for students when it comes to understanding science classification systems and using them to recall important information in the context of the discourse that has be clarified (Chamot and O'Malley; 1994). When students are not inducted into science genres and discourses, it may be difficult for them to be inducted successfully in it by investing in the multi-modal analysis of the nature of science.

In order for students to comprehend successfully their course subjects, EAP teachers need to include both genre and discourse texts consisting of language literacy and visuals. This would then seem to address the literacy needs of students in science. EAP teachers need to include in their teaching materials the genres and discourses promoted by science texts. Since the multi-modality nature of science is influenced by the differences found in disciplines, it is crucial to understand the academic genres that may need to be used in different disciplines. This is explored in next section.

2.6.6 Challenges faced by writing using multimodal genres inscience disciplines

When the multi-modal genres and discourses of EAP and science are put together, something that justifies the teaching of EAP to students enrolled in science, they bring about two challenges to the learners. The first difficulty is in learning using unfamiliar English language structures in the form of its multi-modality, (Martin and Veel, 1998). Secondly, another difficulty is to learn science subjects which are also multi-modal and multidisciplinary (Hyland, 2006:52). The English language is used to teach science that is embedded in scientific activities where students need to interpret those activities through symbols of disciplinary community, Lemke, (1998:26) such as student experiments and teacher demonstrations, and refers to social practice of science interpreted through the combination of technical expressions or technical vocabularies and technical grammar, as well as rhetoric language structure texts that is commonly found in science books, journal articles and other scientific resources (Chamot and O'Malley; 1994:198-202). To be able to write for the scientific audience students need develop specialised ways of dealing with written texts (Lemke, 1993:21; Kern, 2000) and scientific concepts that are used in order for them to make meaning out of and the distinguished and varied disciplinary discourses (Hyland, 2006:4; Scarcella, 2001:12; Martin and Veel, 1998:4 – 26; Schutte 1992:105 - 28). An assessment has to be made of how the students are faring in the different discourses in science and the English language used a medium of communication.

It can generally be noted that the language of classroom science is simply the language of science that is adapted to the classroom situation. It is this discourse that normally becomes the source of difficulties to students' understanding of science subjects (Halliday & Martin, 1993: x). For example, for the student to understand science texts consisting of simple language and context may seem easier than managing science texts which combine, contrast and show contradictions of certain nature at the same time, because the language (which are

words in context) and science concepts (which are principles being described) may present themselves in form of images, graphs, and/or tables (Lemke, 1998:283-84). It is this multimodal set-up, where images together with words is meant to provide meaning that sometimes would be difficult to detect from the point of view of the learner (Unsworth, 2008:267).

2.7 Challenges of EAP in post-colonial Africa

Post-coloniality as a concept has arisen in different debates worldwide (Ashcroft et al, 2003) that have interpreted and understood it differently in different parts of the world. Put simply, it refers to the continued existence of those geographical spaces that were once under the rule and administration of other countries, mostly from Africa, the Americas and Asia that were once administered by different European countries. It also refers to the cultivated psychological thinking that has resulted from it. Recent research has shown that Western language learning materials that have been used in post-colonial countries often constitute major challenges because of failure to take into account the socio-political realities of that time (Canagarajah, 2002). This researcher argues that although identities are said to be mixed, powerful nations are the ones determining which identities are credible or not, and this appreciation is based on their own appreciation of what can be called credible identities.

In the United Kingdom and the United States, the spread of language policies that take English as the medium of instruction arose from political and economic reasons, and this has been an obstacle to the learning development of EAP in other set-ups (Hyland, 2006), because these nations exploit their diplomatic ties in order to get some material advantages, especially in Africa. What seems to be the obstacle is that in most cases the EAP materials that the UK and the US produce for their own market are not probably very relevant to the

usual EAP needs and practices, simply because they are mostly restricted to grammar rather than use of the scientific language context of post-colonial countries, especially in Africa. Grammar-related materials, for an example, may not be able to tackle most of the curriculum issues like reading and writing for a specific scientific audience nor will they help science students to be able to use other science terminologies in their learning activities.

The power relationship between the former colonial country and newly independent country continues to be relevant when considering the need to conduct research and publish materials in English. It seems that modern technology is not necessarily the reason for assuming or using particular educational approaches, some of which might not be suitable for all circumstances, such as learning EAP for science educational purposes. The temptation has been to use these educational approaches across different educational institutions found in different political and social environments (Canagarajah, 2002; Halliday, 1994). Tollefson (2002:269) reminds us that the focus of the English language has shifted from being the language of colonisation in the past years, to fit into the new socio-economic and political situation of being a worldwide medium of instruction.

Former British colonies generally made their choice to use the English language as a medium of instruction or language of instruction in their schools (Lin & Martin, 2005) against a background of many learners who did not use that language as their mother tongue or could comprehend it properly. In Tanzania and South Africa, for an example, a number of pupils were noted to have failed to cope with use of English as a medium of instruction in most of their studies because they were only exposed to it in classrooms (Probyn, 2005:181). A similar situation was found in Kenya and Uganda where the majority of students and teachers, especially those living in rural communities where there was very little exposure to English resources and materials. In some cases they were actually non-existent, making the learners to face serious challenges studying in English and using it in their learning of other

subjects (Bunyi, 2005). In Rwandan language context is that real change in tertiary education was most evident after the introduction of 2007 tertiary educational reform policies which introduced English as a medium of instruction (Karoro, 2010). It was not easy for most of the learners.

2.7.1 Challenges caused by the learning materials in foreign languages

Existing literature seem to show that there was a challenge in most post-colonial states when English language learning and teaching material/programmes were used blanketly in post-colonial countries. The inequality gap technologically and economically between the former colonial countries and their former colonies was just too big (Canagarajah, 2000), to the extent that it made the teaching of English a limiting factor for those who did not possess material resources (Luke, 2000). It eventually became reflected as the inequality of teaching and learning material and their distribution and applicability in the classroom situation. It has been described as use of a single theory of language learning in academic circles as generalised language application to different language settings and contexts (Cameron & McCarthy, 1991). This inequality can be seen from the pre-packaged grammar-oriented and context free teaching language materials that is globally published for the purpose and use in academic institutions (Canagarajah, 1996). As a result, poor quality English, both as a subject and as medium of instruction, has persistently been noted in most postcolonial states in Africa. Yet, despite all these difficulties, English has been retained unchallenged as medium of instruction and has been maintained as a response to globalisation (Canagarajah, 1996).

Institutions of learning in post-colonial countries have continued to purchase learning materials produced elsewhere because they believe that textbooks, research journals and teacher training programmes marketed and sold to African countries can be used effectively

and efficiently in all countries (Norton, 1997). This practice has resulted in a professional dependence whereby African communities, including in Rwanda, heavily draw upon colonial teaching materials for English and science. And yet, in most regions in Africa where English has historically been imposed as a medium of instruction on former British colonial countries (Phillipson, 1992; Lowenberg, 2000) and in the globalising Francophone countries students have continued to struggle to use it at all levels. This situation has generated new challenges for institutions where quite a number of students have had to learn English without ever having to interact meaningfully in this language outside the classroom. Nevertheless, the former colonial countries assume that their own discursive and pedagogical norms merit universal transfer (Halliday, 1994; Canagarajah, 1999). It would be important to assess the competence of teachers and learners in English in some institutions in Rwanda.

The fact that the teaching and learning materials being used lacks sensitivity to the situational concerns for the students in post-colonial Africa does not seem to have ever been considered at all. It may well imply that there may be need to update language policies and practices in Africa in order to fulfil today's students' needs in their context and social environment. Language should be viewed as "a transformable tool" in order to fit into the changing world (Ashcroft, 2001:59). This should encourage teachers and students in Africa to become more critical and conscious of what they find as useful materials in their own contexts (MacIntyre, 1994). Unless the idea of teaching English is carried out with educational or academic interest in mind, the teaching of EAP will not be successful (Pennycook, 1989) and this will impede the TESL profession (Canagarajah, 1999). In the next section I propose to discuss and illustrate how some factors underlie EAP practices around the world.

2.7.1.1 Identity, Ideology and Attitudes

Identity, ideology, power/authority, agency and investment in EAP programmes go hand-inhand with academic literacy (Johnston, 2003) and when they are wrongly used they can
impede students' progress (Chen, 2010). The relationship between language and identity is
that they both can "positively or negatively influence language learning and teaching"
(Norton 1997:413-414). Sometimes what binds the students' identity to their attitudes always
comes from the major ideological thinking. For example, whenever students want to give
their views on policy issues or decisions, they reflect on their attitude as well. That is,
ideological positions shape their attitudinal dispositions. Students can also learn language
successfully when they have positive attitudes towards that language or "identify themselves
with it, and when that identity of a language is determined by a powerful group, individual, or
a country" (Norton, 1992:411). At the societal level, identity is understood to be the desire for
affiliation, security and safety. For the three desires to be realised, there is need to possess the
necessary resources for students to be able to cope with the so-called global village (Norton,
1997).

Identity is a guide with which ESL students negotiate for their place in a new social order, and if need be, challenge it through the meaning-making activities that they participate in. Morgan (1995/1996) observes that "identity work in an ESL classroom is not just descriptive but transformative". Identity refers to the whole relationship between individuals and members of a group who share a common history, a common language and similar ways of understanding the world. But it is not certain whether we can say that all communities using the English language today can be said to be one community of speakers who share equally the same values and experiences of the language features of English. Bourdieu's (1996) work complements West's (1993) emphasis on the relationship between identity and symbolic power, in that speech cannot be understood without taking into account the person who is

speaking, and the person who is speaking cannot be understood outside the larger network of relationships. Language teachers face challenges and struggle to help students construct their own identity Kumalavadivelu (2008) and this is mostly due to the fact that through the use of language brings with it some form of social organisation among people and is likely to have social and political consequences" (Weedon, 1987:21). English language teaching and learning, therefore, underscores the existing power relations among many groups of people, and also brings out identity negotiation processes and the language learning investment (West, 1992). For EAP teachers to encourage students' involvement in learning, they can use topics that are related to students' subject areas, rather than through the so called "urgently demanded skills" where students are kept busy learning grammatical forms of language (Hyland, 2006:588). In this regard, students can be motivated, not only by the use of their content topics, but also by knowing that they are developing concepts and skills associated with these subjects (Hyland, 2006: 360). In doing that, we need to assess the relationship between language competence and performance and the grasp of content skills in science WESTERN CAPE learners.

Gee (2001:99) defines the concept of identity as "a certain 'kind of person' or even as several different 'kinds' at once...at a given time and place". This definition implies that identity is situated in relational social contexts and situations. It is dynamic and multiple, as it shifts from one context to the next (Norton, 2000; Toohey, 2000; Hawkins, 2004; Iddings & Katz, 2007). However, identity needs to be understood as the product of negotiation between an individual's identity claims and the availability of other identity choices that possible and can be determined by power relations in various social contexts (Hawkins, 2005; Norton, 2000). Normally, all students will have multiple activities such as school tasks, resources, language and literacy research activities that they need to perform in a particular subject. Students develop specific academic language skills in English through cognitively demanding those

activities in which their comprehension is assisted by contextual support systems which can then sustain and guide instruction of the content (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994: 718-720). All this puts language skills at the centre of all learning experiences. There is need to assess whether this is actually happening in practice. There is need to bring out the impact of the language medium in actual learning situations.

While language teacher identity is viewed as something relatively permanent, unitary and uncontroversial (Johnston 2003), such assumptions have been challenged by Norton (1997), arguing that among other things, identity is always negotiated through language and other forms of social interactions which change depending on the situation and space. For this reason, Uchida, (1997), argues that the identities of English language teachers are complex and deserve separate treatment. The context support system can assist students in developing their academic language skills in English (Archer, 1999) as well as their content skills.

It is also argued that identity relates to *desire*, the desire for recognition, affiliation and for security and safety (West, 1992). To this scholar, all the above stated issues cannot exist without the distribution of material and other resources in the community. Bourdieu's (1997) work appears to complement West's and focus on the relationship between identity and symbolic power in society. The right to speak intersects student's language identity as one with the full ability to speak correctly, in the case of this study, in English.

Ideology of literacy (Street, 1984) is the ideology of literacies that have been conducted by the New Literacy Studies (Scollon 2001:118) and maintains consistency in referencing style. Street, therefore, suggests that this literacy should be replaced by a multiple view of literacy, one which will show the differences among varied forms of literacies and their associated competences. The EAP programme came in to give power new meaning to literacy flexibility learners and teachers, so as to enable them to reshape the curriculum with academic literacies

that include complex writing discourses inside as well as outside the classrooms. Subject teachers also need to complement these strategies with others in order to consolidate their knowledge of EAP and the knowledge of their course disciplines (Lin & Martin, 2005).

2.7.1.2 Agency, Power/Authority

Agency becomes a way to assess teachers' work and subsequent relations evolving out of the education systems that draw from both local and global policy making. The local policy making is influenced by global policy making. In many ways the education systems function by relying on structure and agents that are involved in operating the educational system (Sinclair, 1999). Transformation as a result of globalisation sees not only structures but also in what people do or undergo. What teachers do is framed by the concept of agency in relation to the global education policy (Vongolis-Macrow, 2005). The 1990s presented a new era for teachers when it included global dimensions to the way that their profession was conceptualised (Mason, 1998).

The educational globalisation era has highlighted the macro agencies which announced the shift from national to global perspectives (Robertson, 1990). In the 1960s, the World Bank conducted research, calculating human capital values and how these could be used to fight the cycle of poverty in the developing world. As a result, investment in educational development was not only beneficial to economic empowerment of the people, but was also built and contributed to the social progress of mankind through the growth of the right to education as a human right and necessity (Psacharopoulos, 1985).

As agents within the education system, teachers always seek to form alliances with other social groups in order to broaden and strengthen their collective capacity to control their working conditions, practices and representations in social issues (Connell, 1995; Lawn,

1987; Ozga & Lawn, 1981). Teachers' obligations and responsibilities in restructured education systems became directed towards the ultimate delivery system of education as a product/service in order to improve the performance of students (Hoy, Jardine, & Wood, 2000). In order to ensure that an improved educational system was built, emphasis was put on the need to ensure that teachers were not only concerned with student achievement but also with wider social issues that affected their positions and their professions (Hartley, 1992). The continued authority of the teacher as a knowledgeable specialist, allowed for a meaningful role for teachers that could be pursued with freedom and passion (Britzman, 2000). The global economic restructuring on knowledge in education, made teachers' expertise to be used in learning and pedagogy is not just used to inform or reform. Rather, based on speculations, teachers began to be taken as the mere messengers of the system and were denied the representation at the level of policy decision making in the whole education system (Smyth and Shacklock, 1998).

UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE

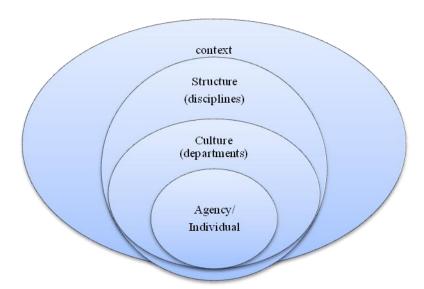


Figure 2.3 Agency, department, discipline and context

The global demand for knowledge transfer in education gives teachers the authority and new meaning in the way education and knowledge are conceptualized.

Agency, as it is represented in the figure below, is also central to the teacher, to the students, to everything else like departments, structure of the disciplines to which the student belongs to and the social context. The student is expected to speak or write positively or negatively on the educational impact (Martin, 2002). The use of students' disciplinary genres and their particular structure and context in teaching EAP contributes to the overall shape of the writing in the discipline.

Established as a macro agency, especially constructed to represent teachers at the global level of policy making, a teachers' union aims to further the cause of organizations of teachers and other educational employees, to promote the status, interests and welfare of their members, and defend their trade union and professional rights (Education International, 2002). Education International embarks upon protecting teachers' professionalism, giving opportunities to educational and social change that aims at intervening in the construction of teachers' agency. It represents teachers as a global, autonomous collective that is able to address social, educational and teacher changes (reform by UNESCO). What Education

International is trying to do is to maintain the collective strength of teachers and all employees in education (Education International, 2002) in order to manage change and assert control over the way that teachers respond to change.

Adapting to the complex demands made on teachers by new structures is an issue facing their profession. In a detailed report called *Teacher' Roles and Global Change*, Higginson (1996) concludes that while there is much rhetoric about the necessity of teachers' input into education policy and changes in practice, teachers' opinion on policy, objectives and strategies are rarely sought. Delors (1996), speaking at the 45th International Conference on Education held by UNESCO, identifies globalisation as a source of conflict for today's teachers and appeals for more analysis of teachers' conditions under the influence of globalisation in order to analyse the double standard operating against teachers. While teachers not only engage in the change by contributing to new structural conditions, the educational policy tends to often disempower them by excluding them from the process of educational change (Young, 1998; Zanten, 2000).

Power and authority, likewise, play an important role in the relationship between discourse and social groups (Hyland, 2000). Power relations is a vital and influential concept which impacts positively and negatively on EAP teaching and learning (Weedon, 1987). This researcher worked within a feminist post-structuralist tradition and sought to integrate language, individual experience and social power in a theory of subjectivity. The student/subject is not conceived of as passive, s/he is conceived of as both the subject of and the subjected to relations of power within a given group. Cummins (1996) complements the work of West, Bourdieu and Weedon. He maintains that coercive relations of power refer to the exercise of power by a dominant individual, group or country that is detrimental to others and serves to maintain an inequitable division of resources in a society. The collaborative relation of power on the other hand contributes to empowering rather than marginalising, is

more additive than subtractive and prevails through and mutual interpersonal/ intergroup relations. "Power is created with others *rather than* being imposed on or exercised over others" (Cummins, 1996:15). By extension, relations of power can serve to enable or constrain the range of identities that language learners can negotiate in their classrooms and communities.

From a research on four American teachers' unions, McClure (1999) gives insight into the vested interests of organizations acting on behalf of teachers. He asserts that the power of the organization barricades reform and teacher autonomy. Although some scholars propose teacher unions as a means to solve the issue of power in institutions, Kirkpatrick (2000) and others such as McClure (1999) argue against it, suggesting that it (teachers' union) presents an obstacle to the establishment of good relationships between teachers and their communities.

The question of power should be viewed in relation to language and society, for language and society are tied up together and one cannot function without the other (Pennycook, 2001). Rather than considering language education as a common-sensical practice, it should be seen as an approach to language that goes beyond its mere description (Pennycook, 2001:50). Power should, therefore, be understood as "the socially constructed relations among individuals, institutions and communities through which symbolic and material resources in a society are produced, distributed and validated (Norton (2000:7). Power relations are largely shaped by institutional, instructional and discursive practices in each community (Norton, 2000; Gee, 2001; Wenger, 1998). As Bourdieu (1997) has already noted, power is created with others rather than being imposed on or exercised over others. The use of students' disciplinary genres and structures while teaching EAP (on the part of language teachers) and the teaching of the discipline/content (on the part of discipline or content teachers) all contribute to shape the context of the discipline (Luke, 2000).

Lemke (1995: 178) points out that the ideological power of academic discourses puts science together with the domains of art and politics. With regards to the relationship existing between socio-linguistics and power, Pennycook (2001) suggests that the question of power should be viewed in relation to language and society because language and society are so intertwined and tied up together that one of them cannot function without the presence of the other. Lin (1997) views power and agency as focusing more on what the powerful parties like the government, the media, do in a society or say about subordinate groups (e.g. their discursive construction of teachers and students as incompetent & indolent) without also, at the same time, showing the agency of members of those groups in their local everyday practices.

2.7.2 Disciplinary Specificity, Language and Literacy, Investment and Community of practices

Different disciplines have different structures and this leads to the differences in their discourses and genre (Kusel, 1992) as cited in Jordan (1997). Communication is effective to the extent that participants draw on knowledge of prior texts to frame messages in ways which appeal to appropriate cultural and institutional relationships (Hyland 2000, Swales, 1990). EAP teaching should be acknowledged as a profession. Part of this involves a few hours of fixing up grammar in the language centre.

2.8 English As A Second Language Curricula

As illustrated in figure 2.3 language curriculum comprises six elements as follows: the analysis of students' needs, determined goals and objectives, putting appropriate norm-referenced and criterion referenced tests into place, adopting, adapting or creating materials,

supporting teachers in all their efforts and regularly evaluating all the other five components in a formative manner (and occasionally in a summative manner (Brown & Hudson, 2002; Hamp-Lyon, in Hyland and Hyland (2006). Testing is seen as an integral part and interacting with the five curriculum elements. It serves a central function of curriculum development and should therefore be included in curriculum design (Hyland and Hyland, 2006). As far as scientific language is concerned, Chamot and O'Malley (1994) whose research centres on the language of science, argue that it is through an understanding of the language demand of an ESL student that the design of instructional material can prepare students for academic study. Brown (1995a, 1996) advocates for the curriculum developers to provide teachers with technical help in developing classroom-level CR tests. Institutional Administration can help teachers in the following way: furnishing them with expertise knowledge and resources necessary for scoring and analysing results and giving immediate and timely feedback to teachers and students (Burns & Coffin, 2001). For the scoring procedure, in TWE and ESL Composition (Jacobs et al. 1981), most writing assessment programmes use more than one reader to judge essays, usually two, with a third one used in case of extreme disagreement. However, the Joint Matriculation Board, Manchester in England, uses four readers with a fifth used in difficult cases. Reader A may assign a score of 2 on a six-point scale, for an example, while Reader F may assign a score of 5. If two scores are averaged, a score of 3.5

Criterion-referenced proficiency tests such as TOEFL, TSE and TWE use an oral proficiency interview (Liskin-Gasparro, 1987, from Educational Testing Service, (ETS)). These are provided as tools to assess English second language student writing. These tests are developed on the basis of the proficiency guidelines from American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) (1986). Norm-referenced versus Criterion-referenced testing is also used in testing or assessing students' performances. The test is administered to an

will be reported.

individual student and the student's performance is shown by a score that places her or him in the top 10 percent of candidates who have taken that test. A test which is designed to give this kind of information is said to be norm-referenced. It relates one candidate's performance to that of other candidates. Cope and Kalantzis (1993) argue that most instructional tests' use include the following: diagnosis, evidence of progress, feedback to students and evaluation of teaching or curriculum. This kind of test has limitations as a test of writing ability (Flowerdew, 1993).

In the context of Rwanda, "an academic literacies curriculum that is contextualized in tertiary formal learning at different levels (e.g. programme, module, and cession) does not exist independently. It only exists in relation to the so-called 'mainstream curriculum' within which academic for professional and occupational disciplines reside" (Karoro, 2012:159).

2.8.1 Assessment in Rwanda Higher Education

The understanding of assessment in the Rwanda Higher Education context poses challenges to both teachers and students (Mugisha, 2010:100). A study conducted by Mugisha on assessment and study strategies among Rwandan students in Higher Education reveals that both teacher trainees and students look at assessment as an activity imposed on them by the system through course teachers. The findings seem to look at assessment as an activity performed at a particular time in the teaching - learning process, mostly at the end of the course. Teachers and students have varied understanding of the purpose and mode of assessment. This is similar to the KIST context.

2.8.2 Understanding Theories on Modes of Assessment

The following theories and experiences on assessment and feedback will be discussed as they can provide this research with useful insights for understanding the different modes of assessment and feedback. This can help the researcher to grasp the theoretical underpinnings relevant to the issue at hand. Flowerdew and Peacock (2001) are of the view that assessment without feedback is not helpful, since the latter is a student's guide to effective learning and improvement. In this section, assessment and/or tests are concepts that are used interchangeably throughout the teaching and learning programme. Indeed, assessment is a key issue in EAP and has an important gate-keeping function within the institution at national as well as international level. EAP assessment should measure students' language ability. Hughes (2003) and Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001) generally propose three different kinds of tests which are relevant to EAP.

2.8.2.1 Placement and Progress Tests TERN CAPE

The kind of test called placement test measures the abilities of the earners at the start of a course so that students can be placed in the right EAP class. Another kind of test is the achievement test. It shows the extent to which students have learnt the skills in a course. This type of test encompasses both progress achievement tests and final achievement tests. Progress achievement tests are given throughout a term or semester whereas final achievement tests are those administered at the end of an academic year. They may be designed and administered by ministries of education, official examining boards or by members of the teaching institutions, while the proficiency tests normally assesses and describes the students' linguistic abilities before enrolling at university.

Hughes (2003) and Flowerdew and Peacock (2001) appear to differentiate between direct and indirect test. Testing is said to be direct when it requires the candidate to perform precisely the skill that it wishes to measure. According to Hyland (2006:302) good practice in EAP assessment is one that is made explicit to students as early as possible. The assessment methods and conditions under which they will be assessed should be explained to students (the kind of tasks, whether timed writing or portfolio assessment). The assessment should employ criteria-referenced scales (Hyland, 2006; Nunan, 1998) for which learning outcomes put emphasis on competences, or what students can do. The assessment should be reliable in that all assessors need to agree on the criteria and how it will be applied. This requires further training that aim at reaching consistent scoring.

2.8.2.2 Achievement Tests

Achievement assessment/test should take place at the end of a cycle of learning period to UNIVERSITY of the ensure the leaner's best performance. Achievement assessment should take place at the end of a cycle of learning period to ensure that the student's best performance is obtained. Furthermore, for Hughes (2003), each testing is unique and sets up to solve a particular testing problem (Hughes, 2003:8). The first thing that testers have to do is that it should be made clear what the purpose of testing in any particular situation is. Different purposes will usually require different kinds of tests.

TOEFL is the biggest test in the world. However, this writing competence test ignores the writer's socio-cultural context and fails to show how texts are writers' response to a particular situation and provide little information on the students' ability to write for a larger community of practice, once at the university has accepted the student (Flowerdew, 2001; Dooey, 2010). Prospective students in the USA and UK (Criper and Davies, 1988) are

required to demonstrate English language proficiency by responding to Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) and International English Language Testing System, IELTS (Hyland, 2006; Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001); TOEFL and Test of Writing English (TWE), (Hamp-Lyon 1991; and White, 1993) is an alternative assessment to TOEFL and IELTS. These assessment procedures are used by many universities as a guide to the acceptance of new students. The work of Hamp-Lyons (1991) argues that assessment issues in English L2 writing was driven by the TOEFL programme, which in 1986, after heavy and increasing pressure from the ESL professional community and from admissions agencies, introduced the test of written English (TWE) as a separate reported direct test of writing to be taken, optionally, with the TOEFL.

The IELTS score system has only one reader, due to the difficulty of finding qualified readers

in British Council locations around the world and the demand for immediate reporting of results (Charles Alderson communication). The rationale generally given for multiple scoring is that multiple judgments lead to a final score that is closer to a true "score" than to use any single judgment. These assessment procedures are used by many universities as a guide to the acceptance of students at tertiary education. These authors argue that in US and UK, proficiency tests like TOEFL assess writing ability at the syntactic and grammatical level (isolated sentences, multiple-choice and filling in gaps) as the best measures of good writing.

Dooey (2010) argues that many universities now offer pre-tertiary programmes as a pathway to tertiary study. For example, a university in Western Australia offers a programme in the name of English Language Bridging Course (ELBC), which prepares students from non-English speaking backgrounds for both under-graduate and post-graduate studies. It is designed for students who meet all other university academic entry requirements, but have failed to reach the minimum IELTS score required to demonstrate English language proficiency for entry into tertiary courses. The kinds of tests are proficiency tests, designed to

measure peoples' communicative ability in that language, regardless of any training they may have had in that language (Hughes, 2003). The content of a proficiency test, therefore, is not based on the content or objectives of language courses that people taking the test may have followed. Rather, it is based on a specification of what candidates have to be able to do in the language in order to be considered proficient.

Another critique of the above assessment or testing approaches is from Hamp-Lyon (1991), White (1993) who argues that through the indirect testing strategies, many students can construct syntactically accurate sentences and yet are unable to produce similarly appropriate written texts. Teacher responses to writing processes in this perspective tend to focus on identifying and correction of problems in the student's control of the language system. Flowerdew (2001) and Dooey (2010) argue that international testing systems of writing competence ignore how texts serve as the writer's response to a particular situation, so much that students are said to be able to construct syntactically accurate sentences in oral speech which they are unable to reproduce as appropriate written texts in written texts. Thus, students are asked to provide little more information on the students' ability to write for a larger community of practice at the university (Hamp-Lyon, 1991; White, 1993). Foucault (1980) identifies these testing methods as another form of colonisation of mind for English second language learning students in which a number of teachers focus on facts rather than concepts. These styles do not advance the students' academic progress, but rather, they concentrate on the recognition and correction of grammatical errors. Three classroom assessments are classified under the three main uses of language tests by Cohen, (1994): Administration assessment (placement, general, and proficiency assessments), instructional assessment and research assessment Cohen, (1994) argues that most of the situations in which tests have been done are only administrative (Cohen, 1994).

Diagnostic tests are also used to identify students' strengths and weaknesses. They are intended primarily to ascertain what learning still needs to take place. At the level of broad language skills this is reasonably straight forward. Indeed, existing proficiency tests may often prove adequate for this purpose. In contrast, there is an idea that testing should not operate under administrative control (Cohen, 1994; Foucault, 1980); and that such testing procedures should not be applied in testing learning abilities (Olssen, 1993). Most instructional tests use diagnosis, evidence of progress, feedback to students and evaluation of teaching or curriculum (Cope and Kalantzis, 1993).

2.8.2.3 Alternative Multi-dimensional Tests

Portfolios, as a mode of assessing students, are more complex than essay tests and comprise of a variety of texts. This kind of test has limitations as a test of writing ability, as the development criteria can involve making decisions about how to deal with the various parts of the portfolio in determining an overall score (Hyes,1996; Flowerdew,1993). Flowerdew (1993) confirms that writing for general purpose differs from writing for specific purpose. Equally, the assessments need to differentiate one form from the other.

From an ethnographic stand point, LeCompte and Preissle (2003) argue that for a successful student, multi-dimensional assessment, such as multiple choices, performance based and portfolio assessments, is required to communicate effectively in the 21st Century exit outcomes. The instructional strategies to teach higher order skills are: educational technology, cooperative learning, Socratic questioning and teacher collaboration. All these should be put together in order to restructure the entire assessment framework. Therefore, the designs of many international examinations often reflect on autonomous view of writing processes (Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001). It has been claimed to date that indirect

assessments, typically multiple choice and cloze or error correction tasks are both measures of reliable writing skill. But, these have clearly little to do with the purpose of writing in higher institutions. Each testing must be unique and should set a particular testing problem (Hughes, 2003:8; Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001). The first thing that testers have to be clear about is the purpose of testing in any particular situation, given that different purposes will usually require different kinds of tests. Hyland (2006) recommends regular diagnostic assessments to monitor progress and, therefore, suggests teaching interventions which may become unavoidable. Thus, EAP assessment/test should focus on study skills and academic skills across disciplines and across places of study (Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001). After assessment, feedback is necessary for the students to improve on their writing tasks.

Alderson (1988), writing about ESP, refers to three aspects that are relevant to EAP assessment. Similarly, Hyland (2006:302) refers to good practice in EAP assessment as one that is made explicit to students as early as possible. The assessment methods and conditions under which they will be assessed should be explained to students (the kind of tasks, whether timed writing, portfolio, and the like). The assessment should employ criteria-referenced scales (Hyland, 2006; Nunan, 1998) for which learning outcomes put emphasis on competences, that is, what students can do. The assessment should be also valid by being directly related to the genres students have studied.

On the contrary, portfolio modes of assessment are more complex than essay tests. Portfolios comprise of a variety of texts and involve developing scoring criteria and making decisions about how to deal with the various parts of the portfolio in determining an overall score. Hyes (1996) and Flowerdew (1993) argue that in assessing writing we should consider the purpose of writing. This scholar argues that since writing for general purpose differs from writing for specific purpose, equally, assessment needs to differentiate the two writing issues. The test purpose has to make it clear on what it would be tested. Bachman and Palmer (1996) advance

argument that three types of inferences can be made on the basis of a language test: proficiency, diagnostic, and achievement tests. A proficiency test uses inferences about general language proficiency to make decisions, such as admission to academic programmes, placement into different levels of a language program, exemption from certain coursework or selection for a particular job. Diagnostic test looks at the strengths and weaknesses of individual students. Teachers use this type of test to tailor make their instruction in order to meet their students' needs. Achievement test is about stressing the degree to which individuals or groups of students have met specific instruction goals. These are the tests that are used in grading and promoting students. Achievement test is usually used at the national level to evaluate a curriculum or select students for funding programmes.

Lemke (1998:283-84) argues that in any assessment there is probably need to distinguish between multi-modal texts from tests on language alone. This is because meanings expressed through multi-modal tests raise rich data, making a whole lot of images and descriptive information which cannot be found in "a simple sum of its parts" (Unsworth, 2008:267). Any assessment activity needs feedback for the students' on-going improvement. This is discussed in the next section.

In alternative assessment, any language assessment should have a purpose and needs to be conducted for a specific reason. Among other reasons are: to identify students who may need special language assistance, to place students into appropriate programs, to identify specific instructional needs, to monitor students' progress in attaining English language and content objectives and to exit students from special language programmes. Alternative assessment is of interest to most educators according to Chamot and O'Malley (1994: 105), given that, first, it is an authentic activity that reflects actual classroom tasks in content area and reveals information about academic language. Secondly, it varies since it looks at students' performance from multiple perspectives and does not rely only on one assessment approach

so that all aspects of content and academic knowledge are assessed. Thirdly, it is a processand product-oriented approach in which it shows progress with respect to both products and
the processes used to complete the work. Fourthly, alternative assessment is continuous and
provides information about students' performance throughout the entire school year. Fifthly,
this kind of assessment interacts with instruction and can be used to adapt instruction to
student needs and provide feedback on instructional tasks. Sixthly, it is a collaborative
approach conducted interactively by teachers aiming at sharing and gaining independent
views on students' performance.

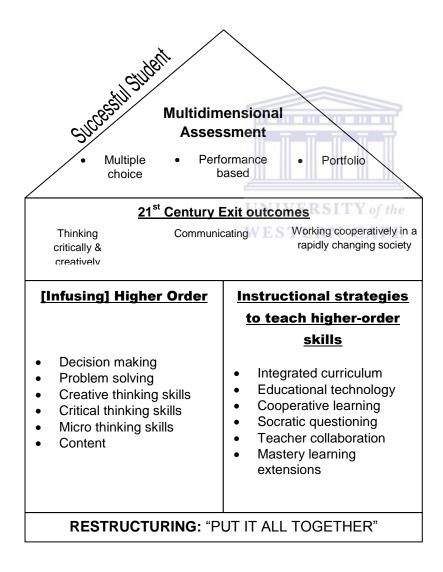


Figure 2.4 (From LeCompte & Preissle, 2003)

2.8.2.4 Teachers' and Students' Perspectives on language and literacy learning in EAP

Teachers' and students' perspectives on language and literacy learning are treated together as their explanations interact with one another (Halliday and Martin, 1993). Given that a text can be geographically, socio-economically, institutionally or disciplinary located (Thesen and Pletzen, 2006), the concept of academic literacy is believed to be the basis for a university student to know how to read and write. This has been an issue for discussion in most institutions of higher learning (Lea and Street, 1998). Students may pass university entry tests for English language proficiency but are still not able to engage in the disciplinary writing practices they need (Dooey, 2010; Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001; Hyland, 2006; Scarcella, 2003). There are views from scholars that EAP teachers need to consolidate and reinforce their EAP knowledge profession through participation in related local and international workshops, seminars, research conferences and even produce publications (Hyland, 2006;138) if they to offer meaningful tutorship to students.

Other views suggest that EAP teachers should be trained in academic genres in order to play a role in students' literacy practices (Feez, 2002; Hassan, 1996). From a perspective that regards texts as autonomous objects, learners' compositions are seen as langue, that is, a demonstration of the writer's knowledge of language forms and his or her awareness of the system of rules used to create texts (Hyland, 2002:8). The 'correct' essay structures are prescribed. However, what may be difficult for students is not about being explicit in their written essays, but the issue is to know what to be explicit about (Nystrand, Doyle & Himley, 1986: 81).

As a result, the readers' understanding is what matters most. In summary, inferences are always involved in recovering meanings. That is to say that no text can be both coherent and context-free. Teacher responses to writing in this perspective tend to focus on correction and

identifying errors in the student's control of the language system. The designs of many large international examinations often reflect an autonomous view of writing. Another concern pointed out by Thesen & Pletzen (2006) is that there are many students whose home language is not English (83.3%), and yet they have to study through the medium of English. Additionally, the lack of academic literacy proficiency among many learners has been a result of the transition from their vernaculars at school to English at the university (Macdonald (1990) and Kapp (2004). The frontier of literacy nowadays means being able to interpret both visual and verbal texts which increasingly complement each other and open up new resources for meaning- making. A contradiction is found in Biber (1998) who focuses on traditional grammatical labels that deal with formal structural rules rather *than* with a principled description of how language is used to express meanings in a subject context. This view neglects the role of context and audience in how persuasion is accomplished in real life, and the variety of persuasive techniques employed in academic writing (Hyland, 2000).

UNIVERSITY of the

2.8.2.5 Effective Literacy Support for EAP Students

There is a lot of scholarship that says that there is need to rethink educational policies and realise that most policy decisions have become a barrier to students' needs in terms of curriculum (Cooke, 2000). Indeed, it has been a problem to impose curriculum on students without taking into consideration their views and learning needs. This would suggest that content or the guidelines provided in the Rwanda Higher Education Language Policy (2007) would need to be looked at again in order to make them more relevant to academic literacy information needed for tertiary education level, rather than merely provide for Basic English language proficiency (for beginners, intermediate and advanced). According to these aothors, effective literacy support for EAP would include, for an example in the Rwanda Higher Education Language Policy (2007), current EAP theoretical frameworks so that at this level,

different university disciplines have different EAP literacy needs. This would contextualise an EAP course.

(perling, (1996: 55) emphasizes the fact that context helps us to see writing as "a meaning making activity that is socially and culturally shaped and individually and socially purposeful". What we write, how we writ, and who we write to all help to shape our social conventions. Academic literacy practices (reading and writing) within disciplines constitute central processes through which students can learn new subjects and develop their knowledge about new areas of study. To research on the academic learning, it is important to explore both staff and students contributions in the academia (Lea & Street, 1998). Textbooks that link different topics within a content area and even between content areas themselves are valuable resources for ESL teachers in selecting content topics (Thesen, 2006).

The New Literacy (NL) developed the notion of academic literacies as a multiple (Baynham, 1995). It is important for students to be able to switch practices between one setting and another. Similarly, suggestions in textbooks for practices that can help ESL teachers plan their activities with the students to ensure that these students can practice and develop their understanding of the content presented are welcome (Chamot& O'Malley, 1994). EAP teachers need to interpret the disciplines in a specific way. There are suggestions that literacy support would enable EAP teachers and disciplinary teachers to work in teams in assuring that awareness is given to the full range of multi-modal genres and practices (Flowerdew& Peacock, 2001; Johns, 1998). If a task entails reading a passage in a science textbook, EAP teachers need to know that it would be more appropriate to refer to other science texts in organising and analysing that text (Hyland, 2006). ESL teachers can help improve academic literacy by getting some advice from those teachers who teach various science subjects. In this way, students can be taught registers and specific terminology related to their disciplines

and empower them in their academic literacy as social artefact that is carried out in a social setting (Hayes, 1996).

Returning to the issue of multiple academic literacies, the differences among literacies and their associated competences is highlighted by Street (2006) who says the curriculum for EAP has to be reshaped to include complex writing discourses (Street, 2006). Such a curriculum has been modelled by, among others, Martin (2009) who suggests four developmental stages, namely: building up the field, modelling the text type, joint construction and independent writing. For him, it takes several weeks to complete one polished piece of genre-specific writing. Gibbons (2002) expands on this model and presents a curriculum cycle as a way of helping students to write independently on a given topic in a given genre in their second language.

In order to build the knowledge of the text in the learner, three stages are required (Macken et al., 1989b). The first stage is the modelling of text and context in which students are exposed to varied texts that exemplify the genre in question. If the subject was science and the topic was dolphins, for an example, students might need to read texts on sea mammals from various sources. The teacher uses a model of a text genre to build up students' understanding of the purpose, the overall structure as well as language features of the text. At the same time, s/he introduces meta-linguistic items such as connectors, subject verb agreement, words, verbs and text types.

The second stage is the joint negotiation of a class text. This includes students' participation in the process of writing a report, guided by the teacher, the study of the field and the context of the genre. Students observe the object, research, interview participants/experts, discuss, take notes, draw diagrams and so on and so forth. The third stage is the independent construction of a text, in which students independently construct their own reports: preparing

with more work on the substantive field, drafting their own report and conferencing with peers and the teacher about their individual writing efforts. The cycle can then be repeated. Becher (1989), as mentioned before, examines the nature of academic disciplines and characterises them as distinctive tribes with their own cultures and practices. Texts are shaped by the community. The features of a text are influenced by the community for which it is written, and thus, best understood and taught through the specific genres of that community (Kandhiah, 2001). Genre, taught using a language pedagogy approach, also helps to empower students in ways that they can deal with texts in contexts (Christie, 1987), where the writers develop and reinforce their relationships through writing. Social constructivists view genre analysis as helpful for educators to interpret academic texts in their social contexts (Hyland, 2006). The linguistic diversity in universities seems to serve as enriching basis for promoting international research in which writing should be viewed as the route to achieve these communications for rhetoric objectives (Phillipson, 2009).

The research has so far attempted to show the knowledge of EAP practices that are to be integrated into such an environment of dual challenge (EAP-science) where teachers need to update themselves on how genres operate in both EAP and in science. This knowledge can be transmitted to science students. The researcher hopes to address this issue more fully later in the study. The following list will be dealt with in Chapter four.

- 1. Post-coloniality
- 2. Discourse and genres in EAP
- 3. Writing in EAP and EAP-Science
- **4.** The role of language policy and challenges of EAP in post colonial Africa
- **5.** Needs Analysis
- **6.** Curriculum
- 7. Power, Agency, Ideology, Attitude, Identity, Investment, Multimodality/ multisemiotic,

- **8.** Institutional management
- **9.** Assessment and feedback
- **10.** Evaluation

2.9 Summary of the Chapter

This Chapter has provided an overview of works in EAP and current debates around its conceptual frames. It has included post-colonial perspectives by offering differing opinions on EAP as used in schools. In this chapter the researcher also explored the role played by language policy and some of the challenges that this current policy causes for EAP learning through the investigation of the discourses, genres and practices which students at KIST need for their respective disciplinary studies. This emphasis the relationship between students' needs and the EAP literacy programme used by KLC. I highlighted students' and teachers' understanding of the process of language and literacy learning and how these understandings might affect students' performance.

The researcher has further highlighted and elaborated other factors that may facilitate or hinder students' adherence to the academic community of scientists. In light of this, I have explored themes such as: postcolonial approaches on EAP teachings, the genres, discourses, practices, identity in learning, multi-modal literacies and the extent to which EAP teachers enjoy their "powers" as well as their "agencies" vis-a-vis the entire academic community.

Other themes such as disciplinary differences, that is, the differences existing between the EAP taught to Biology, Physics, MEE, and so on. The concept of investment in both learning (students) and teaching (teachers) was also mirrored. Given that any teaching and learning practices cannot go without assessment, feedback and evaluation of the programme, these three themes were also addressed.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

3.1 Introduction

This Chapter will lay out the study design and the methods predicated on it. Therefore, I propose to explain key aspects of the design: reasons for the choice of ethnographic design, gaining access and participants, pilot study, data collection procedures, data analysis and interpretation, observation of ethics, consideration of reflexivity and trustworthiness, scope and limitations of the study, and the summary of the chapter. A walk on KIST campus would be important to include in this study as a way of situation the ethnographic study in area in which the research is going to be conducted.

3.1.1 A Walk on KIST Campus

As one walks through the main entrance behind the Serena Hotel yard, one can see the first UNIVERSITY of the and oldest KIST building (Administration Building). It has three levels in yellowish face-bricks on the outside and the interior walls painted cream. These floors house a number of administrative staff offices. The basement floor, as you come in from the main gate, houses offices for procurement, a post office, a science laboratory (which precede the main entrance of the building) and the store room at the end of the outside corridor. These corridors are a bit darker in lighting as compared to the inside of the offices. All these offices have independent doors that give access to them. The first floor accommodates the offices of planning section, the post-graduate director, the Rector and Vice Rector for Academics. In the same corridor, on the left side of the stairs are the Cashiers, the Board Room and the Public Relations offices, as well as the Tea Room. In a separate corridor straight between the Tea Room and the Vice Rector Academic's office is a separate corridor where the assistant secretary for planning sits. On the right side of it are the Finance office and the Computer lab. On the left

side are four small offices for the IT technicians and other support services. The Vice Rector Administration and Finance's office is the last on this corridor.

The second floor on the left side comprises another Computer lab office and on the right side the offices of the accountant and finance officers. On this same corridor, another main door leads to the Human Resources office. In this block are also found the offices of the payroll, staff development, administration and human resources support staff.

On the way from the administration building there is a restaurant next to the student TV room. Further down beyond this restaurant, KIST also owns six block of flats buildings. The locales are in red-yellowish bricks on the outside similar to the administration building described above. From the restaurant to these blocks, using the short cut, is a small staff support garage on the left side which faces a very small locale for the securities. Next to the garage are three similar blocks, one for the staff and the other two for workshop training, but which sometimes also serve as classrooms. English members of staff stay in two different blocks of flats. A few staff members stay in the block next to the last workshop training block and the rest, stay in another block next to the examination and registration block.

The four buildings are newer and more attractive compared to the first six blocks already described and the administration building. The first block away from the small security office has three levels and mostly houses students' classrooms and a few offices of the ICT, deans and directors and heads of different departments and faculties. The second building, which is more recent than the one previously described, also contains classrooms on the ground floor while the first floor is mainly occupied by the librarians. On the second floor are one big conference hall and one office for financial aid cooperative staff. About two kilometres from this building there is yet another small but new building painted in cream and green which hosts offices of a new Faculty of Architecture. It faces a sports stadium where graduation

events normally take place and where KIST staff goes for compulsory sports on Fridays. The fourth building on this side is the newest and houses science laboratories. The last building, also new, with five levels accommodates students' large classrooms as well as academic staff offices.

From one building to another there is a short walking distance for teachers and lecturers who switch venues according to their time-table, the shorter one takes five minutes' walk while the longer one is about a ten minutes' walk. Apart from the Architecture building area and its surroundings, the remaining space is entirely taken up by well-attended to gardens with beautiful flowers and green spaces including some perennial low growing flowering trees. The whole KIST campus has two main entrances for students and the other one for vehicles, with an option to take a short-cut from a third entrance which belongs to a neighbouring institution of higher learning.

In general then, students have no fixed classrooms where they attend classes on a regular basis. They move from one venue to another, according to a pre-determined time-table. The time-table officer manages and publishes the official time-table and venues for all academic staff each semester. Therefore, EAP teachers and science lecturers and tutors are all bound to these arrangements of teaching space.

I signal here that although I observed five disciplines under science and engineering, I only describe three disciplines (Biology, physics and EEE) which presented discrepancies whilst the rest of the observations remained the same. I started with the EAP observations after which arrangements were made for the focused group discussions. At the end of the four first EAP class observations, in each class, students who were interested in the project wrote their names, departments and cell-phone numbers in my notebook for further scheduling of focus group interview discussions. I did not specify which EAP class to attend since I was

instructed to content myself with the existing time-table. Having said this, I now can describe observations in the EAP classes and then in the three science classes.

3. 2 Choice of design and methods

Data was collected following an ethnographically informed qualitative design. Ethnographic studies of academic literacy practices have been rare until recently when, under the influence of the New Literacy Studies, researchers were initiated to explore ways in which issues of power enter into the development of academic voice and identity. The inspiration for this new direction must have been drawn from the New Literacy Studies which views academic literacy as a set of social practices and "student writing and learning as issues at the level of epistemology and identities rather than skill and socialization" (Lea & Street, 1998:158-9; see also Lea, 1994; Ivanic, 1998; Street, 2004;). Given this situation, the perspective of the meaning-maker assumes a particular centrality in this study (Lillis, 2003). Moreover, as meaning-makers are enmeshed in institutional relationships of power and authority, the perspective can have far-reaching benefits for the study. An academic literacies perspective, thus, seeks to move beyond a 'study skills' model of students' writing which merely locates the 'problem' in the individual (Lea & Street, 1998; Lillis and Scott, 2007) but goes further to understand the nature of students' writing located within wider institutional practices and power relations (Lea & Street, 1997, cited in Lea & Street, 1998). Ethnography, with its emphasis on humanism and holism, can thus provide the stimulus and synergy to my research that is focused on the development of students' writing within this paradigm. Ethnography has principles, methods and applications that need to be taken into account when dealing with educational research. I wish to discuss all the three above-mentioned qualities regarding ethnography in the next sub-sections that follow.

3.2.1 Ethnography: Principles, Approaches and Applications in Educational Research

3.2.1.1 Definition of Ethnography

Ethnography falls within the paradigm of qualitative research, which includes case study, narrative phenomenology and action research (Hammersley 2006, Hammersley and Atkinson, 1983/2007). It shares a major characteristic with other forms of naturalistic enquiry in that it takes place in a natural setting, where the main instrument for data gathering is the human researcher (Lincoln and Guba, 1985).

While there is some debate about the definition of ethnography, it is generally understood to be "the study of people's behaviour in naturally occurring, on-going settings, with a focus on cultural interpretation of behaviour" (Watson-Gegeo, 1988:576). Ethnographies can, therefore, be viewed as derivations based on anthropological studies. What makes a study ethnographic is not only that it investigates social units as a whole, but that it attempts to portray events and issues from the point of view of the participants involved. This emphasis on local or 'emic' meanings is essential to ethnography. The goal then would be to attempt to give "analytic descriptions or reconstructions of intact cultural scenes and groups" which can recreate for the reader "the shared beliefs, practices, artefacts, knowledge and behaviours" of the group investigated (Goetz and LeCompte, 1984:2).

3.2.1.2 Approaches

As indicated above, studying and analysing a given community or group requires a naturalistic approach that is ethnographically oriented. In trying to become submerged in the culture of and to balance the insider and outsider relationships, the researcher usually stays at the site for an extended period, observing, interviewing and participating in cultural events. Wolcott (1988), for example, advises the researcher to remain long enough to see a full cycle of activity.

In naturalistic studies, thus, theory is grounded in the data rather than fully determined before the commencement of the study. The design often emerges or changes as the study progresses, with the researcher continually refining/reframing the methods and questions (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In qualitative research, the "reality" or the meaning of a situation is negotiated among the researcher and those studied, and it is understood that multiple realities will always be present (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993).

In order to attempt an understanding of these multiple realities, various methods are used, of which the most common is participant observation in which the observer becomes "part" of the environment or the cultural context. The extent to which this is possible can vary with the setting and the characteristics of the observer. For an example, race, gender, ethnicity and class can all play a part in determining how successful an observer can be said to become "an insider" (Spradley, 1980). A second key method in ethnography is the unstructured or semi-structured interview where the emphasis is on 'engaged listening' (Forsey, 2010) in an attempt to draw out the participant's world view. In some cases, artefacts such as texts, images, or audio and video files may also be collected.

3.2.1.3 Trustworthiness

The use of more than one method can strengthen claims to trustworthiness through triangulation of the results, which would entail comparing and contrasting data from different methods used (Lillis, 2008; Blommaert, 2001). This is important as the significance of ethnography is obtained socially, rather than statistically, from observing how ordinary people in particular settings make sense of their everyday lives (Wolcott, 1988). Ethnography stresses credibility, rather than reliability or validity, which is achieved by prolonged engagement in the setting, participant observation and triangulation of the results (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Although often extensive and time consuming (Cresswell, 1998),

ethnography ultimately enables the description of individuals' cultural practices (Ramanathan & Atkinson, 1996; Lillis & Scott, 2008).

Critiques of ethnography, like positivist thinking researchers, have centred their criticism on issues of generalisability, an over-emphasis of the micro-level of analysis and the neglect of the larger scale social or institutional processes and systems (Hammersley, 1992:32-42), and the absence of criteria for replicating studies (Hammersley, 1993). I will focus on these issues in section 3.2.1.4

At this juncture, I am aware that critical theory has influenced some critiques of ethnography. A large number of ethnographies were perceived to be ahistorical and apolitical, and the assumed authority of the ethnographer was said to be imperialist and patronizing (Marcus & Fischer, 1999). In response to this, ethnographers began to look more carefully at how "others" are represented in ethnographic texts, which according to Michael Fischer and George Marcus (1998:34) is called the "crisis of representation". Increasingly, "methodological self-consciousness and a concern for reflexivity" (van Maureen, 1995:8) became central to ethnographic accounts.

3.2.1.4 Ethnography in educational research

Schools lend themselves to ethnographic study in that they are forms of social organisation with relationships of rights and obligations both within the school and to larger social units such as the education board and the state. They are also linked by "the formal and informal political process to the economic, ethnic and religious group interests that activate the political process" (Erickson, 1984:59-60). Furthermore, they are characterised by a range of intersecting belief systems, by a variety of rituals and by differentiation according to status

and role (Erickson, 1984; LeCompte & Preissle, 1993). The detailed, contextually sensitive approach enabled by ethnography, I believe, is well-placed to illuminate these different dimensions (Heath, 1983) and to explore the ways in which institutional and societal pressures may be played out in classroom interactions (Watson-Gegeo, 1988).

There are, however, weaknesses associated with the application of ethnographic methods in educational research. Relevant to this study are two constraints commonly identified, namely: generalisability and comparability of descriptions and explanations from ethnographic studies. Regarding generalisability, the question answered is: to what extent can the results obtained from the study of one classroom or school be generalised to other classrooms or schools in a given system? One suggestion has been that, in the selection of the research setting, the researcher must consider how what one finds in that setting is representative of what occurs in other settings and how the results obtained in the selected setting can throw light on other similar settings (Heath, 1983). In the case of comparability, Heath (1983) also suggests that the number and consistency of ethnographic studies' results from schools and classrooms can create relevant criteria for comparability. Nevertheless, it should be pointed out that Heath is referring to the United States where a large number of ethnographic studies for comparative purposes exist. In contrast, the situation is very different in Rwanda, and in Africa.

3.2.1.5 Ethnography in Research on Academic Literacy

In higher education, the field of "academic literacies" has emerged in the context of an expanding higher education system (Lillis & Scott, 2008). However, despite a growing number of students worldwide who need English in order to study, language and literacy tend only to become visible institutionally as Street (1999, 198) states, 'variety' is viewed as 'a problem rather than a resource'.

An academic literacies approach sees a curriculum that encompasses varied communicative literacy activities (Lea & Street, 1998). It sees the literacy demands of the curriculum as involving a variety of communicative literacies and practices (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001; Hyland, 2006) that involve genres, fields, as well as disciplines (Street, 2004; Hyland 2004, 2006). For students to comply with the academic literacy demands, they need to be able to adapt and manage a repertoire of linguistic practices which is relevant to and appropriate to each situation, as well as the ability to switch to the social meanings and identities that each situation present (Lillis, 2006). Street and Lea see learning in higher education as involving "ways of adapting to new ways of knowing such as new ways of understanding, interpreting and organising knowledge" (1998:157). Academic literacy practices (reading and writing) comprise disciplines through which students learn and develop new subjects and knowledge of their new areas of study.

A practice approach to literacy takes account of the cultures and the contexts of writing and reading practices (Street, 2004) and this in turn has important implications for an understanding of student learning. Research in higher education has tended to focus on ways in which students can be helped to adapt their practices to those of the university (Gibbs, 1994). However, from these perspectives, the academic codes and conventions can be taken as given. Thus, to understand the nature of academic learning and investigating students' literacy practices only is not sufficient. On the contrary, the knowledge of academic staff also need to be investigated. This is made possible by the use of ethnography (Heller, 2006; Hornberger, 1995) in that it allows access to participants' understandings, attitudes, experiences, wants, needs, and so on.

Consequently, the following three qualities of ethnographic research are particularly pertinent to my study: its emphasis on the insider or 'emic' perspective, the use of more than

one type of data and therefore more than one method of data collection and an explicit focus on reflexivity or the relationship between researcher and researched. I will address each of these in turn.

As discussed above, an 'emic' perspective shows the meaning that people attach to things from their own cultural perspective and assume that there is no one correct view. This is a helpful premise when considering the experiences and opinions of students and lecturers, first differently and then collectively.

Secondly, collecting and analysing a variety of different kinds of data can help generate a more valid description of complex social realities than any simple kind of data alone (Hyland, 2002). This can help characterize uniqueness of ethnographic design. In this research, I am concerned with not only understanding students' responses to questions in their focus groups, but more importantly to understand the meanings they attached to the various writing practices they engaged in through EAP classes and how they perceived these as useful or not useful for them to cope with the wider demands of their disciplines. For this, I needed written artefacts, interviews and observational data. Moreover, the need to obtain these different kinds of data led in turn to the need for a variety of methods of data collection. Ethnographic researchers have been compared to 'methodological omnivores' Werner and Schoepfle (1987) in their search for ways to obtain richer data and therefore deeper insights into participants' everyday life realities. The use of more than one method can also help make findings more credible in the sense that through comparing and contrasting data from different methods (Lillis, 2008; Blommaert, 2001). We can address issues of trustworthiness or validity through triangulation of the results (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

A third key factor in my study concerned the relationship between the researcher and the researched. In ethnographic research, the researcher is not seen as separate from the researched, but "as an animal suspended in webs of significance he himself has spun"

(Geertz, 1973:5). The point here is that objectivity or neutrality on the part of the researcher is impossible and therefore, the researcher's goal should be to be constantly aware of " the way in which the observer has an impact on what is observed, and the way in which the observed events themselves are captured in a real historical context, from which they derive meaning and salience" (Blommaert & Dong, 2010: 66). In other words, this is what Bourdieu (1990) has called *reflexivity*. Researchers should, thus, be continuously alert to their potential biases and prejudices and monitor them throughout the processes of data collection and analysis. This makes it easier to assess the extent to which a phenomenon is described in terms of the researcher's own positioning (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). I will return to this issue in Chapters five and six.

3.2.2 Access to the site

I went back home from Cape Town on 2 July 2008 for the purpose of data collection. Before any attempt to access the site for data collection, I first obtained relevant permission. I first of all wrote down the nature and purpose of my study and set out how ethical issues would be managed. I sent this document in a letter to the then Vice-Rector Academics seeking his permission to research at KIST. To this letter was attached the ethical clearance from the UWC Senate Education Higher Degree Committee. I had become familiar to him by the time he became the head of the Civil Engineering Department, which was prior to my leaving for Cape Town to start work on my PhD. To this letter was attached the ethical clearance from the UWC Senate Education Higher Degree Committee. He invited me into his office and had a face-to-face conversation while reading the letter. He was highly positive about the kind of research I have been concerned with. The permission was granted that same day by jotting approval words on the submitted letter (see Appendix 1) and returned it to me on that same day, 31 July 2008. Verbal permission was also sought from heads of departments and

teachers in the concerned departments. I first of all socialised with some of them whom I had also known for quite some time as staff-colleagues at KIST. I then presented to them the Vice-Rector's approval and requested for theirs. All these disciplinary teachers agreed without any problem. I then scheduled the observations' protocol following individual teachers' timetables in their respective departments as recommended by the KIST Academic Vice Rector Academics.

To fix an appointment with students in the focus groups, I did it concomitantly in each of the six departments after I had completed classroom observations. As I was busy with the permission clearances, EAP teachers one-by-one accorded me a convenient day for interviews. For the academic texts, I collected texts from EAP and the four disciplinary departments mentioned above. These included papers on course content, assignments, tests and examinations. In order to access Higher Education documents, I went to the Ministry of Education requesting permission to do research in their library, and was requested to write a letter to the Minister of Education and attach to it a copy of the following to it: acceptance letter from UWC, initial recommendation letter from KIST, confirmation of a local financing agency ratifying the scholarship, the course of the programme and level of study, a letter from the current Vice- Rector Academic approving my membership to KIST, my initial abstract and a summarised methodological paradigm. In addition, I was also requested to mention in the letter all that I needed to have access to, which I did. I wanted to look at the Higher Education policy in general and the language policy in particular. I also wanted to look at the language curricula from primary to tertiary level. After a couple of weeks, I received permission to do so.

Research participants were students from six focus groups, (Biology, Physics, ETE, MEE and CEET) and ten English and EAP teachers. The students had completed EAP class (were in their second semester) by the time I started to collect data. Although I had never taught those

particular students before, they were used to seeing me in the area when I was going to teach other classes. For an example, the class of 3rd year Food Science and Technology used to see me and knew me well. So, some of them were mimicking me by repeating a sentence I liked to say in the class, 'Do you get the point?' while they were smiling at me to show their friendliness. It was sometime in August 2008 when I started the selection of students to include in the focused groups. Their lecturer introduced me to them and asked them to give me a few minutes at the end of the session so that I could talk to them. At the end of the class period, students came around to me asking what I was doing in their class. I consulted with them about my topic and the purpose of my research. Those who wanted to participate, not exceeding ten (10) were asked to write their names and the cell-phone numbers of two group representatives in my field notes notebook. The number of those interested to be part of the focused group, in the first class I attended was big. Twenty-two students wrote their names surpassing the number ten (10) which was the last according to my prior numbering. Thus, they suggested I make two groups from the same class, which I accepted but told them that students whose names are between 11 and 22 may be on hold as reserve group in case I needed more students later on, since I had planned to have a maximum of ten students from each department. In the three other classes (Biology, Physics, and MEE), I was introduced by the lecturer of that day, who also asked students to meet me after the class. As I also wanted to have a maximum 10 students in each group, they filled in their names on the list I got the number of up to ten students only. I did this to familiarise myself with the students, most of whom wanted to chat in Kinyarwanda. The atmosphere was pleasant and students felt happy to assist me.

The focus group discussions took place in my office which is big enough to accommodate a maximum of ten people. At each section, I introduced myself although all of them knew my name and that I am an English teacher. After each session, I had reserved seats and catering

services for refreshments. The two sessions ended at lunch time, so we all went together to the school restaurant and found nice tables covered with green and white cloth as decoration, glasses, plates and everything else looking so nice. On the table was a notice on a piece of wood: 'Reserved'. It was so good that students continued to ask me questions as we were busy eating. After this meeting, other students asked them what was the occasion and they answered "that one is a professor doing PhD in languages in South Africa". This was a stimulus for the rest of the groups to volontier for the next interviews. They were all on time except the last group because some of them were busy preparing for their tests. Another group ended the discussion at ten, so we went to the same restaurant and found a table, with different decorations (red and white prints) and they had prepared the table well for our light breakfast. The last meeting ended in the afternoon at around 4.00 pm and we also had a light nice meal. The atmosphere was good. At the end of each discussion before going to the restaurant we were taking group pictures, it was so good, as the students enjoyed the entire process.

The relationship with ten EAP teachers, however, was not that sympathetic at the beginning because seven of them were new. Again, they were so busy to the point that one of them did not even show up in his classroom which we agreed earlier on I would attend. However, each determined a convenient day and time for an in-depth, one-on-one interview. On the first interview session, the teacher came on time (one of my old colleagues in English department). He answered questions with confidence with a smile every time before answering some of the questions. At the end of the interview, he said to me, I quote: "why are you asking questions for which you know the exact answers?" The second teacher also came on time and we started the interview. This second teacher had the attitude of someone who did not know why I was asking all those questions but answered nearly all questions any way, except one at which he said he preferred to abstain. The question was on his views about the

systematic language shift from French to English that became evident in official media in 2008. This update concerned learning and teaching in English medium in all schools including at institutions of higher learning. Other teachers also came on the agreed time. In comparison to students' interviews, EAP teachers' responses were not expanded. After each interview, as a sign of gratitude, I suggested each one to make a plan so that we could all go for lunch somewhere in the town, but since they had different plans this was not possible. I also suggested to those who might need a book that I could buy it in Cape Town and bring it to Kigali the next time I go to the field. Only one teacher asked for a socio-linguistic book and gave me specifications.

3.3 The Research Site

3.3.1 Selection of the site and subject profile

The selected site was KIST and participants were six groups of second and third year students **EXERN CAPE** as well as ten teachers (two general English teachers and eight EAP teachers). The detailed subject profiles will be put into the list of appendices. As mentioned above, the study is primarily based on ethnographic data collected and audio taped. Six focus groups from second and third year students from the departments of Biology, Physics, ETE, MEE were used in the study (see Appendices 6,7,8,9,10) respectively. Only one group of CEET was observed, and eight EAP teachers were interviewed

The selection of the site was influenced by the set up and purpose of the English department within KIST. Though the background of the linguistic situation in Rwanda has been signaled in Chapter one (see 1.1), it is worth recalling that until 2004, all courses at the tertiary level were taught in the French medium. English was only taught as a subject. The shift from

French to English as the language of instruction occurred only in 2005. For this reason, KIST reinforced the department of English by adding more time to the General English which was taught even before this shift. The new structure took the form of EAP. This course is compulsory only for second and third year students of all streams. EAP was taught for two hours a week and is focused on general language aspects with the course weighting of forty percent for CAT and sixty percent for examinations. The purpose of EAP was to assist science and engineering students with the English language skills for their discipline-specific courses. This was considered as an additional asset for KIST language centre for its Science, Engineering and Technology faculties, each encompassing a number of different departments of which all courses were now taught through the medium of English. So, students under their respective departments were taught general English as well as English for Academic Purposes (EAP).

The criteria that led to the selection of this site also matched my current involvement as one of the general English and EAP teachers at this same Institution. After obtaining my Master's degree in Language Education in 2004, I got a teaching job as an assistant lecturer under the then KIST School of Language Studies and became an insider from 2005 up to present date. Although KIST may not be representative of all science and engineering higher education Institutions either in Rwanda, Africa or more broadly, internationally, I believe that the issues investigated can have wide significance and relevance in language education circles. In Rwanda, academic literacy is a challenge to most higher education institutions, regardless of discipline or field. So, I hope that the findings emerging from this KIST research will help build an understanding of the processes contributing to successful EAP programmes. In keeping with formal research conventions, norms of ethical clearance have been referred to in this study beforehand.

3.4 Ethical Issues

Given that my research is an ethnographic study, it is important for the ethnographer to signal his/her presence in the site of research prior to collection of data (Creswell, 1998) and to ensure the right to information, anonymity and confidentiality. For this reason the site and informants were identified and briefed on the purpose and the intent of the study being conducted. Loyalty and responsibility vis-à-vis participants in the study were observed (LeCompte, 2003). The following sub-section provides a brief description on the environment in which this research was conducted.

For ethical clearance, as mentioned above, according to the procedure at the University of the Western Cape, permission was granted by the Senate Higher Degrees Committee before the start of the data collection. To observe the same ethical clearance, based on the UWC approval, a permission letter requesting to do research at KIST was submitted and approved. Heads of departments and students who participated in the study were informed about the purpose of the study in advance. Information consent forms were provided by the said institution and names were omitted for anonymity reasons. Only space for the date and signature was included in the consent forms. Also, for the purposes of ensuring privacy of information from KIST, no research informant was forced to answer questions which they did not feel comfortable to answer. Only those who showed their voluntary willingness to participate in the research were considered. So, after they had read and filled in the consent forms (see appendices 9 and 13), and their posted signatures served as sign of their free approval to participate in this research (see appendices). Informants were also allowed to withdraw from the interview at any time they felt that they were unable to continue participating in it. The outcomes of this research will be made available to the Rwanda Ministry of Education and KIST libraries and to any other university on official request. After ethical clearance procedures, the following section describes the limit and scope of the

study. The already familiar relationship that I had established with participants in this study I was allowed a follow-up sessions. The advantage of this situation was that even after the 2008 data collection, I continued to see not only teachers in English department for any reason whatsoever, but the majority of tutors and lecturers in discipline specific areas I had already worked with to provide me with any other information I may have required, such as course content of past examination papers, and other.

3.5 Data Collection Procedures

3.5.1 Introduction

This study is based on interpretive paradigm which argues that the interactions of an individual shape her or his social world (Barton and Barlett, 2005). This being the reason for the choice of interviewing EAP students and teachers in the their social world (KIST) in which both have views of what is going on, and therefore, "act according to how they interpret events" (2005:22).

The study used four procedures to collect data. These are classroom observation, focus group discussions with students, and one-on-one teacher interviews. During the classroom observations, I used my diary to take note of any interesting activity that took place in classes I was observing. In the focus group discussions, the sample of about forty students was used for the discussions. These students were subdivided into smaller groups between seven and ten per group from both the sciences and engineering departments. Twenty seven questions with follow up questions on each were asked. For the teachers, all the ten English and EAP were interviewed, and twenty three questions with follow up questions on each were asked. Interviews with students and teachers were organised around their experiences with regard to science academic literacy needs, which focused mainly on the discourses, genres and

academic practices that students engage in. The sub-questions also addressed the extent to which KIST Language Centre complied with these genres and discourses in their practices as questions focused on what the students and teachers' experiences of language and literacy learning have been like. Questions around English language programme/curriculum materials were also included. Some research subquestions addressed also other factors that could hinder or facilitate students' ability to adhere to the field of study's specific requirements in the scientific world. Data analysis included selection of texts from the EAP and the four science and engineering disciplines, (see Appendices 3, 4, 5,6,7,8, 9, and 10). I have also considered the Rwanda higher education policy objectives (see Appendix 2) in analysing the National language policy document (see Appendix 3).

Interviews with students and teachers were organised around their experiences with regard to science academic literacy needs, which focused on the discourses, genres, and practices students engage in. Also the sub-questions addressed the extent to which KIST Language Centre complied with these genres and discourses in their practices; questions focused on what the students and teachers' experiences of language and literacy learning have been like. Here I envisioned having a clear idea on whether EAP is taught as a language course or as literacy or both, and explore how these might affect students' performances. Questions around English language programme/curriculum materials were also included. Some research sub questions addressed also other factors that could influence students' ability to adhere to field specific requirements in the scientific world.

3.5.2 Piloting

Questions such as the ones mentioned here were answered in the pilot stage: Is the digital voice recorder working properly and clear enough? For how long can it secure the discussions, for example, an hour, two hours? Do students understand the discussion questions in such a way that they can provide relevant and clear responses that answer the questions? Or do questions need to be rephrased or changed? Is the interview room convenient, for example, no noise interference from the outside?

At first data collection started with a mixed class of EAP students from 2nd and 3rd vear and one EAP teacher. This action was aimed at doing a piloting before the normal data collection could take place as it was meant to give me an overall idea of how the selected research instruments work. So, I organised a pilot study as a pre-data collection strategy using one focused group and interviewed one EAP teacher. Those participating in the focused groups were chosen randomly in classes where learners volunteered to participate. This exercise is said to be helpful to the researcher because it allows her to observe happenings in advance a number of details about the potential management issues (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995). This was helpful in the sense that outcomes of this pre-data collection, which I took as a trial research procedure, allowed me to revise some of the observational protocol questions for more clarification before the real data collection was started. A few guideline questions were included at this stage and later used in the actual data collection. The aim was to investigate in advance about students' literacy needs and other potential issues that could be raised that were to be included in the data collection per se. To do so, I complied with qualitative observation which encourages the researcher to observe what is going on inside classes (Lillis, 2008) and to suggest a passive participation as opposed to active participation or outright interference (Linda, 1998). The classroom observations in EAP were used with the intention to observe how an EAP class is taught. I mainly looked at the kind of discourses and

genres of teacher – student interactions, anticipating the question of how these can contribute to students' understanding of language learning and teaching respectively. The next section tackled the issue of the data collection per se, which started with classroom observations, focused group discussions and teacher interviews. Afterwards selected texts were to be analysed in the analysis sections.

3.5.3 Observation in EAP classroom

Drawing from the value of ethnographic observation (Emerson, Freetz, & Shaw, 1995), I made a protocol observation note with few lines. I observed for an hour and half each of the classes with one week intermission between them in September 2008 and October 2009. My focus was on teacher-students and student-student interactions, chalk and board and language of instruction. Classes were observed following the school time-table and a few open-ended questions to guide my observations were jotted down. This helped answer important questions that might not have been answered by participants or asked to the informants in the other procedures. Insightful information was noted in my notebook. The time consuming nature of this procedure, according to Silverman (2004) did not affect my observation.

3.5.4 Observation in Discipline classrooms

I observed courses entitled *Basic Electronics* in second year and *Control System Engineering*I in third year, both under EEE modules taught by different teachers. Other engineering courses observed were second year courses "Structure Analysis 1" and "Reinforcing concrete design 1". I also observed two Biology courses in third year: Microbial Diversity and Medical Microbiology 1, and two Physics courses: "Mathematic Physics" and "Modern

Physics". A year or so later, between September 2009 and February 2010, I observed one EAP class and one science class (MEE) only as a research follow-up. This latter course follow-up was aimed at cross-checking the responses of the previous year's observations and consolidating the final data collections. Discipline-specific teachers in the above classrooms were kind enough to assist me in every way possible and were very natural in the teaching that I observed. Nobody felt intimidated or ashamed to code switch between English and French or just teaching in Kinyarwanda. I remember even one teacher who looked at me when I entered one of physics classes, and told me "Moi j'enseigne en Français, je ne connais pas l'Anglais. J'ai fais mes études en Français et j'enseigne dans la même langue. Si ca ne te dérange pas, tu peux suivre". A literal translation of this, "As for me, I teach in French, I don't know English. I studied in French and I teach in that same language".

3.5.5 Guiding specific research sub questions

- What are the discourses, genres and practices that students at KIST need to engage in?
- To what extent are students' needs met by the academic literacy programme at KIST?
- What are the teachers' and students' understanding of the process of language and literacy learning in terms of a constructionist approach?
- How does student understanding of the post-colonial approach to learning affect students' performance?
- What are the other factors that may influence students' ability to become part of a scientific academic discourse community?

For the purpose of clarity and students' better understanding of the questions, the above subquestions were rephrased in simple English and probed where an opportunity arose. The focused group discussion started with two Second Years and ended with three Third Years.

Each guiding question was expanded and probed as much as possible when more discussions started flowing. As stated at the beginning of this Chapter, due to the huge amount of data collected, I present three to five excerpts which I believe are representative of the experiences of the majority students to illustrate the emerging themes, whilst the rest will be added to appendices (See appendix 13). I make general and higher category inference(s) from provided responses in mentioning the significance or issue (s)/theme(s) inferred, given that "the analysis consists of making inferences of what was meant from what was said, "(Edwards & Westgate (1994: 137). In the students' focused group discussions, I merged the responses from the Second and the Third Years essentially because they responded to similar kinds of questions. Students were asked ten questions some of which included sub questions. I will not start this section by writing all of them since I propose to include a list of all questions in the appendices. In this section I provide the questions one-by-one, followed by the students' answers. Each question will be introduced by its deriving theme and only three to five extracts (representing students' experiences on EAP) will be presented for practical purposes. The key issues from the description of the raw data will be included in the appendices. (See Appendix 15).

At the end of the four extracts, I include a short summary of the findings. Questions will be presented under four headings, namely: ironies of colonialism versus post-colonialism, ideologies of language learning and academic literacy, course content and institutional worth. These headings represent the main themes.

3.5.5.1 The Student Focus Group Discussions.

Forty-three students who were divided into six focused groups participated in the study. Twenty from a 2nd year group, (ten from the department of Biology and ten from the department of Physics) and 23 from 3rd year group (ten from the department of Mechanical

Engineering, MEE and thirteen from the department of Electrical and Electronic Engineering, ETE). Students were interviewed in groups of seven to ten in a single group, and participants in focused groups were selected, taking into account their common characteristics on the topic taught. At the time of the interviews, these students had completed EAP courses. I chose to include students from six different departments with the idea of having varied views on English language teaching from students who belong to different fields. These views, I believe, will be useful in the triangulation in data analysis. Data obtained from the focused groups was all kept in folders A & B of the digital voice recorder spaces waiting for transcription. Focused groups have the advantage of extending ideas more than a big number of informants can do and the major constraint is that answers from the interviewee may not be well-articulated and clear, making it difficult to transcribe.

Open ended questions were phrased and sequenced in advance in order to provide richer data. The specific sub-questions derived from the main question (see research questions, 1.5 in Chapter One) were carefully selected, phrased and rephrased and probed where necessary for clarity reasons. These questions included topical questions which allowed participants to describe and get informed about the study (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Creswell, 1998) I intended to triangulate students' answers with the rest of data for validity purposes. This technique yielded a lot of information from a limited number of students from varied fields. I audio-recorded these responses from six focused group discussions, all recorded in hour and half hours each. Here, like in observation sessions, discussions were organised at as one week interval groups. It is said that this method has an advantage in that members participating can influence each other by responding to ideas and comments in discussion (Krueger, 1994:6-14). It also has a disadvantage in that talkative students can dominate and/or influence the discussions and shy ones can just listen to others and keep quiet.

3.5.5.2 EAP One-on-one Teacher Interviews

I conducted one-on-one interviews with ten EAP teachers in my office. I interviewed eight EAP and two General English teachers. A number of questions were asked, one after another with probes where possible. These interviews were conducted with the aim of hearing and exploring the experiences and views of individual teachers on the way they perceive and teach EAP. This data collection strategy is believed to have contributed to my collection of honest perceptions and experiences from participants (Silverman, 2000) and the in-depth interviews are specifically recognized as an "art" or the "craft" of interviewing (Briggs, 1986; & Wengraf (2000), and an efficient technique of data collection since this is where respondents reconstruct their meanings (Seidman, 1998). The purpose of in-depth interviewing was to get to know participants' experiences and the meaning they attribute to their work (Patton, 1989). Through interviews, the researcher can explore other people's lives and experiences (Seidman, 1998; Bucher, 1902). From the interviews that I conducted with teachers, I expected to get views and observations on how they feel about the EAP course. I also expected to explore teachers' suggestions on how to improve the programme in relation to the student needs. Among EAP teachers were two key informants. The Director of KIST Language Centre who also teaches EAP briefed me on the Centre's current and future plans to address the issue of English language learning and teaching in general, and for EAP in particular. Another senior EAP teacher, who has been employed at KIST since it started in 1997, described his experiences from the start till the time of my data collection in detail. Here also, the interview questions were derived from the sub-questions. Texts to be analysed were also selected and the details are provided in the following section on methods of data analysis.

3.6 Data Analysis Procedure

I believe that the ethnographic paradigm can be favourable when dealing with language experiences, since it looks at what a group of people do with language while interacting, listening, speaking, or writing and takes into account the context of views of participants (Blommaert, 2005). Those working within the New Literacies Studies paradigm appear to hold similar views on literacy. Further to this, an open-ended analytical approach to questions provides clues as to the contextual meaning of the data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). As part of data analysis, I used field notes, students' interviews with a focus groups and teachers and text documents. Student and teacher interviews were audio taped, transcribed and described, and the transcription convention was verbatim. All the interviews were conducted in English language. Interviews were also read through many times to familiarise me with their contents. These steps of data processing were meant to assist me in familiarising me with data and from them induce and code the initial and focused themes in order to be able to finally interpret them (Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). The coding technique was inductive through a grounded theory approach.

This theory makes use of three coding procedures mainly open, axial and selective, (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Open coding is the process of organizing research data before it has been analysed. This is done to make it easy to process the analysis of the data to produce meaningful conclusions about it. Axial coding refers to the process which is used to analyse data in the Grounded Theory concerning comparison of different categories of items that are being investigated in research in order to arrive at an inductive or deductive conclusion of the phenomena being investigated as well as its social conditions or its effect on something (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, 1998). In this study, axial coding interconnects the different categories of research data that was found on science and engineering students and teachers concerning the way students are taught English language and EAP courses at KIST, the

factors that contribute to students' language problems as well as their effect on students' learning.

Selective coding refers to the process of creating sense out of the research data and the way it was conducted in order to make an argument about the results of the data. It connects both the open coding and axial coding. In the study, selective coding refers to the way the researcher analysed the data to make meaningful conclusions about the data and the students and teachers who are the subject of investigation. These helped to find out different levels or categories of themes. Data was transcribed and scripts read and reread to identify emerging themes using a careful, open coding system. In the next step, lower or sub themes were grouped according to their similarities and/or differences in meaning by means of axial coding; and selective coding dissected the lower themes under their respective broader or bigger themes.

This analytical approach is said to be more open-ended and can yield contextual meaning from the data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Coding was organised under various categories of data and thematic approaches were used to code answers to particular research questions. Themes that emerged from particular research questions were put together under normal categories. Based on similarities and differences in responses, themes were identified and put together. The related quotes were aligned together for each question and each transcript. These themes were in turn put under their major categories for the purpose of drawing conclusions from them. Field notes, students' focused groups, teacher interviews and documents were all analysed. First, field notes were coded and analysed following the ethnographical critical discourse analytical framework. Interviews with teachers and focused group discussions with students were audio taped, transcribed, described and presented. I read through them many times to become familiar with their contents. After this, all emerging themes were coded and used to identify emerging/recurrent themes from particular research

questions which were, in the mean-time re-coded, re-categorised and put together under their higher categories.

For the documentary analysis, the choice was informed by the nature of this study itself. If the study is concerned with finding out the kind of genres and discourses students in their departments engage with, so as to compare them to the genres and discourses from EAP materials, classroom observations alone might not suffice. In order to get more information from more sources, it was necessary to have my hands on the texts. The motive behind the selection and critical evaluation of texts was influenced by the fact that I wanted to analyse the focus of the bits of texts, that is, examples of particular institutional and students' text materials, to analyse them and bring out the extent to which they matched features of a particular genre as currently prevalent in a particular discipline. Therefore, texts such as the Rwanda higher education policy, the higher education language policy and a few EAP science and engineering selections of course content, copies of assignments, tests and examinations all proved to be helpful. This was aimed at cross-checking the obtained data and in turn to see how EAP course objectives (see 1.4 in Chapter 1) were attained thus far. I used theories on genres and discourses in EAP, academic literacy and scientific genres and discourses for higher education as my analytical frameworks. In the same way, texts from the Rwanda higher education policy, and specifically the higher education language policy, lectures, classroom texts, books, syllabuses, hand-outs, assignments, tests and examinations from EAP and science and engineering which were selected and found to be helpful.

I went through the existing EAP texts based on course content, assignments, tests and examination papers to see the construct around 'genre' and observe whether the texts used are relevant to what students really needed. I looked also at course content (in some departments), learners' copies of past essays and individual writing in the four course subjects (Biology, Physics, ETE, and MEE). I explored the construct around 'genre' and

'discourses' with the aim of investigating the genres and discourses in science and engineering texts and later compare them to the genres produced in EAP texts. Here, I wanted to see how helpful or not helpful EAP is in assisting students in their course disciplines. This, I felt might provide an overview of the kind of discourses and genres that students in these departments need to be taught in an EAP course.

The advantage of using document analysis is that information from texts can be organized and scanned through whenever the data collection is done. This also saved me on time to transcribe since documents were provided in written form. The analysis of texts also presents a rich source of data that can be used for reflexion. It has, however, one disadvantage. It is time consuming for the researcher (LeCompte, 2003). In addition to that, it is not cost effective since the scanning of documents is very expensive. Recurrent themes under bigger categories are discussed and interpreted drawing on theorists in the fields. This provides for capturing what the informants say and developing explanations for it, such as finding the reasons why informants say what they say. As argued by Glaser & Strauss (1967), this analytical approach is more open-ended and the contextual meaning of data is given strict consideration.

3.7 Scope and Limitation of the Study

Generally, students at KIST face language literacy issues in spoken and written English throughout their studies. However, it was not practicable to investigate all of them. Therefore this study only focused on students' needs that are related to English for Academic Purposes second and third years where EAP is actually taught. Also, it would have been more fulfilling if I had considered a bigger number of participants from science and engineering departments. However, because of time constraints and the anticipated challenges of access to

this huge number of students with different time-tables and activities, I have been constrained to limit this study to only five focused groups composed of students in 2nd and 3rd years Biology, Physics, ETE, MEE and CEET. The departments considered in this study represent almost 50% of the total departments in Science and Engineering. Thus, although these participants are not fully representative of KIST students, I assumed that the results from this cross-section of half the students can yield insights into the challenges faced by KIST students in general as far as academic literacy is concerned. It would have been also interesting to interview discipline specific lecturers, but since my primary interest was weighted more on English and EAP teachers' experiences, opinions and ideas on EAP at KIST, I decided to include the observation processes of those teaching in the above five departments only. I hope to gain an understanding of the ways in which these lecturers contributed to students' academic literacy development in their respective departments. There were a maximum of ten and minimum of seven students in each focused group. Full-time general English and EAP teachers participated in one-on-one in-depth interviews.

Within KIST there are more than four science and engineering technology departments. This is to say that it would be more beneficial to include all KIST departments in this study. I assumed, however, that the results of the segment under the KIST five departments (two science and three engineering), might still provide insightful perspectives on the challenges that students face in academic literacy at tertiary level and to suggest a skeletal model approach to go about solving this issue in other public and private higher education institutions that have science and technology engineering faculties in Rwanda. In addition, other disciplines allied or aligned to science and engineering can also exploit these conclusions and recommendations in this study to inform them of their own academic literacy issues, especially because almost all tertiary level institutions in Rwanda struggle with academic literacies and practices for specific disciplines.

3.8 Summary of the Chapter

This Chapter has so far described the ethnographic aspects of my research design by explaining the role of each section in the overall study. This Chapter also provided explanations on the ethical issues through the relationship of the trust between the researcher and the participants from day one to the last day. In the next Chapter, everything will come under the loop.



CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

"What lies behind us and what lies before us are tiny compared to what lies within us" (Ralph Waldo Emerson).

The Ethnographic approach to research tends not only to explore people's experiences through palpable strategies. It has also the power to bring to the surface what lies deep down within people's hearts by first of all familiarising, and then continues slowly by slowly to create an atmosphere of trust (my emphasis).

In addition to its own philosophy and traditions, ethnography draws from other relevant qualitative paradigms in order to yield thick data. It was within this endeavour that I used the grounded theory as an approach to analyse my data. Four data collection strategies were used: classroom observations in EAP and science classes, student focused group discussions, teacher one-on-one interviews and documentary analysis. In this Chapter, I describe, scruitinise and analyse meanings encompassed and encapsulated in the data to find out what happened in participants' everyday experiences of learning and teaching EAP at KIST. As detailed in the methodology Chapter, I spent one hundred and fifty hours in 2008 and fifty hours of follow-ups in 2009 and 2010. I have, thus, spent in total a little more than two hundred hours observing teachers and students in EAP classrooms and in four subject courses. EAP classes were held once a week and taught by eight of the ten teachers.

This section illuminates the challenges of science writing in English for the second and third year students at KIST in Rwanda. The EAP programme was specifically designed to assist Rwandan students to cope with the English medium of instruction at higher education level because of their sudden switch from French to English as a medium of instruction in 2005 as

a result of increasing pressures to enter global markets. I will also do the analysis of students' focused group discussions (in total 6 groups). This Chapter presents the key issues that together contribute to low levels of investment in the learning of EAP. In order to illuminate this analysis and later in Chapter 5 when I discuss the emerging findings from students' and teachers' data, a number of questions had to be asked and answers found for them. I therefore present a synthesis of the research findings whose implications are discussed in Chapter Five.

I have divided this Chapter into four Sections: A, B, C, and D, all of which are inter-linked to the overall themes or concepts that together inform the factors influencing students' success in mastering EAP at KIST. In order to investigate the students' EAP needs, I reviewed the literature and interviewed students and teachers. In attempting to explore the issue of whether the EAP course at KIST meets the students' needs, I made use of participant observations in different EAP classes, interviewed and analysed students' academic work such as assignments, tests, and examination copies. Given that these students are enrolled in science and engineering faculties, I also investigated the use of English language in content classes through observations in order to explore the kinds of genres and discourses subject teachers use when teaching students' discipline courses (Biology, Physics, EEE, and MEE.

The four sections respectively present, analyse and signal the research findings from field notes on classroom observations, students' perspectives on EAP as taught at KIST, teachers' perspectives on EAP materials and methods (pedagogy) and the scrutiny of documents or textual materials. I used three coding techniques, mainly open, axial and selective to find out levels or categories of themes/concepts. In this process, open coding technique helped in the transcription of the data. After the data was transcribed, I read and re-read it to identify the emerging themes. Axial coding helped in ways of grouping similar and different sets of data in order to facilitate the categorisation process. Once the data had been categorised in lower

or sub-themes/concepts, I used selective coding to facilitate dissecting the lower/general from the higher/specific themes. The analysis started with observations in EAP and science classrooms. With regard to EAP, I described four typical classroom lectures: listening in second year class; speaking in third year class; reading and writing in third year class. With regard to science classes, I have also described four kinds of classroom settings under Biology, Physics, and Electrical and Electronic Engineering (ETE). Next, I analysed the data from students in second and third years and the data from EAP teachers. Lastly, I analysed the selected documents/texts materials from both EAP and the above three science courses.

The decision to observe, describe and analyse science subjects and its related text materials was meant to see whether there was an overlap, given the fact that EAP's prior objective, as mentioned in the background of the study, was to assist science students in their use of academic English when writing in their science courses. At the end of the analysis, I drew up a visual or diagramatic model of analysis in which I present the data sources and their emerging themes. The themes are grouped, firstly, into lower category or sub-themes and higher category or main themes. It is this latter category that constitutes the research findings of this study all taken from the point of view of participants' experiences and understanding of literacies (discourse and genres) and practices (tasks, exercises) at KIST. I propose to discuss the significance of these findings in Chapter Five. Chapter Five, likewise, will discuss the research findings in the same four sections. Before the analysis per se, I describe KIST campus, including parts of the campus in which EAP is taught to Science students.

4.2 SECTION A: Presentation and analysis of data: Field descriptions

4.2.1 Overview of the classes

In this section I present and analyse data from classroom observations in EAP and science classes. Although I had the opportunity to observe six lessons in EAP and five in science respectively, in this analysis I limit myself to the analysis of four EAP classes, namely listening for the second years, speaking, reading and writing for the third years and three science subjects for the third years. With regard to the EAP, the limitation to the above classes was due to the fact that the teaching and content were similar and, thus, what I observed in one class was almost representative of the other observed class for the same course. The choice to include few science classes as part of my observation was meant to enable me to observe the genres and discourses that the science lecturer would use while teaching. This, I believed, would provide a good picture of the kinds of genres and discourses that were needed to be used by the EAP teachers throughout their course as teaching materials and this would enable me to observe any overlap.

I decided not to include the fourth year classes because the English and EAP teaching programme has been through a number of uncertainties over the past few years. At first, from 1998 to 2005, it was taught from first year to the year before completion of the degree. During this time the course was credited and included in the students' transcripts. Then from 2006 to early 2007, it was only taught for two hours a week for one semester in the third and fourth year. It was during this period that the English course was denied credit as part of students' academic transcripts. Instead, at the completion of the degree programme, students were given a testimonial certifying that English was part of the student' course programme in the third and fourth year. From mid- 2007, EAP was taught for one semester in the third year of the four year degree programme and in the fourth year (Sciences) for the five year degree

programme (Engineering Technology). From 2008, the time I started my data collection, EAP was taught for one semester in the second and third year. In these classes, I intended to observe the teaching of the four language skills either in second or third year because it was the same EAP course programmes that was taught in all departments in both years.

From the observations made in the third year Biology (Microbial Diversity and Medical Microbiology 1); Physics second and third year (Mathematic Physics and Modern Physics; and ETE, Basic Electronics in second year and Control system Engineering 1 in third year, I intended to observe the discourses and genres that these courses encompass, on one hand, and also observe the extent to which discipline lecturers and tutors helped science students develop and practise their academic English through learning to perhaps complement and consolidate scientific discourses and genres. I was also curious to listen to the spoken and written discourses and genres endorsed by the content teachers in comparison to the genres promoted by EAP classes to observe the overlap between the two courses.

One preliminary and striking observation was that the number of students in one class was so large to the extent that other students followed the class through the windows while standing outside. I did not observe such a situation in any other subject classrooms that I went to. Both students and their teacher seemed comfortable with this arrangement. Another striking observation was that students' interactions about the work were entirely in Kinyarwanda except when talking to the teacher, when they switched over to English or French. I expected them to speak English, at least for the duration of the two hour class especially because they at least knew that I was concerned with how they used English in their classroom learning.

I describe here the first class I observed, followed by two other observations where interactional patterns were different. Lessons observed were in the order of listening,

followed up with writing in second year groups, speaking in third year group, as well as reading and writing in third year classes. The headings represent the themes.

In the EAP class descriptions I drew data from what I could see and hear to scrutinise the emerging issues or themes and described what was actually going on inside the classrooms during lectures and tutorials through teacher—student and student-student interactions, such as chalk-and-board and other tasks. Moreover, I looked at the Rwanda Higher Education policy for a general view on language policy for particular guidance and recommendations. I chose to analyse the Rwanda higher education policy first to distil what it says about the expectations of higher education institutions.

The language policy document was analysed to see what is required in the teaching of English at tertiary level in general and to science students in particular since both documents are referred to and complied with by all Rwanda higher education institutions prior to determining the content of the English programme/module/syllabus.

WESTERN CAPE

4.2.1.1 Class 1: The teaching of listening and writing in Second year group

The first class I observed on the EAP time-table was listening and writing in August 2008. A male teacher came with a radio recorder and found me in the corner of the class. He greeted the students and when he introduced me to the class as "a researcher and colleague in the department of English" students clapped hands for me and said, "You are welcome madam". He wrote ten sentences on the board then plugged in the radio and inserted a Cambridge cassette 2 of the book *New Cambridge English Course (NCEC)*. He then instructed students to listen carefully without writing anything during the first listening session. During the second listening session, they were allowed to listen and write whatever they chose to write on their draft papers. The third time was the last. Then they listened and at the same time

filled the blanks in each of the incomplete ten sentences. Among the elements to fill the gaps were vocabulary words, tenses, verbs and adjectives.

The next time he came on time and entered the class before the majority of students did. This time, he found me waiting for him outside the class and we entered together. We greeted the class and I went to sit at the back again. Students were already familiar with me and their attitudes were a bit different. They were smiling at me and say "Hi Prof". The teacher called names and returned the papers.

Feedback

Since the teacher had just distributed feedback papers, with discretion, I asked two students to give me their papers. The feedback was, for an example, x (indicated a mistake in a sentence) while a √ (indicated a correct verb or adjective in a sentence). The focus of the feedback was on tenses and adjectives. In this class the lecture was teacher-centred, there were few instances when the teacher invited students to ask questions or do group discussion tasks. When the teaching time was over, he gave me the opportunity to talk to the students and left. I thanked the students and we chatted a bit because they were having another class. I retained one thing from our chat, I quote: "This teacher is not serious. He only came on time because of you." Other talk was around questions about my studies, and how I could possibly help them enrol here at UWC when they complete their degrees. I referred them to the University website and told them to feel free to ask me for assistance in case they failed to fill the online application. The next observed session was on speaking for a third year group.

4.2.1.2 Class 2: The teaching of speaking to the Third year group

A male teacher came in with me. He introduced me to the class for five minutes and started teaching. He instructed students one-by-one to go to the front of the class to read a summary of a novel which they had been reading for two or three weeks. Five groups prepared for the interpretation but only two groups presented their summaries and at the end other groups asked questions. The texts in this class were "*Great case for adult learners*" and "*Traditional marriage*"

• Institutional practices

There are a number of issues that emerged from the above early observations which have been a continuing feature in my research. First, was a set of institutional factors relating to teachers' absences, students standing outside windows while following English classes, students doing tasks for their other courses during the English classes. Second, was the teaching of EAP characterised by irrelevant and inappropriate tasks in listening and speaking and by an approach to reading which focused on filling in isolated sentences with matching words and expressions. Moreover, the selection of texts which was possibly of general 'concern to Rwandan society', did not bear any relation to the scientific fields in which students needed to construct and deconstruct texts. This encapsulates a central concern in this research: the inappropriate nature of the texts for the teaching of EAP skills. This can perhaps serve as an illustration of the use of post-colonial approaches and materials which do not respond to students' needs.

4.2.1.3 Class 3: The teaching of reading for the Third Year Group

The teacher used a text from the NCEC Book 3 on page 86. The title of the task or lesson was..."Drove off without stopping". He gave various instructions:

Instruction 1

Read the newspaper report. Then look at the two maps and choose the map which corresponds to the report. Find on the map: a roundabout, a pedestrian crossing, a junction.

Instruction 2

Read the article again and try to guess the meaning of the following words and expressions:

Trip, rammed, head-on, swerved, vague, fined, reckless, failing to stop.

Instruction 3

Work with another student. You have got five minutes to write down as many words and expressions as you can that have to do with driving.

Examples: steering, wheel, petrol, traffic light.

Instruction 4

Read the following account of an accident and draw what happened and respond to the reading comprehension questions.

Car A tried to overtake car B approaching a road junction.

Car C, which was coming from the opposite direction, swerved to avoid car A and crashed into a tree on the corner of the junction.

After analysing the above tasks (1-4) on the teaching of reading to Third Years, I believe that through these tasks students can improve their general English but not their scientific English skills. Students gained little or no knowledge that would assist them in coping with their science-oriented texts. Students attending these classes may, thus, continue to find it challenging to read and comprehend the literacies and practices demanded by science

lectures, assignments, test and/or examinations. The kind of text such as "Drove off without stopping" as well as the four instructions showed that teachers are using out-dated EAP texts which did not promote the discursive competences recommended either by the EAP **or** the scientific community of practices.

4.2.1.4 Class 4: The teaching of writing in Third Year Group

This class was to start at 10.00 am. I went to the class five minutes earlier as agreed with the teacher but he himself came ten minutes late. The majority of students (30 out of 40) were already in class. After everybody was seated, he quickly introduced me as his colleague doing research on English teaching and immediately started the lesson. He wrote three topics on the blackboard and asked students to choose one and write two paragraphs on it. Students sitting at the same table were not allowed to choose similar topics. It seemed, according to the teacher, that the previous class had been on paragraph writing. Although students at the same table chose different topics most of them were murmuring, but I could not hear what they were exactly murmuring about, especially since I was sitting at the back of the class to avoid drawing their attention and causing a distraction.

In this class, students were asked to choose from and write about the following topics:

- 1. The importance of education in Rwanda.
- 2. Importance of bilingualism in East African Community.
- 3. Science and technology is beneficial for the whole world.

The teaching of writing to Third Years was drawn from topics such as the above. Although this writing task called for genres such as argument, as will be evident in section D, the kind of argument required on the Science courses is very different from those elicited by the topics above. For example, Biology students would be asked to write an essay which requires a structure and specific language features related to the scientific discipline concerned. Likewise, in the reading texts by the previous teacher, the two topics (1 & 2) did not seem to address the genre features a science student would need. Using generic argument tasks such as those used in the EAP class did not then actively promote engagement with scientific argument genres.

In different moments of observation, from different EAP classes, I arranged meetings with two students. One belonged to a different class (chemistry 2nd year) from those I considered for this study and another one from an EAP-biology class. I asked them to bring me their copies after any EAP feedback. I decided to include an EAP feedback from chemistry though it was not one of the four departments I considered because I wanted to see what was going on in a classroom I did not observe or had not included its text for later analysis to see how similar or different approaches to feedback were.. To sum up, this task on writing revealed inappropriate genre texts used as material for EAP, lack of discursive competence and no chance to show students' identity as they struggled to become good writers of science.

4.2.1.5 Comments on institutional practices evident in observations

Lack of professionalism/Institutional management

In addition to the incident mentioned above (see 4.2.1.4), I experienced other situations, for an example, when I went into an EAP class twenty minutes before the starting time I found a few students in the class and others were arriving one-by-one. We stayed in the class waiting for the teacher to come but he did not show up. Students used that time to discuss the incident. After an hour, the class representative came to ask me whether they could leave the

class because they had an assignment to submit in the next class. His introductory words were, I quote, "Sorry madam, this teacher is used to this kind of game, maybe he spent a night in the cabaret that is why he is not here now." Then he asked me permission to leave, which was granted. I deduce here three issues: lack of value perception of English language classes, lack of institutional management and lack of professionalism. In another class, it was agreed earlier that students were to get back their CAT marks, and have time to ask questions to prepare for their end of year examinations. Suddenly, the teacher improvised something else and when students reminded him of the results they were waiting for, he said he was still marking.

Lack of updated EAP teaching practices and materials/consistency/investment

As for the teaching material, methods and pedagogy, few teachers wrote the title and objectives of the lessons on the board. EAP teachers also used different teaching materials and approaches. The teaching aids/materials were either photocopies of some texts or the EAP syllabus and/or NCEC Books and different novels. Students had no course reader or any other course guide for EAP classes, only NCEC books - "Students' and Practice Books" of which three students had to share one book among them. Most teaching materials were from a syllabus entitled "English for Academic Purposes", other material was a photocopy from a book, "Grammar in use". EAP teaching lessons were drawn from the above materials, except a couple of individual teachers who from time-to-time brought extra curriculum materials from outside KIST. For example, one EAP teacher impressed me. He came with a number of Newspapers on Technology Transfer and distributed them among students and asked them to read and then answer five questions which he wrote on the board. This class gave me the impression that the teacher was organised and had knowledge of the importance of the field related texts above those on general issues. I also noticed the kind of questions he wrote on the board reflected a good knowledge of the kind of questions which require both the

skimming and scanning processes. This teacher was the same person who had been very critical when responding to the interview questions and his critique was centred on inappropriate teaching materials and the overall concern about lack of language value attached to English.

On the part of students, few of them attended classes compared to the total number of enrolled students in a course. Moreover, the reputation of the institution as far as its management is concerned, may be ruined and discredited, whilst it is said to be the most reputed institution of science and engineering technology of the country. This would happen, for an example, as put forward by one of the EAP teachers during the interview. I quote, "When students go to the job market and fail to show their ability and capability in a given task, it is the school's reputation that is in despair." The take home knowledge product from EAP classes did not appear to be helpful. I could notice that no one in the institution monitored or followed up the teaching. I mean there was noone to see whether teachers were really coming to teach, to look at what they were teaching and how long the teaching session lasted. Students who did not attend English classes were not penalised regardless of whether the attendance lists were signed in every class. In general, the conceptual frameworks that reflected aspects of all my observations in EAP classes are that students were subjected to a model of learning that did not provide access to the best EAP academic practices. Students were not exposed to activities that promoted the genres and discourses of science that are required to be mastered by a university science students' community (community of practices).

The writing tasks promoted the use of genres such as narratives and recounts, reporting on reading comprehension questions, arguments and short essays on non-scientific texts. I deduced that the major challenge was that neither teachers nor students were totally immersed in the teaching or learning of EAP and this could be seen in their attitudes. For an

example, the case of an EAP teacher who dodged his class as mentioned earlier in this section and the other who spent an hour and a half on the task of writing two paragraphs. Overally, students were subjected to a model of learning that did not provide access to EAP academic practices. The majority of students were also not active enough as some of them could be reading for an up-coming assignment or a test during the English class and this went unnoticed by the teacher. Issues arising from EAP observations are firstly, the use of inappropriate and out-dated content for teaching speaking, listening, reading and writing to science classes. Next, is the lack of teacher monitoring and professionalism, for an example, not coming to teach on time or even not coming to teach at all, where students take this as a habitual practice by certain teachers. The students' identity which I also call "students' right" as writers and readers of science was refuted and in reading strategies such as skimming and scanning were absent. Finally, the feedback on writing was at the level of sentence completion and tenses.

UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE

4.2.2 Observations in Science classrooms

4.2.2.1 Biology

I observed courses in a Biology Third Year group entitled "Microbial Diversity" taught by a non-Rwandan. The language of instruction and note-taking was purely in English. In this class, students were very passive, only few of them could confidently interact with the teacher in responding to him asking questions. The rest were discussing the course in Kinyarwanda in a very low voice. Another Biology lesson observed on the next scheduled day to Third Year group was "Medical Microbiology 1", it was also taught by the same lecturer. Most students concentrated on listening to the course content, while some others were quietly busy jotting down what the teacher was writing on the board.

The teacher was able to transmit the lesson in English medium, hence students' attention focused on murmuring in Kinyarwanda trying to discuss what the teacher was saying. I could rarely see a student raising her or his hand to ask a question, and yet I could see that they were struggling to agree on each other's comments.

4.2.2.2 Physics

The Physics lessons which I observed for Second and Third Year groups respectively, were on "Mathematics Physics" and "Modern Physics" and were taught in French, English, and Kinyarwanda. Kinyarwanda was only used in teacher-student and student-student interactions, whilst French was used by the teacher in explaining some concepts. Students' notes were provided in English. This class showed enthusiasm both from the perspectives of lecturer and students. Students were very active as they asked a great number of questions and enjoyed the class.

4.2.2.3 Computer Engineering and environmental Technology (CEET)

I observed "Structure Analysis 1" in Second year, and "Reinforcing Concrete Design 1" in Third year. The language of instruction was purely French. The notes were in English.

4.2.2.4 Electrical and Electronic Engineering (EEE)

I observed courses entitled "Basic Electronics" for Second Year and "Control System Engineering I" for Third Year ETE groups. These engineering courses were taught by a tutor and a lecturer respectively. My observations in these two classes revealed a mixture of

French and English as transmission modes and interactions between the teacher and the

students. French was used when lecturer/tutor was explaining some concepts and when

students were asking questions. The student-student interaction in the class was purely

Kinyarwanda. Notes copied from the board in students' notebooks were in English.

In the Control System Engineering 1 course by a lecturer, more English was used with little

code switching (English-Kinyarwanda). Kinyarwanda was used to clarify some points within

the course. The teacher - student interactions were more in French than in English and

Kinyarwanda. Here also, the notes were written on the board in English. In the light of this, I

concluded that students were actively immersed in the course when explanations were

formulated in either French or Kinyarwanda. Issues arising in the observations of the above

courses for Physics and the two engineering courses have been that both lecturers used two

different languages, a mixture of French and Kinyarwanda and French was used in

transmitting the knowledge, but English was used in the assessment.

UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE

4.3 SECTION B: Data Presentation and Analysis: Students' Perspectives

This study is based on interpretive paradigm. Barton and Barlett (2005) explain that the interactions of an individual shape him or his social world. This being the reason for the choice of interviewing EAP students and teachers in the their social world (KIST) in which both have views of what is going on, and therefore, "act according to how they interpret events" (Barton and Barlett, 2005:22).

In order to investigate the students' EAP needs, I reviewed the literature and interviewed students and teachers. In attempting to explore the issue of whether the EAP course at KIST meets these needs, I made use of participant observations in different EAP classes, interviewed and analysed students' academic work such as assignments, tests, and examination copies. Given that these students were enrolled in science and engineering faculties, I also investigated through observations the use of English language in content classes in order to explore the kind of genres and discourses that subject teachers used when teaching students' discipline courses (Biology, Physics, CEET, and ETE).

4.3.1 The purpose of the Section

The purpose of this section is to illustrate the challenges second and third year science and engineering technology students in Rwanda face when writing in English. It focuses on students' perspectives of the English for Academic Purposes (EAP) programme offered by teachers in the KIST Language Centre. The focus is on the role of the English language and literacy programme in over-coming or maintaining barriers to scientific communities of practice. The focused group discussions were meant to inform this study on students' experiences of English taught at KIST. As mentioned in the previous Chapter, students involved were EAP Second and Third year in Biology, Physics and ETE groups. Students

were from different departments but same year levels. They were asked similar kinds of questions on issues pertaining to their success in learning EAP and the impact of these issues on their field areas.

I found it necessary to use focused group discussions with students to collect and analyse their experiences of EAP at KIST. Insights on the use focused group discussions data to analyse students' experiences derive from its reputation of being a strategy that offers lived experience in the area of interest (Krueger, 1994), which is the basis for the current study. Analysis questions stressed particular aspects of thought to answer the specific research questions and each question was addressed around a given issue or theme. For a thorough analysis of students' data, focused groups, in total six, were asked a number of questions and responses presented in excerpts were coded to categorise and to pinpoint issues and provided primary and higher category themes as the findings. After the analysis, key issues/themes were positioned together under their higher categories as the representation of factors contributing to low levels of investment in the learning of EAP. These issues will be discussed and interpreted in Chapter (5) to pinpoint their implications for students' successful mastery of EAP. The following sub sections/headings represent emerging themes from the perspectives of students.

.

4.3.1.1 Students' perspectives: Ironies of colonialism versus post-colonialism on EAP

Twenty two questions were asked, and given that the responses provided to the same questions by students in different focus groups are similar in some way, only between three and five students' responses are included here. Controversial responses were also added and analysed as they appeared.

Question 1

Can you tell me about your experience of the English language from when you started, from the first to the third year? What kind of things do you learn here at KIST?

Students' Responses

Student 1: "At a certain time considering how you grow up it's not fair. It is not our fault, that is how we grew up, English is not easy and we are given the text and new words, asked to fill in the boxes, am going to emphasize that there are words which are in texts but out of the text you cannot use them".

Student 2: "The students and also the country was Francophone, but now we are Anglophone so there is big difficulty to speak English, we have fear and are ashamed to make mistakes..."

Student 3: "What I realise is that this one is very important because from my primary school even in secondary, I started with the French system. So, this course helped me, erhm very, very important because here you see courses are treated in English. So you see, if this course had not been introduced from first year, I would not be able to follow my studies but as this course is there, that's why I'm now, even if my level of English is not as good as I want, but I think that this course is very, very important. Thank you".

Student 4: "I think the purpose of studying English is well but the way it is taught, the way it is given is not well, sometimes a lecturer does not come on time and at that time you get the work but there is no feedback. …and if we come here in KIST lecturers also continue to teach us the same as in…, so it is….for example we have studied plurals and here also it repeat"

Student 5: "It's an important course but the problem is some of the students don't agree that it should be one of the important courses they spend much time on Mathematics and Science

rather than English are". Why? I have many things to do for Mathematics, Physics so I don't

concentrate on English yeah, because in first year they didn't add the marks of English in the

transcript".

Question 2

What kind of support do you get in reading from EAP teachers? What have you liked or have

not liked on the texts you were asked to read? Do you think you have other kind of readings

you should do in the third year?

Students' Responses

Student 1: "The texts I don't like actually, the stories, conversations, about other texts which

are not related to my department"

Student 2: "In some exercises, sometimes there is a text which is boring, sometimes even the

stories which are there, it is a million years ago, so you see the text is boring".

Student 3: "They bring the memo already done".

Question 3

What kind of things are you asked to write on?

Inappropriate texts

Students' Responses

Student 1: "importance of using condoms among the youth"

155

Student 2: "how the population of our country is developing"

Student 3: "how gender department will help women", "the importance of gender in

Rwanda"

Student 4: "how was your first time at KIST", and "your dreams, your bad and good dreams

about your life"

Question 4

What kind of support or help do you get in reading and writing from EAP teachers?

Inapropriate materials

Students' Responses

<u>Student 1</u>: "The texts I don't like actually, the stories, conversations, about other texts which

are not related to my department'

Student 2: "In some exercises, sometimes there is a text which is boring, sometimes even the

stories which are there, it is a million years ago, so you see the text is boring".

Student 3: "They bring the memo already done".

Question 5

What do you think are the advantages or the disadvantages of having English for Academic

Purposes for you?

Identity/EAP knowledge/Multi-semiotic repertoire

Students' Responses

156

Student 1: "It is now helping us, or it has helped us to increase our level of understanding

while we are still here and even when we go out. Because we have only two years to finish so

if we finish here, we will go out if we looking for jobs, maybe someone can give you an

interview".

Student 2: "Mmmh, I can give my point. This English we are using in our final projects, when

you are writing scientific things, you are not using the usual English. You know even the

dictionary of science and the dictionary of English is different".

Student 3: "The advantage of this English, English for Academic Purpose, it helps us, how

you can overcome a situation. When you are in this course in our department you know it

helps you know how to transfer, how the transistor is, know the watts. In fact, that English,

you know it helps you in the classes in the course, you know".

Student 4: "When you go to the work places, there, you find it. You still use it, the English

you learnt when you were in the university.

WESTERN CAPE

Question 6

To what extent do EAP classes help you in your disciplinary courses?

Inappropriate genres and discourses

Students' Responses

<u>Student 1</u>: "Our lecturer...of English for Academic Purposes, recently he gave us the topics

say about divorce, divorce to me it does not concern my studies, I mean my field".

157

Question 7

In general how helpful or not helpful are the EAP classes in preparing you for your studies? Is there anything else, any comments that you wish to add?

Identity

Students' Responses

Student 1: "For me EAP helps me because there is always in the exams the essay question is given and composition, short sentence and there are key words to know before you answer the question. Any course, to analyze the question what are the key words so if we raise the key words and connect the idea you are able to answer the question. Any question in any courses. I thank you".

Student 2: "Also English for Academic Purposes help us to answer the question in exam in other subjects. Yes., the question which we have...which needs our personal knowledge and if and in that case English for Academic Purpose, if you know how to arrange your ideas, you may have ideas but you don't know how to put it on paper.."

Student 3: "According to me English for Academic Purpose is very helpful to me because sometimes even in some studies we are asked to write some letters, for example, if we use tests you are asked to write a letter that's a summary in third year. So some of us we are presidents of some student organizations and sometimes we are asked to write letters to other persons out of KIST this is very important to us".

Student 4: "For me this English for Academic Purpose, it helps to understand a topic or a course, analyzing things, and it teachs us how to behave before we train people (industrial attachment/internship) depending on the field".

Question 8

What would you like EAP teachers to focus on more?

Investment and identity/ Institutional management/ Outdated teaching materials

Students' Responses

Student 1: "Why can't we have English as a course like others? From first year up to fourth year we still do English. For other courses, for example, there is...in Physics, there is another course, mechanical physics, etc...why not the same for English?

Student 2: "We are doing science so I think the English I am studying is not enough. They should increase technical terms that I use in my studies in order to help me instead of doing more grammar, this is what I mean. …Now we are dealing with English Academic Purposes, it can include words like teachers in other departments use".

Student 3: "Seriously.....I mean by being serious when they come to class they should have their course well-organized, well-prepared and teach it as if it is Physics, they should see the Physics teacher when he comes in. They just come to class as if he didn't know what he's going to do, they just go around and he's saying one thing for the whole hour. You can't focus on his course when he is not serious. That's what I mean".

<u>Student 4</u>: "They should teach us to speak, to listen and to write many vocabularies and the pronunciation because we have many different pronunciations".

Question 9

Do you get feedback from EAP teachers? What kind of feedback do you get? If you have to give a percentage how much will you give to teachers who give feedback?

Feedback, investment

Students' Responses

<u>Student 1</u>: "It all depends on the teacher; underline the mistake and write under the mistake".

Student 2: "But other teachers underline what's wrong, if you want you ask him, why this is wrong and maybe he is going to tell you what you should have done, others don't."

Student 3: "It depends on the teacher, some teachers give you feedback and next time you have to write the same things or another subject related that you won't commit the same mistake. But other teachers underline what's wrong, if you want you ask him, why this is wrong and maybe he is going to tell you what you should have done, others don't".

Student 4: "Most of the time for us we get feedback but that feedback we do not concentrate on it, we concentrate only on the last feedback not the first one".

WESTERN CAPE

Student 5: "It all depends on the teacher, some teachers give us feedback, like for an example, when we were in first year our teacher gave us the feedback. --- The feedback on the essay writing? Yeah, because we used to write a lot. How was this feedback? "They underline the mistake and write under the mistake the correct way you should write".

The following states the percentages students would give to teachers who provide feedback:

I should say 40 %

I should say 75% for first year.

I have got three teachers, two of them gave me feedback. The teacher in Second year I can give 60 %.

For me feedback I can give 80%...

Question 10

Do students have other 'academic literacy' needs that you feel are not covered by the classes? Can you give some examples? How would you like to see these dealt with, specifically in an institution of Science and Technology?

Five teachers gave writing tasks on general topics (everyday life topics). Out of four teachers, three asked students to write compositions and one asked students to write on general topics and topics of specific interest. One teacher who taught both general language and EAP gave topics that required description (1st and 2nd years) and topics that used narratives (3rd and 4th years). All ten teachers acknowledged that students struggle to write well in general. One of them noticed vocabulary issues.

WESTERN CAPE

Teachers would like to see these changes dealt with, specifically in an institution of Science and Engineering. All ten teachers answered yes to the question of whether there were other 'academic literacy needs' that were not covered by EAP classes. For an example, teachers in Group 1 responded that needs analysis needed to be conducted, the programme needed to be reviewed, students needed to master all four language skills and more material on writing should be added. One of the teachers in Group 2 argued that there were no other materials that the programme was not covering. Another said there was need to add materials on speaking and writing. They also reported that there was need to include materials on how to train students to take down notes and how to develop a short proposal. Lastly, they reported on the need to include materials on reading skills, language skills and study skills.

Group 1: EAP

Needs Analysis/Programme/Study skills

Teachers' Responses

<u>Teacher 1:</u> "We need to conduct needs analysis in order to know what students needs.

Otherwise even at the time of graduation students still have gaps."

<u>Teacher 2:</u> "We need to review the programme."

Teacher 3: "Students need to master all aspects of language and writing tasks because it is now the medium of instruction."

<u>Teacher 4:</u> "Students need to know how to take down notes and how to develop a short proposal."

WESTERN CAPE

<u>Teacher 5:</u> "ESP & EAP material does not include study skills and language skills."

Group 2: NCEC

EAP theoretical background/Speaking materials

Teachers' Responses

<u>Teacher 1:</u> "There are no other academic literacy needs that are not covered by the programme".

<u>Teacher 2:</u> "We need to add materials on speaking."

<u>Teacher 3:</u> "Students need other skills that will not only benefit them here at KIST but also in future. All needed skills are not clearly indicated in our document."

<u>Teacher 4:</u> "Students need more on writing skills."

Teacher 5: "We need more books to develop reading skills. "

Question 11

Are there other things that you feel you should do in reading and writing in third year?

They responded as follows:

Identity

Students Responses

Student 1: "In some texts I liked the texts which have something to do with our department, I do not like the texts which are not from my department, I didn't like them at all. Those are the

texts which did not have any effect on my course".

Student 2: "It is necessary for them to know the scientific terms and I am in electrical studies.

For an example, I can give an example, to be able to explain the function of the volts in a

current and how they move, for an example, in the homes, in the industries,to know

exactly that maybe this is the nuclear current moving or charging but in a scientific way.

These are the stories I like".

<u>Student 3</u>: "I think we should read academic....texts..";

Student 4: "As scientists and engineers we should read and focus on our field".

Student: 5 "About our courses in technology or microbiology", "To read texts on my field of

study".

Question 12

Is there any difference between the English you have learnt in the first and second year and the English in the third year?

This question was asked with a view to finding out how different the EAP literacy programme was at first and second year level. A common reply from the majority of students was that General English is taught in the first and second years, whereas English for Academic Purposes/ESP were taught in the third year. Students generally affirmed that the English programme in the first, second and third year is similar. Students mentioned that the only difference is that at first year level, they were split into groups/levels of beginner, intermediate and advanced. They explained that at second year level, there were no groups anymore in place as they were all taught academic English. Below are the students' responses.

Investment/Inappropriate Materials VERSITY of the

Students' Responses

Student1: "There is not, there is no difference according to what we studied in first year and second year there is no difference because it is the same thing we did in our first year where we were writing essays, compositions, presenting continuous tenses, the same thing and that's the same thing we did in second year, so there was no difference".

WESTERN CAPE

Student 2: "I was studying general English at first and second year, you can speak the way you can speak, the way you can converse, the way you can, the way you can get what you want (request). But now, the difference now is the academic English in third year..."

Student 3: "According to me there is a change because you know at first year people were studying in different groups: beginners, elementary, intermediate and advanced, but in our second year we didn't"

Student 4: "According to the exam that have been given in the first year and the exam given in second year, I think the only difference is on the title of composition. Grammar was the same, it was not different. Exam questions on grammar were not different to questions on grammar for the second year. We had exactly the same exam. Again in the second year we have learnt how to write letter, memo, but in first year we were taught grammar and composition".

Question 13

To the sub-question on ways teachers would like to see academic literacy needs dealt with, UNIVERSITY of the specifically in an institution of science and technology They responded as follows:

Group 1: EAP

Agency/Scientific English

Teachers' Responses

<u>Teacher 1:</u> "I wish management would get involved in valuing the English course because students have negative attitudes towards English learning."

<u>Teacher 2:</u> "We need to teach the language of science/scientific English. Science cannot be transmitted without the use of a language of science, when the medium of instruction here is English"

Teacher 3: "Give enough time to the teaching of English, 2 hours per week is not enough."

Teacher 4: "I wish you could include policy makers in your research (some people in the Ministry of Education). We teachers are swimming with our ties on. Students and teachers will do nothing to this problem, only policy makers can, whom should we listen to?"

Group 2: NCEC

Agency/Attitude

Teachers' Responses

<u>Teacher 1:</u> "Students should be aware that English is as important as their other subjects."

<u>Teacher 2:</u> "Other lecturers need to also learn English and have to avoid negative attitudes towards English."

Teacher 3: "We need to cooperate with SETI management to discuss time, promotion (credit) etc".

WESTERN CAPE

All in all, issues from teacher' responses to this question stipulated lack of value attached to English, lack of institutional management, poor identity (student), ineffective power and agency (EAP teachers) and post-coloniality issues manifested themselves.

Can you explain how you would mark a piece of writing?_What would you look for? How would you weigh different parts or different criteria? Are there any other criteria you would take into account when you mark a piece of writing?

The explanation probed to see how teachers would mark a piece of writing, what they would look for, how they would weigh criteria for different parts and whether there were any other forms of criteria they would take into account when marking a piece of writing.

Group 1: EAP

Assessment/Testing

Teachers' Responses

<u>Teacher 1:</u> "Content, cohesion, coherence, referencing (APA), paragraphing, clear definitions and bibliography. Sentences must be tied."

Teacher 2: "I look at the overall text, I look at the content, grammar and language."

Teacher 3: "Organisation (4), content (3), language (3)."

Group 2: NCEC

Teachers' Responses

Teacher 1: "Structure (4), organisation (3) and grammar (3)"

Teacher 2: "Language (4), cohesion (3), coherence (3)"

WESTERN CAPE

<u>Teacher 3:</u> "Language (5), organisation (3), grammar (2)."

Teacher 4: "Content (5), spelling (2), grammar (2), conclusion (1)."

Teacher 5: "Content (3), Language (7)."

Question 14

How would you weigh the different parts or different criteria?

Five teachers each mentioned using different marking criterion. All in all, sixty percent of teachers, when assessing EAP, looked at the four aspects of criteria: language, organisation, content and grammar. One looked at cohesion and coherence, one percent looked at structure,

organisation and grammar, another one looked at referencing, spelling, content, grammar and conclusion and the last one looked at the development of the topic and introduction.

Joint group responses

Teachers' Responses

<u>Teacher 1:</u> "One gives (4) marks to the structure, (3) to the organisation and (3) to grammar.

<u>Teacher 2:</u> "Another teacher gives (4) to language, (3) to cohesion and (3) to coherence.

Question 15

What other criteria would you take into account when marking a piece of writing?

Joint group responses

UNIVERSITY of the

Five did not add any and of the remaining other five, only one stated that when it is a letter writing, he looked at procedure layout, introduction, body and conclusion. Another one looked at how students develop ideas, punctuation and paragraphing. A third one did not pay much attention to language mistakes because he was aware that students were learning. Two of them argued that all teachers had marking scheme/guidelines on how to mark language, organisation and content from the department.

Question 16

What would you look for when marking a piece of writing?

Joint group responses

Teachers' Responses

Teacher 1: Five said they had marking schemes. They said, "we have guidelines on how to

mark: language, organisation and content".

Teacher 2: "when it is a letter, I look at procedure layout, introduction, body and

conclusion".

Teacher 3: "I do not pay much attention to language mistakes because I know students are

learning".

Question 17

Do you provide feedback on students' writing? After how long? What is in the feedback?

How is the feedback you provide supposed to help students to better shape their next writing?

Joint group responses

WESTERN CAPE

Teachers' Responses:

Six answered yes. One gave feedback when the number of students is less than 50, when the

number is more, no feedback. Three teachers said they did not provide feedback.

For the duration of feedback, seven reported that they did not have a fixed form of feedback

time frame. One provided feedback after two weeks. One said after a few days when the

number of students is small and feedback takes more time when students are many (over 60).

Another teacher gave feedback after two days. Feedback

Joint group responses

Teachers' Responses

Seven teachers have different answers and three went off the point.

Teacher 1: "Yes and No. When the number of students is small I give feedback shortly

afterwards, but when they are many (+60), it takes time".

Teacher 2: "Feedback depends on how big is the class is. When students are 50 or above I

don't provide feedback".

Teacher 3: "No, I do not provide feedback. I only mark students' copies".

<u>Teacher 4:</u> "I correct students' mistakes in grammar and spelling".

Question 18

How do you find the feedback you get from EAP teachers? Are they helpful or not helpful?

Students expressed the need to spend the time allocated to the teaching of English learning

English and to divide EAP into the four language skills, like what is done in their Physics

programme, which includes different courses. They also wished to have more teaching hours

and complained that EAP teachers do not take their teaching seriously. In summary, the key

factors affecting students' investment in EAP is the conflicting ideology of language learning

and academic literacy. For an example, the study of Basic Interpersonal Communication

Skills (language learning) has replaced the study of cognitive language proficiency that

students in sciences need to master.

Feedback

Students' Responses

Student 1: "Yes, if you make a mistake he shows you that it is not the way things should be

done. When you have feedback you know where you made mistakes and next time you won't

make the same mistakes again".

Student 2: "It is the improvement, as I have improved my knowledge compared to the

previous work done by me and with the feedback, I know how to improve. And I think that

will affect me because you cannot go further without knowing the things. But, as far as the

feedback that is given to me is concerned, I know very well that I can go step-by-step but I

cannot return".

Student 3: "The impact I think is this, you will never make those mistakes again, so for an

example, you get the other kind of mistake, you correct it so that finally you will get work

without mistakes".

Student 4: "For an example, the teacher told you that you may use a vowel instead of to have

(verb), in your mind you know that you may use to, it so if the feedback says to me you have

to use it, you go to your teacher you ask him or hear why you use, why?, why?, he explain

sto you".

4.3.1.2 Student perspectives: Ideologies of language learning and academic literacy

Question 19

Can you please tell me your personal experience of EAP here at KIST?

Lack of investment/Institutional Management

Students' Responses

Student 1: "It's an important course but the problem is the students, some of them don't agree that it should be one of the important courses, they spent much more time on Mathematics, on Physics rather than English". ... Why not spend time on English? ... "Yeah, because in first year they KIST didn't add the marks of English on the average yeah...that's why I don't concentrate".

Student 2: "Our campus uses English in general. So, the most important thing is to increase the hours of EAP per week because every lesson we study it in English, it would be better. But, if you don't know English that well, when you take some books from the library, you can't get all that, it mean it would be difficult to understand"

Student 3: "My comment is on English for Academic Purpose. Ask teachers and those who are in charge of that course to elaborate more on the syllabus, not to come and see us without knowing what to do. And the second thing is, teachers should not come and fold their arms in front of us even if students are few in class. We are not interested because our direction is for technology and English is not helping us. We are only interested in it when the teacher is dynamic and he is making us learn something, we are likely to like the EAP because we know that some of the teachers they are very dynamic But if the teacher comes to us and merely fold his arms before us, I think there is no improvement in EAP".

Question 20

What kind of texts do you read? Where they from are, How long are they? What kind of exercises/tasks do you do with texts? How do you find them? In which ways do they help you improve your English? Can you think about anything else I should know?

Students Responses

Student 1: In our first year we used to do short texts, short story...I can't remember from the

first semester but up to now no text in classes".

Student 2: "I think we do too many things, for an example, in our first year we had the

Cambridge Book where we used to read many texts and I think we do also listening and solve

puzzles".

Student 3: "In English there are many kinds of things we learned, mostly vocabularies and

grammar. In grammar we learned expressions that should be used when we are expressing

ourselves, vowels, nouns, then we learned speaking and listening".

Student 4: I remember in the first years there was a big, hmm story called 'it is a long story

the title. Its from the New Cambridge English Course (NCEC). It talks about Jenny Parker

and Suzanne, they love each other. JNIVERSITY of the

WESTERN CAPE

Question 21

What kind of things are you asked to write on? What writing support teachers of EAP give

you in writing? Are there other things that you feel you should be writing on?

Inappropriate texts

Students' Responses

Student 1: "The importance of using condoms among the youth".

Student 2: "How the population of our country is growing".

Student 3:"How gender department will help women", "The importance of gender in Rwanda".

Student 4: "How was your first time at KIST" and "your dreams, your bad and good dreams and about your life".

Question 22

What kind of texts do you read in English? Where are they from? How long are they? What kind of exercises or task do you do with the texts? How do you find them? In which way do they help you improve your English? Can you think about anything else that I should know about English?

The kinds of tasks students are required to do in EAP classes, they reported that they do tasks such as writing a paragraph, a letter, read small books (novels) and present their summaries in front of other students in the class. They listen to the radio on how to pronounce English and fill the missing words in boxes.

Inappropriate texts for science students

Students' Responses

Student 1: "In first year we used to do the short text, short story... "We don't know... we don't know what to read and what to write and study. We don't have the syllabus. Yes, that's why I say, the lecturers need to have the teaching materials and the student they have also need to have the hand out".

Student 2: In the first years there was a big, mmh story called 'it is a long story' the title. It's from the New Cambridge English Course 1(NCEC) It's talking about Jenny Parker and

Suzanne, they love each other. That text was very wonderful in order to increase our vocabulary".

Student 3: "Firstly we learn how to express ourselves I can say, the English we learn at the beginning, we can say we are learning it for the first time".

Student 4: In third year, sometimes even the stories which are there, "it is a million years ago".

Question 23

Are there other kinds of reading or speaking exercises/task you think you should do at this

level?

Identity

Students' Responses

UNIVERSITY of the
WESTERN CAPE

Student 1: "In some texts I liked the texts which have something to do with our department, but I do not like the texts which are not from my department, I didn't like them at all. Those are the texts which did not have any effect on my course".

Student 2: "It is necessary for them to know the scientific terms and I am in electrical studies. For an example, I can give an example, to be able to explain the function of the volts in a current and how they move, for an example in the homes, in the industries,to know exactly maybe this is the nuclear current moving or charging but in a scientific way. These are the stories I like".

Student 3: "As scientists and engineers we should read and focus on our field".

Student 4: "About our courses in technology or microbiology, to read texts on my field".

Question 24

Suppose that you are given a choice to write your Continuous Assessment Test (CAT) either in French or in English, which language will you choose to write in and why?

I decided to include this question after I had observed EAP classes, where students could hardly interact in English and wanted to know why. Unexpectedly, quite a number of students in the second and the third year would choose to write their CAT in English rather than French, the language they have mastered for many years. They report that because they have been exposed to French in school they have to grasp the opportunity to improve their English here at KIST. Here is what they replied:

Ideology

UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE

Students Responses

Student 1: "For me I will use English because I had used French most of the time from primary to secondary but now... I must choose English because I must know this language, how to communicate. For me I start using English from first year only here at KIST.

Student 2: "For me I start using English from first year only here at KIST it was my first time to understand English in my life, and now I like so much English"

Student 3: "English, Why? I would choose English because I have already done French but the reason why I choose English is because English is not very complicated as French. In French there are many other things that you have to use like accents, there are many aspects of grammar. English is very easy to use".

Student 4: "According to me I will say in English. It is very easy, but if I write in French you make many mistakes in grammar".

Question 25

In which way do you think is this going to help if English marks are added in your transcripts or when English department gives you certificate every year when you finish an English course?

Investment/ Agency (EAP teachers)

Students' Responses

Student 1: "Students will be serious, now if you get 50% you didn't know..it doesn't matter but even you have a certificate with written 50 %, you will be say why not 70%".

Student 2: "I also agree with him, when you know that you will get something you learn much. When I know I will get marks or certificate, I don't want to get 50 %, I will do my best to get 80%".

Student 3: "So when you know that they will consider English marks, you will try to attend because if you dodge the teacher might give an assignment and mark it. You will be motivated to study English and you will improve your English."

Student 4: "There was a time when they said 'we no longer need to come into class, we do not need English, teachers should go' and learn things for themselves, we can study without them".

Question 26

Is there anything else, any comments that you wish to add?

Identity

Students' Responses

Student 1: "What I would suggest is just to increase the hours of EAP per week to study

that lesson because it is a very important course. We have few hours compared to what we

are supposed to have, so most of the time we don't finish the programme because of that"

Student 2: "They should improve listening and speaking and writing English because most of

the time they speak different languages".

Student 3: "They should increase the speaking and reading cessions".

Student 4: Seriously.... I mean by being serious, when they come in class they should have

their course well-organized, well-prepared and teach it as if it is Physics, they should see the

Physics teacher when he comes in. They just come to class as if he didn't know what they are

going to do, they just go around and he is saying one thing for the whole hour. You can't

focus on his course when he is not serious. That's what I mean.

4.3.1.3 Students' perspectives: Course Content

Question 27

What kinds of texts do you read in EAP course? Where are they from? How long are they?

What kind of exercises or task do you do with the texts?

Inappropriate Materials/Curriculum

Students' Responses

<u>Student 1</u>: "The text that we read is normally short, I can say two pages. We use to summarize any small book like a novel, summary of two or three pages".

Student 2: "The text we read is NCEC to summarize the main ideas and to check if we understand the content of the text, sometimes in the text there are new words and they are given in the box and you are asked to use them and I don't know them and the sentences".

Student 3: "It's the Cambridge, The New Cambridge one. It's a title talking about a long story which has four parts. It's talking about Jenny Parker and Catherine Walter. They love each other. That text was very wonderful in order to increase our vocabulary in order to know how to exchange ideas"

Student 4: Especially, the first year was fine but the second year I don't know if the lecturer did know what to do, but the lecturer in our first year encouraged us to study the course, sometimes they are excited and interested in it. What I can say now is that some of us have come from different schools, yes for me it very difficult, I am weak. Yes I think it is because I did not understand English in secondary school. Yes, in secondary school we had two hours per week to study English. As someone who is studying in English for the first time you can't get anything from two hours".

4.3.1.4 Summary of findings

In the next paragraphs I present the overall findings deriving from 2nd and 3rd year students' focus group discussions under two separate but encompassing theme categories: The higher

and lower. The higher theme categories are considered as an umbrella for the lower theme categories in which each higher theme category encompasses the relevant lower theme categories. The lower theme categories correspond to/ are drawn from the students' direct responses to the focus group questions. I present in bold the higher theme categories after which the corresponding lower theme categories are summarised.

• Post-colonial materials

Due to the provision of inappropriate language learning material, students at KIST learnt grammar, phonology, memos and read texts on general topics (gender, holidays, dreams, love, narratives, etc...). The teaching material, mainly the *New Cambridge English Course* (NCEC) was seen to be too big to cover and did not address students' needs.

• Ideology of language and literacy, agency, identity

Students acknowledged the importance of English academic style because they believed that UNIVERSITY of the English being the medium of instruction, and Rwanda being member of East African Community and the Commonwealth where English is the language of interactions and commercial exchanges, they needed to be able to compete internationally. Nonetheless, they faced challenges, given that the EAP course programme did not concentrate either on the language skills (speaking, listening, reading and writing) or on the genres and discourses they encountered in their departmental courses. Students also reported that in 1st year they learnt English from 16.00 – 19.00 when they were already exhausted and that they had no opportunity to practice the English they studied once outside the classrooms. They reported further that their families and the people they came into contact with after school speak Kinyarwanda and/or Kiswahili' on a regular basis. They also reported that their classmates who performed well in their field subjects were not necessarily the ones that were best in the EAP course. Students came to believe also that when someone is good at memorising, he/she

can perform well in EAP because they just reproduced what they have memorised on paper (
'They said that in examinations we copy and paste"). Students in the 3rd year also believed
that they did not need EAP as they knew enough about English ("we don't need English,
teachers of English should go and learn English themselves")

To say it differently, students saw no improvement when they compared EAP programme to the English programme they had in secondary school. They affirmed that this made them lose interest in the learning of EAP, which was justified by their mindset around the question on the place they gave to EAP compared to other courses. They attributed this to names such as "second hand course"; "we do not need EAP, we know enough to succeed" and the like. Moreover, most KIST teachers and administrative staff did not prioritise the students' English study academic needs, especially for those who used it for the first time. They tended to accord it as of less importance than the other courses. The explanation students provided as to why those teachers did not help them to improve their academic English was that most lecturers in different departments could not help because they themselves had not mastered it (English) well ("sometimes they make mistakes in front of us"). Students also claimed that KIST management should give them a chance to learn English very well because they were not responsible for the language shift (from French to English) ("it is not our fault if we were taught in French in the past"). Moreover, students argued that EAP was taught only 2 hours a week for one Semester. They also argued that teachers should review their way of teaching ("some teachers come into class and seem not to know what they are supposed to do; most of them give us a task and leave the class before the end")

• Lack of investment, institutional management, professional practice and agency

Students felt that EAP teachers did not seriously do their job (absence, late for teaching) as they do not provide them with handouts or syllabus or course notes and were not exposed to debates or group discussions. Students decided to dodge English classes because they learnt exactly the same thing they learnt at secondary school level. Another challenge faced by students was that other academic staff did not value English, therefore, did not help them develop their English knowledge. Subject teachers did not include feedback on language issues while marking students' assignments. Students thought they did not get feedback from their subject teachers because they themselves were trained in the same way ("did not get feedback as well when they were still students").

• Discursive competence, multi-semiotic repertoires, community of practice, power and agency

Students' responses revealed that EAP teachers used the same materials to teach students in different departments ('it is like they use one material for all of us"). Students were not exposed to texts that are specific to their field subjects. Instead, they were given writing tasks such as memos, application letters, essays, grammar exercises and the reason why they were ashamed to speak English in public. They were not confident enough.

4.3.1.5 Key factors affecting student investment in EAP

Conflicting ideologies of language learning and academic literacy were noted: students need proficiency training material and pedagogy. The course content shows there is no induction into arguments in science, no induction in register. The teaching materials date back to those from theories of the colonial era. Students do not identify what it is they would like to achieve from the course, so that there is vague discontent with the kinds of texts and the focus on the isolated grammar but no clear articulation of their needs, no mention of specific scientific reading or writing needs, no mention of reading diagrams, charts, tables and so on.

Thus, both students and teachers believe that EAP is about language, rather than about disciplinary discourses, but both are unable to articulate what it is they should be doing. The implication is that they are using out-dated and inappropriate approaches to teaching EAP for science. This also presents the ideology of language and academic literacy learning where students and teachers do not see the difference between language learning and academic literacy. They say present activities are not appropriate but do not suggest anything else. They are stuck in a communicative language teaching approach.



4.4 SECTION C; Teacher Perspectives on EAP and Teaching Methods

In this section I am going to analyse data from interviews with teachers of English and EAP at KIST. I audio recorded interviews with all the ten (10) English teachers, eight (8) of whom teach both EAP and General English and two (2) who teach only General English. The questions focused on teacher experiences of the teaching of English and particularly the teaching of EAP. As per its key objective, EAP course was added to the KIST existing departments to empower students with academic literacy necessary for the students' needs in their respective science fields. I believed that interviewing teachers can serve as an additional and useful tool to collect ethno-qualitative data since probes of question-response sequence can help get participants' insights in their natural environment and capture their real experiences (Street, 2000, 2001). Similarly, interviews allow attempts to understand the world from the participant's point of view, the meanings they give to their experiences and all of these help 'uncover' their lived world (Greeff, 2002). To know things such as people's experiences in their lives and how they wish to organise their world to fill in any gaps, we need to talk to them by asking them questions. Thus, the interviews provide ways of getting through to "other people's perspectives" (Patton, 1990: 196).

Twent seven questions were asked and designed to explore and find out issues related to the content of EAP teaching materials and the methods or the teaching techniques EAP teachers employed. Participants' responses are presented in the form of excerpts (Teacher 1, Teacher 2, and so on) and from each excerpt, I derive main and sub themes. The key question focused on teachers' understanding, views and opinions on the genres and discourses in the general English and EAP programme at KIST. This was meant to essentially investigate the discourses, genres and practices with which students in KIST engage in.

At the beginning of each question-response analysis, I introduced the question with key theme(s) after which I summarised the findings followed by extracts. The findings are presented in two theme categories: The lower or sub-theme categories and the higher or key theme categories are themes that developed from participants' direct responses. The higher category themes can be considered as the mother themes or concepts of the lower themes. These are found from the reading of varied reviews of relevant debates, theories and literatures. At the end of this section, I draw a table which synthesises the data source, the sub-themes and the main or key themes. Thereafter, I will attempt to tie in the main theme findings with the literature review.

4.4.1 The purpose of the Section

The purpose of this section is to illuminate some of the constraints from the perspectives of teachers on the English for Academic Purposes programme. One of the key findings is the structural and professional constraints on 'agency' for teachers of English as an additional language to science and engineering students at KIST.

Question 1

Can you please tell me what a typical lecture is to be like? How do you start? What do you do after that? How do students react? Why do you think they react like that? What happens next? Why did you decide to do it that way?

Agency, attitude

Teacher Responses

<u>Teacher 1:</u> "Because students are normally not interested in the lesson, but once you have

told them something that is striking now their attention is drawn. This way automatically

attracts them to know what is coming next".

Teacher 2: "I... this is from experience, this is the way you should go hum.. That's

methodologically from what we have been taught. Actually this is what I learned at school

among the principles and the strategies of language teaching especially in an environment

where English is regarded as the main subject".

Teacher 3: Our students they don't have a positive attitude towards English because partly

lecturers are responsible....lecturers teaching science and technology, they have a negative

attitude towards English.

<u>Teacher 4</u>: "I motivate students by telling them some stories or something in the

Newspapers".

In the middle or at the end of the class to see whether they are following.

Towards the end I make an evaluation".

Question 2

To the question on ways teachers would like to see academic literacy needs dealt with,

specifically in an institution of science and technology They responded as follows:

Group 1: EAP

Agency/Scientific English

Teachers' Responses

<u>Teacher 1:</u> "I wish management get involved in valuing English course because students have negative attitude towards English learning."

<u>Teacher 2:</u> "We need to teach the language of science/scientific English. Science cannot be transmitted without the use of a language of science, when the medium of instruction here is English"

<u>Teacher 3:</u> "Give enough time to the teaching of English 2 hours per week is not enough."

<u>Teacher 4:</u> "I wish you could include policy makers in your research (some people in the Ministry of Education). We teachers are swimming with our ties on. Students and teachers will do nothing to this problem, only policy makers can, whom should we listen to?"

Group 2: NCEC

Agency/Attitude

Teachers' Responses

UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE

Teacher 1: "Students should be aware that English is as important as their other subjects."

<u>Teacher 2:</u> "Other lecturers need to also learn English, and have to avoid negative attitudes towards English."

<u>Teacher 3:</u> "We need to cooperate with SETI management to discuss time, promotion (credit) etc".

All in all issues from teacher' responses to this question stipulated lack of value attached to English, lack of institutional management; poor identity (student), ineffective power and agency (EAP teachers), and post-coloniality.

Can you explain how you would mark a piece of writing?_What would you look for? How would you weigh different parts or different criteria? Are there any other criteria you would take into account when you mark a piece of writing?

Question 3

Question asked to see how teachers would mark a piece of writing, what they would look for, how they would weigh criteria for different parts, and whether there were any other criteria they would take into account when marking a piece of writing;

Group 1: EAP

Assessment/Testing

Teachers' Responses

UNIVERSITY of the

<u>Teacher 1:</u> "Content, cohesion, coherence, referencing (APA), paragraphing, clear definitions and bibliography. Sentences must be tied."

Teacher 2: "I look at the overall text, I look at the content, grammar, and language."

Teacher 3: "Organisation (4), content (3), language (3)."

Group 2: NCEC

Teachers' Responses

Teacher 1: "Structure (4), organisation (3), and grammar (3)"

Teacher 2: "Language (4), cohesion (3), coherence (3)"

Teacher 3: "Language (5), organisation (3), grammar (2)."

Teacher 4: "Content (5), spelling (2), grammar (2), conclusion (1)."

Teacher 5: "Content (3), Language (7)."

Question 4

On how would you weigh the different parts or different criteria?

Five teachers mentioned each different marking criterion. All in all, sixty percent (60%) of teachers when assessing EAP looked at the four criteria: language, organisation, content, and grammar. One (1%) looked at cohesion and coherence; one percent (1%) looked at structure, organisation and grammar; another one (1%) looked at referencing, spelling, content, grammar and conclusion; and the last one (1%) looked at the development of the topic, and introduction.

Teachers' Responses

WESTERN CAPE

<u>Teacher 1:</u> "(4) marks to the structure, (3) to the organisation, and (3) to grammar;

<u>Teacher 2:</u>"(4)marks to the language, (3) to cohesion, and (3) to coherence.

Question 5

What other criteria would you take into account when marking a piece of writing?

Teachers' responses

Five did not add any; the remaining five, one stated that when it is a letter writing, he looked at procedure layout, introduction, body and conclusion. Another one d looked at how students develop ideas, punctuation, and paragraphing. A third teacher said he he did not pay much

attention to language mistakes because he was aware that students were learning. Two teachers put forward that they all had a marking scheme/guidelines from the department on how to mark language, organisation and content.

Question 6

Can you tell me a bit about the language programme/curriculum? Where does it come from? Who decides on this? Do you feel you can change it to develop your own? What is good about it? What is bad about it? Do you feel you can change it to develop your own? What do you think should be included or changed and why?

Curriculum/material/Programme

Teachers' Responses:

Teacher 1: "uhh, language curriculum, this is a very, very, very crucial issue here. Actually I must say that language curriculum there's no clear language curriculum, we have what we call uhmm scheme of work. But as far as language curriculum, really I cannot say that we have a ready curriculum and I remember this is one of the challenges here. We have a scheme of work which is designed here".

Teacher 2: "The curriculum is designed here, hmm, from the best of my knowledge, the language curriculum, which is here, is designed within. But in many ways the language policy, the ministry' policy gives institutions the mandate to design a curriculum that's in line with this government policy. So, there is no curriculum that was given from the Ministry of Education. So what is important I think should be a main issue is to ensure that uh an institution like this one acts in line with the government policy"

<u>Teacher 3</u>: "Hmmm, comment is that let's talk about the language. There have been so many language policies here..... Language policy should be based on a good language curriculum with eh, a very clear national goal. This is what we want".

Teacher 4: "The programme is designed here at KIST (ESP + EAP)".

Question 7

Where does the language curriculum/material/syllabus come from?

The following are the responses from individual teachers:

Institutional management and monitoring/Consistence

Teachers' Responses

Teacher 1: "The curriculum is designed by staff at KIST Language Center".

Teacher 2: "We don't have curriculum".

<u>Teacher 3:</u> "The programmes are the NCEC, English for Specific Purposes and EAP (designed by KLC staff)".

WESTERN CAPE

<u>Teacher 4:</u> "I use the teaching material from Malaysia where I have been teaching EAP for few years".

Question 8

What is good and what is bad in the Curriculum/Material/Syllabus/Programme?

The following responses emerged from Group 1 (teachers of EAP) and Group 2 (teachers who teach general English.

Group 1: Teachers from this group reported that what was good was that EAP material helped students write research proposals, reports and theses. What was good in NCEC material (Group 2) reported that it is well-planned with its cassette sets and helps students speak and write, teaches general English and that it provides the Standard English content. These answers demonstrated a lack of EAP theoretical background, ideology of language and literacy teaching, teaching material and teacher training/education programme.

Teachers' Responses

Group 1: EAP

All the ten teachers said EAP helped students write their research proposals, reports on industrial attachments and final year theses.

Group 2: NCEC

Ideology

Teachers' Responses

UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE

Seven teachers did not answer (two shaking their heads) on what was good in NCEC. The remaining three reported the following:

Teacher 1: "What is good is that actually, the language needs for a student start with general communication skills and you cannot read, you cannot step into the specific before beginning with the general".

<u>Teacher 2:</u> "What is good in NCEC is that it is very well-planned (cassette set etc)".

<u>Teacher 3:</u> "What is good is that NCEC helps students to speak and write".

<u>Teacher 4:</u> "What is good about NCEC is that it includes general English and teaches Standard".

On what is bad in the curriculum/material/syllabus/programme, Group 1 said students in third

year performed poorly, they were not up to the standard, wished the EAP programme could

start earlier in the first year instead of starting it in the last year. He also argued that EAP was

not given consideration by the institutional management. Two teachers from Group 1 also

claimed that it was bad to teach EAP for only one semester, the time was not sufficient. Two

other teachers found that it was not bad that teachers compiled their own teaching materials.

Group 1: EAP

Institutional Management, monitoring and Consistency

Teachers' Responses

<u>Teacher 1:</u> "What is bad is that in 3rd year students are not up to the standard".

Teacher 2: "It is bad to teach EAP for only one semester. We need at least a year".

<u>Teacher 3:</u> "It is up to the teacher to compile the material".

<u>Teacher 4:</u> The content of NCEC is too big to cover, we can't cover everything.

Teachers in Group 2 said that what is bad in the NCEC material is that it is broad and it is not

feasible to cover the syllabus. It includes only general English material while nothing

addresses ESP and/or vocabulary; it is said not to be well-organised.

Agency/ Inappropriate Material

Teachers' Responses:

<u>Teacher 1:</u> "The content of NCEC is too big to cover, we can't cover everything".

Teacher 2: "Another bad thing is that it only covers general English. It has nothing for

specific academic purposes."

Teacher 3: "NCEC is not well organised"

Question 9

Do you feel you can change the existing programme to design your own? Why?

Teachers in **Group 1** responded, 'yes'.

One argued that he was not comfortable with the existing material, another one said he would like to but since the syllabuses had to be similar, there was no way he could do so, but supplied the syllabus with extra material anyway. This question provoked teachers' emotions. They put forward critiques of the existing materials and their answers showed a trigger for action and this interview represented for them a therapy in claiming their voices.

Group 1: EAP

Teachers' Responses

Teacher 1: "I feel I can change this programme because I don't feel comfortable using the existing one".

<u>Teacher 2:</u> "I feel I can make my own teaching materials but we need to have a common teaching material".

Teacher 3: "Every teacher brings his contribution to the teaching materials".

Teacher 4: "It is bad to teach EAP for only one semester. We need at least a year".

The responses from Group 2 were as follows: One teacher acknowledged the good qualities of NCEC material but believed that extra material on reading and writing should be incorporated. Another teacher said he tried to adapt the existing material.

Group 2: NCEC

EAP theoretical frames/Inconsistency

Teachers' Responses

<u>Teacher 1:</u> "Although NCEC is a helpful book, I add my own materials/tasks on readings and writing".

<u>Teacher 2:</u> "I feel I can make my own teaching materials but because we are more than one teacher we need to have common teaching material. I used to adapt the material"

"NCEC does not include tasks on vocabulary and writing".

Group 1: EAP

From Group 1, two teachers suggested conducting a needs analysis before designing EAP programme, and one of them said the teaching time is not sufficient, thus suggested the teaching of EAP for at least a full academic year. Another reported that students need to raise their standards.

Needs analysis

Teachers' Responses

<u>Teacher 1:</u> "We should teach students basing on what they already know. We should assess their needs before we design their curriculum".

<u>Teacher 2:</u> "Because we have to look at students' needs first", because one semester is not enough to teach EAP. We need at least a year"

Teacher 3: "We need to put them on standard"

Question 10

What should be changed in the NCEC programme?

One teacher suggested adding materials on reading and writing. Another said the content of the NCEC programme is too broad to cover everything. Another reported that the NCEC programme was used to teach students who have different learning needs (different

disciplines).

Group 1: EAP

From Group 1, two teachers suggested conducting a needs analysis before designing EAP

programme and one of them said the teaching time was not sufficient, thus, suggested the

teaching of EAP should be for at least a full academic year. Another reported that students

needed to raise their standards.

Needs analysis

Teachers' Responses

Teacher 1: "We should teach students basing on what they already know. We should assess

their needs before we design their curriculum".

Teacher 2: "Because we have to look at students' needs first", because one semester is not

enough to teach EAP. We need at least a year".

Teacher 3: "We need to put them on a certain standard".

One teacher suggested adding materials on reading and writing. Another said the content of

the NCEC programme was too broad to cover everything. Another reported that the NCEC

programme was used to teach students who had different learning needs (different

disciplines).

Group 2: NCEC

Reading and writing activities/Out-dated material

Teachers' Responses

Teacher 1: "What should be changed is to add reading and writing activities in the

material".

<u>Teacher 2:</u> "The content of NCEC is too big to cover, we can't cover everything".

Teacher 3: "Because NCEC is used for all students while they belong to different

departments".

Question 11

What kind of writing tasks do you ask your students to do? How do they cope? What kind of

problems do you notice? What do you think is the reason for these problems? Do you manage

to address any of these problems in your classes? How?

Teachers in Group 1 gave writing tasks on composition, narratives, essays and summaries.

Group 2 argue that tasks on writing in first and second years came from general topics such

WESTERN CAPE

as TV news, movies and newspapers.

Group 1: EAP

Inappropriate Materials

Teachers' Responses

Teacher 1: "Free and guided composition".

Teacher 2: "Narrative in 3rd & 4thyear".

Teacher 3: "I give them topics to write essays."

<u>Teacher 4:</u> "Students choose their own topic and write their composition".

Teacher 5: "Students write summaries from readings".

Group 2: NCEC

Teachers' Responses

Teacher 1: "Topic on general matters".

<u>Teacher 2:</u> "Descriptive writing $(1^{st} \& 2^{nd})$ ".

<u>Teacher 3:</u> "General topic (1st & 2nd year)"; e.g TV news, movies, newspapers, etc."

Teacher 4: "Paragraph writing composition".

Question 12

What kind of difficulties do students meet in writing?

Group 1 teachers found that thinking in Kinyarwanda and writing in English was a problem.

WESTERN CAPE

Students struggled to write, to use tenses in their writings, and in brief, English was poor.

Group 1: EAP

Ideology/Writing problems/ Out-dated materials and academic practices

Teachers' Responses

Teacher1: "The problem is that students think in Kinyarwanda and write in English".

Teacher 2: "Students are not familiar with English because they were used to French".

<u>Teacher 3:</u> "Students have problems in writing".

Teacher 4: "Students have problems in writing and the use of tenses".

Group 2 teachers revealed that in writing, students mixed everything, they copied and pasted

and had spelling and punctuation problems and other writing issues. Some students wrote

well, others did not. Students did not cope well with general and particular academic writing.

Group 2: NCEC

Teachers' Responses

Teacher 1: "Students mix everything in writing."

Teacher 2: "Students copy and paste, so, the problem is spelling and punctuation and lots of

other writing difficulties".

<u>Teacher 3:</u> "Some students do well others not. Students do not cope well in general."

Teacher 4: "Students have problems in English in general but specific in writing in

WESTERN CAPE

particular".

As regards the reasons for these writing problems/challenges, six teachers said students did

not have a good English background. One argued that students had problems in writing in

English because a large number of students came from French background. Another teacher

affirmed that because English was not credited students tended to ignore it. One teacher also

argued that TOEFEL and IELTS materials were not relevant to teach writing.

Group 1 EAP

Teachers' Responses

English background/Agency/Outdated materials

Teacher 1: "The reason is that students do not read much, they only stick to the course".

<u>Teacher 2:</u> "Teachers assume that students have learnt English in secondary school which is

not true."

Teacher 3: "Students do not have English background because a big number is from French

background secondary schools."

<u>Teacher 4:</u> "Students were not well-trained before coming here, they were supposed to study

basic English in secondary school."

Teacher 5: "TOEFEL material is not relevant".

Group 2: NCEC

This group of teachers said students had difficulties in writing because the NCEC materials

did not include material on writing, the existing NCEC material focused on grammar,

students did not read much and they were not motivated to learn English.

UNIVERSITY of the

Material on writing /Ideology/Culture of reading

Teachers' Responses

<u>Teacher 1:</u> "The program does not include enough material on writing. NCEC concentrates

more on grammar."

Teacher 2: "Students do not study for life, they study for marks NCEC deals with only

grammar".

Teacher 3: "Students do not read much."

Question 13

What do you do to help students cope with writing challenges?

Five teachers from Group 1 were not clear in their answers, two teachers used the approach

of asking students to read much and write much respectively, another one told students that it

was in their own interest to study EAP and the last one reported that he addressed the main

writing issues in class. The gap was on the kind of reading and writing texts that were used to

be able to provide support to students' academic literacy learning.

Group 1: EAP

Teachers' Responses

Agency/ Writing problem

Teacher 1: "I try to explain to students that it is in their interest to study EAP."

Teacher 2: "I address this main writing issue in class".

Teacher 3: "I ask students to write much in order to improve."

Group 2: NCEC

Responses

Teacher 1: "I suggest them to read English books."

Teacher 2: "I deal with this problem by asking students to read much and exercise in

WESTERN CAPE

writing."

Question 14

Do you provide feedback on students' writing? After how long? What is in the feedback?

How the feedback you provide helps students to better shape the next writing?

Teachers' Responses:

Six (60%) answered yes. One (10%) gave feedback when the number of students is less than 50, when the number is more, no feedback; three teachers (30%) said they did not provide feedback,

For the duration of feedback; seven (70%) reported they did not have fixed feedback time; one (10%) provided feedback after two weeks; one (10%) said after few days when the number of students is small; and feedback takes more time when students are many (over 60); another (10%) gave feedback after two days. *Feedback*

Teachers' Responses

Seven teachers (70%) have different answers and three (30%) went off the point

<u>Teacher 1:</u> « Yes and No; when the number of students is small I give feedback in few time but when they are many (+60) it takes time"

<u>Teacher 2:</u> "Feedback depends on how big is the class. When students are 50 or above I don't provide feedback"

Teacher 3: "No, I do not provide feedback. I only mark students' copies"

<u>Teacher 4:</u> "I correct students' mistakes in grammar and spelling"

Question 15

Do students have other 'academic literacy' needs that you feel are not covered by the classes? Can you give some examples? How would you like to see these dealt with, specifically in an institution of Science and Technology?

Five teachers said they give writing tasks on general topics (everyday life topics). Out of four teachers, three said they asked students to write compositions and one said he asked students to write general topics and topics on their specific interest. One teacher who teaches both general and EAP said he gives topics that require description (1st and 2nd years) and topics that uses narratives (3rd and 4th years). All ten teachers acknowledge that students

struggle to write in general, only one of them noticed vocabulary issues.

Some examples and ways in which teachers would like to see these dealt with, specifically in an institution of Science and Engineering, showed that all ten teachers answered yes to the question of whether there are other 'academic literacy needs' that are not covered by EAP classes. For an example, teachers in Group 1 responded that needs analysis needs to be conducted, the programme needs to be reviewed, students need to master all the four language skills and add more material on writing. Teachers in Group 2, one teacher argued that there no other materials the programme is not covering. Another said there is need to add materials on speaking and writing. Additionally, they reported the need to include materials on how to train students on how to take down notes and how to develop a short proposal. They also reported on the need to include material on reading skills, language skills and study skills and other skills.

Group 1: EAP

Needs Analysis/Programme/Study skills

Teachers' Responses

Teacher 1: "We need to conduct needs analysis in order to know what students needs.

Otherwise even at the time of graduation students still have gaps."

<u>Teacher 2:</u> "We need to review the program".

Teacher 3: "Students need to master all aspects of language and writing tasks because it is now the medium of instruction".

<u>Teacher 4:</u> "Students need to know how to take notes and how to develop a short proposal."

<u>Teacher 5:</u> "ESP & EAP material does not include study skills and language skills."

Group 2: NCEC

EAP theoretical background/Speaking materials

Teachers' Responses

<u>Teacher 1:</u> "There are no other academic literacy needs that are not covered by the programme".

Teacher 2: "We need to add materials on speaking".

<u>Teacher 3:</u> "Students need other skills that will not only benefit them here at KIST but also in future. All needed skills are not clearly indicated in our document."

<u>Teacher 4:</u> "Students need more on writing skills."

Teacher 5: "We need more books to develop reading skills. "

Question 16

To the sub-question on ways teachers would like to see academic literacy needs dealt with, specifically in an institution of science and technology?

Group 1: EAP

Agency/Scientific English

Teachers' Responses

Teacher 1: "I wish management would get involved in valuing English course because

students have negative attitude towards English learning. "

Teacher 2: "We need to teach the language of science/scientific English. Science cannot be

transmitted without the use of a language when the medium of instruction here is English."

<u>Teacher 3:</u> "Give enough time to the teaching of English 2 hours per week is not enough.

<u>Teacher 4:</u> "I wish you include policy makers in your research (some people in the Ministry

of Education). We teachers are swimming in our ties on. Students and teachers will do

nothing to this problem, only policy makers, whom should we listen to?"

Group 2: NCEC

WESTERN CAPE

Agency/Attitude

Teachers' Responses

<u>Teacher 1:</u> "Students should be aware that English is as important as their other subjects."

<u>Teacher 2:</u> "Other lecturers need to also learn English, and have to avoid negative attitudes

towards English."

<u>Teacher 3:</u> "We need to cooperate with KIST management to discuss time, promotion (credit)

etc".

All in all, issues from teacher' responses to this question show lack of value attached to

English, lack of institutional management, identity(student), power and agency (EAP

teachers), and post-coloniality.

Question 17

Can you explain how you would mark a piece of writing? What would you look for? How would you weigh different parts or different criteria? Are there any other criteria you would take into account when you mark a piece of writing?

The explanation on how teachers would mark a piece of writing, what they would look for, how they would weigh or criteria for different parts and whether there are any other criteria they would take into account when marking a piece of writing;

Group 1: EAP

Assessment/Testing

Teachers' Responses

UNIVERSITY of the

<u>Teacher 1:</u> "Content, cohesion, coherence, referencing (APA), paragraphing, clear definitions and bibliography. Sentences must be tied".

Teacher 2: "I look at the overall text, I look at the content, grammar, and language".

Teacher 3: "Organisation (4), content (3), language (3)".

Group 2: NCEC

Teachers' Responses

Teacher 1: "Structure (4), organisation (3) and grammar (3)".

Teacher 2: "Language (4), cohesion (3), coherence (3)".

Teacher 3: "Language (5), organisation (3), grammar (2)".

<u>Teacher 4:</u> "Content (5), spelling (2), grammar (2), conclusion (1)

Teacher 5: "Content (3), Language.

Question 18

How would you weigh the different parts or different criteria?

Five teachers mentioned each different marking criterion. All in all, sixty percent (60%) of teachers when assessing EAP look at the four criteria: language, organisation, content and grammar. One (1%) looks at cohesion and coherence, another teacher one percent (1%) looks at structure, organisation and grammar, another one (1%) looks at referencing, spelling, content, grammar and conclusion and the last one (1%) looks at the development of the topic and introduction.

Teachers' Responses

WESTERN CAPE

<u>Teacher 1:</u> "One gives (4) marks to the structure, (3) to the organisation and (3) to grammar.

<u>Teacher 2:</u> "Another teacher gives (4) to language, (3) to cohesion and (3) to coherence.

Question 19

What other criteria would take into account when marking a piece of writing?

Five did not add any. The remaining five, one stated that when it is a letter-writing, he looks at procedure layout, introduction, body and conclusion. One looks at how students develop ideas, punctuation and paragraphing. One does not pay much attention to language mistakes

because he is aware that students are learning. Two argue that all teachers have marking scheme/guidelines on how to mark language, organisation and content from the department.

Question 20

What would you look for when marking a piece of writing?

Teachers' Responses

<u>Teacher 1:</u> Five (50%) said they have marking scheme, "we have guidelines on how to mark: language; organisation; and content".

<u>Teacher 2:</u> "when it is a letter I look at procedure layout, introduction, body and conclusion".

Teacher 3: "I do not pay much attention to language mistakes because I know students are learning".

Question 21

Do you provide feedback on students' writing? After how long? What is in the feedback? How the feedback you provide helps students to better shape the next writing?

Responses:

Six (60%) answered yes. One (10%) gave feedback when the number of students was less than 50, when the number was more, no feedback. Three teachers (30%) said they did not provide feedback

For the duration of feedback, seven (70%) reported they did not have fixed time, one (10%) provides feedback after two weeks, one (10%) said after few days if the number of students was small, feedback took more time when students were many (over 60) and another one (10%) gave feedback after two days. As for what was in the feedback,

Feedback

Teachers' Responses

Seven teachers (70%) had different answers and three (30%) went out of the point.

<u>Teacher 1:</u> « Yes and No; when the number of students was small I gave feedback in few time but when they were many (+60) it took time".

<u>Teacher 2:</u> "Feedback depends on how big is the class. When students are 50 or above I don't provide feedback".

<u>Teacher 3:</u> "No, I do not provide feedback. I only mark students' copies".

<u>Teacher 4:</u> "I correct students' mistakes in grammar and spelling".

Question 22

On how the feedback teachers provided helped students to better shape the next writing;

Teachers' Responses

<u>Teacher 1:</u> "The majority improve when they get feedback".

<u>Teacher 2:</u> "The feedback help improve the next writing".

<u>Teacher 3:</u> "Students improve".

<u>Teacher 4:</u> "Those who take seriously the feedback improve their next writing".

Question 23

What do you think might be the difference between English course taught in First and Second years, and the one taught in 3rd and 4th years? What are the advantages or disadvantages of teaching EAP course only to students in the two last years?

Seven teachers said in 1st and 2nd year they taught general English, one argued that the difference depended on the structure of the problem, 3rd and 4th years were taught grammar and spelling, two did not answer this question because they do not teach 3rd and 4th years.

Group 1: EAP

Outdated Material

Teachers' Responses

In 3rd and 4th year seven teachers (70%) taught both ESP and EAP.

<u>Teacher 1:</u> "The difference depends on the structure of the problem 3^{rd} and 4^{th} year grammar and spelling".

Teacher 2: "3rd and 4th year are taught technical English."

<u>Teacher 3:</u> "In 1st and 2nd years I teach grammar and spelling."

Group 2: NCEC

Only three teachers responded to the above questions because others did not teach 3^{rd} and 4^{th} years.

<u>Teacher 1:</u> " 1st and 2nd year are taught general English".

Teacher 2: "-1st and 2nd year we read a lot".

<u>Teacher 3:</u> "1st and 2nd years I teach lots of reading".

Question 24

How do you view the convenience or the inconvenience of not including English marks in the students' transcripts?

Eight teachers pointed out that not including English marks in students' transcript is not good. Among these, four argued that the inconvenience is that teachers and students get demotivated and lose interest in teaching and learning. One was out of point and another one abstained. He said he has nothing to say about this question.

Agency/Language Policy

Teachers' Responses

Teacher 1: "To me including English in the student transcript or not does not make any difference. Students say we are not going to learn English, it is not included in our curriculum, our department says so. But, when I ask them why you are here now when you know English is not in your curriculum? They answer we are here because we need EAP for our studies.

<u>Teacher 2:</u> "We are not clear about what we are doing. No clear language policy document. I did not see any student transcript so I do not know whether English marks are included in their transcripts. I do not have anything to say about this."

Question 25

What must be the advantages or disadvantages of teaching EAP to students only in the two last years?

For the advantages, five EAP teachers said the advantage of EAP in these classes was that it helped students to write their theses, research papers or reports. Two others had various explanations. It helped students to overcome challenges that they encounter in their course disciplines. English allowed them to communicate. EAP teachers also taught how to reference, do research, learn to read, how to search for information on the internet, etc.

EAP materials

Teachers' Responses

<u>Teacher 1:</u> "It helps students to overcome challenges they encounter in their course disciplines. English allow them communicate.

<u>Teacher 2:</u> "Students at the university need EAP for their academic growth, doing research, learn to read, how to search for information".

WESTERN CAPE

<u>Teacher 3:</u> "EAP help students to write theses and dissertations.

Teachers reported that EAP in itself has no disadvantages, however, the following needs to be observed.

<u>Teacher 1:</u> "EAP should be taught from the first year because it teaches students how to take notes....I would wish students come with at least an elementary level of English, not beginner".

<u>Teacher 2:</u> "Teaching EAP in 3^{rd} and 4^{th} year does not benefit students, it should start in first year".

<u>Teacher 3:</u> "EAP should be taught from 1st year because we only meet students once a week. You cannot expect student to be good at writing after one semester accord it importance". Teacher 4: "In 3rd and 4th year students have already mastered Basic English".

By the time I was ready to interview EAP teachers, a newspaper on language policy came out. Therefore, I decided to include a related question in teachers' interviews to also listen to their views on the language shift in education setting.

Question 26

What do you think about the Rwanda Government's decision about the language policy shift from French to English medium of instruction from primary school up to the university with effect from the academic year 2009?

Two teachers said they had no idea (a body language expression was observed and interpreted as 'agency'. The following were individual teachers' views (8)

Agency/ Institutional value

Teachers' Responses

<u>Teacher 1:</u> "To me, I do not agree with this decision. English should also be credited. When English is credited students will be serious and motivated to learn...."

<u>Teacher 2:</u> "The decision is very good. English medium of instruction will help people feel positive and confident about English."

<u>Teacher 3:</u> "Yes it is a motivating factor. Students will be motivated, teachers also. Students will realise that English is going to be used as medium of instruction (compulsory) throughout. So it will be given weight. For us teachers we are really proud that English will

be given a seat in the overall education system. We got back our consideration (it was lost) it motivates me when I am motivated I teach well".

<u>Teacher 4:</u> "I have no idea whether this will work or not. In politics anything change and this affects the whole system. The language policy has been built by some same scholars who understand things differently. This might only change the policy but not the actual situation."

Teacher 5: "I think this decision together with our entry in EAC will help. It is a good policy. English has become the language of science and technology. However this shift from French to English is too hasty. Its implementation should be thought of again. We had struggled for 2 years now, but now English has become medium of instruction" hope for the better for EAP teaching at KIST.

Question 27

Are there any additional comments you would like to make on any question in this interview?

Eight teachers answered this question. Two did not provide additional comments.

Agency

Teachers' Responses

<u>Teacher 1:</u> "Hope of outcome of this research will be communicated to the KIST Management.

Teacher 2: "I wish you bring the conclusion of your work to the attention of KIST management. I would like you to ask KIST management why English has been cancelled from students' curriculum. Why this cancellation was done unilaterally by some departments".

<u>Teacher 3:</u> "Ask the Registrar and VRA (Vice Rector Academic)"

In summary, the analysis of teachers' interview data indicated that science and engineering students in this programme see a lack of appropriate discursive competence and multisemiotic repertoires as major factors in inhibiting their academic success. As a result, students lack investment (interest) in learning and minimise the value of English for their studies.

4.4.1.1 Challenges faced by teachers in KIST Language Centre

The key finding is the structural and professional constraints on teachers' 'agency' and these constraints are due to lack of institutional support. Other issues such as lack of EAP needs analysis prior to determining or designing the teaching materials, lack of updated language policy and curriculum; lack of current ways of EAP teaching, assessing and providing feedback were high on the priority list. Consequently, EAP teachers had lost their bearings and denied access the EAP community of practices had been denied. In conclusion, the above issues seemed to be the causes of students not having the ability to do science writing well. The tie between text types from EAP and the texts from social practices of students were supposed to be exposed as seemed to be contradictory instead of being constitutive.

4.5 SECTION D: Data Presentation and Analysis: Materials/Texts

4.5.1 Introduction

For the purpose of strengthening the trustworthiness of the data gathered, I believed that the triangulation process would be helpful. Therefore, in addition to the data gathered from observations, students' focus group discussions and individual teacher interviews, I believed that analysing EAP and science teaching and learning texts/documents as another source of data would be an added value. Documents or textual materials include texts from policies, students' assignments, tests and/or examinations from EAP and four science and engineering subjects. I have introduced this section with texts on the content of Rwanda Higher Education Policy (RHEP) on which the language policy of the whole country needs to be based. In many ways, RHEP is considered as an indicator of what the Rwanda government expects from higher education institutions. Among other things, it is the responsibility of higher education institutions to look at and address the major challenges that our country face, RHEP being the guiding route towards the practices and products of Higher Education Sectors (HES). By practices I mean students' and staff's everyday life activities within their respective institutions. These practices include all approaches higher education institutions follow in order_to fulfil the expectations of the country and the world at large. By products, I mean the students' output knowledge and skills gained through these processes at the time of completion of their degrees.

I have selected a limited number of texts to be included in this section, the rest will be added in the list of appendices. From the HEP document, I present two text extracts, from the NPLTHE document, I included the following four text extracts namely: the background and rationale of the national policy on language teaching in higher education, the language provision and outline for level 1 students, the language provision for level 2 students and the language assessment after level 2.

From the EAP and science school documents, I present five texts from each researched section (EAP and science documents). The EAP texts are the following: extract from the Second year continuous assessment test, task extract from NCEC 3 material on reading comprehension for Third year extract from NCEC material on listening for Third year, extract from EAP examination on writing and extract from EAP feedback on writing in Second year.

4.5.2 The National Policy on Language Teaching in Higher Education (NPLTHE)

4.5.2.1 Introduction

The NPLTHE was issued in July 2007. This policy stipulates and recommends a bilingual policy for Rwanda (French and English) in higher education. The concern of this study, however, is not on bilingualism but on English as the medium of teaching and learning. My intent in introducing this paragraph by the NPLTHE is due to the fact that the higher institutions build on the national prescriptions when dealing with the programming of English language teaching. I present a few cursives from the policy on the background and rationale, the provision for Level 1 students which also includes its objectives and course outline and the provision for Level 2 students and the language assessment after Level 2.

The Rwanda Higher Education Policy (see Appendix 2) is the umbrella body of all the practices of the Higher Learning Institutions (HEIs). For the purpose of this study, I am mostly concerned with the NPLTHE which is one of its branches (see Appendix 3).

Cursive 1: Background and Rationale

"The policy lays down minimum national requirements for language teaching in the publicsector HEIs. It aims to ensure that students gain the language skills they need and that languages are taught in the context of the academic disciplines and in parallel with subject study. At the same time it aims to ensure that students' language proficiency level is not a barrier to their studies and to assist those who have a weak language base". Excerpt 1

Cursive 2: Provision for Level 1 students (objectives)

Cursive 2 provides the provision for Level 1 (First year) and Level 2 (Second year) students which encompass their objectives; and the outline.

Provision for Level 1 students

The objectives of this provision are

- to implement to the bilingual policy of the Government of Rwanda,
- to bring all students to a high level of proficiency in a relatively short period of time,
- to enhance students' ability to cope with their programme's lecture and other requirements, and
- to enable them to be more competitive in the labour market at home, in the region and beyond

Essentially, the objectives of provision for Level 1 students, as can be seen in the excerpt 2, recommend attainment of the higher level language proficiency in relatively a short time, while at the same time improving the student's language skills necessary for their course programmes and competitiveness on the job market nationally and internationally. This discourse implies two different approaches to teaching language. This is translated into the ideology of language teaching on the one hand and literacy teaching on the other. The shorter time this excerpt refers to concerns both the teaching of Basic English and the teaching of EAP.

Cursive 3: Course outline

The course outlined below aims to help students develop abilities in:

- the basic language structure, so as to enable them develop an understanding of spoken and written speech,
- the use of the language in a variety of situations inside and outside the classroom,
- the reading of simple, general and field-specific texts and the writing of assignments,
- the use of conventions in academic writing and related requirements, and
- research skills, including paraphrasing, synthesizing, quoting, referencing and note-taking.

As stated under the epistemic and scope for my study, I will stay focused on issues around language and literacy learning inside KIST. Thus, the study excludes the outside KIST situations although they might also influence the success of students' language and literacy skills. Therefore, for the analysis of this language policy document, I consider only the use of language inside the classrooms.

UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE

Cursive 4: Outline

The outline recommends the following:

- Basic language structure: speak and write.
- Use language in a variety of situations inside the classroom: lectures, tutorials (individual and group discussions/interactions), oral and/or written reports on industrial attachments; workshops, tests, and exams.
- Reading (basic and field specific): writing assignments
 Academic writing and research skills: paraphrasing, synthesising, quoting, referencing and note-taking.

Cursive 5: Testing

tested again and assigned to one of three broad categories in each language:

- a. Beginners (scoring less than 60% and needing 8-10 hours per week of instruction)
- b. Intermediate (scoring 60-79% per cent and requiring 4-8 hours of instruction)
- c. Advanced (scoring 80% or more and not requiring further instruction)

The above cursive is incomplete from its original document.

The explanation of the cursive 6 in this language policy can be understood as follows: Students are divided into three English (for this study) programmes according to their scores and the duration of the course in hours as was allocated to each programme. Students who scored less than 60% joined the programme of Beginners and were allocated 8-10hours per week. The Intermediate programme included students who scored 60% to 79% and the total hours a week were between 4- 8. The advanced programme selected students with 80% or more. It is not clear which texts are referred to here. The use of the term *text above* can imply a couple of issues. It can imply that the English teaching programme is availed by the ministry of education under the language policy document. It is not clear, nonetheless, how the selection of teaching materials for the three programmes is proposed. It is also not clear what is understood by an English programme that is used to teach academic writing as one of the abilities a student needs to acquire in Level 1 tertiary programme.

Cursive 6

An appropriate language course shall be provided for students judged to be 'beginners' or 'intermediate', in their weaker language, with students judged to be beginners in both languages being required to take courses in both languages. (Students who score in the intermediate category on both languages may choose which language they wish to improve.) Provision shall be made for 'advanced' students and those judged intermediate in their stronger language to improve their competence, but this need not be by means of formal course provision

The analysis and findings of the statement above (line 3, 4, and 5) ("Students who score in the intermediate category on both languages may choose which language they wish to improve") shows no up-date for language provision since 2008 when the shift from bilingual education to English medium instruction occurred.

WESTERN CAPE



This course will not carry credit, but students will be re-assessed in both languages at the end of Level 1 unless they have already tested out in the 'advanced' category. Students are required to pass this test (see below) but language examination results will not form part of the award, nor will they be used to calculate Grade Point Average (GPA) or the award of distinction. Institutions are encouraged to award a separate certificate of language proficiency to all students according to their individual level of proficiency.

The analysis and findings of the sentence (line 1) "This course will not carry credit" (line 1) and "but language examination results will not form part of the award, nor will they be used to calculate....distinction" (lines 3 and 4) indicate that English language will be taught and assessed but its results/marks would not be taken into account. This means that the courses will be taught but do not form part of students' transcripts like is the case for the other

subjects. This reveals that the recommended English curriculum or programme comes from policy makers who may not belong to the EAP community of practitioners.

Cursive 8; Provision for Level 2

Provision for Level 2 students

Students who do not achieve an 'advanced' rating at the end of Level 1 in both languages will be permitted to proceed to Level 2 but will be required to improve their language competence by the end of the Level, and they will be re-tested in languages where this

Assuming that Level 2 refers to year (Level 1= First year; level 2= Second year), this provision states that students in Level 1 who fail to achieve 'advanced' rating will anyway be allowed to progress to Second year with a carry forward in English and a requirement to improve their competence in Level 2 where there are no English classes. It appears unclear on success/failure criteria or the essence of the English outcomes of language teaching programme if this course outcome does not affect the students' promotion to the next level. It appears also that the language programme is not given strict consideration for the role it plays in students' learning. It is believed that students' academic needs can be addressed by a remedial rather than a need-oriented and purposeful programme.

Cursive 9; Assessment after Level 2

The cursive on language assessment after Level 2 informs that after the Second year there will not be formal teaching or assessment. The gap in this cursive on assessment after Level 2, however, is that it signals nothing about the programme that will guide that informal teaching and assessment, if any. Learning text materials are also analysed in view of getting insights on the complementarities or divergences existing between EAP and science texts. I

propose to include a few texts and test extracts from different courses and include all the remaining full version texts in the appendices. For EAP, I include one extract from CAT in Second year. From Third year, I attach two text extracts on reading comprehension from test (CAT). The next sub-sections indicate excerpt from tests, assignments and examinations from the EAP programme and the three subjects under Biology, Physics and ETE.



4.5.3 EAP Text Genres

4.5.3.1 Excerpt from a Continuous Assessment Test (CAT) Second year

II. Circle the letter which corresponds to the best expression of comparison.							
1.	Congo is than Rwanda						
	a) biggest	b) biger	c) the	biggest		d) bigger	
2.	Peace is thing in life						
	a) the important important.	b) important	c) the	most im	portant	d) the more	
3.	3. A student who has scored 2/10 in a test isthe one who has scored 4/10						
	a) more bad	b) the worse t	than,	c) wor	se than	d) the worst than	
4.	A pen is a book.						
	a) more cheaper b) not cheaper c) more cheap d) not as cheap as						
5.	A baby boy isa baby girl.						
a) as important as b) more important (c) the best important than d) the more important than							
III. Circle the letter of the best way to end each sentence:							
1. She singsa) well b) good c) the better d) best							
2. People who succeed are not necessarily those who work							
	a) hard	b) hadly	c) has	rdest d) the har	dest	
3. Call me							
a) when you will be readyb) when you are readyc) when you are being readyd) when you ready							

This task is based on use of on comparisons; and the filling in of the correct adjectives in a sentence.

4.5.3.2 Excerpt from Third year Continuous Assessment Test (CAT)

SECTION I: READING COMPREHENSION /25marks

Passage 1

Hybrid Vehicles

A hybrid vehicle is a vehicle which uses two or more kinds of propulsion. Most hybrid vehicles use a conventional gasoline engine as well as an electric motor to provide power to the vehicle. These are usually called hybrid-electric-vehicles, or HEVs. Hybrids use two types of propulsion in order to use gasoline more efficiently than conventional vehicles do. Most hybrid vehicles use the gasoline engine as a generator which sends power to the electric motor.

The electric motor then powers the car. In conventional vehicles, the gasoline engine powers the vehicle directly. Since the main purpose of using a hybrid system is to efficiently use resources, most hybrid vehicles also use other efficient systems. Most hybrid vehicles have regenerative braking systems. In conventional vehicles, the gasoline engine powers the brakes, and the energy used in braking is lost. In regenerative braking systems, the energy lost in braking is sent back into the electrical battery for use in powering the vehicle. Some hybrid vehicles use periodic engine shutoff as a gas—saving feature. When the vehicle is in idle, the engine temporarily turns off.

When the vehicle is put back in gear, the engine comes back on. Some hybrids use tires made of a stiff material which rolls easily and prevents drag on the vehicle. Hybrid vehicles save up to 30% of the fuel used in conventional vehicles. Since hybrid vehicles use less gasoline, the cost of operating them is less than the cost of operating conventional vehicles. Therefore, hybrid vehicles are gaining in popularity. According to a recent study, over the five years it typically takes for a person to pay for a car, a typical hybrid car driver would save over \$6,000 in gasoline costs. Almost all the world's major automakers are planning and producing safe and comfortable hybrid vehicles to meet the demand for these increasingly popular vehicles.

UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE

Questions

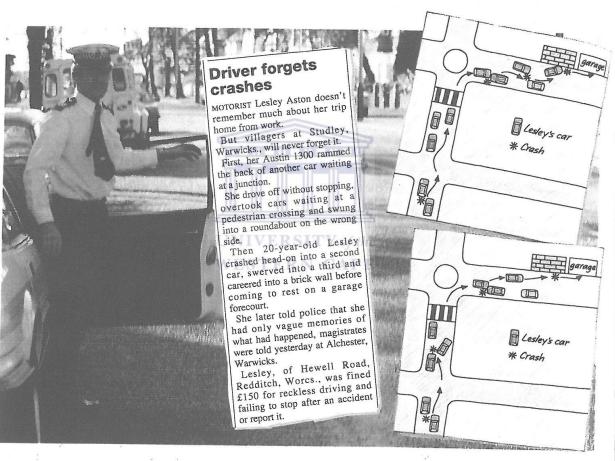
- 1.. According to the passage, which of the following statements is/are true?
- I) Two braking systems are used in most hybrid vehicles.
- II) Approximately 30% of vehicles on the road are hybrid vehicles.
- III) Some HEVs have engines which turn off when the vehicle is not moving.
- A) I only B) II only C) III only D) I and II only E) II and III only

4.5.3.3 Excerpt from Reading in Third year (from NCEC 3)

D8 ... drove off without stopping

Reading for detail; guessing meaning from context in written and recorded texts; vocabulary building and consolidation; listening for gist; listening for detail; simple report writing.

Read the newspaper report. Then look at the two maps and choose the map which corresponds to the report. Find on the map: a roundabout, a pedestrian crossing, a junction.



Read the article again and try to guess the meaning of the following words and expressions.

trip rammed head-on swerved vague fined reckless failing to stop

Work with another student. You have got five minutes to write down as many words and expressions as you can that have to do with driving. Examples:

Steering wheel, petrol, traffic light,...

Read the following account of an accident and draw what happened.

Car A tried to overtake car B approaching a road junction. Car C, which was coming in the opposite direction, swerved to avoid car A and crashed into a tree on the corner of the junction.

5 Imagine an accident – you were the only witness besides the driver(s). Or remember a real accident you have witnessed or been involved in. Write a very simple report of the accident, like the one in Exercise 4. Read it to another student: he or she must try to draw what happened.



4.5.3.4 Excerpt from Listening Third year (from the book NCEC 3)

6 Disten, and match each recording to one of the pictures. There is one extra picture.









Listen to parts of the recordings again. Choose a likely meaning for each of the numbered words.

First recording

- 1. flung
 - a. couldn't b. stayed c. were thrown
- 2. scruffy
 - a. rich b. untidy c. sleepy

Second recording

- 3. amber
- a. yellow b. broken c. fast
- 4. leapt
- a. jumped b. kept c. shouted
- 5. endorsed
 - a. given back b. taken off the car
 - c. marked with a bad point

Third recording

- 6. blasting
 - a. coming very loudly b. coming very quietly
 - c. falling
- 7. wound
 - a. broke b. thought
 - c. turned a handle to move

- 8 Choose one of the activities.
- A. Have you / a family member / a friend ever been involved in a car accident or been stopped by the police? Work in pairs or groups and tell your stories to each other. You can ask questions about your partner's story. If there is time, form new pairs and exchange stories again.
- B. Turn to page 133. With a partner, choose two of the three stories. Then each of you should work on one of the stories, writing five to seven questions about it for your partner to answer. You can use dictionaries while you are writing; your partner can ask you what some words mean.

Learn/revise: accident; corner; diagram; flat; garage; jazz; junction; (driving) licence; licence number; memory; motorist; noise; pedestrian; pedestrian crossing; porter; report (noun and verb); roundabout; (road) sign; space; speed limit; traffic; traffic lights; trip; university; wall; approach; avoid; crash (into); draw (drew, drawn); drive (drove, driven); fail; follow; overtake (overtook, overtaken); park; reälise; crazy; smart; underground (adjective); opposite (adverb); in the opposite direction; go through a red light.



4.5.3.5 Excerpt from Feedback on writing in Second year

TO PROPERTY OF	2 not year chemistry (For
K/2008	Student Registration Number./
Do not write	G ()
in either	(1) ESSAY.
margin	
Ne pas écrire	Title: Advantages of bilingualism in Fast
dans les marges	Africo Community.
	To be in community means to have some
	language of communication for that
	the adventoges of bilinguilien is insorted
102	In the community of east Africa.
[0]	For ample when they speak sudil
	is the internation language for that you
	were be havilitated the explana
	More the WERSITY of the
	WESTERN CAPE
	001.0
	Memo (110)
-	
F	· ·

It can be seen that students were asked to write an essay on the above topic as well as the memo.

Written Genres from EAP and NCEC material/syllabus

Written								
Genres								
Current	Explanation	Recount	Procedure	Discussion	Report	Narrative	Argument	Percentage
Genres								(%)
	×	1	×	×	×	V	×	10
EAP								
					2			
NCEC	×	×	×	×	V	V	×	10
				RSITY of t				

Table 4.1 EAP and NCEC Genres

Table one represents genres in EAP and NCEC. It is worthwhile to signal that the above table shows that recount, discussion, report and argument genres are taught on the EAP programme.

4.5.4 Science and Engineering Text Genres

4.5.4.1 Excerpt from Biology Continuous Assessment on *Microbial Diversity*, Second year

Section A (Compulsory, 10 marks) Attempt to answer all of the given 6 questions

- 1.1. Under which general group are the Arachaea, Bacteria and Eubacteria categorized together and in which general group are the Fungi, composed of the yeasts and molds together with the Protoza and Algae are grouped and what are the main reasons for both these two categorizations?
- 1.2. Is it at all true to say that microorganisms of the same strains and species are very far related than those of the other taxonomical ranks known as the Domain, Kingdoms and Phyla which are more closely related to the highest possible percentage? Why do you think so?
- 1.3. a) What do we mean by the term "taxon"? Is this applicable to all groups of living organisms or is it used only for Microorganisms?
 - b) Which branch of taxonomy is that the processes of determining a particular isolate to belong to a recognized taxon?
 - c) What do we call, in the field of microbiology, the special strain designated as a particular permanent specimen for all the rest of the other strains of a species?
- 1.4. a) What are the fungi group called of they exist alternating between a yeast and a mold form?
 - b) What do we mean by these two terms of the fungi form known as the Molds and Yeasts?
 - c) What do you know about the term Candidiasis? Is true to say that this means a disease of the genitourinary tract caused by the group of bacteria individually known as Trichomonas vaginalis?
 - d) How is this disease indicated with the term shown above at (c) transmitted from person to person?
- 1.5. What is the only protozoal disease of the genitourinary tract caused by the flagellated organism? And what is the name of this particular disease?
- 1.6. What are the matching phrases considered as the correct answers to the following question-phrases or terms?

- a) What cellular sizes and shapes have the Spirocheates of the bacterial groups
- b) The morphological and physiological features of the bacterial group known as the Campylobacter species:
- c) The Red Algae groups of Division Rhodophyta, having an approximate 3900 species, are with what morphological features?
- d) What are the fungal pathogens that cause the disease known Ohio Valley Fever and a yeast causing lung infections?

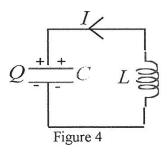
Section II: Essay/Descriptive Questions (10 Marks) Attempt any <u>Two</u> of the following <u>Four</u> given Questions.

- 2. What are the major comparative distinguishing features between each the following pair of organisms?
 - a) Spirocheates and Rickettesia
 - b) Betta-Proteobacteria and Delta-Proteobacteria
 - c) Pseudomonas and Acetobacteria
 - d) Escherichia coli and Vibrio cholera
 - e) Mycobacteria species and Neisseria spp.
- 3. What are the taxonomical differences and similarities between the group of microorganisms known as the Golden Brown algae and the Euglenoids?
- 4. From what you have heard or known about the morphological, physiological, and taxonomical characteristics of the bacterial groups known as the *Streptococcus*, *Staphylococcus*, *Clostridium* and *Cornebacterium* species, write a detailed essay concerning all these facts of these features.
- 5. Write a detailed essay on the two hypothetical speculations by which the fact that eucaryotyes' development is understood to be from the prokaryote ancestors. Discuss also the three methods used for the description of the arrangement of microbes in to different taxa and their general classification systems.

Here we have Section A and then Section II – confusing terminology used by examiner

4.5.4.2 Excerpt from Physics Assignment, PHY 3213-Electricity and Magnetism II, Second

year



SECTION B: ANSWER ANY TWO QUESTIONS

Q2 (a) (i) State Coulomb's law of electrostatics

(2 marks)

- (ii) Two charges q_1 and q_2 are placed 2cm apart on the positive x-axis. If q_1 is placed 2cm from the origin while q_2 is placed 4cm from the origin, calculate the total force exerted by two charges on a third charge q_3 placed at the origin given that $q_1 = 2 \times 10^{-9} C$, $q_2 = 3 \times 10^{-9} C$, and $q_3 = 5 \times 10^{-9} C$ while $k = 9 \times 10^9 \, \text{Nm}^2 C^{-2}$ (4 marks)
- (b) (i) What is a dielectric constant?

(2 marks)

(ii) Show that the force between two charges separated by a distance d is reduced by a factor $\frac{1}{1+P/\varepsilon_o E}$ due to the presence of a dielectric if P is the polarization; E is electric

field and ε_o is permittivity of free space.

(6 marks)

- Q3 (a) (i) Define the term electric potential difference between two points A and B in an electric field and hence generalize the definition to cover potential at any point.

 (4 marks)
 - (b) Show that the electric potential at a point is given by the expression $V = k \frac{q}{r}$

where symbols have their usual meaning.

(6 marks)

(c) (i) Determine the electric potential due to two point charges Q₁ and Q₂ along a perpendicular bisector at point P of the line joining the charges as shown in figure 5

(3 marks)

(ii) What is the potential at P when $r \gg a$?



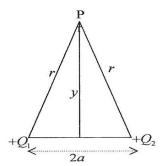


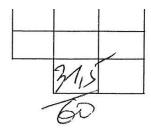
Figure 5



4.5.4.3 Electrical and Electronic Engineering (EEE)

Extract from Feedback on Digital Electronic Circuits, Second year

Clearly write the numbers of all the questions you have attempted in the boxes below / Ecrire clairement les numeros des questions auxquelles vous avez repondu dans les cases ci-dessous.



Write on Both Side of the paper / Ecrire au Recto Verso de la feuille Question:	
Q_1	Do not write in either
A B C	margin
000 Vcc	Ne pas écrire dans
0 1 Vcc	les marges
0 1 1 Vcc	
100 Vcc	
1 1 0 Vcc UNIVERSITY of the	
1 1 1 6 WESTERN CAPE	

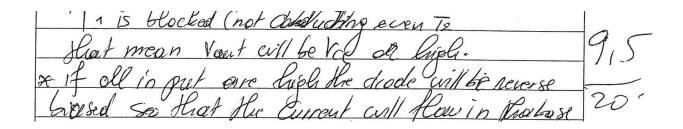
There is a current wich will flow from the source

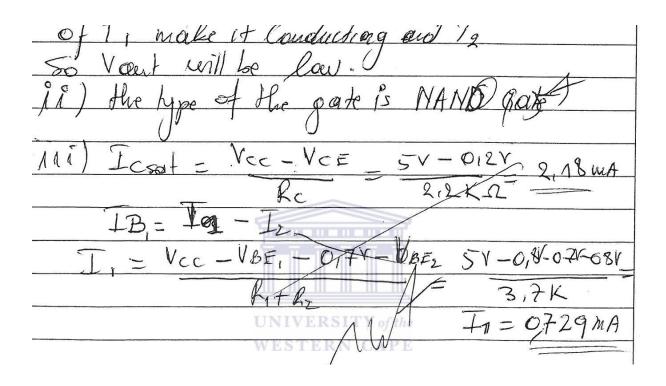
truck passing in the Rossistor & (1154) and in the second

for stor & (214) and pass in the Concerned brook

oh in oll of them if all one low Revel

so there is no General Rowgin the base of Ta Sothet





The above practices represent the genres students in science need to be exposed to. From this, it can be construed that science lectures and tutorials as well as written tasks employ multimodal texts genres where images or graphics interfere with descriptive text genres such as those in table 2 below.

Written Genres from Sciences materials

Written							
Genres							
Genres	Explanation	Procedure	Discussion	Recount	Argument	Report	Percentage
							(%)
Biology	1	1	V	V	V	1	90
Physics	V	×	V		×	V	70
EEE	√	×	UNIVERSI WESTERN	IV of the CAPE	×	V	70
Source:							
observation + Documents							

Table 4. 1 Science materials' genres

The conclusion after the analysis of texts genres and after comparing the EAP and science genres recorded on Table 1 and Table 2, signal that there is little correspondence between the genres on science and the EAP courses the genres on science and the EAP courses.

The implication of the analysis of texts genres and after comparing the EAP and science genres from table 1 and 2, signal that there is little correspondence between the science genres and the EAP genres. The implication for students' performance is clearly that they are not being inducted sufficiently into the science discourses of their disciplines, but rather exposed to genres such as narratives generally (see Table 1).

To summarise, the above excerpts demonstrate the kind of genres and practices in EAP as well as in the three science courses (Biology, Physics and ETE). It has been observed and analysed that EAP and NCEC materials use genres such as narratives and recount (see Table 1). On the other hand, the three courses, mainly, Biology, Physics and ETE uses genres such as exploration, procedure, discussion, report, and argument (see Table 2). Further observations and the analysis of documents in science classes show that lectures and tutorials use multi-modal/multi-semiotic text genres such as explanation, procedure and argument, which all include descriptive text and drawings in teaching and assessments. These students are exposed to the tasks such as writing essays in assignments, tests, examinations, final year research proposals/projects and reports on industrial attachment visits all in the English medium. This shows that all the genres in Table 2 would be meaning making and useful for science students only when they are taught through medium of English (teachers in science). Finally, the overall findings from observations and the analysis of both excerpts from EAP and those from Biology, Physics and ETE show no correlation between the two genres pools.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION OF STUDY FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

I believe that the ethos of this study is consistent with that of applied linguistics and EAP. By the same token, I believe that the definition of applied linguistics provided by Guy Cook (2003) has a particular bearing on my study. Students who come to university sometimes find it difficult to cope with the different modes of writing in higher education and react differently to their situation (Gardner & Nesi, 2013). Therefore, my discussions of the research findings assume a particular relevance in light of the observations made earlier.

In Rwanda, EAP is taught at KIST to assist students in developing academic skills upon entering the university from secondary school. These students are equipped with little knowledge of general English and are not at all informed about the scientific English academic discourses and genres. The lack of such knowledge of general and specific science discourses and genres usually makes it problematic to study in English (Scarcella, 2003). In order to succeed, students at this level need to be able to perform in general and academic English by constructing and selecting scientific meanings that seem most appropriate to their disciplinary needs (Lemke, 1993).

The lack of appropriate expertise in the teaching of EAP is another challenge that impedes students' progress. Unless these teachers familiarise themselves with up to date ways to exploit and teach particular language skills in accordance with the needs of the particular discipline of the student, they are unlikely to make their teaching understandable to students (Hyland, 2006; Lemke, 1993).

This discussion Chapter is divided into four different sections which are complementary as far as this study is concerned. I have decided to bring in excerpts/strands from my findings in my discussion sequences in order to factor in a sense of narrative/discursive immediacy. I

believe this can help come to terms with the centrality and primacy of the issues covered in this Chapter.

Section A includes the discussion of the findings from EAP and science classrooms respectively, Section B discusses findings from the perspectives of students on EAP, Section C discusses teachers' perspectives on EAP materials/curriculum materials and methods (pedagogical procedures, and Section D discusses findings from the policy, EAP and science documents. This Chapter also attempts to untangle the meaning of the findings at both the lower level category and higher level category.

I started this research project in order to get answers to the four research questions mentioned in the Introduction Chapter (1.5). These questions focus the genres and discourses in the EAP classes, the extent to which students are exposed to the genres and discourses of science, and the effects on students' investment and performance.

The findings presented here have laid the ground work for me to discuss them in the light of the questions below:

- i) What are the discourses, genres and practices that students at KIST need to engage in?
- ii) To what extent are students' needs met by the academic literacy programme at KIST?
- iii) What are the teachers' and students' understanding of the process of language and literacy learning in terms of a constructionist approach?
- iv) How does student understanding of the post-colonial approaches to learning affect their performance?
- v) What are the other factors that may hinder or facilitate students' ability to become part of a scientific academic discourse community?

These questions have been probed and rephrased to feature at the level of participants' understanding, and therefore generated different but complementary sub-questions. A number

of elements were observed: language attitudes in EAP and science classrooms, the teaching methods/pedagogies, note-taking, chalk and board and other practices that happened inside the classroom environments. I started with the presentation, analysis, and discussion of observations in science classrooms for a reason. The reason was that although the concern of my research was initially limited to EAP, I become curious about the kind of practices science students engage in and, therefore, I investigated these practices as well.

5.2. 1 The purpose of the Section

The purpose of this section is to raise awareness of the problem area and any possible deviations from the prescribed policy.

5.2.2 Field notes from EAP classrooms

5.2.2.1 Teaching of listening in Second Year Group

The findings support the feedback that is based on inappropriate material for listening and writing where correction of verbs and adjectives was the focus rather than the content of the task. The feedback on writing was that x indicated a mistake in a sentence while a $\sqrt{}$ indicated a correct verb or adjective in a sentence. The focus of the feedback was on tenses and adjectives. In this class the lecture was teacher—centred as there were few instances when the teacher invited students to ask questions or hold group discussions tasks. I retained one thing from our chat with students, I quote: "This teacher is not serious. He only came on time because of you." (see paragraph 4.2.1.1).

This finding revealed lack of institutional management, where a teacher can behave unprofessionally and yet KIST could be so ignorant of this and not be able to follow-up on its teaching staff at all. The focus of the feedback was on tenses and adjectives.

5.2.2.2 Teaching of speaking in Third Year Group

The findings confirm institutional factors relating to teachers' absences, students learning while standing outside the windows while trying to follow English classes, students doing different academic tasks from their other courses during the English classes. Secondly, the teaching of EAP was characterised by irrelevant and inappropriate tasks in listening and speaking and by an approach to reading which focused more on filling in isolated sentences with matching words and expressions. Moreover, the selection of texts which, although possibly of general 'concern to Rwandan society', did not bear any immediate relation to the scientific fields in which students needed to construct and deconstruct texts. This encapsulates a central concern in this research: the inappropriate nature of the texts for the teaching of EAP skills. The use of inappropriate text materials for the teaching of speaking resulted in an undesirous effect on the scheme of EAP.

UNIVERSITY of the

5.2.2.3 Teaching of Reading in Third Year Group

After analysing the instructions (1-4) (see 4.2.2.3) on the teaching of reading to Third Years, it is possible that although through these tasks students could improve their general English skills, they do not seem to do so in the area of scientific English. I believe that these kinds of reading tasks, as well as the four instructions given to students are simplistic and perhaps too general when compared to the cognitive academic proficiency those students at this level of study need. The findings further suggest that the use of out-dated EAP English texts fail to promote the expected discursive competences and academic literacy development (John & Ferris, 1983) and that those which were recommended by either the EAP framework or the field of science in question. Students can improve their general English but not their scientific English ability (Lillis, 2006; Cummins, 1996). In this case, students gain virtually little or no

valued knowledge that would assist them in coping with their science-oriented texts. Students attending these classes may, thus, continue to find it challenging to read and comprehend the literacies and practices demanded by science lectures, assignments, test and/or examinations. The findings from this teaching of reading signal a distinct lack of appropriate texts for the purpose of developing competences in EAP.

5.2.2.4 Teaching of writing to Third Year Group

The choice of writing among the Third Years (see paragraph 4.2.1.4) though called for genres such as argument, as will be evident in section D, shows that the kind of argument that is required in the science courses is very different from those elicited by the topics above. For an example, Biology students would be asked to write an essay which requires a structure and specific language features related to the scientific discipline concerned. Likewise in the reading texts in the previous teaching observed, the two topics (1 & 2) did not seem to immediately address the genre features that a science student would need. Using generic argument tasks, such as those used in the EAP class, did not then, actively promote sufficient engagement with scientific argument genres. It is, therefore, argued for this end that the use of genres related to the students' disciplinary and inter-disciplinary areas is of crucial importance to the shaping their requisite writing skills in the science fields (Bazerman & Prior, 2005; Prior, 1998).

First of all, writing process that is founded on the cognitive aspects of writing is viewed as vital and concerned with problem solving (Zamel, 1983), critical thinking and assertiveness by using the appropriate choice of students' texts (Kern, 2000). Moreover, for an ESL student doing sciences, she/he need an English course that is scientifically accurate (Chamot and O'Malley, 1994).

To sum up, this task on writing revealed inappropriate genre texts used as material for EAP, lack of discursive competence and students' identity as they struggled to become good writers of science.

• Institutional practices evident in observations of Language related courses

I experienced few situations, such as the one in an EAP class, where I went to attend the lecture twenty minutes before the starting time and found a small number of students in the class whilst others began arriving one—by-one. We stayed in the class waiting for the teacher to come but he did not show up. Students used that time to discuss the incident. After an hour, the class representative came to ask me whether they could leave the class because they had an assignment to submit in the next class. His introductory words were, and I quote, "Sorry madam, this teacher is used to this kind of game. Maybe he spent another night in the cabaret that is why he is not here now." Then he asked me for permission to leave, which was granted. I deduce here three issues: lack of valued perception of English language classes, lack of institutional management to enforce compliance and lack of professionalism. In another class, it was agreed earlier that students were to get back their CAT marks, and have time to ask questions to prepare for their end of year examinations. Suddenly, the teacher did not bring the said work and decided to improvise something else, and when students reminded him, he said he was still marking. This again signals lack of professionalism and institutional management.

As for the teaching materials, methods and pedagogy issues, few teachers wrote the title and the objectives of the lessons on the board. EAP teachers also used different teaching materials and approaches for teaching. The observed teaching aid/materials were either a photocopy of some texts or the EAP syllabus and/or NCEC Books, and/or different novels.

Students had no course reader or any other course guide for classes under EAP. Most teaching materials were from a syllabus entitled "English for Academic Purposes". Another observed material was a photocopy from a Book, "Grammar in use". It seems that EAP teachings were mostly drawn from the above materials, except for a couple of individual teachers who, from time-to-time, brought extra curricula material from outside KIST. For an example, one EAP teacher impressed me. He came with a number of Newspaper articles on Technology Transfer and distributed them to students and asked them to read and then answer five questions which he wrote on the board. This class gave me the impression that the teacher is organised and have knowledge of the importance of the field-related texts over and above those on general issues. I also noticed that the kind of questions he wrote on the board reflected a good knowledge of the kind of questions which require both the skimming and scanning processes. On the other hand, this teacher is the same who has been very critical when responding to the interview questions and his critique was centred on inappropriate teaching material and the overall concern of lack of language value attached to English and WESTERN CAPE more.

On the part of students, few of them attended classes compared to the total number of enrolled students in a course. Moreover, the reputation of the institution, as far as its management is concerned, may be ruined and discredited whilst it is said to be the most reputed institution of science and engineering technology in the country. This would happen, for an example, as put forward by one of the EAP teachers during the interview. He said, and I quote him, "When students go to the job market and fail to show their ability and capability to perform in a given task, it is the schools' reputation that is in despair". The take home knowledge product from EAP classes did not appear to be helpful. I could notice that no one in the institution monitors or follows-up on the supposed teaching of classes. I mean that there should be someone to to eventually oversee whether teachers are actually coming to

teach as expected of them, what they are actually teaching and for how long the teaching takes place. Nor, do students who do not attend English classes get penalised, regardless of the attendance lists filled in every class. It is not, therefore, surprising that a lot of students continue to have problems of mastering the English language.

In general, the conceptual frameworks that reflect aspects of all my observations in EAP classes are that students are being subjected to a model of learning that does not provide immediate access to EAP academic practices. Students are not exposed to English activities that promote the genres and discourses of science that are required to be mastered by university science students' community (community of practices). The present writing tasks used by teachers seems to promote the use of general genres such as narratives and recounts, reporting, reading comprehension questions, arguments and short essays on non-scientific texts. I deduced that the major challenge was that neither teachers nor students were totally immersed in the teaching or learning of EAP, and this could be seen in their negative attitudes. For an example, the case of an EAP teacher who dodged his class as mentioned already earlier on in this section and another who spent an hour and a half on a task of writing two ill-conceived paragraphs. Overally, it would seem that students were being subjected to a model of learning that does not provide direct access to EAP academic and scientific practices.

The majority of these students seem to have not been active enough in their own learning, as seen from some of them who could be seen reading for an up-coming assignment or test during the English class, something that went unnoticed by the teacher concerned.

Thus, issues arising from my EAP observations are: firstly that of the use of inappropriate and out-dated content for teaching speaking, listening, reading and writing and lack of teacher monitoring for unprofessional conduct, as is evident in the teachers who did not come

to teach on time or even one who did not come to teach at all. The students' identity, which I also call "students' right," as writers and readers of science was not respected when reading strategies like skimming and scanning were not taught at all. Finally, the feedback on writing related only to the level of sentence completion and tense in a context that is not science related. Perhaps this falls short of what would have been expected on improving language skills for science learners.

5.2.3 Discussion of the findings from Science classes

5.2.3.1 Biology classes

The discussion here refers to the findings from observations from the Biology classes. The teacher was able to transmit the lesson in the English medium, hence students' attention remained focused on the lesson concerned, with murmuring in Kinyarwanda as signifying learners' attempt to discuss what the teacher was saying. However, what was also worrying was the fact that I could rarely see any student raising her or his hand to ask questions, and yet I could see that they were struggling to agree with each other's views. This could be seen as the problem of not being able to express themselves confidently in English.

5.2.3.2 Physics classes

Issues which emerged from observations in the Physics classes reveal that although the language of instruction is supposed to be English, this class was held in a language other than English. This class showed enthusiasm both from the perspectives of lecturer and students. Students were very active and they asked a great number of questions and enjoyed the class. However, the issue here resides in the fact that students were supposed to learn in English according to policy rules and so their notes were supposed to be provided in English. One just

wonders how students were going to do next about translating the explanations of the course from the mixture of French, Kinyarwanda and English. The findings from these observations in the Physics classes again show the use of an inappropriate medium of instruction, which includes code switching.

5.2.3.3 Electrical and Electronic Engineering (EEE) classes

I observed courses entitled "Basic Electronics" in Second year and "Control System Engineering I" in Third Year ETE groups. These engineering courses were taught by a tutor and a lecturer respectively. My observations in these classes revealed use of a mixture of French and English as transmission modes and and it increased the interactions between the teacher and the students. French was used when lecturer/tutor was explaining some concepts and when students were asking or responding to questions. The student–student interaction in these two classes was purely Kinyarwanda. However, notes copied from the board in students' notebooks were in English.

In the *Control System Engineering 1* course by the lecturer, more English was used with little code switching to English and Kinyarwanda. Here, Kinyarwanda was used to clarify some points within the course. The teacher-student interactions were more in French than in English and Kinyarwanda. Here also, the notes were written on the board in English. In light of this, I concluded that students were actively immersed in the course when explanations were formulated in either French or Kinyarwanda, evidently showing problems of mastering English. Issues arising in the observations of the above courses in Physics and the two Engineering courses have been that both lecturers used two different languages, a mixture of French and Kinyarwanda respectively in transmitting the knowledge, but used English for assessment purposes.

5.3 Section B: Discussion of findings from students' perspectives on EAP

Students struggle to explain the reasons for their failure to master English well. Among the reasons that are sometimes given is the fact that they were used to the French medium of instruction and that studying in English is something new to the majority of students.

5.3.1 Identity, Curriculum/Programme, Investment, Professionalism, EAP Theoretical background

The findings that relate to student focused group discussions mirror some lack of identity and investment on the part of students, inappropriate curriculum, EAP teachers' lack of theoretical background and lack of professionalism. Students do not use the texts genres related to science in the EAP courses (reading, classroom presentations and writing) which deny them opportunities to improve on their performance in the given course disciplines. The following excerpt serves as an explanation of this effect:

"In some exercises, sometimes there is a text which you are given but is boring, sometimes even the stories which are there, "It is a million years ago", so you see the text is boring".

"What I would suggest is just to increase the hours of EAP per week to study that lesson because it is a very important course. We have few hours compared to what we are supposed to have, so most of the time we don't finish the programme because of that"

Students lose interest in learning EAP because they study the same things they have been studying at high school. The findings also showed that there is no difference between what students study in First, Second, and Third Years. Students in their different disciplines need to be prepared well in order for them to join their intellectual community through practices which reinforce and improve students' learning in the identified disciplines (Hinkel, 2006;

Broun & Hudson, 2002). Therefore, when students do not learn EAP which is related to their disciplines, it does not reinforce or develop their knowledge of the disciplinary communities they belong to (Kuhn, 1970). The excerpts below can help justify this:

"There is not, there is no difference according to what we studied in first year and second year there is no difference because, the same thing we did in first year we were writing essays, compositions, present continuous tenses same thing and that's the same thing we did in second year, so there was no difference".

To this end, students are, therefore, not investing in their learning of EAP. As mentioned in the analysis of findings, the following excerpts can serve to support the negation of identity, though students are fully aware of the fact that what they need to study in EAP should be based on their field disciplines.

The following excerpt is the example of many other similar responses from students:

"In some texts I liked the texts which have something to do with our department like but the texts which are not from my department, I didn't like at all, and those are the texts which did not have effect on my course";

"Mmmh, I can give my point.... when you are writing scientific things, you are not using the usual English. You know even the dictionary of science and the dictionary of English is different". I, however, pointed earlier on how students use inappropriate materials which prevent them from covering relevant content of EAP.

With regards to the kinds of tasks students are required to do in EAP classes, they reported that they do tasks such as writing a paragraph, a letter, read small books (novels) and present their summaries in front of other students in the class in English. They also said that they listen to the radio on how to pronounce English words and fill in given phrases or sentences

with the missing words in boxes. This form of practice does not fit the KIST context. This kind of ideology has been reinforced by the former colonial era which believes that one discursive and pedagogical norm that works in one place should equally work for the rest of the universe (Halliday, 1994; Canagarajah, 1999).

5.3.2 Multimodal/Multisemiotic Repertoires, Institutional management

The findings from students' focus group show a lack of multi-modal and multi-semiotic practices necessary in their course disciplines. Findings also show lack of institutional management in first of all cancelling EAP marks from the transcripts and not providing enough support to EAP in order to get relevant teaching and learning materials. In light of this, students seem to end up not really interested in learning EAP, especially when they know they would not get anything out of it in the form of credits. The failure to provide appropriate curriculum materials derives sometimes from the over-generalisation that what is successful and relevant in one socio-cultural context/setting is necessarily applicable to another, regardless the particularities of that context/setting (Bale, 2002).

A language can only be meaningful when it is used in its correct socio-cultural context (scientific context) and "without a view of language as transformable, we can have no proper theory of transformation" (Aschcroft, 2001:59). The following excerpts from students' focused group discussions show how students' expectations are not answered/responded to by the institutional authority:

"Our lecturer...of English for academic purposes, recently he gave us the topics say about divorce, divorce to me it does not concern my studies, I mean my field"

"Why English cannot be a course like others? From first year up to fourth year we are still doing English. For other courses for example there is in physics there is another course, mechanical physics, etc. Why not the same for English?

KIST should have provided appropriate curriculum, teacher training and good living conditions, as well as responding to students' multiple identities in providing them with all kinds of practices that are used in their disciplines (Kern, 2000). The multi-modality and multi-modal nature of texts requires a context that shifts from simple language to the understanding of how different genres work (Burns & Coffin, 2001)

5.3.3 Discussion and interpretation of findings from feedback on writing

Findings show that EAP teachers do not provide adequate feedback. The excerpts below testify this:

UNIVERSITY of the

Student 1: But other teachers underline what's wrong, if you want you ask him, why this is wrong and maybe he is going to tell you what you should have done, others don't."

Student 2: "Yes, if you make a mistake he shows you that are the way things should be done. When you have a feedback you know where you made mistakes and next time you won't do the same mistakes"

The fact that students do not get informative and constructive responses on their writing may have serious implications on students' progress, especially, when they have English as their second language (Ferris, 2003).

It seems that the findings show that most students have problems that are related to the lack of appropriate teaching materials, discursive competence, investment in learning, identity and ideology of language and literacy, post colonial experiences, and unprofessional practices,

These issues contribute to the hindrances to effective mastery of EAP.



5.4 Discussion of findings from EAP teachers

Teachers of English are divided into two groups. Group 1 accommodates EAP teachers who teach second year students in the Second Semester, and the third years in the First Semester. Group 2 includes teachers of Basic English who teach first and second year students in the First Semester.

5.4.1. Curriculum/Programme, Power/Authority, Agency, Institutional Management and Monitoring

5.4.1.1 Curriculum

From the perspectives of the teachers, there are a number of deficiencies in the system, including failure to select an appropriate curriculum, lack of power and agency and poor institutional management. The following quote, which is echoed repeatedly by a large number of teachers' views:

"The curriculum is designed by staff at KIST Language Center".

Referring to the quote above, it shows that teachers do their utmost to motivate students to attend class. Unfortunately, students may attend class, but learn little or nothing, because they themselves have also lost interest in it. From the extract below, it can be understood that for the case of teachers who cannot convince and motivate students, they make learning very difficult for the students so that students may be physically in class but learn nothing because they are not interested. The teachers said,

"Because students are normally not interested in the lesson, but once you have told them something that is striking now their attention is drawn. This way automatically attract them to know what is coming next"

The problem is caused by the fact that there is no known appropriate curriculum and its material for all levels of learning (1 to 4, or 5). For the teachers, this should have been a priority for students' successful learning and for teacher to be purpose-oriented in their teaching. The following quote from a teacher can clarify how these teachers understand the challenge they are facing because they still have to develop an EAP curriculum and its appropriate materials. The excerpt below shows this:

"Uhhmm, language curriculum, this is a very, very crucial issue here. Actually I must say that language curriculum there's no clear language curriculum, we have what we call uhmm scheme of work. But as far as language curriculum, really I cannot say that we have a ready curriculum and I remember this is one of the challenges here. We have a scheme of work which is designed here".

According to teachers, students do not seem to be focusing well on their English classes due to the fact that it uses unrelated topics to science, and this does not seem helpful to them. An antithesis to this, would be to offer them reading and writing content that includes multimodal/multi-semiotic text types in which a variety of descriptive and visual texts (chart and diagrams) similar to the ones they encounter in their disciplines. Unsurprisingly, students end up dodging some classes because they too feel that there is no incentive to go to class. The institution should have been able to monitor and see that there is a problem. One of the strategies for the universities to improve their management strategies should be to promote initiatives that yield efficacy at the work place (Saint, 1992).

From the above, it is would seem clear that there is need to have an EAP curriculum because it is one of the academic literacy demands of modern times (Carson (1993).

5.4.2 Ideology, Inconsistency, Attitude, Needs Analysis and EAP Theoretical background

5.4.2.1 *Material*

(different disciplines).

The research findings show that teachers in Group 2 trusted the materials at their disposal to be relevant and helpful to students learning English and yet students and other teachers saw the opposite. The following quote can help confirm the point I havejust stated.

"Although NCEC is a helpful book, I add my own materials/tasks on readings and writing".

They suggested materials on reading and writing needed to be added onto the NCEC textbook. At least two other teachers from the group said the content of the NCEC programme is too broad to be covered successfully in this programme. His colleague reported that the NCEC programme is used to teach students who have different learning needs

Group 1 teachers suggested conducting a needs analysis before the EAP programme is western cape. Cape conducted, something they seem to think was not done. They felt that the teaching time was not sufficient and they suggested that the teaching of EAP be for at least a full academic year. One person in the group reported that students needed to raise their standards. The following excerpts also shows this:

"We need to conduct needs analysis in order to know what students' need. Otherwise even at the time of graduation students still have gaps."

"We need to conduct needs analysis in order to know what students' need. Otherwise even at the time of graduation students still have gaps."

Findings show that tasks on writing in first and second years have been based on general topics such as TV news, movies and newspapers and tasks as the following findings point out.

"Free and guided composition"; "Narrative in 3rd & 4thyear"

"Topic on general matters"; "Descriptive writing $(1^{st} \& 2^{nd})$ "

Findings from Group 1 teachers also show that the difficulties that students have in writing are that they think in Kinyarwanda and write in English and that they have not yet familiarised themselves with the English medium of instruction. These issues constitute a problem which impedes students' progress in writing academically. The excerpt below can confirm this:

"The problem is that students think in Kinyarwanda and write in English"

"Students are not familiar with English because they were used to French"; "Students have problems in writing"

Findings from Group 2 further reveal that students end up mixing up everything while writing. They copy and paste and have spelling, punctuation and other writing issues. All this seem to suggest that overally, students are not coping well in the general and particular writing skills in English.

"Students mix everything in writing." "Students copy and paste, so problem is spelling and punctuation and lots of other writing difficulties".

A remedy would be to assist students with the knowledge of study skills that eventually helps them to avoid such practices as plagiarism (Wood & Head, 2004).

5.4.2.2 Background

The findings confirm that students' challenges on writing academically acceptable work are mostly due to lack of a good English proficiency background. Responses of at least two of the Group 1 teachers who were interviewed show that the difficulties that students seem to have in writing were caused by the fact that they thought in Kinyarwanda and then write in English, in itself a sign that they have not yet become literate in English as medium of instruction for academic purposes. These issues constitute a problem which can impede students' progress in writing English for Academic Purposes. Whatever is the source of this problem, it simply makes most students incompetent in the use of the English language in their own learning.

"The problem is that students think in Kinyarwanda and write in English."

"Students are not familiar with English because they were used to French"; "Students have problems in writing."

The findings from Group 2 also confirm and reveal that students have various problems in writing in English. They copied and pasted work electronically, in itself a source of many errors in spelling, punctuation and other writing issues. Students did not cope well with general and particular writing skills.

"Students mix everything in writing."

"Students copy and paste, so problem is spelling and punctuation and lots of other writing difficulties"

A remedy would be to assist these students with the necessary knowledge and study skills that help them to avoid such practices as plagiarism (Wood & Head, 2004).

Findings show that students' challenges/difficulties to write academically are due to a lack of good English background. Further to this, the findings also show that students are not successful in writing because the English subject course is not credited into the university system. As a result, students tend to ignore it. Findings can further report that even when students have exposure to some writing skills and processes, they the materials used for their lessons are not relevant to their field studies (e.g. TOEFEL, IELTS, and NCEC Textbooks).

5.4.2.3 *Reading culture*

Findings also show that students had no culture of reading on their own so that it can help them write better English. Instead, they want to use the time meant for its study to do other subjects.

"The reason is that students do not read much, they only stick to the course"; TOEFEL material is not relevant"

"The program does not include enough material on writing. NCEC concentrates more on grammar."

The support from EAP teachers to students include the request from students to read and write some based on their own interest, as seen verifiably in the excerpts below.

"I try to explain to students that it is in their interest to study EAP."

"I suggest them to read English books."; "I deal with this problem by asking students to read much and exercise in writing."

The gap that is then created by all this is on the kind of reading and writing texts that teachers use for them to be able to provide adequate support to students' academic literacy learning.

The academic literacy that students need to cover includes everyday life topics, compositions, topics on specific interests both descriptive (First and second years) and narrative (Third and Fourth Years).

5.4.2.4 Institutional management

It has been pointed out already in the findings that subject teachers did not value EAP as a result they do not help students develop it academically. While "what counts as knowledge for science teachers is strictly scientific facts" (Hyland, 2006: 189), there is an understanding that it is crucial in "planning course objectives, tasks and assignments in EAP to engage with the subject department teachers" (Hyland, 2006; 186).

The findings also show that some of the ways that teachers would like to see the writing challenges dealt with would be to conduct needs analysis and review the whole English teaching programme, given the fact that in its present form, students are unable to master all the key language skills that are also appropriate to science learners. They affirm also that there is need to add new and appropriate materials on speaking and writing in the NCEC textbooks, or over and above these texts. Findings such as the one below pinpoints as crucial the need to teach reading skills, study skills, writing a project proposal skills and note—taking skills.

"We need to conduct needs analysis in order to know what students needs. Otherwise even at the time of graduation students still have gaps."

Further to this the findings show that students were not successful in writing because the English subject course was not credited, and they tended to ignore the course.

"I wish management get involved in valuing English course because students have negative attitude towards English learning."

"Students should be aware that English is as important as their other subjects."

"Note-taking (how to use chart, graphs etc). We should also include academic writing."

The findings from Group 1 (EAP) show that students in their third year perform poorly. Their academic language skills are not up to standard. Therefore, teachers who were interviewed stated that they preferred that the EAP programme could start earlier in the First year instead of starting it in the last year of study. EAP is not given consideration by the institutional management and that is why it is taught for short a time, which is not sufficient according to the proficiency level of students at the end of their studies. The following quotes from interviews with teachers can confirm thi:

"Third year students are not up to the standard"

"The content of NCEC is too big to cover, we can't cover everything".

"I feel I can change this program because I don't feel comfortable using the existing one".

5.4.2.5 Assessment and monitoring - feedback

For the assessment and feedback, findings show that three teachers (30%) did not provide feedback at all to students, six teachers (60%) provided some feedback while one does so when the number of students does not exceeds 50. It seems as if most teachers do not provide feedback to students after an assessment. This is shown in the following examples:

"Yes and No; when the number of students is small I give feedback in few time but when they are many (+60) it takes time"

At the same time, the findings seem to show that feedback greatly helps students to improve on their work in the next writing assignme. Teachers said,

"The majority improve when they get feedback"

Research shows that instead of teaching students by providing them with tasks on grammar, gap filling and the like, teachers should actually teach this grammar from context which allows for a link between literacies (Jabbour, 2001).

Findings also pinpoint that seven teachers (70%) had different answers on the same question and three (30%) went off the point altogether

In the First and Second year, teachers taught general English and argued that the difference in course content between First and Second year English was small while Third and Fourth years were dependent upon the structure of the course. In the Third and Fourth years, teachers taught grammar and spelling and seven teachers out of eight (90%) said they taught both ESP and EAP.

"The difference depends on the structure of the problem 3^{rd} and 4^{th} year grammar and spelling"

WESTERN CAPE

"1st and 2nd year are taught general English"

As an alternative to assessing and providing feedback on grammar, a disciplinary portfolio and EAP content would be better (Hirvela 1997). Findings show that eight teachers pointed out that not including English marks in students' transcript was not good because students became de-motivated and lost interest in learning the subject. One teacher said he had nothing to say about this question. The quote below confirms the point under consideration:

"To me including English in the student transcript or not does not make any difference. Students say we are not going to learn English, it is not included in our curriculum our department says so. But when I ask them why you are here now when you know English is not in your curriculum? They answer we are here because we need EAP for our studies... Use cross reference

Findings show that most teachers look at the content, cohesion, coherence and referencing in order to provide feedback. The following strands can confirm this:

Five (50%) teachers said that they have and use a marking scheme when marking students' work:

"We have guidelines on how to mark: language; organisation; and content"

"Content, cohesion, coherence, referencing (APA), paragraphing, clear definitions and bibliography Sentences must be tied"

"Structure (4), organisation (3), and grammar (3)" Cross reference

Teachers also look at the structure, organisation and grammar. However, the findings from the marking criteria used for English assessment show that teachers had varied answers to the same question, further suggesting differences in approaches to content. Six out of ten teachers, when assessing EAP, looked at the four criteria: language, organisation, content, and grammar. One looked at cohesion and coherence, another one looked at structure, organisation and grammar. One teacher said he looked at referencing, spelling, content, grammar and conclusion while another said he looked at the development of the topic, and introduction. These differences reflect different approaches to the teaching of the content as well. The summary is as follows:

"One gives (4) marks to the structure, (3) to the organisation, and (3) to grammar; Cross reference

5.4.2.6 Language policy

Findings from teachers about the Rwanda government's decision about the shift of the language policy, signpost a sense of priority as shown in the excerpt below:

"To me, I do not agree with this decision. English should also be credited. When English is credited students will be serious and motivated to learn...."

Findings from one--on-one interviews with EAP teachers revealed strong 'agency'. See the following response. There were similar responses from other teachers:

"Hope of outcome of this research will be communicated to the SETI Management.

5.4.2.7 Constraining factors on teacher agency

The key finding is the structural and professional constraints on teachers' 'agency. Teachers of EAP see a lack of appropriate discursive competence and multi-semiotic repertoires as major factors inhibiting their academic success. These constraints are due to a lack of institutional support, as a result of students' lack of investment (interest) in learning and therefore minimise the value of English for their studies. Other issues such as lack of EAP needs analysis prior to determining or designing the teaching materials, lack of up-dated language policy and curriculum, lack of current ways of EAP teaching, assessing and providing feedback frustrate and debilitate teachers.

5.4.2.8 Summary of the section

The challenges faced by teachers in SETI Language Centre are mainly the structural and professional constraints on teachers', 'agency' and these constraints are due to a lack of institutional support. Other issues such as a lack of EAP needs analysis prior to determining or designing the teaching material,; a lack of up-dated language policy and curriculum, a lack

of current ways of EAP teaching, assessing and providing feedback limit students' potential development and devalue the worth of an EAP programme.

Consequently, EAP teachers have lost their professional standing and have been denied access to the EAP community of practices. The issues shown in the findings seem to be the causes of students not having the ability to do well at science writing. The link between text types from EAP and the texts from social practices students are supposed to expose a broad spectrum of challenging science related topics to advance their development. Instead, the EAP programme seems to be stunting students' potential to train as future members of the science community.

The EAP teachers are not valued (no firm curriculum, sketchy training) and students' right to be accepted as future scientists in their domain is ignored and strained by the fact that EAP classes use science unrelated readings and write essays on topics which are irrelevant to the disciplines which they have to master. In contrast, it would be helpful to offer students reading and writing texts that include multi-modal/multi-semiotic text types in which a variety of descriptive and visual texts, including charts and diagrams similar to the ones they encounter in their disciplines, form part of the literacy curriculum. The institution should have been able to monitor and see that there is a problem. One of the strategies the universities need in order to improve their management should be to promote initiatives and efficacy at work place (Saint, 1992).

5.5 Section D: Discussion and Interpretation of findings from EAP Documents

5.5.1 Introduction

The discussion will focus on findings regarding application of four kinds of documents: the Rwanda National Policy on Language Teaching in Higher Education (NPLTHE), the EAP courses, and the Biology, Physics and Electrical and Electronic Engineering courses.

5.5.1.1 Discussion of Rwanda National Policy on Language Teaching in Higher Education

In its Higher Education Policy, Rwanda as a country expects development practices by those experts in the country's higher education enterprises. By means of research and knowledge, Higher Education Institutions are required to produce skilled graduates who are nationally and internationally credible (Cursive 1: line 5 to 6). The NPLTHE, issued in July 2007 also stipulates and recommends that a bilingual policy be followed (French and English). The concern of this study, however, is not on bilingual policy in its totality, but on the English language teaching part of it. In the previous Chapter (See 4), I discussed a few texts on the background and rationale of NPLTHE, which is a branch of RHEP, the provision for Level 1 students which also includes its objectives and course outline and the provision for level 2 students and the language assessment after Level 2 follow next. The findings from this document present contradictory ideology of language and literacy in which the original writers of the document go even that far to determine the developmental time-frame in terms of suggested numbers of hours.

5.5.1.2 Findings from Provision after testing

This provision has not been up-dated since 2008 up to the present date (my emphasis). No up-date has been attempted. The recommendation from NPLTHE advances that English should not be credited. The analysis and interpretation of both recommendations shows lack of value that permeates the study of the English course. The findings also show lack of expertise in the field of Applied Linguistics and EAP on the part of the decision makers or the stakeholders on language policy. It can also be seen that the decision makers/stakeholders in the design of Language Policy in Higher Education possess expertise other than that of the field of Applied Linguistics in general and EAP in particular. This impedes the rights of science students to learn the powerful genres required by the scientific community and which are the pre-requisite for success in their (students') studies (Widdows, 1995).

Research shows that the knowledge and skills of communication that students bring to tertiary education institutions from secondary school are not enough for the demands of tertiary language practices, given that the latter goes beyond the ordinary to extra-ordinary knowledge and skills in specific settings or contexts (Moss, 2001). The overall findings present lack of theoretical framework/ identity/ power/ and community of practices.

5.5.1.3 Findings from Recommendations by NPLTHE

The analysis and findings of the sentence in quotes:

"This course will not carry credit but language examination results will not form part of the award, nor will they be used to calculate....distinction" show the problem facing EAP teachers and students.

The above excerpt indicates that English language results/marks are credit free at the university. English marks do not form part of students' marks recorded in the university transcripts, like is done for all other subjects. It can be inferred that the recommended EAP curriculum or programme comes from policy makers who may not be part or members of the EAP community of practices. This can be translated **as** lack of interest in the teaching and learning of EAP by the policy makers.

5.5.1.4 Findings from the Background and Rationale for NPLTHE

The minimum requirement stated in the rationale for NPLTHE points out that,

"Students need to gain the language skills they need and that languages are taught in the context of the academic disciplines and in parallel with subject study".

This policy also highlights the fact that the students' language proficiency should not be a barrier to the understanding of their studies in their respective disciplines. However, this statement is in contradiction with the teaching material the policy suggests at this level. This idea is also in contradiction with the recommendations the policy has put forward as far as paragraph (4.5.5.4) in the previous Chapter states, starting from objectives to the course design, to the assessment criteria, to the provision after assessment, and finally, to the recommendations.

For example, the analysis and findings of the sentence in quotes says,

"This course will not carry credit" (line 1) and "but language examination results will not form (line 3) part of the award, nor will they be used to calculate....distinction".

This statement indicates that English language results/marks are credit free. English marks do not form part of students' transcripts like is done for all the other subjects, such as Physics, Biology and so on. This is to suggest that the recommended EAP curriculum or programme comes from policy makers who have little or no respect or background on EAP theoretical issues. This can be translated in the kind of materials they propose as well as the guidelines for assessments.

5.5.1.5 Findings from the Provision of Level 1

i) Objectives

Essentially, the objectives of provision for Level 1 as can be seen in the excerpt 2 (See 4 ...recommend attainment of the higher level language proficiency in a relatively short time, meanwhile improving student's literacy skills necessary for their course programmes and competitiveness on the job market nationally and internationally.

This discourse may imply two different approaches to teaching English. This is translated in the ideology of language teaching on the one hand and the literacy teaching on the other. It is obvious that the shorter time this excerpt refers to is divided into two: the teaching of language skills and the teaching of academic literacy skills.

ii) Course outline

As stated under the epistemic and scope for my study, I will stay focused on issues around language and literacy learning inside of SETI. Thus, the study excludes the outside SETI situations although they might also influence the success of students' language and literacy

skills. For the analysis of this language policy document, I consider only the use of language inside the classrooms.

The aims of the English course outline point to the teaching of basic structure that is believed to be helpful for the understanding of oral and written English: to use English in a variety of situations in and outside the classroom, to achieve academic writing, to have the ability to read and write general and course specific texts and assignment and to develop research skills such as paraphrasing, synthesizing, quoting, referencing and note-taking.

The quote below can confirm the current shortcomings in this regard:

"The content of NCEC is too big to cover, we can't cover everything".

"Another bad thing is that it only covers general English. It has nothing for specific academic purposes."

"NCEC is not well organised".

On the other hand, "effective language policies in education require careful attention to the "local" concerns of everyday life in classrooms: materials, class size, dayly and weekly schedules for the study and other subjects, and teachers' time for course planning, problem solving, and professional development (Tollefson, 2002:334).

iii) The three assessment/testing criteria

Traditionally the culture at SETI from the academic year 2007 demanded that a placement test was organised at the beginning of each academic year and its results determined the category in which the student was to be placed for the whole year. Students were divided into three English programmes. Those who scored less than 60% were put into the programme of Beginners and were allocated 8-10hours of English classes per week. The Intermediate

programme included students who scored between 60% to 79% and the total hours per week were between 4 and 8. The advanced programme included outstanding students who got 80% andabove. From this programme I deduced a couple of issues- which is the place English programme comes from and who is the particular office or individual that determines its content. For this study, it is clear that the English teaching programme comes from or is determined by the Ministry of Education under the NPLTHE. It is not clear, nonetheless, about the teaching materials that are used by each of the three programmes (*beginner*, *intermediate*, and *advanced*). It is also not clear about an English course programme that will serve in the teaching of English for academic purposes. The writing literacy for higher education students is one vital ability that a student should have.

iv) Provision after assessment/testing

The provision after assessment/testing recommends for beginner and intermediate learners an "informal course provision" to be taught. What is informal course provision? Where does it come from? Who designs it? Is it the language teachers? Is it the policy makers? Is it both? As far as I know (EAP teacher at SETI), the Institution still uses the old provision. No update has been made on this provision up to date (my observation).

5.5.1.6 Findings from Recommendations for Level 2 by NPLTHE

The recommendation from NPLTHE for Second year students' advances that English should not be credited. The analysis and interpretation of both show lack of value attached to the course of English study. The findings also show lack of expertise in the field of Applied Linguistics and EAP on the part of the decision makers or the stakeholders on language

policy. It can also be clearly seen that the decision makers/stakeholders in the design of Language Policy in Higher Education possess expertise other than that in the field of Applied Linguistics in general and EAP in particular. This understanding impedes the rights of science students to learn the powerful genres required by the scientific community and which are the prerequisite for success in their (students') studies. Moss (2001) offers an explanation that academic institutions should be treated differently as far as literacy is concerned. Kapp (2002) also stands for the idea that student's study discipline should be given voice for them to make meaning from it. He questions the gaps between the schools and university-based literacy practices.

The findings also showed the ideology of language and literacy learning where there is an assumption that knowing to speak the English language is having knowledge about everything that applies to English. This means that once students have the capability to speak, they will also have the capability to read, listen and understand everything else well. The excerpt below from the policy on teaching English in higher education relates to the idea above.

The content of assessment as well as the scoring criteria that the policy recommends is still on the lower level for being considered as a pre-requisite to pass to the next class. I believe that attaining the intermediate and advanced levels for tertiary students would encompass more than just pre-packaged and grammar oriented assessments. This is one of the provisions a cursive recommended by the language policy

"Provision shall be made for 'advanced' students and those judged intermediate in their stronger language to improve the competence".

i) Provision for Level 2

Assuming that Level 1 refers to 1st year and Level 2 refers to 2nd year, this provision states that students in Level 1 who fail to achieve 'advanced' proficiency in the language will anyway be allowed to progress to 2nd year with a carry forward in English. How will they improve their competences in 2nd year where English classes do not exist anymore? It seems unclear on success/failure criteria or the essence of the English outcomes if this does not affect the students' promotion to the next level. It appears also that the language programme is not given strict consideration for the role it plays in students' learning. It is believed that students' academic needs can be addressed by a remedial programme rather than a need-oriented and purposeful programme. After Level 2 (second year) the policy signals that there would not be formal teaching or assessment. However, it does not provide the alternative mode of assessment, if any, that will be used in this case.

UNIVERSITY of the

ii) Language Assessment after Level 2

The language assessment after Level 2 informs that after Level 2 (second year) there will not be formal teaching or assessment. However, nothing is signalled about what programme will guide the informal teaching and assessment, if any. Learning text materials are also analysed in view of getting insights on the complementarities or divergences existing between EAP and science texts.

5.5.1.7 Summary of the Chapter

In this Chapter I have discussed the key issues that contribute to the failure of students to successfully master EAP and suggested possible solutions, first to the SETI management which include support and monitoring of EAP teachers and the course syllabus as well as the participation of subject teachers in students' academic literacy development. Suggestions are also addressed to the Rwanda Ministry of Education for a complete review of the language policy and its implementation. Since the concern of this study has been on EAP in higher education, I have proposed that similar research be done on English language teaching in primary and secondary education.



CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

In this Chapter I present conclusions based on my research findings after observations of language teaching and learning as well as student-teacher interaction in EAP and science classes at KIST. These findings have been extensively reported in Chapter 4 and discussion of these findings followed in Chapter 5. The dominant focus in Chapter 6 will be on discovering to what extent the issues highlighted by the research questions listed below (See 1.5) have been addressed.

- i) What are the discourses, genres and practices that students at KIST need to engage in?
- ii) To what extent are students' needs met by the academic literacy programme at KIST?
- iii) What are the teachers' and students' understanding of the process of language and literacy learning in terms of a constructionist approach?
- iv) How does student understanding of the post-colonial approaches to learning affect their performance?
 - v) What are the other factors that may facilitate or hinder students' ability to become part of a scientific academic discourse community?

I will pay special attention to the identification of a continuing hiatus in the demarcated areas of the respective research questions. Further to this, I use a separate section to probe each of the research questions. The first section highlights issues pertaining to question one. The second section relates to question two. The third section focuses on question three. The fourth section encompasses positive and negative findings from question four while the last section answers questions on other factors influencing students' ability to gain access to the scientific community. In a further section conclusions will be drawn based on the study with

regard to adherence to or ignorance of the National language policy at KIST found after a document analysis.

In the concluding section I will illustrate what my study has contributed in terms of an informed understanding to the academic community as well as to the Rwanda Ministry of Education. The Chapter ends with a few recommendations to language colleagues and students at institutions of higher education, which have emanated from the study.

6.1.1 Genres, discourses and practices that students at KIST engage in

The study has found that students engage in genres such as narratives and recounts which resulted from lack of EAP theoretical background/training on the part of teachers. Students are asked to write about their dreams and other similar texts of general interest.

6.1.1.1 Discursive competence; multi-semiotic repertoires; identity, power/authority and agency

The study reveals that EAP teachers are pessimistic concerning any decision on the language policy/curriculum. Students are not exposed to texts specific to their field subjects; instead they are given tasks such as writing essays on general topics and memos, application letters, grammar exercises and this is the reason why they are hesitant to speak English in public. They are not confident enough.

6.1.1.2. Ideology, investment, teacher professionalism, community of practices

This research supports verifiably that students who performed well in their field subjects were not necessarily the ones that fared best in the EAP course. Students came to believe also that when someone is good at memorising, he/she can perform well in EAP because they just

reproduce what they have memorised on paper. Students in the third year also believed that they did not need EAP as they knew enough about English. To put it differently, students saw no improvement when they compared the EAP programme to the English programme they had in secondary school and thus lost interest in learning EAP. EAP teachers have no EAP in-service theoretical background. This was justified by their mindset around the question of placing EAP courses lower in educational value than other courses. However, English being an international language, the study has revealed that the EAP programme is vital to the Higher Education in Rwanda. For this reason, students acknowledged the importance of English academic style because they believed that English being the medium of instruction, and Rwanda being a member of the East African Community and the Common Wealth (where English is the language of interactions and commercial exchanges), they needed to be able to compete internationally. The study also reveals that KIST management should give students a chance to learn English very well because they are not responsible for the language shift (EAP is taught for only 2 hours a week for one Semester). The study reports that in their First year students learnt English from 16:00 - 19:00 when they were already exhausted; and had no opportunity to practice the English they studied once being outside the classrooms.

Nonetheless, though students come from a French background and face challenges in the English academic literacy, EAP is essential to them. It is the material used that the students have problems with. The EAP course programme does not concentrate on the language skills (speaking, listening, reading and writing), nor on the genres and discourses students encounter in their departmental courses. Furthermore, it is shown that some EAP teachers did not take their teaching seriously; and that their families and neighbours with whom they spent time together after school hours only speak Kinyarwanda and/or Kiswahili' on a regular basis.

Moreover, as most KIST teachers and administrative staff did not prioritise the students' academic study needs, especially for those who used it for the first time and tended to accord it less importance than other courses. The explanation provided was that most lecturers in different departments could not help because they themselves had not mastered English well.

Based on the observations and feedback from students and teachers at KIST, it seems as if academic staff does not value English that much, and therefore, are not helping students to develop their proficiency and knowledge in it. Subject teachers did not include feedback on language issues while marking students' assignments. Students thought they did not get feedback from their subject teachers because they themselves were trained in the same way ("did not get feedback as well when they were still students").

The study has also revealed a mismatch between the genres, discourses and practices that students are exposed to in EAP and the genres they are exposed to in their respective disciplines. Most students and some teachers have not mastered academic English well. EAP teachers as well as discipline teachers use a teacher-centred approach to teaching, code switching between French, English and Kinyarwanda in the process of teaching and use English only in assessments (this includes assignments, reports from industrial attachments, tests and examinations). The study shows that students do not possess the higher level of English literacy learning that is needed at the tertiary level when dealing with under-graduate essays, assignments, reports from workshops and industrial attachments, tests and examinations and have only been exposed to grammar-oriented practices which they state they had already learnt in high school.

.6.2 The extent to which students' needs are met by the EAP programme at KIST

6.2.1 Academic literacy programme/curriculum/policy

The study confirms that students' needs are rarely met by the programme. The study further demonstrates contradictory ideologies about the difference between learning the language skills and achieving academic literacy. This is largely if not wholly due to the use of inappropriate and out-dated EAP instructional material and pedagogies that do not benefit the teaching of Basic English and/or of EAP. The study points out also to the lack of clear curriculum/policy. The EAP programme does not cover relevant academic genres and practices in listening, reading and writing. Further, the study shows that students do not have either the syllabus or the course reader. However, there is evidence of student success due to the input of knowledgeable conscientious teachers.

The study demonstrates a lack of clear language curriculum and policy, inappropriate materials and academic practices, inconsistency in the use of teaching materials (different teachers use different materials for the same level of students - Second or Third year), inappropriate materials for teaching speaking and writing (NCEC and TOEFL).

The students expect to learn something new, something that is at the level of university and which they can use to develop English proficiency in their course subjects. However, what apparently matters most for EAP teachers is to cover the syllabus. This approach does not provide room for students to learn and excel. The approach, therefore, does not relate to expectations or needs of the learners. The study also shows that some EAP teachers do not assess or provide feedback to students; especially those who have large classes. EAP teachers also do not give equal weighting to the teaching of the four language skills, namely, speaking, reading, listening and speaking. And yet, all four language skills altogether can contribute immensely to the students' increased performance in academic literacy.

6.2.2 Outdated materials, institutional management, professional practice, EAP theoretical background, academic practices' culture of reading

The study has shown that the teaching material for each of the three programmes (beginner, intermediate, and advanced) is not relevant. It is also not clear what is expected about an English programme for the teaching of academic writing as one of the abilities a student at the tertiary level needs to acquire. The study has further shown that EAP programme/material, though central as revealed in this research, is not taken seriously by the institution management and as such it is usually under-funded with little or no monitoring which results in inconsistency in delivery.

EAP teachers do not seriously commit themselves to their job as they are sometimes absent or arrive late for teaching, and do not provide students with handouts or syllabuses, course notes and expose students to debates or group discussions in English. Students resorted to dodging some English classes because they feel that they are not really benefiting much from the programme since they think they are learning exactly the same things they learnt at secondary school. The study has illustrated lack of theoretical basis for teaching and assessing the EAP programme as well as the needs analysis for the EAP programme which would help the lecturers to master new methodologies, new materials and emerging issues on EAP in general. The study has further pointed out to the provision of out-dated materials and use of one textbook across different disciplines, which affects consumption of the programme by the students. For this reason, students at KIST learn grammar, phonology, memos, and read texts on general topics like gender, holidays, dreams, love, narratives and the like. The study has demonstrated that there is a serious problem related to students' reading ability on their own. In the academic world people need to develop a habit of reading and this habit is lacking amongst EAP students at KIST. This research seems to suggest that there is lack of needs analysis prior to instituting the EAP course.

6.2.3 Assessment/testing, feedback and needs analysis

The teaching, assessment and feedback aspects are part and parcel of any subject, including EAP. However, the study has revealed that the content of the testing/assessment and criteria for testing from the NPLTHE lacks clarity and possibly lack of knowledge of EAP assessment. As pointed out above, starting from the outline to the assessment, the kind of practices put forward are not at the level of university study, particularly not in being able to meet the academic needs of science students. Thus, for EAP to be successful there is a need to assess students' progress and provide them with feedback for further improvement of their academic literacy learning.

6.3 Students' and teachers' understanding about the process of language and literacy learning

6.3.1 Process of language and literacy learning

The findings point out to deficient teachers' agency as well as lack of appropriate materials for advancing study skills like speaking, listening, reading and writing. This study shows that students do not get adequate feedback on the language issues from both EAP teachers and the subject teachers and even those teachers who provide feedback do not provide quality feedback. After any assessment the assessor needs to provide feedback for the students to learn from their errors and improve the quality of next tasks.

6.4 Students' understanding of the postcolonial approach to learning of EAP

6.4.1 The influence of NPLTHE officials' attitudes towards EAP

The study has illustrated that the content used for EAP is not being taken seriously by NPLTHE. It has shown that the way the documents are written illustrates the kind of writers

who are associated with the policy documentation. It has also revealed that the writers are not acquainted with EAP core characteristics and as such do not see the importance of the programme. Furthermore, it has demonstrated that the course outline of English Language teaching programme is inappropriate and has also revealed that the format of teaching EAP is impractical as teachers use the standard but archaic format of presentation, such as the lecturer talking and the students writing. This kind of presentation affects the quality of the EAP programme.

The study has shown that the factors affecting students' investment in EAP are the conflicting ideologies of language learning and academic literacy: Students need proficiency training material and pedagogy.

6.5 Other factors that may hinder or facilitate students' ability to become part of scientific academic discourse community

6. 5.1 Students' scientific academic discourse community

As pointed out earlier, the study reveals that the factors affecting students' investment in EAP are the conflicting ideologies of language learning and academic literacy: Students need proficiency training material and pedagogy. The course content shows there is no induction into argument in science, no induction into awareness of register either. The teaching materials are based on theories from the colonial era. Students do not identify what it is that they would like to gain from the course. There is a general vague student discontent with the kinds of texts and the focus on isolated grammar. However, there appears to be no clear articulation of their needs. There is no mention of specific scientific reading or writing needs by participants, nor mentioning of any reading diagrams, charts, tables and so on. Thus, both students (and teachers) believe that EAP is about language, rather than about disciplinary

discourses, but both groups are unable to articulate what it is that they should be doing. The implication is that they use out-dated and inappropriate approaches to teaching EAP for science that have a negative impact on students' development. This also presents the problem in relation to ideology of language and academic literacy learning where students and teachers don't see the difference between language learning and academic literacy". Teachers agree these activities are not appropriate but do not suggest anything else as an alternative. They are stranded in the minutiae of a communicative language teaching approach. This approach to academic literacy contributes negatively to the students' improvement in their field discipline which should be the road to the inclusion as members of the community of scientists. The institutional management system appears to do little to enhance the quality of EAP learning. Alternatively, they show no consideration at all to monitor the work of teachers of EAP. Hence, this situation cannot provide room for innovation and/or creativity in the teaching of EAP. This can be seen in the decisions made by KIST on the EAP course without consulting or involving teachers and not providing them with teaching facilities and materials (syllabus, enough time for teaching EAP).

6.6 Conclusions from observations and document analysis

6.6.1 *Implementation of National Language Policy*

The study has revealed that the objectives and aims of the National Policy on Language Teaching in Higher Education (NPLTHE) were not implemented by KIST. The study has also revealed the gap in the cursive on assessment after Level 2 in the sense that three assessment criteria signal little about the programme that will guide informal teaching and assessment, if any. No up-date has been made on the provision by NPLTHE up to date (my

observation). Given this, the study confirms that the provision after assessment/testing provides informal course provisions for beginner and intermediate levels only.

6.6.2 Overall contribution of this study to enhance quality of language education

The present study can serve as an eye opener (much has been revealed about things which were taken for granted), for an example, the students' identity. The implications of this situation will be that those classes that have teachers who are knowledgeable about EAP teaching, assessment and feedback, will perform better than those whose teachers who are not equally skilled. In terms of what the academic world believes, this is the first study of its kind in Rwanda on EAP at KIST. As regards the Rwanda Ministry of Education, this is the first study on English language in connection with EAP and science writing programmes in Rwanda. This study has been able to provide a "new model" which can be used by EAP teachers in order to improve students' writing literacies in their disciplines. When this "new" model is compared to the "old" model, the approach as well as the methodology has been improved and there appears to be a discernable shortcut between the Basic academic English and the Specific academic literacy both of which are helpful to science practices.

6.7 Recommendations

This study recommends that in order for EAP to be taught and learnt effectively, the following has to be given priority attention:

6.7.1 KIST Management with respect to students and EAP teachers

6.7.1.1 Students

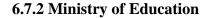
For students to invest in EAP, the course has to be credited like all other subjects. In the present case scenarios, it is understandable that when university students do not see the benefit of a course they ask why they should spend time on it? It follows then that when there is no stimulus to learn, there will be no positive reaction from the learners themselves. This is encapsulated by a statement from student focused discussions. This means that whilst students do not lose anything by not focusing on EAP classes, things might be reversed when EAP is given value and credited. The students claim EAP hours need to be increased. The out-come may be that students' performance and investment in the course will become apparent. The students' regulations should include a strict clause covering students' absences and other unethical issues.

6.7.1.2 EAP and Subject Teachers

In order for EAP teachers to put their efforts together in assisting students learn EAP, KIST need to be considerate when dealing with EAP staff. KIST should interact with EAP teachers and the management should be good listeners. More importantly, KIST should look at EAP teachers as constituents of the KIST academic staff community. How? By recommending them for refresher courses which will solve issues related to quality teaching. They should not be stigmatised based on their profession, but rather be integrated into the KIST

community so as to be able to enjoy the benefits provided by KIST equally to those the other academic staff share. They should not be looked at as different. KIST should value and acknowledge their inputs as added value which contributes to the overall positive change of the institution. This means that, their involvement in EAP decision making as well as its implementation at government and institutional level would be a positive step to begin with.

The present study also suggests that subject teachers collaborate with EAP teachers in planning and designing an academic literacy manual which will include varied texts to be used by EAP teachers. This collaboration can also be extended to the issues of feedback from both teachers. Subject teachers should use one medium of instruction which is officially known as English medium. They should also assist students in providing them with constructive feedback on the language issues as well.



WESTERN CAPE

6.7.2.1 EAP Curriculum/Programme

The EAP Programme/Policy needs to be revisited. There is need for the up-dating of teaching and learning syllabus/course reader for students at different levels (First, Second, Third year). Under normal circumstances, the goal of EAP is that every subject course should have its own teaching content. This stresses the extent to which it is crucial to choose the appropriate content for teaching. For this reason, it is recommended to select the appropriate genre, register and discourse features for the kind of English that needs to be used to teach students in varied fields and sub-fields.

The choice of the material should draw on the needs of the students and should be contextualised for students to exploit knowledge and skills in a meaningful and interpretive way. Policy makers, teachers in disciplinary courses and EAP teachers should work together to determine the material that suits the students' needs. In this vein, conducting a needs analysis becomes helpful in investigating the needs of each individual student's disciplinary academic literacy needs.

6.7.2.2 EAP Approach/Pedagogy

The EAP learning goals/outcomes should be evaluated throughout the academic year by a means of continuous monitoring, socialisation with academic genres (Allwright, 1996) and followed up according to its relevance to the student's subject. This is to suggest that suitable genres, discourses and practices promoted by the student's discipline should be used as opposed to the teaching of any materials which do not contribute to the learning of science literacy by the students.

The following model of writing in higher education is suggested as an alternative to the existing model designed for KIST students.

6.7.2.3 Proposed Model for Teaching and Learning EAP to Science Students

1] NEEDS ANALYSIS	NEEDS ANALYSIS
First Years	Other Years
EGAP	ESAP
(Generic Genres)	(Specific Genres)
2] ACADEMIC SOCIALISATION	CONTENT BASED PRACTICES
(1 st time Scaffolding)	(Scaffolding cont.)
3] BASIC LITERACY	SPECIFIC LITERACY
(Genres of the university)	(Genre of the discipline)
4] GENERAL ACADEMIC LITERACY	SPECIFIC ACADEMIC LITERACY
(Familialisation with university culture)	(Meaning making)
5] ASSESSMENT & FEEDBACK UNIVERSITY ASSESSMENT & FEEDBACK	
6] EVALUATION WESTER	RN CAPE EVALUATION

Figure 6.1 Sources: Three sources are combined. First is the source from Ken Hyland's (2006) Theory on EGAP and ESAP; second source is from a Models by Lea & Street (1998:172) on Writing in higher education; and the last source is a Model from Cope & Kalantzis (1993:196) on teaching and learning experiences.

6.7.2.4 The teaching of the Four Language Skills

The four language skills should receive equal weighting as they interact and all contribute to the overall learning of the academic literacy though each one plays a specific role in learning.

Speaking and listening

Speaking skills can be learnt through interactions, turn-taking between the student and the teacher and between the students. For the speaking skills to be developed efficiently and effectively practice/interactions inside as well as outside classroom are central. Thus, creating opportunities for students to speak in meaningful situations is part of the learning process.

Reading and writing

Reading a range of academic related texts can be helpful. Reading skills should help students to be able to select the needed information in the texts. Skimming and scanning are both vital for the understanding of general as well as specific information in the text. Further, both bottom up and top down tasks should be included in the students' tasks. The writing teacher should teach the students the writing steps such as planning, drafting, re-drafting, proofreading, and writing the final draft.

6.7.2.5 Assessment, Feedback and evaluation

An effective language assessment programme must be linguistically oriented (Cope and Kalantzis, 1993). The assessment plan should include a tim-frame to make the diagnosis as well as formative and summative assessments. Therefore, EAP teachers at KIST need to use the three assessment types. Fluency, critical reasoning and oral skills are assessed under speaking skills. For listening, the assessment tackles how well students receive and give back

information and comments in an interaction. Successful, effective writing results from the correct use of the content and the form. In reading, the assessor or examiner looks at the understanding of the message being transmitted. Therefore, the assessment should focus on the student's ability to comprehend.

Each assessment should be accompanied by feedback and the sum of all feedback should clearly show the students' progress/performance. Evaluation of the EAP course programme as a whole must show whether or not the course has attained its aims/objectives. It is suggested that the evaluation be either a formative process that is continued at regular intervals. Or, in as an alternative, summative evaluation can be done at the end of the programme. This evaluation should also focus on broader issues showing to what extent the programme as a whole has been successful in relation to the students' performances.



$\bf 6.8 \ Limitations \ of \ the \ study$

As one of EAP teachers at KIST, this study has been limited to the investigation of students' writing. Though they also face challenges in speaking, listening and reading, they mostly struggle to write, especially when it comes to write assignments, tests, research projects, and the like, in their disciplines of study.

6.9 Implications for further investigations

The present study reveals that the overall issue affecting Rwandan tertiary students and preventing them from successfully mastering EAP courses has been generally their lack of English background. The rationale for students' failure to become successful in EAP courses at tertiary level came from the ideology that those stakeholders involved in the EAP course

design, as well as the English material designers or developers have for language teaching as opposed to academic literacy teaching. Given that the teaching of language and the teaching of academic literacy are two different concepts, they are consequently taught differently and serve different purposes. Therefore, the issue of confusion and/or misconception has created serious problems for tertiary students (case of KIST) to cope with transition from secondary to tertiary education as far as the English course is concerned. This problem starts with some of the ways the teaching of English at primary schools is handled and subsequently at all other levels. A good foundation towards success in English language teaching and learning starts at the beginning/scratch. As a result, this study suggests that further investigations look at the teaching of English at the Rwanda primary school level because I agree with the idea that "children as they use language, are_consequently learning language, learning through language and learning about language" (Derewianka, 1990:2).

I suggest that further investigations into English language teaching and learning at the primary level consider how a manual including genres such as functional approach to English language: recounts, instructions, narratives, information reports, explorations and arguments can be developed in order to guide the pupils towards progressive and meaningful learning. The teaching of these genres helps pupils explore or be exposed to the structure as well as the variety of language genre features (Derewianka, 1990).

Further research projects can look at the same genres as suggested above for secondary school language education. This may facilitate students' pathway/transition to specific genres used by varied tertiary disciplines, and escape the challenges that their predecessors are presently facing.

6.10 Conclusion

Since language communication is crucial to successful inter-relations in face-to-face situations as well as in writing, high quality EAP programmes are needed to provide a scaffold to students in specific disciplines, such as science. Management at Institutions of Higher Learning, such as KIST in Rwanda can act as forerunners in the country in the battle to raise the status of general courses such as EAP by recognising the value of staff in that particular field. One way of achieving good results is by means of awarding equal opportunities and benefits to these staff members on a par with other colleagues. The long term outcomes of a positive approach to courses like EAP will be high quality graduates boosting the prestige of the College; even more important is the contribution to the country when graduates of the Institution can join their scientific community as literate scientists to add value to their companies and even further afield in the world. This study has attempted to offer an alternative way of viewing, teaching, learning, assessing, and evaluation EAP which has the possibility of being replicated nationally and internationally. However, further research on English teaching and learning will have to be done at the primary and secondary levels in Rwanda so that we can strengthen the teaching English at all levels.

LIST OF REFERENCES

Alderson, J.C. (1992). Assessing reading. New York. Cambridge University Press.

Anderson, G. (1989). Critical ethnography in education: Origins, current status and new directions. *Review of Educational Research*, *59*(3), 249–270.

Archer, A. (1999). Curriculum development through a social semiotic analysis of student poster productions: Visual literacy in engineering. Unpublished thesis manuscript. University of Cape Town. South Africa.

Aschcroft, B. (2001). Post-colonial transformation. London and New York: Routledge.

Ashcroft, B. (2001). On postcolonial futures: Transformation of colonial culture. London: Cromwell Press.

Auerbach, E. (1996). Adult ESL/ literacy. From the community to the community: A guidebook for Participatory Literacy Training. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Bachman, L.F., & Palmer, A.S. (1996). Language testing in practice: Designing and developing useful language tests. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

WESTERN CAPE

Bartholomae, D. (Eds.). (1985). Inventing the university. In M. Rose. When a writer can't write: Studies in writer's block and other composing process problems (134-165). New York: Guilford Press.

Bartholomae, D. (1986). Inventing the university. *Journal of Basic Writing*, 5, 4-23.

Barton, D. and Hamilton, M. (Eds.). (2000). Literacy practices. In D. Barton, M. Hamilton and R. Ivanic. In *Situated literacies*, London: Routledge.

Baynham, M. (2002). Taking the social turn: The New Literacy Studies and SLA. Unpublished Conference Paper.

Bazerman, C. (Eds.). (1994). Systems of genres and the enactment of social intentions. In A. Freedman & P. Medway. *Genre and the new rhetoric* (pp. 79–101). London:

Bazerman, C. (1994). Systems of genres and the enactment of social intentions. In A. Freedman & P. Medway (Eds.), *Genre and the new rhetoric* (pp. 79–101). London: Taylor & Francis.

Bazerman, C. (1998). Shaping written knowledge: The genre and activity of the experimental article in science. Madison: University of Wisconsin Press.

Bazerman, C. (1998). Shaping written knowledge: The genre and activity of the experimental article in science. Madison: University of Wisconsin Press.

Bazerman, C. (Eds.). (2004). Speech acts, genres, and activity systems: How texts organize activity and people. In C. Bazerman & P. Prior. What writing does and how it does it: An introduction to analyzing texts and textual practices (pp. 83–96). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Becher, T. (1989). Academic tribes and territories: Intellectual inquiry and the cultures of disciplines. Society for Research in Higher Education (SRHE): Milton: Oxford University Press.

Becher, T. (1994). The significance of disciplinary differences. *Studies in Higher Education*. 19 (2), 151-161.

Belcher, D. (2004). Trends in teaching English for specific purposes. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 24, 165–186.

Belcher, D. (Eds.). (1995). Writing critically across the curriculum. In D. Belcher & G. Braine (Eds.), *Academic writing in a second language: Essays on research and pedagogy* (pp. 135–154). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Benesch, S. (2001). Critical English for academic purposes: Theory, politics, and practice. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Berkenkotter, C. & Huckin, T.N. (1995). *Genre knowledge in disciplinary communication: Cognitive, culture, power*. Hillsolale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Berkenkotter, C., & Huckin, T. (1995). Genre knowledge in disciplinary communication: Cognition/culture/power between policy and practice. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum. In A. Lin & P. Martin (Eds.), Decolonisation, globalisation: Language-in-education policy and practice (pp. 75–99). Clevedon, England:Multilingual Matters.

Bhatia, V. (1993). Analysing genre: Language use in professional settings. New York: Longman.

.Blommaert, J. (2001). *Discourse: A critical introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bourdieu, P. (1991). Language and symbolic power. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Bourdieu, P. (1996). Higher education: The meaning of growing integration of educational system and self-reflexive practice. *British Journal of Sociology*. Vol. 24, No. 2, April., 2003, p195-207.

Bourdieu, P., and Passeron, J.C. (1996). *Reproduction in education, society and culture*. Beverly Hills: Sage.

Braine, G. (Eds.). (1995). Writing in the natural sciences and engineering. In D. Belcher and G. Braine. Academic writing in a second language: Essay on research and pedagogy. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Braine, G. (2002). Academic literacy and the non-native speaker graduate student. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 1, 59-68.

Britzman, D. P. (2000). Teacher education in the confusion of our times. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 51(3), 200-205.

Brown, H. D. (1996). The Politics of Reconstructing National Identity: A Corporatist Approach. *Australian Journal of Political Science*, *33*(2), 255.

Brown, H.D. (Eds.). (2001). Teaching by principles. White plans. New York: Prentice Hall.

Brown, J.D., & Hudson, T. (2002). *Criterion-referenced language testing*. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.

Bruffee, K. A. (1986). Social construction, language, and the authority of knowledge. *College English*, 48, 773-790.

Bunyi, G.W. (2005). Language Classroom Practices in Kenya. In Lin and Martin's *Decolonization, Globalization: Language-in-Education Policy and Practice (pp131.)*

Chirnside, A. (Eds.). (1986) Talking for Specific Purposes. In D. Harper. *ESP for the university*, pp141-148. Oxford: Pergamin Press.

Callagham, M., Knapp, P. & Noble, G. (Eds.). (1993). *Genre in practice*. In Cope, B. & Kalantzis . The power of literacy: a genre approach to teaching writing. Critical Perspectives on Literacy and Education Series. (pp. 179-202). London and Washington, DC: Falmer Press. P. 53 – 54.

Cameron K, Freeman S. "Culture, congruence, strength and type: Relationship to Effectiveness." Research in organizational change and development. 1991; 5:23–58.

Canagarajah, A.S. (1996). From critical research to practice to critical research reporting. *TESOL Quarterly*, 30(2), 321-331.

Canagarajah, A.S. (1999). On EFL teachers, awareness, and agency 53(3):207-214. ELT Journal: Oxford University Press.

Canagarajah, S. A. 1999. Resisting linguistic imperialism in English teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Canagarajah, S. (1999). On EFL teachers, awareness, and agency 53(3):207-214. ELT Journal: Oxford University Press. WESTERN CAPE

Canagarajah, A.S. (2002). *Critical academic writing and multilingual students*. Ann Arbor. M.I: University of Michigan Press.

Canagarajah, A.S. (2006). *TESOL at forty: What are the issues?* Baruch College and Graduate Center. New York: New York.

Canagarajah, A.S. (2006). Changing communicative needs, revised assessment adjectives: Testing English as an international language. *Language assessment Quarterly* 3, 229-242.

Canagarajah, A.S. (2006). TESOL at forty: What are the issues? TESOL Quarterly, 40, 9–34.

Casanave, C. P. (2002). Writing games: Multicultural case studies of academic literacy practices in higher education. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Caudery, T. (1995). What the "Process Approach" means to practicing teachers of second Language writing skills. TESL-EJ, 1 (4), A-3. Retrieved October 9, 2004, from http://www.Kyoto-su.ac.jp/information/tesl-ej/ej04/a3.html

Celce-Murcia, M. (1997). Grammar pedagogy in second and foreign language teaching. TESOL Quarterly 25(3), 459-480.

Celce-Murcia, M. (eds.). (1991). *Teaching English as a second language*. Boston. Massachusetts: Heinle.

Celce-Mulcia, M., and Olshtain, E. (2000). *Discourse and context in language teaching: A guide for language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Chamot, A.U. & O'Malley, J.M. (1994). *The CALLA Handbook: Implementing the cognitive academic language learning approach*. United States of America: ESL publishing group.

Chen, X. (2010). *Identity construction and negotiation within and across school communities*: The Case of One English as a New Language (ENL) Student. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education*. 9, 163-79.

Chomsky, C. (1970). Reading, writing, and phonology: Education, general education, learning and instruction and education and society. *Vol.*, 40; *No.*, 2.

WESTERN CAPE

Chomsky, N. (Eds.). (1970). Remarks on nominalisation. In R. Jacobs and P. Rosenbaum. *Readings in English Transformational Grammar*, Ginn, Waltham, MA, 184-221.

Christie, F. (Eds.). (1987). *Genres as choice*. In I. Reid. *The place of genre in learning: Current debates* (pp. 22–34). Deakin: Deakin University Press.

Christie, F., & Martin, J. R. (Eds.). (1997). *Genre in institutions: Social processes in the workplace and school*. New York: Continuum.

Coe, R. (Eds.). (2002). The new rhetoric of genre: *Writing political briefs*. In A. Johns. *Genre in the classroom: Multiple perspectives* (pp. 197–207). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Cohen, M. (1994). Listening to students' voices: What university students tell us about how they can learn. *American Educational Research Association*. Atlanta: GA.

Connell, R. W. (Eds.). (1995). Transformative Labour: Theorizing the Politics of Teachers' Work. In M. B. Ginsburg. *The Politics of Educators Work and Lives* (pp. 91-114). New York: Garland.

Cooke, V. (2000) *Linguistic and Second Language Acquisition*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.

Cope, B. & Kalantzis, M. (Eds.). (1993). Introduction: How a genre approach to literacy can transform the way writing is taught. In B. Cope & M. Kalantzis. *The power of literacy*. London: Falmer Press.

Cope, B., & Kalantzis, M. (Eds.). (1993). The powers of literacy: A genre approach to teaching writing. Bristol, PA: Falmer Press.

Creswell, J.W. (1997). Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions. (Paperback – Jul 15, 1997)

Cummins, J. (1984). *Bilingualism and special education: Issues in assessment and pedagogy*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Cummins, J. (1996). Negotiating identities: Education for empowerment in a diverse society *California Association for Bilingual Education*, Ontario, CA

Cummins, J. (2000). Academic language learning, transformative pedagogy, and information technology: Towards a critical balance. *TESOL Quarterly*34, pp. 537-548.

Cummins, J. (2003). BICS and CALP: Origins and rationale for the distinction. In C. B. Paulston & G. R. Tucker (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics: The essential readings* (pp. 322-328). London: Blackwell

Cummins, J. (2010). *The three pillars of English language learning*. EdNebula Staff. The University of Toronto.

Curson, L. B. (1997) *Teaching in Further Education: An outline of Principles and Practice*. Hereford: Paperbacks.

Daly, A and O'Donnell, K. (Eds.). (2008). The *influence of images in reading comprehension assessment in group tests*. In L. Unsworth. 2008. New Literacies and the English Curriculum. Continum: London.

Davies, B. and Harre, R. (1990). Positioning: The discursive production of selves. *Journal* for the Theory of Social Behavior, 20, pp. 43-63.

Delpit, L. (1998). The silenced dialogue: Power and pedagogy in educating other people's children. *Harvard Educational Review*58, pp. 280–298.

Devitt, Michael (1991). Realism and Truth, 2nd edition. Princeton: Princeton University Press

Dias, P., Freedman, A., Medway, P., & Pare, A. (1999). Worlds apart: Acting and writing in academic and workplace contexts. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Dooey, P. (2010). Students' perspectives of an academic pathway program. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, (9) 184-97).

Dudley-Evans, T. (2001). Team-teaching in EAP: Changes and adaptations in the Birmingham approach. In J. Flowerdew & M. Peacock (Eds.), *Research perspectiveson English for academic purposes* (pp. 225–238). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Dudley-Evans, T., & St. John, M. J. (1998). *Developments in English for specific purposes: A multi-disciplinary approach*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Dullay, H., Burt, M., Krashen, S. (1982). Language two. New York: Oxford University Press. English for Specific Purposes. 17(1), 47-66.

Educational International (2002). Education policy: Comparative Education. *Education International*, (2002) *34*(2), 119-130. http://www.eiie. org/main/english/index.html

Ellis, R. (1992). Second language acquisition and language pedagogy. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Erickson, P., & Wendy, G. (1996). English language teaching in a multilingual classroom. Cape Town: university of the Western Cape.

Feez, S. (1998a). *Text-based syllabus design*. Sydney: National Center for English Language Teaching and Research.

Feez, S. (2002). *Heritage and innovation in second language education*. In A. Johns (eds.). *Genre in the classroom: Multiple perspectives* (pp. 43–69). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Ferris, D.R. (2003). Response to student writing: Implication for second language students. Lawrence Erlbaum: Mahwah, NJ.

Flowerdew, L. (2000). Using a genre-based framework to teach organisational structure in academic writing. *ELT Journal*, 54 (4), 369-378.

Flowerdew, L. 2006. "Texts, tools and contexts in corpus applications for writing". Paper presented in invited academic session "Current Trends in Corpus Linguistics Research". 40th Annual TESOL Convention, Tampa, Florida, 16th March.

Flowerdew, J. & Peacock, M. (2001). Research perspective in English for Academic Purposes. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Flowerdew, J., & Peacock, M. (2001). *The EAP curriculum: Issues, methods, and challenges*. In J. Flowerdew & M. Peacock (eds.), *Research perspectives on English for academic purposes* (pp. 177–194). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Freedman, A., and Medway, P. (Eds.). (1994). Learning and teaching genres. Portsmouth, NH: Boynton Cook.

Gee, J.P. (1996). *Social Linguistics and literacies: Ideology in discourse*. London: Taylor and Francis.

Grabowski, J. (Eds.). (1996). Writing and speaking: Common grounds and differences towards a regulated theory of written language production. In L.M. Lay and S. Ransdell. *The Science of Writing*. NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Hall, S., & Crabbe, D. (1994) English f or business and technology cour se design: A guide f or teacher s using the EBT project resources. Singapore: SEMEO Regional Language Centre

Hartley, D. (1992). Teacher appraisal: A policy analysis. Edinburgh: Scottish Academic Press.

Hawkins, M.R. (2005). ESL in elementary education. In E. Hinkley (Ed.). *Handbook of Research in Second Language Learning and Teaching*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Heath, S.B. (1983). Ways with words: Language, life, and work in communities and classrooms. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Heller, D. E. (2006). Merit aid and college access. Madison: Wisconsin Center for the Advancement of Postsecondary Education, U. of Wisconsin.

Hornberger, N.H (1995). Ethinography in linguistic perspective: Understanding School Process. *Language and Education 9* (4), 233-248.

Huckin, T. N. 1988. Achieving professional communicative relevance in a generalized ESP classroom. In ESP in the classroom: Practice and evaluation, ed. D. Chamberlain and R. J. Baumgardner. Hong Kong: Modern English Publications and the British Council.

Hussin, V. (2002). An ESP program for students of nursing. In T. Orr (Ed.), English for specific purposes (pp. 25-39). Alexandria, VA: TESOL

Hussin, V. (2002). An ESP programme for students of nursing. In T. Orr (ed) *English for Specific Purposes* pp 25-40. Alexandria VA: TESOL.

Hadley, A. (Eds.). (2003). *Teaching Language in Context*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

Halliday, M.A.K. (1985). Language as social semiotic: The social interpretation of language and meaning. London: Edward Arnold.

Halliday, M.A.K. (Eds.). (1994). Towards probabilistic interpretations. In E. Ventola. *Functional and systemic linguistics: Approaches and uses*. Berlin: Monograph 55, 39-62

Halliday, M.A.K., and Martin, J.R. (1993). Writing science: Literacy and discursive power. London: The Falmer Press. Gee, J. P. (1999). An introduction to discourse analysis: Theory and method. Routledge, New York, NY

Hammersley, M (2006). Ethnography: problems and prospects', *Ethnography and Education*, 1, 1: 3-14

Hammersley, M., and Atkinson, P. (1983). *Ethnography:* principles in practice. London: Collections shelfmarks.

Hamp-Lyons, I. & Kroll, B. (1997). Writing: Composition, community, and assessment. (TOEFL Monograph Series Report No. 5).

Hamp-Lyons, L. (Eds.). (2006). Assessing second language writing in academic contexts. Ablex: Norwood, NJ.

Hairston, M. (Eds.). (1982/1994). *The winds of change*: Thomas Kuhn and the Revolution in the Teaching of Writing, 113-126. In Sondra Perl. *Landmark essays on writing process*. Davis, CA: Hermagoras Press.

Hayes, J.R. (Eds.). (1996). A new framework for understanding cognition and affect in writing. In C.M. Levy and S. Rangdell. *The Science of Writing*. NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Hairston, M. (Eds.). (1982/1994). *The winds of change*: Thomas Kuhn and the Revolution in the Teaching of Writing, 113-126. In Sondra Perl. *Landmark essays on writing process*. Davis, CA: Hermagoras Press.

Heath, S.B. (1983). Ways with words. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Higginson, F. L. (1996). *Teacher roles and global change* (Issues Paper No. ED-96/WS/24). Paris: UNESCO.

Hinkel, E. (2006). Current perspectives on teaching the four skills. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40, (1): 109-131.

Hinkel, E. (2011). *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning-Volume* 2. Routledge: New York.

Hornberger, N.H (1995). Ethinography in linguistic perspective: Understanding School Process. *Language and Education* 9 (4), 233-248.

Hoy, C., Jardine, C. B., & Wood, M. (2000). *Improving quality in Education*. London; New York: Falmer Press.

http://www.labspace.open.ac.uk). Language and literacy in a changing world.

Hughes, A. (2003). Testing for language teachers. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Huckin, T. N. 1988. Achieving professional communicative relevance in a generalized ESP classroom. In ESP in the classroom: Practice and evaluation, ed. D. Chamberlain and R. J. Baumgardner. Hong Kong: Modern English Publications and the British Council.

Hussin, V. (2002). An ESP program for students of nursing. In T. Orr (Ed.), English for specific purposes (pp. 25-39). Alexandria, VA: TESOL.

Hussin, V. (2002). An ESP programme for students of nursing. In T. Orr (ed) *English for Specific Purposes* pp 25-40. Alexandria VA: TESOL.

Hutchinson, T. and Waters, A. (1987). *English for specific purposes: A learning-centred approach*. Cambridge. New York, Port Chester, Melboume, Sydney: Cambridge University Press.

Hornberger, N.H (1995). Ethinography in linguistic perspective: Understanding School Process. *Language and Education* 9 (4), 233-248.

Hyland, F. (1998). The impact of teacher-written feedback on individual writers. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 7, 255-286.

Hyland, F. (2000). ESL writers and feedback: Giving more autonomy to students. *Language Teaching Research*, 4, 33-54

Hyland, K. (2000). *Disciplinary discourses: Social interaction in academic writing*. Harlow: Longman.

Hyland, K. (2002). EAP: Issues and directions. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*. V, 1; Issue 1, p1-12.

Hyland, K. (2002). Genre: Language, context and literacy. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics* 22, pp. 113–135.

Hyland, K. (2002). Teaching and researching writing. Edinburgh Gate, England: Harlow.

Hyland, K. (2003). Genre-based pedagogies: A social response to process. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 12 (1): 17-29.

Hyland, K. (2003). Second language writing. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hyland, K. (2004). *Disciplinary Discourses: Social Interactions in Academic writing* (Paperback, Jul 22, 2004).

Hyland, K. (2004). *Genre and second language writing*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.

Hyland, K. (2004). *Genre and second language writing*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Hyland, K. (2006). English for academic purposes: An advanced resource book. England: Taylor & Francis Ltd.

Hyland, K. (2007). Genre pedagogy: Language, literacy and L2 writing instruction. Journal of Second Language Writing, 16, 148-164. doi:10.1016/j.jslw.2007.07.005

Hyland, K., and Hyland, F. (2006). Feedback in second language writing: Context and issues. Cambridge/New York: Cambridge University Press.

Hyland, K. and Hamp-Lyons, L. (2002). EAP: Issues and directions. *Journal of English for Academic purposes*, (1): 1-12.

Hyon, S. (1996). Genres in three traditions: implication for ESL. *TESOL Quarterly*, 30, 693-722.

Ivanic, R. (1998). Writing and identity: The discoursal construction of identity in academic writing. Amsterdam: Benjamins.

Ivanic, R. (2004). Discourse of writing and learning to write. *Language and education*. Lancaster: Lancaster University.

Jacobs, H. L. et al (1981) *Testing ESL composition: A Practical Approach*. Rowley, Mass: Newbury House.

Jacobs, H. L., Zinkgraf, S.A., Wormouth, D.R., Hartfiel, V. F., & Hughey, J. B. (1981). Testing ESL composition: A practical approach. Rowely, MA: Newbury House.

Johns, A. (1997). *Text, role and context: Developing academic literacies*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Johns, A. (1998). The visual and the verbal: A case study in macroeconomics. *English for Specific Purposes*, 17, 183–97.

Johns, A.M. (1998). The discourse communities dilemma: Identifying transferable skills for the academic milieu. *English for Specific Purposes*, 7, 55 - 9).

Johns, A. M. (Ed.). (2002). Genre and pedagogy: Multiple perspectives. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Johns, A. M., and Swales, J.M. (2002). Literacy and disciplinary practices: Opening and closing perspectives. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 1, 13-28.

Johns, A.M. (2002). *Genre in the classroom: Multiple perspectives*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Johns, T.F., & Davies, F. (1983). Text as vehicle for information: The classroom use of written texts in teaching reading in a foreign language, 1, 1-19.

Johnson, K. A. (2003). Communication skills for international pharmacy students. In P. Master (Ed.), *Responses to English for specific purposes* (pp. 138–141). Washington, DC: Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs.

Johnson, R. K. (1989). *The second language curriculum*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Jordan, B. (1997). English for academic Purposes. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kandhiah, 2001: The Media and the Ethnic Conflict in Sri Lanka. Marga Institute: Colombo.

Karoro, C.M. (2012). Developing academic literacies in times of change: Scaffolding literacies acquisition with the curriculum and ICT in Rwandan Tertiary Education. *Linkoping Studies in Behavioural Science* No 164.

Kapp R 2004. "Reading on the line": An analysis of literacy practices in ESL classes in a South African township school. Language and education, 18:246-263.

Kilfoil, W.R. and Van der Walt, C. (Eds.). (1997). *Learn 2 teach: English language teaching in a multilingual society*. Pretoria: J.L. van Schaik.

Knorr-Cetina, K.D. (Eds.). (2009). *The ethnographic study of scientific work: Towards a constructivist interpretation of science*. Wesleyan University. USA. (internet source)

Krashen, S. (1981). Second language acquisition and second language learning. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Kress, G.R. (2003). Literacy in the new media age. London: Routledge Falmer.

Kress, G, & Van Leeuwen, T. 1996. Reading images: the grammar of visual design. Routledge: London.

Kress, G., & van Leeuwen, T. (2001). *Multimodal discourse: The modes and media of contemporary communication*. London: Arnold.

Kress, G., et al., (2001). Multimodal teaching and learning: The rhetorics of the science classroom. Continuum: London.

Kress, G., and van Leeuwen, T. (Eds.). (1996). Visual and verbal mode of representation in electronically mediated communication: The potentials of new forms of text. In I. Snyder. *Page to screen: Taking literacy into electronic era*. London: Routledge.

Kuhn, T.S. (Eds.). (1970). *The structure of scientific revolutions*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2008). *Cultural globalisation and language education*. San Jose State University: Yale University Press.

Kuo, C.H. (1993). Problematic issues in EST materials development. *English for Specific Purposes*. 12(2), 171-181.

Lave, J. and Wenger, E. (1991) *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*. Cambridge & New York: Cambridge University Press.

Lea, M., and Street, B. (1998). *Student writing in higher education: An academic literacies approach*. Studies in Higher Education, 23 (2), pp 157-172.

Lea, M., & Street, B. (2006). The academic literacies model: Theory and applications. *Theory into practice*, 45, 368–377.

LeCompte, M.D. and Preissle, J. (2003). *Ethnography and qualitative design in education research*. London: Academic Press Limited.

LeCompte, M. D. and Preissle, J. (2003). *Ethnography and qualitative design in educational Research*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Lemke, J. L. (Eds.). (1998). *Multiplying meaning: Visual and verbal semiotics in scientific text*. In J. R. Martin & R. Veel. Reading science (pp. 87–113). London: Routledge.

Lemke, J.L. (1993). Intertextuality and educational research. *Linguistics and Education*, 4(3-4) 257-268.

Lemke, J.L. (1993). *Talking science: Language, learning, and values*. Brooklyn College. *School of Education*: The Ohio State University.

Lemke, JL (1993). *Intertextuality and educational research*. Linguistics and Education, 4(3-4), 257-268.

Lillis, T. (2003). Student writing as 'academic literacies': drawing on Bakhtin to move from *critique* to *design*. *Language and Education*, *17*, 192–207.

Lillis, T. (2008). Researching academic literacy as social practice: Developing a text-oriented ethnography. Open University.

Lin, A. M. Y., and Martin, L.P.W. (2005). From a critical deconstruction paradigm to a critical construction paradigm: An introduction to decolonisation, globalisation and language in education policy & practice (pp 1–3).

Lin, A. M.Y., and Martin, P. W. (2005). *Decolonisation, globalisation: Language-in-education policy and practice*. Clevedon. British Cataloguing: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Luke, A. (Eds.). (2004). *Two taken on the critical*. In K. Norton and Toohey. Pedagogy and language teaching (pp 22-30). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Macdonald, C. A. (1990). "How many years do you have?" English language skills evaluation. Pretoria: Human Science Research Council.

Macken-Horarik, M. (Eds.). (2002). "Something to shoot for": A systemic functional approach to teaching genre in secondary school science. In A. Johns (Ed.), *Genre in the classroom: Multiple perspectives* (pp. 17–42). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Martin, J.R. (1990). Language and control: Fighting with words. In Walton and Eggington, 12-43.

Martin, J.R. (1993). *Genre and literacy. Modelling context in educational linguistics*. Annual Review of Applied Linguistics 13, pp. 141–172.

Martin, J.R. & Veel, R. (1998). *Reading science: Critical and functional perspectives on discourse of science*. London: Routledge.

Martin, J.R. and Rothery, J. (1980). Writing Project Report Number 1. Department of Linguistics. University of Sydney.

Martin, J.R. and Rothery, J. (1981). Writing Project Report Number 2, Department of Linguistics. University of Sydney.

Martin, J.R., Christie, F., and Rothery, J. (Eds.). (1994). *Social processes in education*: A reply to Sawyer and Watson. In B. Stierer ana J. Maybin. Language, literacy and learning in educational practice. Clevedon: Deakin University Press.

Mason, R. (1998). Globalising education. London: Routledge.

Mauranen A. 1993. Cultural differences in academic rhetoric. Peter Lang.

Mauranen, A. (1993a). Contrastive ESP rhetoric: Meta-text in Finnish-English Economics texts. *English for Specific Purposes, 12, 3-12*.

Miles, M.B., & Huberman, A.M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis*: An expended sourcebook. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Miller, C. (1984). Genre as social action. Quarterly Journal of speech: 151-67.

Ministère de l'Education (1967). UNESCO- UNDP. Projet RWA/97/006.

Mohan, R. (2007). Dodging the crossfire: *Questions for postcolonial pedagogy*. Haverford College: Britain.

Morgan, B. (1995/1996). Promoting and assessing critical language awareness. *TESOL Quarterly*, 5(2), 10-14.

Morita, N. (2004). Negotiating participation and identity in second language academic communities. *TESOL Quarterly 38*, 573–604.

Mugisha, I.S. (2010). Assessment and study strategies: A study among Rwandan students in higher education. Educational Science. Linköping University:

Myers, M. D. "Quality in Qualitative Research in Information Systems". *Proceedings of the 5th Australasian Conference on Information Systems*, 1994b, pp. 763-766.

New London Group (1996). Pedagogy of multiliteracies: Designing local futures. *Harvard Educational Review*. 66 (1), 60-92. London: Routledge. NJ: Erlbaum.

Norman K. Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S. *The Landscape of Qualitative Research* (Paperback - Nov 28, 2007),

North, B. (2000). The development of a common framework scale of language proficiency. Oxford: Peter Lang.

Norton, B.P. & Toohey, K. (2004). *Critical pedagogies and language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Norton, B.P. (1995). *Social identity, investment and language learning*. TESOL Quarterly, V. 29, Issue 1, 9-31.

Norton, B.P (1997). Language, identity, and the ownership of English. *TESOL Quarterly* 31(3): 409-29.

Norton, B.P. (2000). *Identity and Language Learning*: Gender, Ethnicity and Educational Change. Harlow, Essex: Pearson Education.

Norton, B.P. (2000). *Identity and language learning: Gender, ethnicity and educational change*. Longman: New York, NY

Norton, B.P. (2012). *Social identity, investment, and language learning*. TESOL Quarterly, V, 29; Issue, 1; p9-13.

Norton, B.P., and Toohey, K. (2004). *Critical pedagogies and language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nunan, D. 1988. The learner-centred curriculum. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nuttal, C. (1996) Teaching Reading Skills in a Foreign Language. Oxford: Heinmann.

Nuttall, C. 1996. Teaching Reading Skills in a foreign language. Oxford: Heinemann.

Oxford, R. (1990) Language Learning Strategies: What every teacher should know. New York: Newbury.

Oxford, R.L. (1990). Language learning strategies and beyond: a look at strategies in the context of styles. In S. S. Magnan (Ed.). *Shifting the Instructional Focus to the Learner*. Middlebury, VT: Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. 35-55.

Ozga, J., & Lawn, M. (1981). *Teachers, professionalism, and class: A study of organized teachers*. London: Falmer Press.

Paltridge, B. (2001). *Genre and the language learning classroom*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Paltridge, B. (Eds.). (2004). The exegesis as a genre: An ethnographic examination. In L. Ravelli and R. Ellis. *Analyzing Academic Writing: Contextualised Frameworks*. London: Continuum.

Pennycook, A. (1994). *The cultural politics of English as an international language*. Harlow: Longman.

Patton, M. Q. (1989). Utilisation-focused evaluation (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage Pennycook, A. (1997). Vulgar pragmatism, critical pragmatism, and EAP. *English for Specific Purposes*, *16*, 253–269.

Pennycook, A. (1989). *English and the Discourses of Colonialism.*.London and New York: Routledge.

Pennycook, A. (2001). *Critical applied linguistics: Critical an introduction*. London: Mahwah, New Jersey.

Phillipson, R. (1992). Linguistic imperialism. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Phillipson, R. (2009). *English-only Europe? Challenging language policy*. London: Routledge.

Piaget, J. (1980). The Piaget primer. Thinking, learning, teaching. Addison: Wesley Press.

Porter, J. (1992). Audience and rhetoric: An archaeological composition of the discourse community. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Prior, P. (Eds.). (1995). Redefining the task: An ethnographic examination of writing and response in graduate seminars. In D. Belcher & G. Braine. *Academic writing in a second language: Essays on research and pedagogy* (pp. 47–82). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Prior, P. (1998). Writing/Disciplinarity: A sociohistoric account of literate activity in the academy. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Probyn, M. (Eds.). (2005). Language and struggle to learn: The intersection of classroom realities, language policy, and neo-colonial and globalisation discourses in South African schools. In A.M., Lin & P.W. Martin. *Decolonisation, globalisation, language-in-education policy and practice*. Clevedon Hall: Multilingual Matters: 157-81.

Psacharopoulos, G. (1985). Education for Development. London: Oxford University Press.

Ramanathan, V., and Atkinson, D. (1999) 'Individualism, Academic Writing, and ESL Writers'. *Journal of Second Language Writing* 8, 45–75.

Reid, J. (1988). *Quantitative differences in English prose written by Arabir, Chinese, Spanish, and English students*. Ph D. Dissertation. CO: Colorado State University.

Reid, J. M. & Lindstrom, M. The Process of Paragraph Writing Englewood Cliffs. N. J.: Prentice Hall Regents, 1985.

Richards, J.C., and Rodgers, S. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Robertson, R. (Eds.). (1990). Mapping the global condition: Globalization as the central concept. In M. Featherstone. *Global Culture* (pp. 15-31). London: Sage Publications.

Rosenfeld, M., Leung, S., & Olman, P. (2001). The reading, writing, speaking and listening tasks important for academic success at the undergraduate and graduate level. *TOEFL Monograph 21, Educational Training Services*. NJ: Princeton.

Sawyer, R. K. (1998). Review of Elinor Ochs, Emanuel A. Schegloff, and Sandra

Thompson (Eds.), Interaction and grammar. Journal of Linguistic Anthropology, 8 (2).

Scarcella, R. (2003). Academic English: A conceptual framework. The University of California Linguistic Minority Research Institute. *Technical Report* 1, pp. 1-47.

Schutte, O. (1992). The language of science. London: Routledge.

Scollon, Ron. (2001). Mediated Discourse: The Nexus of Practice. London: Routledge.

Seidman, I. (1998). *Interviewing as qualitative research*: A guide for research in Education and in the Social Sciences. New York: Teachers College Press.

Seidman, I. (2006). *Interviewing as qualitative research*: A guide for researchers in education and the social sciences (Paperback - Jan 2006).

Selami. A. (2010) EFL writers' perceptions of portfolio keeping. Assessing writing 15 (2010) 194–203.

Silverman, D. (2000/2004). *Doing qualitative research:* A practical Handbook. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Silverman, D. (2004). *Qualitative research*: Theory, method and Practice (Paperback – May 25, 2004).

Silverman, D. (2004). *Doing Qualitative Research: Second Edition* (Paperback - Dec 8, 2004)

Sinclair, T. J. (1999). Synchronic global governance and the international political economy of the Common place. In M. Hewson & T. J. Sinclair (Eds.), *Approaches to Global Governance Theory*. Albany: State University of New York Press..

Sperling, M. (1996). Revisiting the writing speaking connection: Challenges for research of Educational Research 66, 53-8.

Starfield, S. (Eds.). (2001). I'll go with the group: Rethinking discourse community in EAP. In J. Flowerdew & M. Peacock. *Research perspectives on English for academic purposes* (pp. 132–147). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Strauss, A.L., & Corbin, J.M. (1990). Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Street, B. (1984). Literacy in theory and practice. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Sutton, C. (1992). Developing science and technology education: Words, science and learning. *Department of Educational Studies*. Backingham: Open University Press.

Swales, J, (2004). Genre and second language writing. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Swales, J. & Feak, C. (2004). *Academic writing for graduate students: Essential tasks and skills, 2nd. ed.* Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Swales, J. (1990). *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Swales, J., (2004). *Genre and second language writing*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

UNIVERSITY of the

Swales, J. (2004). *Research genres: Exploration and applications*. The University of Michigan: Cambridge University Press.

Swales, J., & Feak, C. (Eds.). (2004). *Academic writing for graduate students: Essential tasks and skills (eds.)*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Swales, J.M. (1998a). Episodes in ESP: A source and reference book on the development of English for science and technology. New York: Prentice Hall.

Thesen, L. (Eds.). (2006) Who owns this image? Word, image and authority in the lecture. In. L. Thesen and E. Van Pletzen. *Academic Literacy and the Languages of Change*

Thesen, L. & van Pletzen, E. (2006). *Academic literacy and language of change*. British Library Cataloguing: Continuum.

Tollefson, J.W. (2002). *Language policies in education: Critical issues*: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc. Mahwah. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25, 407–430.

Toohey, K. (2000). Learning English at school: Identity, social relations and classroom practice. Clevedon, England: Multicultural Matters.

Unsworth, L. (Eds.). (2008). *Multimodal semiotics: Functional analyses in contexts of Education*. Continuum: London.

Unsworth, L. (2008). New literacies and the English curriculum. Continuum: London..

Vongolis-Macrow, A. (2005). Faculty of Education. *School of Educational Studies*. La Trobe university: Melbourne.

Weedon, C. (1987). Feminist practice and poststructuralist theory. London: Blackwell.

Wenger, E. (1998). *Community of practice. Learning, meaning, and identity*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wenger, E. (2008). Communities of practice: Learning as a social system, (V9N5.cover.4.).

West, C. (1992). A matter of life and death, 61, 20-23.

White, E.M. (1995). An apologia for the times impromptu essay test. College Composition and Communication, 46, 30-45.

Willet, J. (Eds.). (2012). Becoming first graders in an L2: An ethnographic study of L2 socialisation. *TESOL Quarterly*. 29 (3), 473-503. *Doi:10.230713588022*. TESOL International Association

Williams, J. (1989). Style: Ten lessons in clarity and grace. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foreman.

Wood, A., & Head, M. (2004). "Just what the doctor ordered": The application of problem-based learning to EAP. *English for Specific Purposes*, 23(1), 3–17

Xiaoning, C., and Fredonia, S. (2010). *Identity Construction and Negotiation Within and Across School Communities*: The Case of One English-as-a-New-Language (ENL) Student, *Journal of Language, Identity & Education*, 9:3, 163-179

Young, M. (1998). Rethinking Teacher Education for a Global Future: Lessons from the English.. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 24(1).

Zamel, V. (1983). Responding to student writing. TESOL Quarterly, 19, 79-102.

Zamel, V. (1983). *The composing process of advanced ESL students: Six case studies*. TESOL Quarterly, vol. 17, no 2.

Zamel, V. (1993). Questioning academic discourse. College English. 3(1), 20-39.

Zamel, V., and Spack, R. (Eds.). (1998). *Negotiating academic literacies: Teaching and learning across languages and cultures*. Manwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum



LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix 1

Karekezi Mironko Beatrice Kigali Institute of Science and Technology P.O Box 3900, Avenue de l'Armée Kigali – Rwanda

July 31, 2008

The Vice – Rector Academic Kigali Institute of Science and Technology P.O Box 3900, Avenue de l'Armée Kigali - Rwanda

Dear Sir,

Re: Permission for research investigations

I am writing to request permission to do my research investigation at KIST. My research topic is: "Factors influencing learner success in English for Academic Purposes in a Faculty of Science and Technology in Rwanda". My research population will be students in Third and Fourth years as well as teachers of English in the these same years of study. However, only those students who are still learning English now (Third years) and those who completed English for Academic Purposes in the First Semester (Fourth years) during this academic year will be of interest. Also, classroom observation in English course classes as well as courses other than English will be organized.

Please find herewith attached the research permission letter from the Education Higher Degree Committee from the University of the Western Cape (UWC) where I are currently registered as a PhD candidate in the Faculty of Education.

I thank you in advance, dear Sir, for your interest in my studies.

Karekezi MIRONKO Beatrice

Lecturer in English Department and PhD candidate at UWC.

Cc: - Rector

- Director, KLC

- All concerned Heads of Departments and teachers

to seed seek for my Aler signedt Hint you Many need form Rici

Cypy - Nechr - Director K(2

Appendix 2: Rwanda Higher Education Policy

REPUBLIC OF RWANDA





July 2008

Page 1 of 24

1. 0 INTRODUCTION

Relevant high quality, higher education¹ that delivers internationally recognised qualifications has a critical role to play in enabling us to realise our ambitions for sustainable development and economic growth, as well as preparing students for employment and citizenship. Recognising that it is dependent on its human resource, Rwanda is determined to build knowledge based economy, an ambition that is clearly dependent on the building of a higher education system. Beyond its vital role in supporting social and economic development higher education is a force that develops well rounded and engaged citizens, and builds more cohesive and participatory societies.

This document sets out the policy that will guide the development, reform and strategic planning of the higher education sector to enable it to play its essential role in supporting the realisation of our Vision 2020. It spells out specific objectives higher education has to achieve and major corresponding strategies to adopt.

The role of the Government is to develop a policy to deliver a rational system of higher education, to ensure that the sector operates to promote excellence and to advance the public interest in higher education. Higher education involves a partnership between the Government and the higher education institutions, public and private. The Ministry of Education is the lead Ministry, but the Ministries of Finance, Public Service, Health as well as the Minister in the Presidents Office in Charge of Science, Technology, Scientific Research and ICT all play important roles.

Two key agencies, the National Council for Higher Education and the Student Financing Agency for Rwanda play key roles in supporting the Government in implementing its Higher Education Policy. Higher education is delivered by the 25 higher education institutions, thirteen public (6 university sector,5 colleges of higher education and 2 specialist postgraduate) and twelve private who between them are providing higher education for around 44,000 students, as well as engaging in research, innovation and knowledge transfer to support social and economic development.

Higher education institutions are responsible for the creation, absorption and transmission of knowledge. They play a fundamental role in generating new knowledge through research and innovation and transferring this knowledge to support social and economic development. They also build human capacity by education and training students for skilled employment.

2.0. BACKGROUND & CONTEXT

2.1. Background

Higher education is an important component of the Rwanda education system. The major role that it has to play in enabling the country to realise its ambitions for sustainable development and economic growth as well as preparing students for employment and citizenship is now recognised. However, higher education was not given due consideration in the post colonial period with less than 2000 students graduating between 1963, when the National University of Rwanda was founded, and 1994.

Page 4 of 24

¹ Higher education institutions are responsible for delivering education that leads to qualification in the Higher Education Qualification Framework for Rwanda as well as short courses that may, but do not have to, lead to certificates that are credit rated at higher education level. They also carry out research and innovation and offer knowledge transfer and community

In recognition of the essential role that higher education can play in enabling the country to overcome poverty and avoid social and political crisis, the building of higher education has been a priority for the post-Genocide Governments and much progress has been made with significant investment in developing higher education being made by both the Government and the private-sector. Since 1994 the Government, with the support of development partners, has invested in a considerable expansion of the National University, founded four specialist institutes, two colleges of education, two colleges of technology and five colleges of nursing. It has also founded the Institute of Legal Practice and Development, and the Institute for Administration and Management. In the same period 12 new private higher education institutions have been opened.

Rwanda has been characterised of higher level of poverty, social and political crisis leading to 1994 genocide of which unfortunately higher education did nothing to rectify. This is where the fundamental change in higher education lies.

Higher education provision is mainly undergraduate, with the public sector generally catering for full time students who mainly enter higher education on completing secondary school and the private sector mainly for those in employment who wish to study in the evenings and/or at weekends. Postgraduate provision and research, innovation and knowledge transfer remain as yet underdeveloped.

The rapid expansion of higher education has put a significant strain on the available resources. The sector needs significant investment in physical, human and learning resources to enable the delivery of quality higher education. There is a shortage of qualified Rwandans to work in higher education a reliance on expatriate staff in the more senior posts and an urgent need to build human capacity.

The legal framework for higher education has now been put in place with the implementation of the 2005 Law Governing the Organisation and Functioning of Higher Education which defines the operating environment for all higher education institutions, public and private as well as specifying the roles, responsibilities and duties of all institutions. The Law mandates the establishment of two semi-autonomous agencies, the National Council for Higher Education and the Student Financing Agency for Rwanda, both of which have been established by their own Laws. These laws are not built on stone, they shall be amended as necessary to accommodate new realities such as the need to harmonise our system with that of the other member states of the East African Community and the contribution of the private sector in higher education.

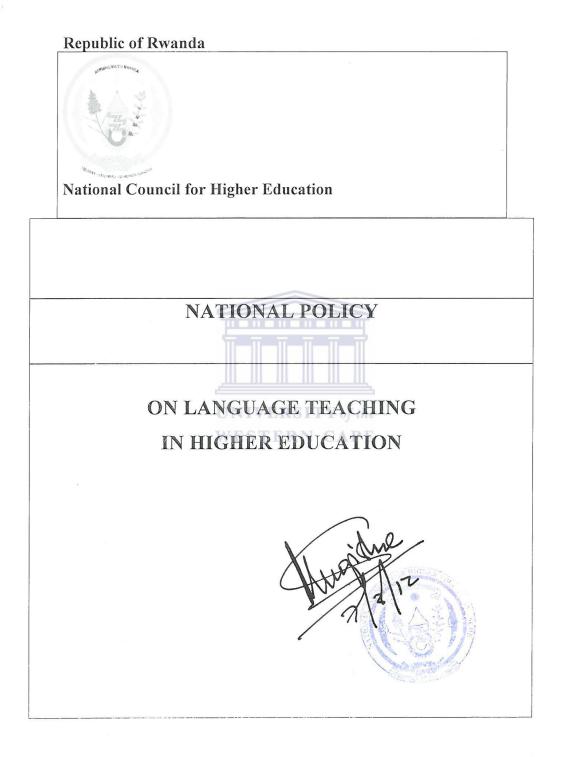
The limited resources that are available for higher education must be invested wisely if the challenging goals are to be achieved with maximum returns on investment. Rwanda needs a higher education system that produces well trained, competent people, and delivers research and knowledge transfer to underpin the move to sustained economic and social development.

2.2 Context

Higher Education in Rwanda does not operate in a vacuum. It is subject to numerous influences and tensions. These come from a variety of sources at a number of levels: National, regional and international. The Government of Rwanda recognises the major international and regional trends and pressures that impact upon the design and delivery of higher education. It is in the context of these that the specific policy objectives of Rwanda for higher education need to be viewed and the challenges it faces in realising them to be considered.

Page 5 of 24

Appendix 3 Rwanda National Policy on Language Teaching in Higher education



Revised April 2007

Revised April, 2007

NATIONAL POLICY ON LANGUAGE TEACHING IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Background and Rationale

In order to impart equal education to all Rwandans, bridge the Francophone-Anglophone divide and move towards a unified and reconciled nation, the Government of Rwanda established a bilingual policy as a way to build an incipient trilingual nation (Kinyarwanda – French - English) able to address the challenges of the globalizing world. Because all public-sector Rwandan HEIs teach in both French and English it is important that every student swiftly brings his or her grasp of these languages up to the level where they can participate in academic activities and learn from lectures. It is also important that graduates can be relied on to be at least competent at writing, reading and speaking both French and English when they take up employment. At the same time we do not wish to extend an already full timetable beyond what is needed for this purpose; it may be assumed that some students achieve this goal through language teaching in primary and secondary schools, so that their time would be better spent focusing on their academic subjects and developing their skills in language for academic and specific purposes during their degrees, rather than on language acquisition *per se*.

This policy lays down minimum national requirements for language teaching in the public-sector HEIs. It aims to ensure that students gain the language skills they need and that languages are taught in the context of the academic disciplines and in parallel with subject study. At the same time it aims to ensure that students' language proficiency level is not a barrier to their studies and to assist students who have a weak language base.

Revised April 2007

The policy is mandatory only for undergraduate students on day-time programmes; evening and distance students should be provided with facilities for improving their language, but HEIs are not required to implement the full provision below. Masters and doctoral students are expected to be proficient in whatever languages they need for their studies, and this may be made a requirement for admission.

HEIs are to organize a common national language centre for teaching, assessing and certifying language competency. This should be established by 2008. Institutions ready to implement the language policy earlier than in 2008 may do so, however.

Provision for Level 1 students

The objectives of this provision are

- to implement to the bilingual policy of the Government of Rwanda,
- to bring all students to a high level of proficiency in a relatively short period of time
- to enhance students' ability to cope with their programme's lecture and other requirements, and
- to enable them to be more competitive in the labour market at home, in the region and beyond
 UNIVERSITY of the

WESTERN CAPE

The course outlined below aims to help students develop abilities in:

- the basic language structure, so as to enable them develop an understanding of spoken and written speech,
- the use of the language in a variety of situations inside and outside the classroom,
- the reading of simple, general and field-specific texts and the writing of assignments,
- the use of conventions in academic writing and related requirements, and
- research skills, including paraphrasing, synthesizing, quoting, referencing and note-taking.

Revised April 2007 4

A national test of language competence shall be devised, and all potential students will be encouraged to take it before leaving school, as self-assessment, and to take steps to improve their language competence between school and entering higher education if the test indicates that they need to do so. On entering higher education all students will be tested again and assigned to one of three broad categories in each language:

- a. Beginners (scoring less than 60% and needing 8-10 hours per week of instruction)
- b. Intermediate (scoring 60-79% per cent and requiring 4-8 hours of instruction)
- c. Advanced (scoring 80% or more and not requiring further instruction)

An appropriate language course shall be provided for students judged to be 'beginners' or 'intermediate', in their weaker language, with students judged to be beginners in both languages being required to take courses in both languages. (Students who score in the intermediate category on both languages may choose which language they wish to improve.) Provision shall be made for 'advanced' students and those judged intermediate in their stronger language to improve their competence, but this need not be by means of formal course provision

This course will not carry credit, but students will be re-assessed in both languages at the end of Level 1 unless they have already tested out in the 'advanced' category. Students are required to pass this test (see below) but language examination results will not form part of the award, nor will they be used to calculate Grade Point Average (GPA) or the award of distinction. Institutions are encouraged to award a separate certificate of language proficiency to all students according to their individual level of proficiency.

Provision for Level 2 students

Students who do not achieve an 'advanced' rating at the end of Level 1 in both languages will be permitted to proceed to Level 2 but will be required to improve their language competence by the end of the Level, and they will be re-tested in languages where this

Revised April 2007 5

level was not achieved. There will be no formal language courses in Level 2, but an *Effective Learning Service* (ELS) – see Student Support and Guidance Policy – will be provided. Lecturers will be scheduled to attend at regular intervals (at least fortnightly) to assist students with the necessary remedial practice and advise on sources of tuition. Remedial classes or materials may be provided, and a reasonable fee may be charged for such materials.

Those who have not reached at least an 'advanced' level by the end of Level 2 will not be permitted to progress to Level 3 until they have done so. They will be permitted to retake the Level 1 language courses as appropriate. Programmes may impose a level of language competency that is higher than the minimum both for admission and for progression beyond Level 2. Such requirements are to be indicated in the Programme Validation Documents and in the Student Handbooks.

Language assessment after Level 2

There will be no further formal teaching or assessment of languages after Level 2, but students will be required to demonstrate during the final year presentation of projects their ability to answer questions in both French and English. Institutions may choose to offer courses in communication skills and/or languages for academic purposes. All academic staff are responsible for assisting students in understanding and expressing themselves within their discipline in the language in which it is taught. Staff are prohibited from teaching in Kinyarwanda in HEIs (except on modules specifically teaching Kinyarwandan language or literature); the official teaching languages in Rwandan HEIs are French and English.

Each HEI is to encourage bilingual teaching on each degree programme so that students are compelled to study in both languages, but a given module should normally be taught and assessed in a single language. Where this is not the case a validation process will have to occur in which the institution assures itself that internal and external moderation

Revised April 2007 6

can be carried out in both languages. A change of language for a module shall require that it be revalidated.



E3 A dream

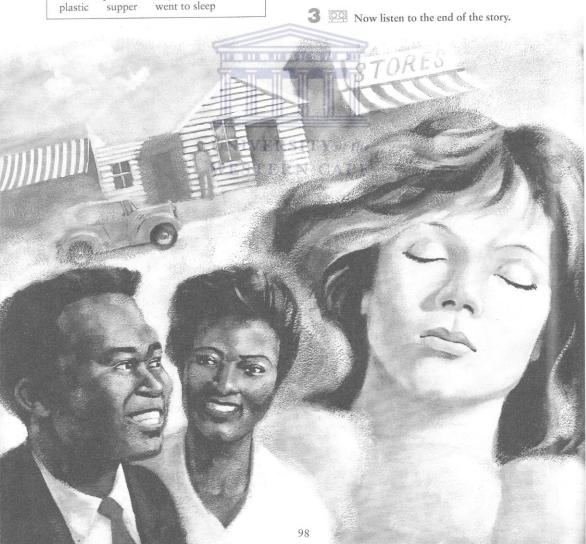
Listening for gist; listening for exact comprehension; discussion or writing skills work; Past Progressive tense; vocabulary; pronunciation (weak forms of words).

You are going to hear the first part of a story. Before you listen, look at the words and expressions in the box. (They come in the story in the same order.) If there are any that you don't know, ask about them or look them up in a dictionary. What do you think happens in this part of the story? Listen to the recording and see if you are right.

Now listen to the second part of the recording twice. When you have done that, work in small groups and try to remember and write down what you heard as exactly as possible. The words and expressions in the box will help you (but three of them shouldn't be there).

unusual episodes hard to tell 1930s World War II on farms barn children didn't last scenes laughing smiling puzzled connect

moped tent camp sites by myself convenient facilities safer hedge hidden I camped rough I pitched my tent wood pleasant plastic supper went to sleep



Listening

Pronunciation. How are these words usually pronounced: was, and, for, of, to, that, were, from? Listen to the recording and see if you were right. Practise saying the sentences. Then ask other students what they were doing yesterday at a particular time.



Tell the class what you have found out.



DO EITHER EXERCISE 5 OR EXERCISE 6.

5 Choose one of these questions.

Have you ever had an experience of telepathy (knowing or dreaming what is happening to somebody else)?

Have you ever had a dream which told you what was going to happen in the future?

Have you ever experienced a strange coincidence?
 Or have any of these things happened to someone you know?

1. Write at least 100 words about the question you have chosen. Write on every second line of your paper. Don't spend more than ten minutes. When you have finished, exchange stories with another student. Read the other student's story and ask two or more questions about what happened.

Try and make your story better by doing some of the things in the box. You can look at the written version of the dream story on page 133 if you want.

Dividing the story into paragraphs
Using conjunctions like and, because, but,
though, when

Using relative pronouns like *that*, *which*, *who*Not making all the sentences the same length –
using a variety of longer and shorter
sentences

6 Choose one of the questions from Exercise 5. Work with three or four other students. Tell your story to the group. The group should choose the one or two most interesting stories to tell to another group or to the whole class.

Learn/revise: camp; camp site; coincidence; dream; farm; plastic; scene; story; supper; tent; wood; the future; the 1930s; World War II; connect; go to sleep; happen; hide (hid, hidden); last; smile; travel; convenient; pleasant; safe; strange; unusual; in order; by myself.

SKILLS FOCUS F4 Nice woman, 42

Fast reading for specific information; listening for detail; asking for things when you don't know the exact words.



SILVER CROSS detachable coach Pram (navy), shopping vay axcellent clean condition, 530; Carry Cot, 55; Baby Bath, 52.50; Carry Cot, 55; Baby Bath, 52.50; Alars, syngod working order, needs stokes, now mains adapter, 540; 54 Adard a new mains adapter, 540; 54 Adard Cassettes, 510 each, very good condition, ideal Xmas presents apply 34 Kynaston Road, Didcot, Oxon. evenings.

THE TIMES (1814–1985). This Oxon. evenings.

THE TIMES (1814-1985). This
THE sque someone an original

Xmas give someone an original issue dated the very day they were born. £12.50 or 2 for £21. Tel 01-486 6305 or 0492 3314

PARTYMANIA, everything for your party in one "funtastic" store. — your party in one "funtastic" store. — 179 Kingston Road, Oxford 513397, own parking.

own parking.

GIVE HER a luxurious Christmas with a special gift set of soothing bath, body and face oils. Send 9,50 to Claydon Aromatherapy, 107 Marine Parade, Worthing BN11 30G.

LADIES NARROW SHOES. AA and narrower, sizes 2½-11½
AA and narrower, sizes 2½-11½
Also wide EE, SAE Murie
Hitchcock Shoes, 3b Castle Mews
Arundel BN18 9DG.

1 Fast reading practice. Look at the small ads and see how quickly you can answer the questions.

- 1. What does the cheapest metal detector cost?
- 2. A man in South Essex is looking for a friend. How old is he?
- 3. Will Christine improve your mind or your body?
- 4. Which costs more a 400-year-old cottage near Winchester or a 5-bedroom house in Wales?
- 5. Why is today a special day for Paul?
- 6. How much will two bottles of Château Latour 1964 cost you?
- 7. What town do you write to for bath, body and face oils?
- 8. Where can you buy things for a party?
- 9. How long will it take you to learn to make a guitar? 10. Does the lady who is bored with the cat prefer tall
- or short men? 11. How much will it cost you to give somebody a
- pound (1lb) of smoked salmon and a bottle of champagne (with a message)? 12. You can buy something that was produced on the
- day you were born. What? 13. Somebody is offering a baby bath for sale. How
- much for? 14. Does the nice 42-year-old woman smoke?
- 15. How many nationalities has Olga got?

Look again at the 'contact ads' (the ones in which people are advertising for friends). Write a contact ad for yourself or a friend.

One, two, three... READY FOR ANOTHER BABY?

ALL STITCHED UP Birth without getting peedled

Milli

3 Do you know the pronunciation, meaning and use of all of these words? Check them in a dictionary if necessary, or ask your teacher.

advertise an advertisement a small ad a poster a sale a bargain a gift a catalogue a price choice quality value free cheap expensive save

Appendix 5 IELTS Task

Make a copy of the blank Reading answer sheet at the end of the book and do this Practice test.

Note: There is no separate answer key for this test. You will find the answers as you work through the exercises in the rest of the book.

page I

IELTS PRACTICE TEST 1 READING

TIME ALLOWED: 1 hour NUMBER OF QUESTIONS: 39

UNIVERSITY of the

Instructions

All answers must be written on the answer sheet

The test is divided as follows:

Reading Passage 1

Questions 1-13

Reading Passage 2

Questions 14-25

Reading Passage 3

Questions 26-39

Start at the beginning of the test and work through it. You should answer all the questions.

If you cannot do a particular question leave it and go on to the next. You can return to it later.

The Reading Test

38

1 K 1 3

READING PASSAGE 1

You should spend about 20 minutes on Questions 1–13 which are based on Reading Passage 1 on pages 2 and 3.

RELIGIOUS DENTISTRY

Bali is, without doubt, one of the most culturally rich islands in the world. In fact, its carved temples, dances and immaculately manicured rice terraces do all seem too perfect to be true, even down to the people's smiles. But take a closer look at those smiles and the perfect teeth do seem a bit too perfect, and for good reason. Those flattened teeth are the result of an important piece of dentistry that every young Balinese man or woman experiences in their life, known as potong gigi, or tooth filing.

Tooth filing is part of Bali's religious traditions and is not performed for cosmetic reasons. In fact, so important is the tooth filing ceremony that without it, the Balinese believe they may experience serious social or behavioural problems later in life, or their personality may change altogether.

Balinese religious life is surrounded by a belief in a variety of deities – gods and demons that inhabit different levels of the cosmic and real worlds. These deities range from the most holy in the mountains to the lowest that inhabit the ground and the sea. There are gods and goddesses in every walk of life which have special forces of their own. They inhabit temple statues, trees, even fly through the air. They exist together in a dual concept of good and evil, clean and dirty, etc. As such, both the good and the evil spirits must be appeased, and

offerings are thus made at the myriad temples on the island.

It is not only the good spirits that are worshipped, for Bali has a dark and evil side too. Terrifying demons and monsters walk the earth and although they are seldom seen, they too must be appeased. These demons can take over and inhabit the body of an animal or human and wreak havoc in the community, so it is very important to strike a balance between offerings made to all spirits that swarm the island. At every stage in a person's life, he or she is susceptible to influences of the supernatural - from demons and layak, to good spirits which may bring luck. Purification of the body and mind is therefore central to Balinese religious life and the tooth-filing ceremony represents one such rite of passage from childhood to becoming an adult.

According to the Balinese, long pointed teeth resemble the fangs of animals and these give the person characteristics of the animal sides of human nature and ferocity. The Balinese believe there are six of these evil qualities: desire, greed, anger, intoxication, irresoluteness and jealousy. These are liable to flare up, along with animal instincts, when the canines are still sharp. To prevent this, the points of the canines are filed down, together with any prominent points of the lower teeth in a special potong gigi ceremony. Although this may prevent



1274

IELTS Preparation and Practice

the person taking on animal instincts and beautify the smile, it is, unfortunately offset by early tooth decay since the protective enamel is removed from the points of the teeth, exposing them to acid decay. The situation is exacerbated in those who go on to chew betel nuts, since the caustic lime rapidly attacks the teeth.

The potong gigi ceremony usually is undertaken for members of the same family together since it is a very expensive occasion to host. It is often necessary to wait until the youngest child is of age. Girls are ready for tooth filing only when they have reached sexual maturity and boys are usually older, about 17 or at least after puberty. A person must have their teeth filed before

marriage and since marriage is early, the ceremony is often undertaken as a prenuptial event.

The high priest is consulted first to choose an auspicious day from the Balinese calendar. Every day has a dif-. ferent function - a best day for rice planting, best day for cremations and other festivals, as well as tooth-filing days. The dentist's chair, so to speak, is specially constructed for the ceremony from bamboo in the form of a rack covered with coconut leaves, blankets and a variety of offerings and frangipani flowers. Surrounding the platform is food for the guests and a huge display of skewered suckling pig, fruit, and whole roasted chickens adorn the entrance to the ceremony room.

Questions 1-6

Choose the appropriate letters A-D and write them in boxes 1-6 on your answer sheet.

- 1 The Balinese have their teeth filed
 - A to have a perfect smile
- B for cosmetic reasons

CAPE

- C to avoid problems in life
- D to change their personality

- 2 Balinese spirits
 - A are usually easily seen
- B are only found in the mountains
- C can all fly through the air
- D can be found anywhere

- 3 Layak are probably
 - A good spirits

- B evil spirits
- C tooth-filing experts
- D people whose teeth have been filed

The Reading Test

- 4 When do many Balinese have their teeth filed?
 - A just before getting married
- B as part of the marriage ceremony
- C in early childhood
- D when the high priest has time
- 5 Where does tooth filing take place?
 - A in the dentist's surgery
- B at the village temple
- C on a special platform
- D in the family residence
- 6 What is the most likely source of this passage?
 - A an undergraduate essay
- B a scientific journal
- C a current affairs news magazine
- D an airline magazine

Questions 7-13

Do the following statements agree with the views of the writer in Reading Passage 1?

In boxes 7-13 on your answer sheet write:

YES if the statement agrees with the writer

NO if the statement contradicts the writer

NOT GIVEN if it is impossible to say what the writer thinks about this

- 7 Most Balinese are nervous about having their teeth filed.
- 8 Only the canine teeth are filed down.
- 9 Tooth decay soon occurs in the filed teeth.
- 10 Balinese religious tradition is rich and varied.
- 11 The tooth filing is done by the high priest.
- 12 There is a feast after the filing has been done.
- 13 Balinese custom does not permit the filing to be done for more than one person at a time.

WESTERN CAPE

1 RT6

-8

IELTS Preparation and Practice

раде 6

DOMESTIC PETS IN NEW URBAN AREAS

The role of urban design in successful pet ownership

This paper summarises the findings of an investigation into the role of urban design in successful pet ownership. There are several reasons why planners should consider pets in decisions about residential and open space development.

A People are not generally aware of the popularity of pet ownership in Australia. The Morgan Research surveys estimate that in 1992, 37% of Australian households owned one or more dogs, and 30% owned one or more cats. Fifty-three per cent of all households owned either a dog or a cat. Petowning households are clearly a substantial group within the community.

B Research shows that pets play an important role in teaching children about sharing, caring, communication and responsibility. They also act as companions and protectors, stress relievers and in some cases help to foster family cohesion. While pets are traditionally associated with familytype households, they are just as important to households without children; indeed they are often surrogates for children in childless families. This applies particularly to the elderly, who usually form very close associations with their pets. In an era when the population is ageing and more people are living alone, pets can provide valuable relief from loneliness.

C Urban pet management has been the subject of extensive debate among veterinarians and those involved in local government for some time. Part of the reason is that people complain more readily about other people's pets than ever before. Emphasis on urban consolidation has meant that smaller homes and back gardens and multi-dwelling developments not only discourage people from owning pets but also place greater demands on scarce public open space. Pet owners may face tougher restrictions from either their local council or resident management committee.

D The term socially responsible pet ownership has emerged to describe a set of responsibilities to which pet owners are now expected to adhere. In meeting their responsibilities pet owners need to consider:

- Providing an enriching environment to reduce unwanted behaviour; e.g. excessive barking.
- Confining dogs to their premises. The advantages of this include protection from catching disease, being run over and fighting. Ideally cats should be confined to the house at night for their own protection where practicable.
- Training pets to alter unacceptable behaviour.
- Exercising dogs, especially if they spend long periods on their own.
- E It might be tempting to prescribe different pets for different types of housing. Some people already have firm views about pets and housing type,

1 RT7



IELTS Preparation and Practice

mostly in relation to dogs, e.g. that the only environment for a dog is in conventional detached housing or that a "big" dog is only suitable in the country. However, suitability is as much dependent on the quality of space as it is on the quantity.

A dwelling that overlooks areas of activity is ideal for pets because it increases the amount of stimulation that can be received from the property, e.g. dwellings that overlook a park or are adjacent to a busy street. This is one way to alleviate boredom and the negative behaviours that sometimes result.

Preferably a dog should have access to some outdoor space. Open space is not essential for a cat provided an enriching environment is maintained indoors, e.g. a bay window or internal fernery. Ideally dogs should have access to all areas of open space on a property. On the whole a dog's behaviour is likely to be better if he or she can see the street. Although the dog may bark at passersby in the street, there will be less likelihood of excessive barking that might arise through boredom. Providing a dog with surveillance of the street also enhances public security - a very positive benefit.

F With adequate fencing, a dog will be confined to the property. Cats are

less easily constrained and are discussed below. The standard paling fence will restrain almost all dogs. They are recommended for side and rear boundaries. Solid front fences limit the view of the outside world and are not recommended. The dog will tend to be less roused by sound stimuli if he or she can see passers-by or activities in the street. However, it is important to ensure that the dog cannot get through the fence. Furthermore, all gates should be fitted with a return spring self-closing device.

Cats are not as easily restrained as dogs as they are more agile and have quite different notions of territoriality. Mostly this does not create a problem, although difficulties may arise in environmentally sensitive areas where cats may prey on wildlife. It is recommended that cats be confined to the house at night for their own protection.

The pleasures and benefits of pet ownership should be available to everyone. However, owning a pet brings with it responsibilities to which we are increasingly being called to adhere. It is hoped that the guidelines will encourage people to think about pets in decisions about residential and community development. If they do, pet ownership will not be prejudiced by the push for urban consolidation.

The Reading Test 11. 4

Questions 19-24

Do the following statements reflect the claims of the writer of Reading Passage 2? In boxes 19–24 on your answer sheet write:

YES if the statement agrees with the writer

NO if the statement contradicts the writer

NOT GIVEN if there is no information about this in the passage

- 19 Research shows that more than half of Australian families have both a cat and a dog.
- 20 Many pets get lonely when their owners are away from home.
- 21 Although having outdoor space available is good for cats and dogs, it is not absolutely essential.
- While fences are good for keeping animals off the streets, they should not block the animal's view of street activities.
- 23 Dogs should be encouraged to bark at everybody going by.
- 24 It is safer for cats if they are kept in the house at night.

Question 25

Which of the following statements A-D best reflects the views of the writer of Reading Passage 2?

Choose the appropriate letter A-D and write it in box 25 on your answer sheet.

- A Although many people keep dogs in the city, this is not truly a suitable environment for them.
- **B** Although the city is less satisfactory than the country for keeping pets, it is still recommended that families with children and older people have a pet of some kind.
- C Keeping pets in cities is appropriate so long as the owners ensure they do not annoy others.
- **D** Having a pet in the city can be a rewarding experience for all concerned provided sensible precautions are taken to ensure the pet has a satisfactory environment.

1 RT9

12

IELTS Preparation and Practice

Appendix 6 Biology

Second Year, Third Year and Fourth Year Students' Second Semester Course Outline of 2010

Part I. Second Year Course: MODULE DESCRIPTION FORM

- 1. Module Code: BIO 3222
- 2. <u>Module Title:</u> Microbial Diversity (Microbial Taxonomy and characteristic features in the Classifications of Bacteria, Fungi, Algae and Protozoa)
- 3. Level: 2 Semester: II Credits: 10

4. Indicative Content

- 4. Classification of Microorganisms based on Major Characteristic Features in
- 4.1. **Microbial Systematic:** related to the microbial evolution and phylogeny of microbial diversity; molecular chronometers and classical approach by numerical taxonomy; molecular based classification for the phylogenetic groups of prokaryotes, eukaryotes, plankton and their productivity.
- 4.2. Bacterial or Procaryotic Diversity: which includes, the phototropic bacteria, aerobic chemolithotrophic bacteria, budding and appendaged bacteria, sheathed bacteria, bacteria with gliding motility. In addition their classification into Gram-positive and Gramnegative bacteria as cocci or rods, endospore forming rods or non-spore formers, Mycobacteria, Actinomycetes, Mycoplasmas and others.
- 4.3. Archaeal Diversity: Cell wall less cellular structure, metabolic and other physiological functions of Archaea; diversity of the Archaea on the basis of their ecology, methanogenesis, sulphate reduction ability, and their extreme halophilic property.
- 4.4. Biodiversity of Eukaryotic Microorganisms: Morphological, physiological, and ecological diversities of the Fungi, Algae, and Protozoans. This will include, growth and reproductive diversities of the Filamentous Fungi, and yeasts like the Zygomycetes, Ascomycetes, Basidiomycetes and Deutromycetes; the morphological structure diversity of the Algae and the Protozoan groups which include, their chloroplasts, reproductive life cycles and the role of the ecological and evolutionary regulations of both groups of the microorganisms.

General and Detail Course Outline:

Chapter 1 Major Characterizatistic Features:

- 1.1. The Cell and its Structure: Eukaryotes Prokaryotes
 - Morphological Characteristics
 - Chemical Characteristics
 - Cultural Characteristics
 - Metabolic, Antigenic and Genetic Characteristics
 - Pathogenicity and Ecological Characteristics
- 1.2. Microbial Classification, Nomenclature, and Identification
 - Classification; the goals of classification;

Appendix 7 Continuous Assessment on Microbial Diversity, Second year

Section A (Compulsory, 10 marks) Attempt to answer all of the given 6 questions

- 1.1. Under which general group are the Arachaea, Bacteria and Eubacteria categorized together and in which general group are the Fungi, composed of the yeasts and molds together with the Protoza and Algae are grouped and what are the main reasons for both these two categorizations?
- 1.2. Is it at all true to say that microorganisms of the same strains and species are very far related than those of the other taxonomical ranks known as the Domain, Kingdoms and Phyla which are more closely related to the highest possible percentage? Why do you think so?
- 1.3. a) What do we mean by the term "taxon"? Is this applicable to all groups of living organisms or is it used only for Microorganisms?
 - b) Which branch of taxonomy is that the processes of determining a particular isolate to belong to a recognized taxon?
 - c) What do we call, in the field of microbiology, the special strain designated as a particular permanent specimen for all the rest of the other strains of a species?
- 1.4. a) What are the fungi group called of they exist alternating between a yeast and a mold form?
 - b) What do we mean by these two terms of the fungi form known as the Molds and Yeasts?
 - c) What do you know about the term Candidiasis? Is true to say that this means a disease of the genitourinary tract caused by the group of bacteria individually known as Trichomonas vaginalis?
 - d) How is this disease indicated with the term shown above at (c) transmitted from person to person?
- 1.5. What is the only protozoal disease of the genitourinary tract caused by the flagellated organism? And what is the name of this particular disease?
- 1.6. What are the matching phrases considered as the correct answers to the following question-phrases or terms?

- a) What cellular sizes and shapes have the Spirocheates of the bacterial groups
- b) The morphological and physiological features of the bacterial group known as the Campylobacter species:
- c) The Red Algae groups of Division Rhodophyta, having an approximate 3900 species, are with what morphological features?
- d) What are the fungal pathogens that cause the disease known Ohio Valley Fever and a yeast causing lung infections?

Section II: Essay/Descriptive Questions (10 Marks) Attempt any <u>Two</u> of the following <u>Four</u> given Questions.

- 2. What are the major comparative distinguishing features between each the following pair of organisms?
 - a) Spirocheates and Rickettesia
 - b) Betta-Proteobacteria and Delta-Proteobacteria
 - c) Pseudomonas and Acetobacteria
 - d) Escherichia coli and Vibrio cholera
 - e) Mycobacteria species and Neisseria spp.
- 3. What are the taxonomical differences and similarities between the group of microorganisms known as the Golden Brown algae and the Euglenoids?
- 4. From what you have heard or known about the morphological, physiological, and taxonomical characteristics of the bacterial groups known as the *Streptococcus*, *Staphylococcus*, *Clostridium* and *Cornebacterium* species, write a detailed essay concerning all these facts of these features.
- 5. Write a detailed essay on the two hypothetical speculations by which the fact that eucaryotyes' development is understood to be from the prokaryote ancestors. Discuss also the three methods used for the description of the arrangement of microbes in to different taxa and their general classification systems.

Appendix 8 Biology Test

Course Code: BIO 3322

Course Title: Medical Microbiology I
Level of Students: Third Year, Sem II, 2010

- C) Major Objectives of the Exercise and the major contents of the final Laboratory Work Report must be the following issues:
- 1. To be able to perform and exercise more and more practice of direct microscopic examination of Microorganims, again possibly for the third time
- 2. To be able to perform Culture methods of inoculation on solid media for microorganisms from:
 - Single pure colony of organism samples in broth or pure saline liquid
 - Different samples of suspension of organisms in two different materials
- 3. To be able to observe the colony morphology of the isolated organisms from the above samples on the general culture media and describe the suspected organism at least by the Genus name level
- 4. To be able to perform pure culture of the isolated organisms from the mixture of the first general culture media by inoculating on the available selective culture media for each suspected organism of the examined samples given
- 5. To be able to identify the pure cultured organisms by colony morphological comparative description, and using the available various kinds of Biochemical identification techniques by using various important enzymes, proteins, sugars, acids and other available biochemical reagents
- 6. To be able to detect the susceptibility of the isolated and identified organisms against the available antimicrobial agents if possibly they supplied to us
- 7. Finally to be able to describe the isolated and identified microorganisms from the point of view of the description of the three types of Symbiotic Associations:
 - Whether the organisms identified are examples of having a symbiotic association of either mutualism, or commensalism or parasitism
 - If any of these organism are said to show either commensalism or mutualism symbiotic associations then to be able to express with which of the human body parts they have these associations.
 - If any of these organisms are said to have parasitism type of symbiotic associations, then to be able to describe what infectious life cycle they have in the human body, how they cause the infectious disease suspected, what could be the clinical and laboratory diagnostic features of these parasitic agents and how the infectious disease could be treated.
- 8. The Practical Exercises to be performed to achieve the above Objectives and Reporting points:

- The whole group of students will be divided in to two Groups of 17 and 16 Students each
- 2. Each group will take the practical exercise work every one week after the other under the following procedures of work:

e) First Exercise:

- o Samples of pure organism colony or solution will be given from the lab
- Each student will perform direct microscopic proper examination of either or wet-mount, hanging drop examinations; Gram-staining, and/or spore-, flagella- or capsule-staining; and should be able to record all types of microscopic observation of the sample examined
- Samples of pure water, soil mixed into mud solution, and/or self-hand wash of each person will also be used to perform the same type of the above direct-microscopic examination; and should be able to record all types of microscopic observation of the sample examined

f) Second Exercise:

- From Samples of the pure organism colony, inoculate on the available general culture media and try to observe the colony morphology and record it by size, shape, and color of all the mixture of the growing colonies on the plates used
- From Samples of the other materials like the pure water, mud solution of soil mixture, and the self-hand wash separately inoculate on the available one or more general culture media and observe to record similarly the colony morphology of all the growing colonies of each plate

g) Third Exercise: VESTERN CAPE

- From the colonies of the general culture media of all the given samples indicated above, pick single colonies and inoculate them on different available selective culture media to get their pure culture colonies.
- From each of the pure culture colonies obtained in the selective media, pick single colonies and inoculate them into the respective biochemical reagents that can help to identify the growing isolated organisms by both genera and species names.

h) Final Exercise:

o For all the isolated and identified organisms that are given their genera and species names write a the final laboratory work report consisting all of the above indicated activities and then describing all the major types of symbiotic associations with the human body and express the clinical and laboratory diagnostic features of the parasitically associated organisms with their mode of treatment and pathogenicity description.

Appendix 9 Physics

Exam on Semiconduct Physics, Third year

INSTRUCTIONS

- 1. This paper contains FOUR (4) questions.
- 2. Section A is compulsory; and answer any TWO (2) questions in section B.
- 3. Each question counts 20 marks.
- 4. No written materials allowed.
- 5. Write all answers in the booklet provided.
- 6. Do not forget to write your Registration Number.
- 7. Do not write any answers on this question paper.
- 8. You may use the following information if needed: C=3.10⁸m/s

Mass of electron: 9.11x10⁻³¹kg Elementary charge: 1.6x10⁻¹⁹C

Boltzmann constant k=1.38x10⁻²³J/K



- ii. In a p type semiconductor, express the concentration of holes in valence band as a function of intrinsic concentration n;
- iii. Use the relation in ii) to express the position of Fermi level in a p type semiconductor relative to intrinsic level. Draw the corresponding band diagram, indicating the CB and VB edges, the intrinsic energy level and the Fermi energy level. (8 marks)
- c) Calculate the contact potential (built-in potential) of a silicon p-n junction operating at 300K for $N_a = 10^{14} \text{cm}^{-3}$ with $N_d = 10^{16} \text{cm}^{-3}$. (4 marks)

QUESTION III /20

- a) A p-n junction is made by ion implantation.
 - i. What is a depletion layer and how is it formed? Sketch a diagram to show how the electric potential changes across this layer;
 - ii. Using Gauss's law, find the expression of the electric field distribution within the depletion layer and then find the charge balance requirement; and sketch the electric field as a function of distance. (12 marks)

- b) An abrupt Silicon P-N junction has $n_a = 10^{18}/\text{cm}^3$ on one side and $n_d = 5 \times 10^{15}/\text{cm}^3$ on the other side.
 - (i) Calculate the Fermi level position relative to intrinsic level at 300k in the P and N regions;
 - (ii) Calculate the contact potential;
 - (ii) Draw an equilibrium band diagram for the junction and determine from it the contact potential. Compare its value with the value found in (b) ii).

The intrinsic concentration of electrons in Silicon is $n_i = 1.5 \times 10^{10} / \text{cm}^3$

(8 marks)

QUESTION IV

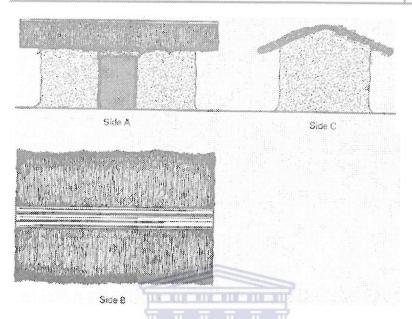
- a) Consider a solid conducting rod with length L and cross section A. The rod contains N electrons.
 - i. Considering one electron, write its equation of motion and then find its velocity. Define then the mobility of the electron;
 - ii. Considering the motion of all electrons in the rod, find the density of current as a function of applied electric field;
 - iii. Then find the expressions for conductivity and resistivity of the rod;
 - iv. Extend the expression of the conductivity to the case of a semiconductor;

UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE

Appendix 10 Mechanical Engineering

MEE 3111- ENGINEERING DRAWING AND CAD

2010

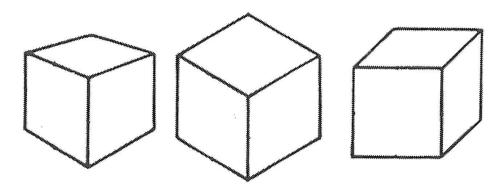


In engineering we come across situations like these and that's why we are going to spend some few hours on analyzing them.

II.2 Definitions

Engineering items are three dimensional objects. The representation of such products on a two dimensional surface such as a drawing sheet can sometimes be ambiguous in revealing the exact shape (geometry) and correct size (dimensions) of the object. You should have realized it in the previous example where objects geometry is distorted and some of the sides are not visible. Look again at the following figure it represents a cube indifferent ways, these are three different methods used by engineers to represent three dimensional objects called perspective, isometric and oblique pictorial projections respectively.

.lan 2010



For the sake of clearness and precision industrial items are often represented using the method known as *Orthographic Projection*.

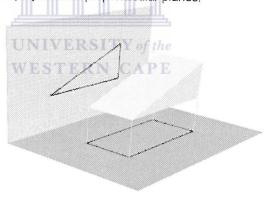
The following greek words mean:

Orthos: means straight, rectangular and upright.

Graphos: written, drawn.
Orthographic: Right-angled Drawing. Projection: Throw Forward (from Latin)

Thus orthographic projection is a method of getting two dimensional inter-related right angled images on a plane.

The image of an object projected on perpendicular planes:



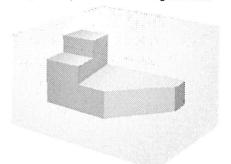
YISI

Jan 2010

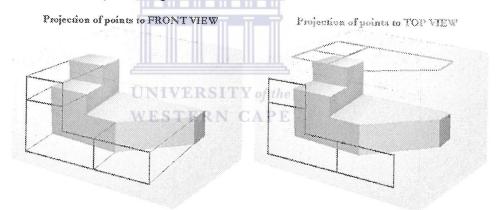
II.3 Approaches

II.3.1 Glass Box Approach

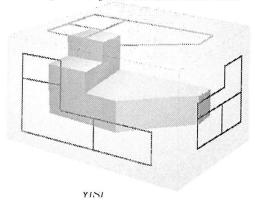
Imagine that you have an object suspended inside a glass box



Now assume that the faces of the object are projected to the surfaces of the glass box that they are facing.



Projection of points to RIGHT SIDE VIEW



.lan 2010

Informed consent form (Teacher)

Title of the research project: Factors influencing student's success in English for Academic Purposes

Researcher:

Karekezi Mironko Beatrice

Contact details:

03654808 or mironko_betty@yahoo.fr

As a Teacher in Kigali Institute of Science and Technology (KIST), I hereby acknowledge the

following:

- 1. The researcher has explained to me the purpose of this study. She also explained to me that all information received as part of the study will be used for research purposes only.
- 2. I have given permission for her to involve me in a face to face interview and if necessary to use or audio- and video recordings.
- 3. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I can withdraw from the study at any stage.
- 4. I understand that the school and all participants in the study will remain anonymous.

Signature:

Date: 24.

Place:

Informed consent form (Teacher)

Title of the research project: Factors influencing student's success in English for Academic Purposes

Researcher:

Karekezi Mironko Beatrice

Contact details:

03654808 or mironko_betty@yahoo.fr

As a Teacher in Kigali Institute of Science and Technology (KIST), I hereby acknowledge the

following:

- 1. The researcher has explained to me the purpose of this study. She also explained to me that all information received as part of the study will be used for research purposes only.
- 2. I have given permission for her to involve me in a face to face interview and if necessary to use or audio- and video recordings.
- 3. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I can withdraw from the study at any stage.
- 4. I understand that the school and all participants in the study will remain anonymous.

Signature:

Date:

Place:

1×1×7 K(2

Appendix Subjects' profile 12:

Teachers' experiences and background

One EAP teacher had a PhD degree, three teachers had Masters' degree, and other six

teachers had Bachelors' degree.

Issue 1: Job history and relationship with other academic staff members

Research questions

1. Can you please talk about your past life until you become an English teacher? How did you

come to do this job?

2. Describe a typical staff meeting? How is your relationship with other staff in the faculty of

science and those in the faculty of technology? How is your relationship with staff in

administration?

3. Given what you have said about your life before you become an English teacher and given

what you have said about your work now, how do you understand teaching English in your

UNIVERSITY of the

life?

Issue 2: Teaching materials

Research question

4. How effective or not effective are The New Cambridge English Course books for learners

in science and technology? What do they offer or do not offer as knowledge that learners in

science and technology departments need? How do you relate these materials to course

specifics (e.g Biology, Engineering, Physics, and so on)?

Issue 3: Teacher feedbacks on writing essays and exam papers,

349

Research question

5. How do you assess learners' essays, dissertations, assignments, and the like? Do you provide feedback to your students? If yes, after how long from date of assessment? What do you give priority to in learners writing assessments? Content? Structure? Organisation? All of them? On what do you base choice? Are there other factors a part from those I have mention above that you consider when you mark learners' writing tasks? Describe a typical teaching of essay writing? How do you help your students cope with writing exams, assignments, theses, etc. in different departments?

Issue 4: Lecture and classroom texts

Research question

6. Describe in details a typical lecture? How do you select texts to be used in the classroom?

Do you use different texts to teach different department students? Which texts do you use?

Do you use general texts or specific texts? Justify your answer

Issue 5: Graduate theses

Research question

7. Explain how you help learners write their theses?

Issue 6: General or Specific purposes

Research question

8. Which one do you think is convenient for your students: English for general academic purposes or English for specific academic purposes? Are both useful? Why or why not? How do you differentiate, for example, a lesson plan for teaching English for communication, and

that of a teaching of English for Engineering? Are the two lesson plans similar or not? Why or why not?

Issue 7: Needs analysis

Research question

9. Do you make needs analysis before start planning your teaching? If yes, how do you do this? Does your teaching vary according to the needs of your students? If yes, Why do you think so?

Issue 8: Academic literacy

Research question

10. What do you think is the role of academic literacy for learners in science and technology?

What do learners get from it that is different from what they bring from secondary schools?

Issues 9: Academic genres

WESTERN CAPE

Research question

11. What are the academic genres that you know? Which of these do you use to teach students at KIST and why?

Issue 10 Text types

Research question

12. What type of texts do you use in teaching? How often do you use image or graphic designs in your teaching? What text genres would be most useful to your students? Do you use research articles in your teaching? If yes. Why? Is there any difference between textbooks and research articles as materials for teaching?

Appendix 13 Students' Consent forms

Inkrview B. 3rd year 5B

Title of the research project: Factors influencing student's success in English for Academic Purposes in a Faculty of Science and Technology in Rwanda

Researcher:

Karekezi Mironko Beatrice

Contact details:

Kigali Institute of Science and Technology, Kigali Rwanda

E-mail: mironko betty@yahoo.fr

Tel: + 250 03654808

As a student at Kigali Institute of Science and Technology (KIST), I hereby acknowledge the

following:

- 1. The researcher has explained to me the purpose of this study. She also explained to me that all information received as part of the study will be used for research purposes only.
- 2. I have given permission for her to observe in my classroom and if necessary to use or audioand video recordings.
- 3. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I can withdraw from the study at any stage.
- 4. I understand that the school and all participants in the study will remain anonymous.

Signed:

Date: 24/09/2008

Place: KIST

Interview B 3rd year T.

Title of the research project: Factors influencing student's success in English for Academic Purposes in a Faculty of Science and Technology in Rwanda

Researcher:

Karekezi Mironko Beatrice

Contact details:

Kigali Institute of Science and Technology, Kigali Rwanda

E-mail: mironko betty@yahoo.fr

Tel: + 250 03654808

As a student at Kigali Institute of Science and Technology (KIST), I hereby acknowledge the

following:

- 1. The researcher has explained to me the purpose of this study. She also explained to me that all information received as part of the study will be used for research purposes only.
- 2. I have given permission for her to observe in my classroom and if necessary to use or audiovideo recordings.
- 3. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I can withdraw from the study at any
- 4. I understand that the school and all participants in the study will remain anonymous.

Title of the research project: Factors influencing student's success in English for Academic Purposes in a Faculty of Science and Technology in Rwanda

Researcher:

Karekezi Mironko Beatrice

Contact details:

Kigali Institute of Science and Technology, Kigali Rwanda

E-mail: mironko betty@yahoo.fr

Tel: + 250 03654808

As a student at Kigali Institute of Science and Technology (KIST), I hereby acknowledge the

following:

- 1. The researcher has explained to me the purpose of this study. She also explained to me that all information received as part of the study will be used for research purposes only.
- 2. I have given permission for her to observe in my classroom and if necessary to use or audiovideo recordings.
- 3. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I can withdraw from the study at any
- 4. I understand that the school and all participants in the study will remain anonymous.

Signed: #\mmo

Date: 24/09/2008 at 2:00 P.M

Place:

interview 1

Title of the research project: Factors influencing student's success in English for Academic Purposes in a Faculty of Science and Technology in Rwanda

Researcher:

Karekezi Mironko Beatrice

Contact details:

Kigali Institute of Science and Technology, Kigali Rwanda

E-mail: mironko betty@yahoo.fr

Tel: + 250 03654808

As a student at Kigali Institute of Science and Technology (KIST), I hereby acknowledge the

following:

- 1. The researcher has explained to me the purpose of this study. She also explained to me that all information received as part of the study will be used for research purposes only.
- 2. I have given permission for her to observe in my classroom and if necessary to use or audioand video recordings.
- 3. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I can withdraw from the study at any stage.
- 4. I understand that the school and all participants in the study will remain anonymous.

Signed

Date: 25th Supl Z

Place: KIST.

Interview E

Consent Form

Title of the research project: Factors influencing student's success in English for Academic Purposes in a Faculty of Science and Technology in Rwanda

Researcher:

Karekezi Mironko Beatrice

Contact details:

Kigali Institute of Science and Technology, Kigali Rwanda

E-mail: mironko_betty@yahoo.fr

Tel: + 250 03654808

As a student at Kigali Institute of Science and Technology (KIST), I hereby acknowledge the

following:

- 1. The researcher has explained to me the purpose of this study. She also explained to me that all information received as part of the study will be used for research purposes only.
- 2. I have given permission for her to observe in my classroom and if necessary to use or audioand video recordings.
- 3. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I can withdraw from the study at any stage.
- 4. I understand that the school and all participants in the study will remain anonymous.

Signed

Date: 23"

Place: K157

356

Interview E

Consent Form

Title of the research project: Factors influencing student's success in English for Academic Purposes in a Faculty of Science and Technology in Rwanda

Researcher:

Karekezi Mironko Beatrice

Contact details:

Kigali Institute of Science and Technology, Kigali Rwanda

E-mail: mironko betty@yahoo.fr

Tel: + 250 03654808

As a student at Kigali Institute of Science and Technology (KIST), I hereby acknowledge the

following:

- 1. The researcher has explained to me the purpose of this study. She also explained to me that all information received as part of the study will be used for research purposes only.
- 2. I have given permission for her to observe in my classroom and if necessary to use or audioand video recordings.
- 3. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I can withdraw from the study at any stage.
- 4. I understand that the school and all participants in the study will remain anonymous.

Signed.

Date: 2th sept. 2008

Place: KIST

interview F

Consent Form

Title of the research project: Factors influencing student's success in English for Academic Purposes in a Faculty of Science and Technology in Rwanda

Researcher:

Karekezi Mironko Beatrice

Contact details:

Kigali Institute of Science and Technology, Kigali Rwanda

E-mail: mironko betty@yahoo.fr

Tel: + 250 03654808

As a student at Kigali Institute of Science and Technology (KIST), I hereby acknowledge the

following:

- The researcher has explained to me the purpose of this study. She also explained to me that all information received as part of the study will be used for research purposes only.
- 2. I have given permission for her to observe in my classroom and if necessary to use or audioand video recordings. I NEVERS III V of the
- 3. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I can withdraw from the study at any stage.
- 4. I understand that the school and all participants in the study will remain anonymous.

Signed:

Date: 25/09/2008

Place: KIST

Appendix 14 Students' Focus Group Discussions Questions and Answers

What kind of things do you learn here at KIST? What is your experience from when you started?

- -In English there are many kinds of things we learned, mostly vocabularies and grammar. In grammar we learned expression that should be used when we are expressing ourselves, vowels, nouns, then we learned speaking and listening, In secondary schools we did it. We learned many things but especially as we are in technology, ok, we learn English for technology.
- I think the purpose of studying English is well but the way it is taught, the way it is given is not well, sometime a lecture does not come on time and at that time you get a the work but there are no feedback. Ours is good but the way they are used are not good. Other thing is that we have started studying English from our primary school in which they teach us grammar and other purposes and if we come here in KIST lecturers also continue to teach us the same as in, so it is....for example we have studied plural and here also it repeat.
- According to me, I think the 'way English is taught here at KIST is not quite different from the way this is taught in our high schools' and in high schools we studied general English meaning English for communication purposes, English which can help you to introduce ourselves and 'here I think the program could be changed'. Here we are in academic institutions we want to know how an academic institution goes on with this courses. I think the way this course is taught here is the same but English for academic purposes is quite different. I think English for academic purposes will lead you how to write, how to correct some errors, how to use grammatical rules in writing, how to use the corrections in your writing. In high schools we studied how we can use our grammar rules.

- Thank you, according to me I just say its like nothing new which we have seen at KIST because what we seen in secondary schools are the same thing we are seeing here and the other problem is that even our lecturers don't really follow the syllabus. Like in listening they can just bring some radios but really they don't tell us where making some mistakes and when you are writing some essay or whatever they don't bring back those papers so that you see where you did well.
- According to my personal experience of English course I think that there is no change as my friends said before. When I was in secondary school one of the reason I chose to come to KIST was because I wanted to improve my knowledge in my English but now I can say that there is no change the my knowledge is still the same. My courses are given in English but my personal knowledge in English does not change.
- -According to me the way teachers prepare exams without knowing that there are some classes which have not studied some of those programs and give us the same exam papers to or the, they prepare the exams which is the same for all the classes.
- As I considered English syllabus should be as small as possible. But when we read for examination period some classes say they didn't finish the program like us we spent some days without studying English. So, I see the lecturers of English don't take care for the lessons.
- I think the purpose of studying English is well but the way it is given is not well, sometime lecturer does not come on time, you get the work but there are no feedback. Other thing is that we have started studying English from primary school in which they teach us grammar and other and when we came here at KIST lecturers also continue to teach us the same thing that we have studiedI mean grammar, grammar, for example we have studied plural and here also it is repeated.

- I think, according to me, I think the way English is taught here at KIST is not quite different from the way this is taught in our high schools and I think in High schools we studied general English meaning English for communication purposes, and here I think the program could be changed. Here we are in an academic institution we want to know how academic institutions going on with this course and I think the way this course is taught here is the same but I think generally English for academic purposes and general English is quite different. I think English for academic purposes will lead you to how to write, how to correct some errors, how to use grammatical rules and writing, how to use the corrections in your writing and high schools we studied how to write, how to use grammar rules. Thank you.
- Thank you, according to me I just say its like nothing new which we have seen at KIST because what we seen in secondary schools are the same thing we are seeing here at KIST and the other problem is that even our lecturers don't really follow the syllabus, like in listening they can just bring some radios but really they don't tell us where we make mistakes and when you are writing some essay or whatever they don't bring back those papers so that you see where you did well. And I will like to suggest that if possible its better when they make a follow up
- According to me personal experience of English course I think that there is no change as my friends said before. When I was in secondary school one of the reason which pushed me to choose KIST was because I wanted to improve my knowledge in English but now I can say that there is no change my knowledge is still the same. My courses are given in English but my personal English does not change, improve.
- According to me the way some teachers prepare exams without knowing that some classes haven't studied that program and the exam paper is the same for all classes. Some classes (e.g. 1st years are put in groups and taught the same programme by different teachers).

- As I considered English syllabus should be small as possible but when we read for examination there is a problem. Some classes say that they didn't finish the program because they spent some weeks without studying. I see the lecturers of English don't care for their lessons.
- I think the purpose of studying English is well but the way it is given is not well, sometime lecturer does not come on time, you get the work but there are no feedback. Other thing is that we have started studying English from primary school in which they teach us grammar and other and when we came here at KIST lecturers also continue to teach us the same thing that we have studiedI mean grammar, grammar, for example we have studied plural and here also it is repeated.
- I think, according to me, I think the way English is taught here at KIST is not quite different from the way this is taught in our high schools and I think in High schools we studied general English meaning English for communication purposes, and here I think the program could be changed. Here we are in an academic institution we want to know how academic institutions going on with this course and I think the way this course is taught here is the same but I think generally English for academic purposes and general English is quite different. I think English for academic purposes will lead you to how to write, how to correct some errors, how to use grammatical rules and writing, how to use the corrections in your writing and high schools we studied how to write, how to use grammar rules. Thank you.
- Thank you, according to me I just say its like nothing new which we have seen at KIST because what we seen in secondary schools are the same thing we are seeing here at KIST and the other problem is that even our lecturers don't really follow the syllabus, like in listening they can just bring some radios but really they don't tell us where we make mistakes and when you are writing some essay or whatever they don't bring back those papers so that

you see where you did well. And I will like to suggest that if possible its better when they make a follow up

- According to me personal experience of English course I think that there is no change as my friends said before. When I was in secondary school one of the reason which pushed me to choose KIST was because I wanted to improve my knowledge in English but now I can say that there is no change my knowledge is still the same. My courses are given in English but my personal English does not change, improve.
- According to me the way some teachers prepare exams without knowing that some classes haven't studied that program and the exam paper is the same for all classes. Some classes (e.g. 1st years are put in groups and taught the same programme by different teachers).
- As I considered English syllabus should be small as possible but when we read for examination there is a problem. Some classes say that they didn't finish the program because they spent some weeks without studying. I see the lecturers of English don't care for their lessons.
- 2. What kind of texts do you read? Where are they from where? How long are they? What kind of exercises or task do you do with the texts? How do you find them? In which way do they help you improve your English? Can you think about anything else that I should know about English?

Answers

-Texts we read relate to our field of Civil Engineering, we did this in second year. Sometimes you have to understand that we are very tired. We go to the library, take a book there and you try to read for some historical points.

- -The text that we read is normally short, I can say two pages. We use to summarize any small book like a novel, summary of two or three pages.
- The text we read is to summarized the main ideas and to check if we understand the content on of the text, sometimes in the text there are new words and they are given in the box and you are asked to use them and I don't know and sentences
- Other thing is the way of pronunciation, the Cambridge books are taken from UK... We learn those texts in order to know how the words are pronounced. Yea I think so.
- Especially, the first year was fine but the second year I don't know if the lecturer did know what to do, but the lecturer in first year encouraged us to study the course, sometime they are excited and interested in it. About the exercise that is done in the classroom, we read 'it is a long story'. What I can say now is that some of us have come from different schools, yes for me it very difficult, I am weak. Yes I think it is because I did not understand English in secondary school. Yes, in secondary school we had two hours per week to study English. As someone who has been studying in English for the first time you can't get anything from two hours

Appendix 15 Findings/Issues

- 1. Students in the Faculty of Science and Technology learn grammar phonology, and read texts on general topics
- 2. EAP course does not concentrate on speaking, reading and writing
- 3. No improvement compared to English studied in secondary school
- 4. EAP teachers do not seriously do their job (absence, late for teaching)
- 5. Short time for EAP classes (2 hrs a week for one Semester)
- 6. Teachers do not provide feedback (only 1 teacher out of 10 teachers does in 3rd year only)
- 7. No EAP handout/syllabus or course notes
- 8. The new Cambridge English Course (NCEC) material is too big to cover and does not address students' needs

WESTERN CAPE

- 9. No big room to accommodate 60 100 students (40 sit, others stand)
- 10. Subject teachers do not help students develop their English knowledge, no feedback on language mistakes
- 11. Students are not exposed to texts related to their field courses
- 12. Different teachers use different teaching materials but all classes write similar exam
- 13. Most teachers and the administration do not consider that most students are studying English for the first tine
- 14. English teachers are not regular because they have part time teaching jobs in more than one institution

- 15. For students, English is the last course to give consideration
- 16. Students dodge English classes because the learn exactly the same thing they have learnt in secondary school
- 17. Exams are set on what was not taught
- 18. Students believe that because English is not credited, that why teachers and students neglect it
- 19. Students in science and technology are not taught academic writing
- 20. Students are not exposed to classroom debates or group discussions
- 21. Texts from the NCEC Text books are not relevant to their field of study and too long to cover
- 24. No feedback on the part of both teachers in KIST language Center teachers of sciences
- 25. Students believe that if they were given feedback, they would improve their writing
- 26. Teachers of the courses in different departments give feedback on calculation issues not on language mistakes
- 27 There is an assumption that teachers of English do not know anything

about students' field courses. 'How can they teach us English when they do not understand not know our courses?

- 28. Most teachers in their departments cannot help them improve their English because themselves do not master it well (Rwandese, Chinese, Indians, Russians...). 'Sometimes they make mistakes in front of us'
- 29. Most students have come for the first time into contact with English only at tertiary

- 30. Students are not given academic texts in reading or writing activities (e.g texts on engineering domain)
- 31. Once outside the class, students are unable to practice English
- 32. Students suggest the change of the existing programme (from NCEC to academic English)
- 32. In 1st years classes are taught from 16.00 19.00 when students are already tired
- 33. The kind of texts students are given for reading and writing are from novels and general issues
- 34. Students find not helpful the kind of task they are given. The tasks are not helping to improve the English in their respective courses
- 35. The disadvantage put forward about EAP course is that it does not in any way respond to the needs of their departmental courses ('only grammar, phonology, writing memos', application letters...)
- 36. Some students in 3rd year believe they don't need EAP
- 42. Teachers of English are not proud of their career
- 43. Students think they don't get feedback from their teachers because they were trained in the same way (did not get feedback as well when they were still students)
- 44. The kind of writing students do in English: memos, application letters, essays, grammar exercises...)
- 45. Because in exam students are allowed to choose 2 among 5 or 6 questions, they prefer questions that require reproducing exactly what is in their

- 46. Materials (NCEC + EAP) do not concentrate on speaking, reading and writing
- 47. Teachers do not provide EAP handouts to students
- 48. EAP teachers use the same material to teach students in different departments
- 49. EAP teachers are irregular in class
- 50. Teachers do not give reading activities
- 51. No interest in learning EAP because it is not credited
- 52. Taught different things but write similar exams.
- 53. No tasks on science-related topics

